

**MENTORING, GENDER AND IDEOLOGICAL
PERSPECTIVES: A CASE STUDY**

**Dissertation Submitted to the
Institute of Social Sciences
in partial satisfaction of the requirements for
the degree of**

**Doctor of Philosophy
in
Management**

By

RANA ÖZEN

Bogazici University Library



39001100086381

14

Boğaziçi University

1998

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to gratefully thank my mentor Prof. Dr. Hayat E. Kabasakal; who has dedicated valuable time and effort and show admirable understanding and also has been of invaluable help to me during the preparation of this project.

I also would like to express my sincere thanks to Prof. Dr. Suna Tevruz for taking time to read this work, for kindly accepting to be a committee member and for her valuable contributions.

I also wish to express my special thanks to Yrd. Doç. Dr. Arzu İşeri for her friendly, supportive and professional approach and for her valuable contributions.

I am grateful to my parents for the support and encouragement which they have always given me.

Finally, I would like to express my sincere thanks to my husband for his support and for the admirable understanding he has shown me throughout this study.

VITA

Rana Özen was born in Istanbul, in 1968. She is graduated from Istanbul Technical University, Department of Managerial Engineering in 1989, and she was tenth among the graduates. She prepared a graduation thesis about "ATMs in Banking Sector and a Field Work". She had MA. degree from the Institution Social Sciences of ITU in 1992; and she was the first among the graduates. The title of her MA thesis was: "Job Evaluation and an Application in Automotive Complementary Industry". In the same year, she entered the doctoral program in the Institute of Social Sciences in Boğaziçi University.

She worked as an research assistant in division of Management and Organization in department of Managerial Engineering in ITU., between 1991-1994.

Her unpublished articles:

* "İşletmelerin İşletme Kültürü Açısından Farklılıklarının İncelenmesi", İşletmecilik Kongresi, in Silivri, in 1993.

* "Quality of Work Life Interventions", presented in IV. Ulusal İşletmecilik Kongresi, in Eskişehir, in 1993.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to find out the differences of mentoring relationship in a different organizational setting than described in the literature. This organization is characterized by its strong values that are shared by its members who have ideological bonds among them. The organization operates in the education sector, and it is one of private preparatory institutions for central university examination. The sample for this study consists of a total 34 respondents (17 dyads) composed of 16 female and 18 male teachers. In-depth interviews with dyads are conducted in Turkish. Additional interviews are conducted with the General Manager, unit managers of the institution, 11 members of staff, and 50 students and 50 parents as customers of the institution.

The results of this study indicated that different mentoring relationships and different mentor types may be defined in a different organizational setting. The research was also formed on the differences about mentoring, and related factors. Different concepts were defined, and some unexpected findings were found in the organization.

There is a formal mentoring program and a study group system in the institution. "Performance" is important as well as "ideological similarity" in the relationship between mentors and protégés. "Dominance of men" and "sex segregation" are different properties of the institution.

It is seen that, new concepts that are observed in this organization were related to the experience of mentoring relationship. The new concepts, such as "togetherness", "altruism", "self-sacrifice", "trying to be a pure-bred horse", "being wise leader", "trying to do good things", "to give alms for knowledge", "co-religionist perspective", "working for God's sake", "transferring moral and ethical values", "ideological fit" and "consultation climate" appears to bring new dimensions to mentoring relationships in the organization.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, literatürde tanımlanandan farklı bir örgüt ortamındaki hamilik ilişkisinin farklılıklarını bulmaktır. Bu örgüt, aralarında ideolojik bir bağ bulunan üyelerinin paylaştığı güçlü değerlerle karakterize edilmiştir. Örgüt, eğitim sektöründe faaliyet göstermektedir ve üniversite sınavına hazırlık kurslarından biridir. Bu çalışma, 16'sı kadın ve 18'i erkek öğretmenlerden oluşan toplam 34 kişiyi (17 çifti) kapsamaktadır. Çiftlerle Türkçe olarak derinlemesine mülakat yapılmıştır. Ayrıca, örgütün Genel Müdürü ile, iki şubenin müdürleri ile, 11 görevli memur ile ve örgütün müşterileri olarak 50 öğrenci ve 50 ebeveyn ile de mülakatlar yapılmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları farklı bir örgüt ortamında farklı hami tiplerinin ve farklı hamilik ilişkilerinin tanımlanabileceğini göstermiştir. Bu yüzden de araştırma, hamilik ve onunla ilgili faktörlerdeki farklılıklar üzerine kurulmuştur. Örgütte, farklı kavramlar tanımlanmış ve bazı beklenmedik bulgularla karşılaşılmuştur.

Örgütte yapısal bir hamilik programı ve bir çalışma grubu (zümre) sistemi mevcuttur. Hamilerle onların himayesindekiler arasındaki ilişkilerde "performans" "ideolojilerin benzeşmesi" kadar önemlidir. "Erkeklerin hakimiyeti" ve "cinsiyet ayrımı" kurumun farklı özelliklerindendir.

Örgütte gözlenen yeni kavramların hamilik ilişkisine bağlı olduğu görülmüştür. Çünkü "birlik, beraberlik", "diğergamlık", "kendini feda edebilme", "bir küheylan gibi olmaya çalışma", "bilge bir lider olma", "hayırlı işler yapmaya çalışma", "bilginin zekatını verme çabası", "din kardeşliği", "Allah rızası için çalışmak", "milli manevi değerleri aktarma gayreti", "ideolojik uyum" ve "istişare ortamı" gibi kavramlar örgütteki hamilik ilişkisine yeni boyutlar getirmektedir.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
VITA	iv
ABSTRACT	v
ÖZET	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xi
INTRODUCTION	1
1. The Mentor Concept and Mentoring	4
1.1. The Concept of a Mentor	4
1.2. The Concept of a Protégé	6
1.3. Mentor Roles and Secondary Mentors	7
1.4. Definition of Mentoring	14
1.5. Developmental Functions of Mentoring	21
1.6. Formal versus Informal Mentorships	27
1.7. Advantages and Disadvantages of Formal Mentoring	34
2. Gender and Mentoring	39
2.1. Benefits of Mentoring Relationship for Women	39
2.2. Barriers to Mentoring	41
2.3. Gender Differences in Mentoring Relationships	47
3. Networking and Mentoring	58
3.1. Instrumental versus Expressive Network Ties	59
3.2. Tie Strength	65
3.3. Formal versus Informal Network Structures	70

	<u>Page</u>
4. Teacher Mentoring	78
4.1. Socialization in Teacher Mentoring	87
4.2. Gender in Teacher Mentoring	89
4.3. Age in Teacher Mentoring	93
5. Qualitative Research (An Extreme Case Study)	95
5.1. Research Design and Methodology	95
5.1.1. Research Objectives	95
5.1.2. Research Questions	95
5.1.3. Industrial Analysis	97
5.1.4. Data Collection Method	99
5.1.5. Organizational Analysis	100
5.1.6. Determination of Dyads	122
5.1.7. Questions of In-depth Interview with Dyads	125
5.2. Findings About Mentoring	127
5.3. New Concepts	147
6. Summary and Conclusions	153
6.1. Summary	153
6.2. Conclusions	155
REFERENCES	170
APPENDIX 1: Exhibit1.	185
APPENDIX 2: Tables of Demographics	186

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table 1. Asking the Ideas of the Teachers	114
Table 2. Entrance the Institution.	128
Table 3. Reasons for Preferring to Work at the Organization	129
Table 4. Positive Events in Career Life	130
Table 5. Importance of Mentoring in the Institution	131
Table 6. Working Reasons of the Teachers	132
Table 7. Mentoring Experience Before	133
Table 8. Determination of Current Mentors/Protégés	133
Table 9. Protégés' Explanations about their Mentors	134
Table 10. Mentors' Explanations about their Protégés	135
Table 11. Mentor Types	136
Table 12. Protégé Types	137
Table 13. Important Activities in Supporting Functions	138
Table 14. Activities of Mentors	139
Table 15. Wants from Mentors/Protégés	140
Table 16. Important Features of Mentors/Protégés	141
Table 17. Similarity Between Mentors and Protégés	141
Table 18. Reasons for Working with Dissimilar Mentors/Protégés	142
Table 19. Working Duration with Dissimilar Mentors/Protégés	143
Table 20. Advantages of Mentoring Relationship for Protégés	143
Table 21. Advantages of Mentoring Relationship for Mentors	144
Table 22. Disadvantages of Mentoring Relationship	145
Table 23. Reasons for Entering Mentoring Relationship in the Future	146
Table 24. Gender and Mentoring in the Institution	159

INTRODUCTION

Recent studies indicate that mentoring relationship plays a significant role in career development, career satisfaction, and organizational development. Advancement to powerful positions in organizational settings may be based upon a successful development of mentoring relationship. Mentoring relationships are particularly critical for women by means of advancement in organizational settings. Peer relationships may appear more likely to stand as an alternative as the hierarchical status in organizations enable individuals to have more peers than mentors.

This study analyzes mentoring relationship in a different organization with strong organizational values sharing ideologies. For this research a different organization which has Islamic values, is determined, and the differences of mentoring relationship intra-dyads are explained.

The data is collected from primary sources by in-depth interviews with dyads. The in-depth interviews are conducted in Turkish with the respondents in the

institution and the in-depth interviews lasted three or four hours.

The sample contains 34 respondents composed of 16 females and 18 males. There are 7 female and 10 male mentors; 9 female and 8 male protégés in the study. 17 dyads are determined in the institution.

The first chapter is a review of the mentor concept and mentoring. In this chapter after the definitions of mentor and protégé, mentoring is defined and developmental functions of mentoring is concerned. Then, formal versus informal mentorships are summarized, and advantages and disadvantages of formal mentoring are listed.

The second chapter of this study covers gender and mentoring, its benefits and barriers for women are explained. Gender differences in mentoring relationships is focused.

In the third chapter, networking theory is explained, and instrumental versus expressive network ties, tie strength, and formal versus informal network structures are described.

The fourth chapter consists of socialization, gender, and age factor in teacher mentoring in detail.

The fifth chapter of this study covers the qualitative research which includes an extreme case study. In this chapter research objectives and questions are determined. There are industrial and organizational analyses, data collection method, determination of dyads, and questions of in-depth interviews with dyads. In addition to these, findings about mentoring relationship is also explained in this chapter.

Finally, the sixth chapter includes summary and conclusions of the study.

1. The Mentor Concept and Mentoring

1.1. The Concept of a Mentor

The term "mentor" was derived from Homer's *Odyssey*. In this myth, Odysseus has entrusted his son, Telemachus, to his friend and advisor. The mythical guardian's name was Mentor. Therefore, the term mentor historically denotes a trusted guide and counselor, and the mentor - protégé relationship, a deep and meaningful association.

Schein (1978) has resolved the mentor term; today it is used loosely to mean teacher, coach, trainer, positive role model, opener of doors, protector, sponsor, and successful leader. In modern day terms, mentors are influential people who significantly help individuals for reaching major life goals. They have the power to promote one's welfare, training or career. The mentors take the younger persons under their wing, invite them into a new occupational world care, sponsor and critique them.

A mentor is an experienced adult who befriends and guides a less experienced adult (Phillips-Jones, 1982). According to Kram (1985), a mentor is an experienced, productive manager who relates well to a less-experienced employee and facilitates his/her personal development for

the benefit of the individual as well as that of the organization. Mentors may provide new training techniques, and they may be counselors, friends, career coaches, trainers, and confronters for their mentees.

The mentor recognizes a uniqueness or potential in the less experienced person and takes a special interest in the growth of that person. Likewise, the protégé admires or values the experience, knowledge, skill, or behavior of the mentor and wishes to emulate this. Mentors model desirable qualities or behaviors; they teach and share knowledge; they provide guidance or advice; they actively listen to thoughts and feelings; they provide support and encouragement; they promote protégés to others; and mentors make a special commitment of time, energy, and interest in the protégé's growth (Searcy, Leelawson, Trombino, 1995).

They may be role-models for their protégés by teaching special ways to collecting information, contacting with other workers. Mentors usually are eight to fifteen years older than their protégés who frequently are young professionals with high career aspirations (Hunt & Michael, 1983). They guide their protégés by sharing valuable advice on roles to play and behaviors to avoid (Davis, Newstrom, 1989). Mentors, receive internal satisfaction from passing their skills and wisdom on to

their mentees. They are people in positions of influence or authority. They are best utilized as advisers (Bittel, Newstrom, 1990). Organizations should promote mentor relationships and provide sufficient time for the mentor and the new employee to meet on a regularly scheduled basis (Cascio, 1989).

In recent years, many organizations have begun assigning mentors to women and minorities. The purpose of the mentoring program is to help support members of a diverse group in their jobs, socialize them in the cultural values of the organization, and help their chances for development and advancement. Mentors provide instruction in specific skills and knowledge critical to successful job performance; help in understanding the unwritten rules of the organization; answer questions and provide important insights; offer emotional support; serve as a role model; and create an environment in which mistakes can be made without losing self-confidence (Luthans, 1995).

1.2. The Concept of a Protégé

The word "**protégé**" is taken from the French verb, *protéger*, to protect. A protégé is a person who is helped to reach his/her career and life goals by a mentor. Other popular synonyms of protégé are: mentee, candidate, apprentice, advisee, counselee, trainee, student,

follower, subordinate, applicant, hopeful, and seeker. A good protégé can also advance the career of a mentor. For example, successful mentor-protégé relationships may establish a power base on which the senior manager can build a career (Dreher & Ash, 1990).

Protégés have willingness to assume responsibility for their own growth and development. They also have assessed potential to succeed at one or more levels above the present position in the organization, and ability to perform in more than one skill area. Protégés have a record of seeking challenging assignments and new responsibilities; and receptivity to feedback and coaching. Often, the protégé attracts the attention of the mentor through outstanding job performance or similarity in interests or hobbies. Also, the protégé may seek out a more experienced organizational member to help answer work-related questions (Noe, 1988).

1.3. Mentor Roles and Secondary Mentors

Traditional Mentors are usually older bosses, although they can also be teachers, producers or even family members who serve as protectors and parent figures for their protégés. They play a very supportive role, nurturing their protégés for a long period of time. Many want to make their protégés' decisions for them, fight their battles, protect them from failure.

Although traditional long-term mentors still exist and can still be the answer for some people, the concept of a modern mentor is changing. The great majority of successful people today are so career-mobile, independent and adventuresome that they have not needed the old-time mentor. By their actions, they have helped redefine the whole concept of mentoring and have made clever use of series of "functional career helpers" to suit their ever-changing needs (Phillips-Jones, 1982).

Supportive Bosses are the most common of all career mentors. They are the closest of all to the traditional mentor. They also act as teachers and guides, but instead of serving as long-term protectors and advocates, they function more as coaches. They may also be "**mobile superiors**".

The distinguishing characteristic of the mobile superior is that s/he is moving up the organization's ladder with lightning speed. It is not unusual for these people to move from position to position every two or three years. These people often take their protégés with them on their meteoric climbs, provided the protégés have developed into crucial subordinates.

Organization Sponsors, unlike the typical supportive boss, have reached the top echelon of management. In that position of power, they have a major say in deciding if their protégés will be chosen few promoted to these coveted ranks. From such sponsors, important skills and political support can be assured.

Professional Career Mentors are the certified career counselors, psychologists, publicists, agents, personnel managers, instructors and other people who offer career mentoring as all or part of their regular paid jobs. They encourage the protégés endlessly, reassure them, comfort them, and counsel them.

Patrons are the people who use their money or other material clout (often their standing in the community) to launch their protégés on the protégés' way. They may finance or support their protégés while the protégés learn trade, go to college, write books, make films or start own business.

Shapiro et. al. (1977), call patrons as protectors, benefactors, sponsors, champions, advocates, supporters, and advisors. They defined the "patron system" as comprised of a range of advisory.

Invisible Godparents are people who directly help the protégés reach their career goals. They are the "secret" mentors in protégés' life. Although the average protégé does not approach one of them for help directly, they nevertheless get as much out of their actions as they would had a direct contact been made. They are perhaps the most rarefied of all mentor figures, but their effects can be wide ranging indeed. They do not exist, however, and a protégé just might discover a silent helper somewhere along the way.

Secondary Mentors: There are at least three other kinds of helpers that can provide mentoring for the protégés. Many people do not call them "mentors", because their influence is usually less significant than that of the mentors described. They are called as "**secondary mentors**" (Phillips-Jones, 1982). They have a less powerful effect on protégés' career, but they are helpful in certain ways or at particular times fulfilling specific needs for protégés. People may have several secondary mentors at any given time. "**Secondary mentors**" have a less powerful effect on their protégés' career, but they are helpful in certain ways or at particular times, fulfilling specific needs for their protégés.

Secondary mentoring is a shorter, less intense, less inclusive developmental process involving multiple

relationships, each offering specialized developmental functions (Phillips-Jones, 1982; Zey, 1984). Secondary mentoring is easier for young employees to come by than classical, primary mentoring (Kram, 1986). People in the early career stages have secondary developmental relationships (Whitely et. al., 1991).

Some of the secondary mentors will be listed below.

Peer strategizer group is comprised basically of friends, neighbors, co-workers, and lovers outside of the family unit. They help the protégés plan and implement their career goals. They may help the protégés in making decisions about their career stages. They can be enormously useful as listeners and idea generators.

Unsuspecting-hero Role Models can even turn into regular mentors. This group is the reverse of the invisible godparent. They give mentees help without knowing it themselves. Many people may speak of heroes and heroines who have a major impact on their lives.

Family Career Mentors are family members who serve as mentors. Mentees can use them in reaching their important life goals. Most people point to their **parents** as being very influential on their careers. Family career mentors are may be fathers, mothers, grand-

fathers, grand-mothers, sisters, brothers, or wives, husbands and even children of protégés.

Career favor-doers are the most prevalent career helpers. They dispense a variety of career favors, often as one shot deals sometimes to protégés. Successful people usually have a pool of such helpers.

These new and diversified roles for mentors can change over short periods of time. For example, a supervisor may begin as a supportive boss and later blossom into a full-fledged traditional mentor.

Shapiro et. al. (1978) identified a continuum for mentor-protégé relationships. According to this perspective everyone cannot have a mentor role immediately, a continuum is necessary for being a mentor. This continuum starts with "**guides**". These individuals are less able than mentors and sponsors to fulfill the roles of benefactor, protector, or champion to their protégés. Their primary functions are to point out pitfalls to be avoided and shortcuts to be pursued, and generally to provide valuable intelligence to their protégés. "**Sponsors**" serve as the two-thirds point on this continuum. They are strong patrons but less powerful than mentors in promoting and shaping the careers of their protégés. "**Peer pals**" serve as the third point on

the continuum. This term describes the relationship between peers helping each other to succeed and progress. Through sharing information and strategies and providing sounding boards and advice for one another, peer pals help each other while helping themselves.

According to Shapiro et. al. (1978), within this patron system the mentor-protégé dyad is a special kind of relationship. The mentor-protégé relationship is restrictive comes with strings attached. The mentor side of the continuum tend to be more hierarchical and parental, more intensive and exclusionary, and therefore, without value judgement, more elitist. Correspondingly, the "peer pal" side of the continuum tend to be more egalitarian and peer related, less intense and exclusionary, and therefore potentially more democratic.

In this continuum, they suggest that peer pals and guides are more congruent with the feminist notion of women helping other women within an egalitarian framework. While mentors introduce their protégés to established networks, peer pals often create their own "new order" networks. Relationships on the peer pal side of the continuum provide greater latitude than mentor-protégé dyads, and they can be more easily created or restructured to meet the needs of particular women. While in the mentor-protégé dyad the mentor is always the

patron, in peer-pal relationships each participant acts sometimes as protégé and sometimes as patron (Shapiro et. al., 1978).

1.4. Definition of Mentoring

Mentoring is viewed as a **special relationship** that develops between two individuals. Mentoring is a deliberate pairing of a more skilled or experienced person with a lesser skilled or experienced one. Mentoring is a kind of helping and assisting of experienced personnel to new, inexperienced one. Mentoring relationship includes training, role-modeling, coaching, support, and sponsorship. Mentoring relationships are important for both mentors and protégés (mentees). For mentees, mentoring relationships are related to their job satisfaction, self-confidence, and development. From the mentor's perspective, mentoring is related to their career development, and being a good mentor may increase their prestige in their sector. There are several activities about the mentoring activity (Anderson & Shannon, 1988). Mentoring is an intentional, nurturing, insightful, supportive and protective process. Levinson's (1978) study of adult males shows that the mentor plays an important role in the young adult's development. A mentor can be of great practical help to a young man as he seeks to find his way gain new skills. But a good mentor is helpful in a more basic,

developmental sense. The mentor provides a sense of belonging to the generation of promising young men. S/he serves various benefits to be gained from serious, mutual non-sexual loving relationship with a somewhat older man or woman.

New employees often learn an organization's unwritten rules- the ''ropes'' through one-on-one relationships with workplace colleagues or mentors. Increasingly, organizations are implementing mentoring programs to foster supportive work relationships-and evaluators are being called on to assess them. The complex and long-term nature of mentoring programs presents unique challenges to evaluators. To meet these challenges Morzinski and Fisher (1996) suggest an evaluation model that attends to local audience needs and addresses four evaluation stages: (1) context evaluation, for assessing **needs, objectives and organizational support**; (2) design evaluation, to assess mentor and protégé **characteristics**, the process for pairing the mentor and protégé, the program duration, activities and **recognition/rewards** for participants; (3) implementation stage evaluation, to monitor **activities, feedback and revisions**; and (4) product evaluation, to assess systematically the planned and unplanned outcomes that consist of program reactions, learning, behavior change, and impact (Morzinski, Fisher, 1996).

Kram (1983), describes four phases of the mentoring relationship: **initiation** (the relationship is started), **cultivation** (the range of functions provided expands to maximum), **separation** (the nature of the relationship is altered by structural changes in the organizational context or by psychological changes within one or both individuals), and **redefinition** (the relationship evolves a new form that is different from the past, or the relationship ends entirely). Examination of these phases highlights the psychological and organizational factors that influence which career and psychosocial function are provided. The initiation phase takes six or twelve months; fantasies turn into expectations that are met; senior manager provides coaching, challenging work, and visibility; and the protégé provides technical assistance, respect, and desire to be coached. This first phase is routinely entered into by the supervisor and new supervisee in social work agency settings. Kram reports that during the first year of the mentoring relationship, (which in the social work profession is formally required for all professional training experiences), the dyad's "strong positive thoughts result in behavior which encourages ongoing and significant relationship varies... experiences during the initiation phase have much in common. Each individuals gains valuable experiences through interaction with the other" (Kram, 1985, p.512).

Initial interactions that create and support positive expectations occur in a variety of contexts. Direct hire interviews, informal interaction around common work tasks, and a direct reporting through recommendations from peers encourage the senior manager to seek out the young protégé as a potential subordinate. Working on common business task receiving recommendations from significant others, discussing department's performance and seeking solutions to the department's concerns eventually reinforces each party to develop an increasingly positive expectation. Moreover, a balance is constructed on both sides. While the young manager highly values and begins to look towards the senior manager to support and guidance, the senior manager begins to provide developmental opportunities (Kram, 1983). Differences in the critical initiation stage are likely to affect later stages and the functions mentors provide to their protégés (Chao, Walz & Gardner, 1992).

Aryee et. al. (1996), examined the influence of **individual and situational characteristics** on the motivation to mentor. The significant findings indicate that the motivation to mentor may be predicted by individual characteristics (altruism, positive affectivity), situational characteristics (employee development- linked reward system and opportunities for

interaction on the job), and their interaction terms (opportunities for interaction on the job and altruism).

In theories, mentoring is an important developmental key component. According to Levinson (1978), mentoring is a crucial activity during the individual's mid-life transition. The mid-life transition may lead to decreased organizational commitment, involvement, satisfaction, and performance. Mentoring leads professionals to question the importance of work in their lives, and provides challenge and growth. Therefore, willingness to initiate a mentoring relationship will be strongest in the **mid-career** years. **Age**, and **organizational rank**, may affect willingness to mentor (Ragins, 1993). Additionally, as Kram (1985) hypothesized, **previous mentorship experience** (as a mentor, or as a protégé) may influence willingness to mentor. Individuals may be willing to overcome anticipated barriers in order to obtain a valued mentoring relationship (Ragins, 1993).

Factors thought to be related to intention to mentor and perceived barriers to mentoring (i.e., willingness to mentor) were examined among 607 state government supervisors by Allen et. al. (1997). **Previous experience** as a **mentor**, previous experience as a **protégé**, **education level**, and **quality of relationship with supervisor** were

related to willingness to mentor others. Additionally, **age, locus of control, and upward striving** were related to supervisors' intention to mentor others, but not to their perceptions of barriers to mentoring others. Job-induced tension was related to perceived barriers to mentoring, but not to intention to mentor others.

Several empirical studies have focused on organizational **outcomes of mentorships**. Riley and Wrench (1985), found that the truly mentored group reported significantly higher levels of **career success** and **satisfaction** than the group that was not mentored. Fagenson's (1988) study of **power** found protégés reported having more power than people without mentors. Fagenson (1989) found people who were mentored reported higher levels of satisfaction, **career mobility**, and a higher **rate of promotion** compared with people who were not mentored. Dreher and Ash (1990) found that business school graduates with extensive mentoring relationships reported more **promotions**, higher **incomes**, and higher **pay satisfaction** and **benefits satisfaction** than their counterparts with less mentoring experiences. Whitely, Dougherty and Dreher (1991) found career mentoring practices to be significantly related to **compensation** and number of promotions. Corzine et. al. (1994) assessed the effects of mentoring on career development as well as on **salary** and **job-satisfaction** in the turbulent U.S. Banking industry.

Chao et. al. (1992), emphasizes three outcomes: **Organizational socialization, job satisfaction, and salary.** The organizational socialization measured on six dimensions: (1) **Performance proficiency:** the extent to which the individual has learned the tasks involved on the job; (2) **People:** the extent to which the individual has established successful and satisfying work relationships with organizational members; (3) **Politics:** the individual's success in gaining information regarding formal and informal work relationships and power structures within the organization; (4) **Language:** the individual's knowledge of the profession's technical language as well as knowledge of the acronyms, slang, and jargon that are unique to the organization; (5) **Organizational Goals and Values:** the individual's understanding of the rules or principles which relate to the maintenance of the integrity of the organization and knowledge of unwritten of informal goals and values; (6) **History:** the individual's knowledge of the traditions, customs, myths, and rituals that are used to perpetuate a particular type of organizational member. Results indicated protégés in informal mentorships reported more career-related support from their mentors and higher salaries than protégés in formal mentorships. For all outcome variables, protégés in informal mentorships also reported more favorable outcomes than non-mentored individuals. However, outcomes from protégés in formal

mentorships were generally not significant from the other two groups.

1.5. Developmental Functions of Mentoring

Levinson cites, the role of a mentor as critical in the fulfillment of a young man's dream (ego ideal) in terms of both professional and emotional development.

The developmental functions which a mentor provides within a mentoring relationship may be classified in two main groups: Career-related Functions and Psychosocial Functions (Kram, 1983). Career-related Functions included providing sponsorship, exposure, visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments (activities which directly relate to the protégé's career advancement). The second one contains role-modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship (activities that influence the protégé's self-image and competence). Kram (1983) focused on the link between these functions and phases of mentorship. She concluded that career-related functions emerged first and psychosocial functions became more important in later phases.

The study of Whitely and Dougherty (1991), examined the relationship of career mentoring to the promotions and compensation received by 404 early career managers and professionals working in a variety of organizations. The

results indicate that with a number of variables controlled, **career mentoring** was related to both **promotion rate** and **total compensation**. The results also support the conclusion that career-oriented mentoring has a greater relationship with promotion rate for people from the highest-level socioeconomic backgrounds than for those lower-level backgrounds. They provide several explanations for the effects of career mentoring on early career progress.

Turban and Dougherty (1994) investigated relationships among protégés' **personality characteristics**, initiation of mentoring, mentoring received, and career success for 147 managers and professionals. Protégés influenced the amounts of mentoring they received by initiating relationships with mentors. **Internal locus of control, high self-monitoring, and high emotional stability enhanced initiation**, which mediated the relationships between personality characteristics and mentoring received. The latter was related to career attainment and perceived career success, and career attainment influenced perceived success.

Protégés from higher social origins were more likely to share social values, skills, and networks with senior managers. Success may increase career mentoring or lead to mentoring by more influential superiors. Young

managers and professionals from higher social class origins were more skilled at survival, upward-maneuvering, and adaptation than those from lower social origins. Mentoring may also be less effective in cross-gender and cross-race situations (Whitely & Dougherty, 1991).

Kram and Isabella (1985) showed that little is known about work relationships, other than mentoring relationships than contribute to adult and career growth. A biographical interview study of 25 relationship pairs indicated that relationships with peers offer important alternatives to those with conventionally defined mentors. This study highlights various enhancing functions the peer relationships provide, and shows the unique manner in which the relationships can support the psychosocial and career development at every career stages.

Kram and Isabella (1985) stressed that peer relationships could endure far longer than relationships with mentors. Mentoring relationships generally last between 3-8 years, but some peer relationships last 20-30 years. They identified three types of peer relationships: (1) **Information peer** (Information sharing), (2) **Collegial peer** (Career strategizing, Job-related feedback,

Friendship), (3) **Special peer** (Confirmation, Emotional support, Personal Feedback, Friendship).

Establishment stage is comprised of people in their 20s, the advancement stage of people in their 30s, middle career stage of people in their 40s to early 50s, and late career with people in their mid-50s and beyond. The process of a peer relationship in the establishment stage seems to be similar to that which might characterize a mentoring relationship. The study suggests that peer relationships may offer unique developmental opportunities that should not be overlooked. They provide a forum for mutual exchange in which an individual can achieve a sense of expertise, equality, and empathy that is frequently absent from traditional mentoring relationships.

Investigation of relationships with peers, mentors, and subordinates at different career stages and in diverse organizational settings are steps toward a better understanding of adult relationships at work (Kram & Isabella, 1985).

According to Aryee, Wyatt, and Stone (1996), career-oriented mentoring is, significantly positively related to **number of promotions received** and **career satisfaction**. The results of the research, reinforced the dominance of

the traditional determinants of career success, the significant effect of career-oriented mentoring on two of the career success measures may help to paint a more realistic picture of the process of career success in organizations.

Otto Rank (1996) presents a sweeping history of psychology-individual and social-from the animistic era to psychoanalysis. Unlike Sigmund Freud, his mentor, Rank viewed **religion** with respect and clarifies its role in individual and communal life through this study of soul-belief through the ages. This study contains important insights on immortality, will, dreams, Judaism and Christianity, Hamlet and Don Juan, Jung and Adler, and Freud himself.

Whitely et. al. (1992) conducted a study on career oriented mentoring. This study examines several different kinds of correlates of career-oriented mentoring experiences among early career managers and professionals. Survey data were collected from 416 respondents employed in a wide variety of jobs, organizations, and industries. The respondents averaged 30 years of age, and 28 per cent were women. Results indicated that younger, more work-involved respondents from higher socioeconomic origins received more career-oriented mentoring. In addition, managers received more

mentoring than professionals, as did those who were higher in the organization hierarchy.

The research results by Chao et. al. (1992), indicated protégés in informal mentorships reported more career-related support from their mentors and higher salaries than protégés in formal mentorships. For all outcome variables, protégés in informal mentorships also reported more favorable outcomes than non-mentored individuals.

Many studies have documented the functions that mentors provide to protégés, including vocational and psycho-social support. Scandura's (1992) study investigates the link between these functions and the career mobility outcomes of protégés. Results from a random sample of 244 manufacturing managers supports previous research on the dimensions of mentoring. Further, vocational (coaching) and psycho-social (social support) were found to be related to managers' salary level and promotions.

Based on a national survey of public accounting employees, Scandura and Viator (1995) found that public accounting mentoring consists of three separate functions: **social support, career development, and role modeling**. This study indicated that employees with lower turnover intentions received more career development support from their mentor and had a partner as a mentor.

The level of social support provided by partner mentors tended to be less than that provided by manager mentors. The link between career-related and psychosocial mentorship functions and the phases of mentorship may be dependent upon the type of mentorship.

1.6. Formal versus Informal Mentorships

Some firms do have formal mentoring programs. In some cases, experienced executives volunteer to work with high-potential employees (fast-trackers) to set goals, review progress, and give feedback outside the formal chain of command (Aldag, Stearns, 1991).

There are **two basic schools** of thought about mentoring that exist in today's business world. One is the belief that mentoring can be **structured** or **facilitated**; the other is the belief that it can only "**happen**" (Murray & Owen, 1991).

At the practical level, organizations have recognized the value of mentorships and have tried to formalize these relationships as part of the planned career development of junior managers and professionals (Noe, 1988; Zey, 1986).

The basic distinction between formal and informal mentorships lies in the formation of the relationship.

Informal mentorships are not managed, structured, or formally recognized by the organization. Traditionally, they are spontaneous relationships that occur without external involvement from the organization. In contrast, formal mentorships are programs that are managed and sanctioned by the organization (Chao et. al., 1992).

Differences between formal and informal mentorships are likely to be most salient in the initiation phase. The phase is characterized by the match between prospective mentors and protégés. Informal mentorships grow out of informal relationships and interactions between senior and junior organizational members. The relationships may be based on work or non work issues. From these interactions, protégés may prove themselves to be worthy of the extra attention that a mentorship would demand. Mentors often select protégés with whom they can identify and with whom they are willing to develop and devote attention. In contrast, formal mentorships are typically not based on initial informal relationships or interactions between two organizational members. The match between mentor and protégé may range from random assignment to committee assignment to mentor selection based on protégé files. Compared with informal mentors, formal mentors may not view the protégé as a particularly worthy of special attention and support. Furthermore, a longer adjustment period may be required for formal

mentors and protégés to get to know one another (Chao et. al., 1992).

In addition to the matching of mentors and protégés, formal and informal mentorships may differ in degree of motivation for both participants. Informal mentorships arise because of a desire on the part of the mentor to help the protégé and a willingness on the part of the protégé to be open to advice and assistance from the mentor. Formal mentorships, on the other hand, entail a degree of pressure; the mentor and protégé may be required to participate in the mentorship program as a function of their positions. This pressure could decrease a mentor's motivation to help the protégé and decrease the protégé's willingness to be open to assistance from the mentor (Chao et. al., 1992).

The majority of mentoring relationships are informal, that is, the two individuals are interested in establishing a relationship. Informally, without the involvement of the formal organizational mechanisms, formal mentoring programs, in which the organization matches mentors and protégés, are increasing in popularity in both the public and private sectors (Klauss, 1981; Roche, 1979). Formal mentoring programs are characterized by top management support, careful selection of mentors and protégés, an extensive

orientation program emphasizing the development of realistic expectations concerning the relationship, stated responsibilities for both parties, and established minimums of duration and frequency of contact between mentor and protégé (Lean, 1983; Phillips-Jones, 1983; Zey, 1986).

According to Ragins (1990) organizations can directly influence the mentorship role by training protégés and mentors. Work relationship may influence the mentorship role episode.

Facilitated mentoring is a structure and series of processes designed to create effective mentoring relationships, guide the desired behavior change, and evaluate the results for the mentees, the mentors, and the organization. By facilitating the mentoring process, we can prevent the problems that are likely to occur with mismatches, and the organization can gather data to track results, measure outcomes, assess the cost of effectiveness of this mentoring program. On the other hand, for the second school of thought, true mentoring is spontaneous or informal, caution that it cannot be structured or formalized. According to representatives of this school, a structured mentoring relationship lacks a critical, magical ingredient. But the increasing number of participants in what others call formal

programs are evidence against the opinion of second school. The organization facilitates the beneficial results for mentor, protégé, and the organization itself. According to Murray and Owen (1991), in a facilitated mentoring process, there is typically one mentor to one protégé, and each knows what is expected of the other. Mentors act as a source of information on the mission and goals of the organization; they provide insight into the organization's philosophy of human-resource development; they tutor specific skills; effective behavior; and how to function in the organization; give feedback on observed performances; they are coaches of activities that will add to experience and skill development; mentors serve as confidant in times of personal crises and problems; assist the protégé in plotting a career path; meet with the protégé at agreed time intervals for feedback and planning; and maintain the integrity of the relationship between the protégé and the natural boss.

Zey (1986) indicates that firms need formalized mentoring programs, because some trends are creating problems for the modern corporation. There are five major social and economic trends creating problems : The quest for innovation, the merger explosion, the changing composition of the work force, the coming labor shortage, and the emergence of the cross-cultural corporation. Zey

(1986) suggests that mentoring can solve some of the problems created by these trends.

There is an increasing tendency to structured mentoring. One international survey conducted in the 1980s in eight countries found sixty-seven organizations (18 percent of those surveyed) with formal mentoring programs. The majority of organizations that had implemented formal mentoring programs reported that they were pleased with the results of the mentoring efforts. Sixty-four percent of the organizations with formal programs characterized the programs as totally or largely successful, and 93 percent planned to continue these programs. The organizations perceived the main benefit of a formal mentoring program to be improved succession planning and management development. Eighty-eight (24 %) of the organizations were considering instituting formal mentoring programs in the near future (Murray & Owen, 1991). Mentoring programs are being instituted with the explicit goal of increasing company profitability by making individuals more productive.

However, Levine (1985) concluded from a survey that formal mentorships probably constitute only 3 to 4 percent of the mentoring that is actually occurring. there are strategies for evaluating a facilitated mentoring process.

Pairing mentors with protégés in a facilitated mentoring program may not be acceptable in some organizational cultures. For example, having an employee mentored by someone other than his/her line boss might be seen as disloyal. Facilitated mentoring is thus not for everyone, and it is also not a solution of all organizational ills (Murray & Owen, 1991). A mentoring program should be one component of a comprehensive system of people development, it must be integrated with the other components: training programs, performance appraisals, recruitment, and new quality of work life programs.

Gibb, (1994) identifies the need to develop a conceptual framework to explain the diversity of organized mentoring in formal schemes as an important practical and theoretical concern. Interviews with participants in formal mentoring schemes were undertaken to obtain accounts of their experiences within formal mentoring schemes. From an analysis of these interviews a conceptual framework for explaining the diversity of organized mentoring in formal schemes was developed. This framework involves three levels: the **identification** of a **mentoring continuum**, the **adoption** of an explicit human resource development (HRD) perspective to define relevant mentoring issues, and a **classification** of potential analytical approaches to mentoring. This

conceptual framework enables diversity in organized mentoring to be defined and considered from both a practical and a theoretical perspective.

Ragins (1989) found that women may be prevented from initiating mentoring relationships by sex-role expectations and a lack of access to potential mentors. Organizations may choose to either address or ignore this problem. By ignoring it, organizations may lose valuable managerial talent. If they choose to address this problem, they may take at least four steps to help female managers overcome barriers to mentoring: (1) They may provide opportunities for female managers to interact with potential mentors. (2) Organizations can provide training for protégés and mentors. (3) Organizations can cultivate more female mentors at lower levels of the organization. (4) Organizations can reinforce the development of mentoring relationships by institutionalizing the mentoring relationship as part of the performance appraisal and employee development systems.

1.7. Advantages and Disadvantages of Formal Mentoring

Gilley and Boughton (1996) propose that formal mentoring can be used as a tool to improve strategic and succession planning. Formal mentoring can be used as a career management process for organizations. Managers and

employees can develop an organizational career development system that helps the organization structure its training, and development efforts, identify critical performance areas, develop career path for employees, establish future human resource priorities, and identify future human resource needs.

The results of the study by Scandura and Viator (1995) indicate that while social support is a key factor in defining the mentoring process for public accounting employees, the career development function is associated with lower protégé turnover intentions.

There are important **positive features** of mentoring for **organizations** (Murray & Owen, 1991). They are:

- 1- Increased productivity
- 2- Cost effectiveness
- 3- Improved recruitment effort
- 4- Increased organizational communication and understanding
- 5- Maintenance of the motivation of mentors
- 6- Enhancement of services offered by the organization
- 7- Improvement in strategic and succession planning

There are also **challenges** of mentoring for **organizations**.

They can be listed as follow:

- 1- Frustration
- 2- Insufficient Commitment
- 3- Lack of Coordination
- 4- Hard to Sell
- 5- Expensive Administration

Zey (1984) summarized the **benefits** of mentoring to the **protégés** as follows: (1) Protégés are paid more, take more pleasure in their work, and have greater career satisfaction than non-protégés. (2) Performance and productivity ratings are higher for protégés than for non-protégés. (3) Protégés have more knowledge of the technical and organizational aspects of the business than non-protégés. There are many benefits of mentoring for the protégés: Targeted development activities, increased likelihood of success, less time spend in the wrong position, Pygmalion effect, increased awareness of the organization.

On the other hand, there are some **pitfalls** for **protégés**:

- 1- Expectation that protégé will neglect the routine job
- 2- Expectation that protégé will play mentor against boss
- 3- Unrealistic expectations about promotion
- 4- Being unable to take responsibility
- 5- Jealousy and gossip
- 6- Probability of a mentor who does not keep commitment

7- Having a mentor who takes credit for the protégé's work.

Mentoring can be a very rewarding experience. By helping the employees grow and develop, **mentors** can enhance their self-esteem. In addition, they may be admired, respected, and noticed in the organization as a result of their mentoring activities. They can advance their career because they are seen as persons who are effective in developing others (Gilley, Boughton, 1996).

Mentoring can increase a mentor's motivation and enthusiasm toward his/her career. This is accomplished through becoming involved with his/her employees. Mentoring may help the mentor influence the mission and direction of the organization. **Benefits** for mentors can be listed as follow:

- 1- Enhanced self-esteem
- 2- Increased interest in work
- 3- Close relationship
- 4- Financial reward (Promotion, or Bonus)
- 5- Fulfillment of developmental need
- 6- Professional assistance

Mentors may have some **costs** of becoming a mentor (Ragins & Scandura, 1994). Generally, the first cost is the **time**

and **energy** involved in developing mentoring relationship. A mentor may consider the mentoring relationship as an extra job, and mentoring relationships require additional time for mentors. Secondly, choosing an appropriate mentee may be very difficult for a mentor. Mentees' poor performance or disloyalty may cast a negative shadow on the mentor's career.

There are some additional concerns for mentors of mentoring relationship. They are: Organizational pressure for mentor role, lack of critical skill of mentors, difficulty of coaching and feedback role, insufficient time to work with protégé, lack of rewards, possessiveness of protégés, not letting protégé take the risks and trying to do many extra jobs, displeasure of protégé.

2. Gender and Mentoring

Mentoring relationships provide career guidance and psychosocial support, but studies made in this field indicate that women face difficulties in obtaining and establishing a mentoring relationship. Though mentoring relationships are critical for women in organizations, it may not be so easy for women in establishing such relationships as it is for men. While mentoring relationships are important for men, they may be essential for women (Farris & Ragan, 1981; Fitt & Newton, 1981).

2.1. Benefits of Mentoring Relationship for Women

Mentors may help women advance in organizations by building their self-confidence and providing career guidance and direction (Brown, 1986; Reich, 1986). Compared to men, women have been found to have lower self-confidence (Lenney, 1977).

Mentors may train female protégés corporate politics. Because women have less experience in corporate politics than their male counterparts and lack powerful female role models, they may be at a definite disadvantage in developing political strategies for powerful positions (Collins, 1983; Kanter, 1977).

Mentoring relationships may provide the female managers with inside information on job openings and changes in the organization's technology, structure, and strategy (Brown, 1986). By providing inside information, mentors may compensate for this deficiency and provide the female managers with equal informational resources as her male counterparts.

Mentors may also promote female managers' advancement by providing feedback on their management style and effectiveness. Such feedback may help female managers develop an effective and accepted managerial style. Successful managers are commonly described and perceived as masculine (Schein, 1975).

Mentors can help to increase women's self-confidence by providing psychological support, reinforcement for achievement oriented behavior, and specific task feedback (Noe, 1988).

According to Mobley et al. (1994), having a mentor improves lawyers' job satisfaction, and the size of this benefit is the same for both sexes. Baugh et al. (1996) found that having a mentor may be associated with a more positive job experience and the perception of more employment alternatives elsewhere.

Collins (1983) found that the protégés saw their mentors as a source of support and encouragement and were viewed as instrumental in increasing their self-confidence. The mentors were also perceived as providing growth opportunities and increased visibility within the organization.

Brown (1986) found that the major benefits reported by women in a mentoring relationship included: becoming familiar with the politics in organizations, identification of role models, network development and expansion, and encouragement and motivation to achieve career goals.

2.2. Barriers to Mentoring

Women face much more greater organizational, interpersonal, and individual barriers in the process of career advancement when they are compared with their male counterparts (Kram, 1985; Hunt & Mitchael, 1983; Noe, 1988; Ragins, 1989). In many research conducted in the field of mentoring, the female protégés indicated that their mentors assisted them with promotions, encouraged them to continue their education and provided them with advise, direction, information and support (Ragins, 1989).

Females who develop a mentoring relationship go far better than those who do not establish such a relationship (Klauss, 1981; Phillips-Jones, 1983). Positive relationships between mentoring relationships and self-reports of career success have been found among women in medical, and academic (Brown, 1986) professions.

Gender differences in barriers to mentoring may be particularly pronounced during the initiation stage of mentoring relationships (Brown, 1986; Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1989). Several researchers have theorized that cross-gender mentoring relationships may be more difficult to initiate than same gender relationships (Clawson & Kram, 1984; Kram, 1985).

Mentoring relationships may be critical for women seeking advancement in organizations. The infrequency of mentoring relationships for females suggests special concerns and considerations. Ragins (1989), examined the interpersonal and organizational barriers female managers face in developing and maintaining effective mentoring relationships in organizations. An analysis is made of gender differences in the function, nature, and effectiveness of mentoring relationships. Mentors may promote female managers' advancement by providing feedback on their management style and effectiveness. Generally (1) Women may not seek mentors, and (2) mentors

may not select female protégés. Women recognize the importance of mentors for career advancement. They may be prevented from initiating mentoring relationships by sex-role expectations and a lack of access to potential mentors.

According to Ragins and Cotton (1991) there are three reasons for expecting there to be gender differences in perceived barriers to obtaining mentors. First, women may be reluctant to initiate a relationship with a mentor for fear that the mentor or others in the organization will misconstrue such an approach as a sexual advance (Bowen, 1985; Fitt & Newton, 1981). Second, traditional gender role expectation encouraging men to take an aggressive role and women a passive role in initiating relationships (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Third, women have fewer formal and informal opportunities than men for developing mentoring relationships. Mentors select protégés on the basis of their involvement in key, visible projects (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Zey, 1984).

Theoretically, women face gender-related problems and barriers to becoming a mentor (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1989). In general, women have less willingness to mentor than men (Halcomb, 1980; Koberg et al., 1994).

Women are faced with increased performance pressures, isolation, visibility, and stereotypical expectations (Kanter, 1977). Women may face status leveling in that they may be stereotyped and misidentified as lower status, clerical workers. Such stereotypic perceptions may decrease female managers' ability to assert their authority and legitimacy within an organization. By providing reflecting power, mentors signal to others in the organization that their female protégé has their powerful backing and resources (Kanter, 1977).

Ragins and Cotton (1991) examined factors related to perceived barriers to gaining a mentor. Women reported more such barriers than men. In addition, individuals lacking previous experience as protégés reported greater barriers to obtaining a mentor than experienced protégés. Mentoring relationships are particularly important for women, since they face gender-related obstacles to advancement. Women face more barriers to obtaining a mentor than men. Many organizations have mentorship programs aimed at helping women develop mentoring relationships.

According to Ragins and Cotton (1991) the other influences on the developing mentoring relationships are **organizational ranks, age, length of employment**. They will be negatively related to perceived barriers to

mentoring relationships. Experience in mentoring relationships will be negatively related to perceived barriers to mentoring relationships. Experience has a similar impact for both men and women. Experienced protégés reported fewer barriers to gaining mentors than individuals lacking protégé experience. They suggested that, the definition of the first stage of mentoring relationships should be broadened to include influences on the formation of the relationships, such as age, rank, tenure, protégé experience, and a host of interpersonal variables relating to attraction.

Noe's paper (1988), describes the individual and organizational factors that may inhibit the development of mentorships for women. Barriers for establishing cross-gender mentorships:

(1) **Lack of access to information network:** Women may fail to develop mentorship because of limited contact with potential mentors. They may have limited access to mentors who can provide entry into informal communications networks.

(2) **Tokenism:** When individuals enter a job environment in which their social category (sex or race) historically has been disproportionately represented, they are considered tokens. In many male dominated occupations,

women are tokens in the work group. They tend to be highly visible and to attract attention. Mentors may be dissuaded from developing a relationship because of the visibility of women in the organization.

(3) **Stereotypes and attributions:** Women are perceived as not possessing characteristics that are necessary for managerial success. Many studies indicated that women may be excluded from mentoring relationships because of beliefs that they are not interested in advancement opportunities. Studies have found that for traditionally male dominated jobs, women receive less favorable hiring recommendations when compared to equally qualified men. Similar result have been found for promotion and development decisions.

(4) **Socialization practices:** Managers may avoid entering into a mentoring relationship with female employees because of perceived incompatibility between women and the managerial role. Female socialization practices encourage the development of personality traits and behaviors (fear of success, unwillingness to take risks). Self confidence, performance expectation, and self-evaluations of ability may be lower for women than men. Women who identified with the feminine sex role, have lower levels of career achievement and are less likely to make ability attributions for career outcomes in

comparison to women who identified with a masculine sex role. Without a mentor female employees' needs for achievement and power may be stymied, resulting in a lack of motivation to acquire managerial skills and decreased quality of performance in their present positions.

2.3. Gender Differences in Mentoring Relationships

Reich (1986) observed that females in mentoring relationships were more likely than males to report benefits related to gains in self-confidence, useful career advice, counseling on company politics, and feedback about weaknesses.

In Burke's study (1984) females reported that their mentors served psychosocial functions whereas males reported that their mentors had greater influence on their career choices.

Fitt and Newton (1981) found that the mentors reported that female protégés needed more encouragement than male protégés. This study also found that gender differences in mentoring relationships may change as a function of organizational rank; females at lower ranks needed role modeling and assistance with learning the ropes of the organization, while at higher ranks the focus shifted to career development and insuring legitimacy within the organization.

According to Collins (1983) men may tend to actively seek a mentor, gain all they can from him, and then move on to the next mentoring relationship. On the other hand, women reported having fewer mentors than men and were more likely to maintain relationships past their usefulness. While men shift from protégé to mentoring roles, the women reported that they were willing to remain in the protégé role.

Their actions are examined closely and this increased **visibility** places the token woman in a more dangerous position than her male counterpart. Protégé performance is often viewed as a direct reflection of the mentor's competency (Zey, 1984). Female mentors may be less willing to take the risk of protégé failure. Women face greater obstacles to advancement and successful performance (Powell, 1988; Sutton & Moore, 1985). There is a greater risk for having female protégés than male ones (Ragins & Cotton, 1993).

Women have less **time** for developing mentoring relationships than their male counterparts. Bowers (1985) found that, the female executives lacked the time to be a mentor and they wanted to avoid the high visibility involved with mentoring another woman.

Additionally, **self-confidence** may be a key factor in willingness to become a mentor (Ragins & Cotton, 1993). Women may feel less qualified than men in initiating mentoring relationships, therefore, they tend to have lower self-confidence than men.

On the other hand, organizational culture and organizational and personal characteristics may affect the amount of mentoring received by women. In addition to this, expectations of women may be different in different organizations.

Interpersonal relationships are a key factor in women's career development, and women may place greater value on interpersonal relationships than men (Gilligan, 1982). Therefore women may anticipate greater developmental benefits from being a mentor than men. Women mentoring relationship involves the psychosocial roles of friendship, support and intimacy. Additionally, it can be determined that, **female mentoring** relationships are related to **psychological variables** whereas **male mentoring** relationship are more related to **career stages** and **effectiveness**. On the other hand, men have a larger pool of available protégés than women. Male students avoid selecting female faculty as mentors (Erkut & Mokros, 1990). While male mentors were perceived as role models by both male and female protégés, female mentors were

perceived as role models by primarily female protégés (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990).

In the research conducted by Struthers (1995), one hundred sixty-five female professors who had been mentored at some point during their academic careers responded to a questionnaire about their experiences. Of interest was the extent to which their mentors had provided them with psychosocial support, and also the extent to which their mentors had utilized their power within the organization for the benefit of the protégé. Previous research indicated that power was much more likely to be used by male mentors and psychosocial support was much more likely to be provided by female mentors. Results of this study indicated that perceptions of utilization of power by the mentor increased with rank of the mentor, regardless of gender. In other words, full professors were perceived as utilizing significantly more power in the enhancement of their protégés' academic careers than were assistant professors. Perceptions of psychosocial support provided by the mentor tended to diminish with the rank of the mentor.

In the study that is conducted by Dreher and Ash (1990), linkages between a global measure of mentoring experiences, gender, and four outcome variables were

investigated. Also, the moderating effects of gender were examined to determine whether mentoring is differentially associated with career outcomes for men and women. Business school graduates (147 women and 173 men) provided information about their backgrounds, companies, positions, mentoring practices, compensation, and compensation satisfaction. Individuals experiencing extensive mentoring relationships reported receiving more promotions, had higher income, and were more satisfied with their pay and benefits than individuals experiencing less extensive mentoring relationships. There were no gender differences with regard to the frequency of mentoring activities, and gender did not moderate mentoring-outcome relationships. Ragins and Scandura (1994) also found no significant differences between men and women in mentoring experience.

Ragins (1990) grouped the most important factors in three major factor groups: (1) **Individual Factors:** The mentoring role may be influenced by mentor's and protégé's characteristics, traits, and cultural backgrounds. Significant individual variables may include career aspirations, achievement motivation and self-confidence. In addition to culture and individual variables other individual variables (age, career stage, tenure, and rank in the organization, and previous experience in mentoring relationships) may influence the

role relationships. (2) **Interpersonal Factors** are: communication patterns and skills, conflict management methods, and level of comfort in the relationship. (3) **Organizational factors** are: reward and promotion systems, job design, human resource development systems, and an organizational culture.

Ragins and Cotton (1993) investigated differences in willingness to mentor among men and women in three organizations. When controlling for gender differences in factors relating to decisions to mentor (age, rank, tenure, and mentorship experience), women expressed equivalent intentions to mentor as men, even though they anticipated more drawbacks to becoming a mentor. Individuals with **prior experience** in mentoring relationships (as protégé or mentor), reported greater willingness to mentor than individuals lacking mentorship experience.

Women in female typed organizations may be more willing to mentor than women in male typed organizations because their visibility is less in female than male typed organizations. The increased visibility of men in female typed organizations may in fact create certain barriers to mentoring for them as well. (Ragins & Cotton, 1993).

Although the so-called glass ceiling remains largely intact, visible fissures have emerged, and more women scientists are breaking into the executive ranks of major companies than ever before. Many work for relatively progressive companies that actively seek to nurture women executives through career tracking and mentoring programs. In Gabor's study (1994), a major factor in the success of the highest ranking women has been their willingness to seek out a broad range of professional experiences within their companies, to cultivate industry contacts, and to change jobs as soon as they feel they've reached a dead end. While professional women are less likely to marry than their male counterparts, the most successful among them, like the highest ranking men, usually have a supportive spouse.

Mobley et. al. (1994), examine the prevalence of mentoring among lawyers and the effect mentoring has on their employment situations, with special attention to gender differences. The data come from a 1989 cross-sectional survey of 1132 Georgia lawyers (80% white and 18% black). No significant difference in having mentors was found across racial categories. Results initially show female lawyers are more likely than males to have mentors, but this is due to gender differences in type of law practice and position in them; among associate-level lawyers in

law firms there is no gender difference in having a mentor.

Snyder's (1995) article concluded that the public sector is not a more supportive or more fair employer for women in management than the private sector in these two countries, contrary to the assumption in the women-in-management literature that the public sector is a more hospitable environment.

The research conducted by Burke et al. (1996), examined mentoring relationships engaged in by managerial and professional women. Data were collected from 280 female business graduates of a single university using questionnaires. The experiences of women having female and male mentors were compared. In addition, the effects of same-sex and cross-sex mentoring were investigated. Women with male and female mentors generally reported similar experiences. Women with female mentors reported a trend toward receiving more psychosocial support functions, and had significantly greater intention to quit their organizations. They also had younger mentors closer to their own organization levels. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that mentor gender had no effects on levels of mentor functions received and only modest effects on work outcomes.

In the study prepared by Gilbert and Rossman (1992), emerging views of gender are used to explicate ways in which gender affects the mentoring process of psychologists for professional roles, particularly the mentoring of women. Three aspects of mentoring functions are identified in which women mentoring women in educational and occupational settings could be quite different from men mentoring women: (a) creating new images of protégés as professional psychologists, (b) using the relationship to empower protégés, and (c) the sponsorship of protégés.

The purpose of the study conducted by Johnsrud and Wunsch (1991), was to explore the commonalties and differences in the perceptions of senior and junior faculty women regarding the barriers to success experienced early in academic careers; The population consisted of 22 pairs of junior and senior faculty women who participated in a mentoring program at a major public research university. Descriptive data indicate close agreement among junior and senior women faculty regarding the importance of the majority of potential barriers. Nonetheless, important differences exist. An exploratory factor analysis identified four underlying dimensions: **personal security, work priorities, sense of belonging, and scholarly accomplishment.** There was a significant difference

between the two groups in their perceptions of personal security.

Tepper et. al. (1994) conducted a research on superior-subordinate dyads. This empirical investigation with 117 dyads examines the moderating effects of subordinate gender on the relationships between the strength of upward influence tactics and three outcome variables: **performance ratings, psychosocial mentoring functions, and career-related mentoring functions.** The results support predictions that men who employ stronger upward influence tactics obtain higher performance ratings and more career-related mentoring functions, and women who employ weaker upward influence tactics obtain more psychosocial mentoring functions.

Based on a national survey of public accounting employees, Scandura and Viator (1995) used quantitative data analysis to identify public accounting mentoring functions, their effect on employee turnover intentions, and their association with specific organizational variables (protégé organizational level, protégé gender, mentor's position, and audit firm structure). The study found that public accounting mentoring consists of three separate functions: **social support, career development, and role modeling.** This study indicated that employees with lower turnover intentions received more career

development support from their mentor and had a partner as a mentor. The level of social support provided by partner mentors tended to be less than that provided by manager mentors. Female protégés, who tended to have managers as mentors, received more social support when their mentor was also female. The role modeling function did not differ across organizational variables. The results of the study indicate that while social support is a key factor in defining the mentoring process for public accounting employees, the career development function is associated with lower protégé turnover intentions.

Corzine et. al assessed (1994) the effects of mentoring on career plateaus as well as on **salary** and **job satisfaction** in the turbulent U.S. banking industry. Also examined were effects of downsizing and gender on career outcomes. Among bank officers, mentoring was associated with job satisfaction and with not having reached a career plateau. Gender was related to salary level with salaries significantly higher for men. Downsizing was also associated with higher salaries. These findings, in a changing economic and legal environment, suggest the value of mentoring programs in organizations.

3. Networking and Mentoring

A basic doctrine of network theory is that relative prestige and power can be inferred from patterns of social relations (Burt, 1977), and this is consistent with the conceptualization of power in relational terms (Emerson, 1962). This assumption appears to be consistent with the findings that individuals or groups who control valuable resources make other dependent upon them (Tannenbaum, 1968; Hickson et al., 1971), and it helps to interpret research results that indicate that actors who are central in a network exhibit a high degree of cohesiveness and a low degree of dependence on others (Alba and Moore, 1978).

Network theory also assumes that centrality in one domain helps to establish and strengthen centrality in other domains (Marsden, 1981), and this also finds supports in various empirical studies (Hinings et al., 1974; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1974; Miller, 1980).

Warshaw (1980) indicates that women cannot enter men's networks, and they are forced to form female networks. Rawlins (1983) suggests that, regardless of sex, women must not wait for information magically appear-network, and she advises to be active, not passive.

3.1. Instrumental versus Expressive Network Ties

The network literature distinguishes between **instrumental network ties** and contacts that primarily provide **friendship** and **social support** (Fombrun, 1982; Tichy et al., 1974). Instrumental network ties arise in the course of work role performance and involve the exchange of job-related resources, including information, expertise, professional advice, political access, and material resources (Fombrun, 1982; Kanter, 1983; Kotter, 1982; Lincoln & Miller, 1979; Pettigrew, 1973; Tichy et al., 1974). Instrumental ties include developmental relationships that fulfill any of a variety of functions, including career direction and guidance, exposure to upper management, help in getting challenging and visible assignments, and advocacy for promotion (Kram, 1988; Thomas, 1990).

Ibarra (1995) attempts to resolve the contradiction by suggesting that men and women differ less in the structure of their network than in their ability to convert network resources into instrumental advantages. Results indicate that intimate ties are instrumental for women and do not necessarily imply a redundant, "local" network.

Expressive network ties involve the exchange of friendship and social support and are characterized by

higher levels of closeness and trust than those that are exclusively instrumental. Many network relationships are both instrumental and expressive (Kram, 1988; Thomas, 1990).

Expressive ties also differ from instrumental work relationships in that they are less closely bound to formal structures and work roles (Ibarra, 1993).

A mentor-protégé relationship enhances opportunities for career advancement and provides psychosocial support. Friendship networks are not merely sets of linked friends but also "systems for making decisions, mobilizing resources, transmitting information, and performing other functions closely allied with work behavior and interaction" (Lincoln & Miller, 1979, p. 196).

The **distinction** between instrumental and expressive network relationships is important for several reasons. **First**, the content of the relationship defines the primary resource exchanged. **Second**, conflicting types of relationships and personal networks provide access to instrumental versus expressive benefits. **Third**, spuriousness is a risk because many ties are multidimensional. If only instrumental ties are studied, causal inferences may be inaccurate because observed

effects may be due to the expressive component of those relationships (Ibarra, 1993).

Operationally, a high intimacy/low redundancy network pattern will distinguish more successful (i.e., "fast-track") women from both their fast track male counterparts and less mobile female peers in instrumental but not expressive networks (Ibarra, 1995).

Network composition may be examined with respect to either **organizational** or **identity group** affiliations of the focal individuals' contacts (Alderfer, 1987). **Organizational groups** include hierarchical levels and functional sub-units; **identity groups** include gender, racial, and ethnic groups. These groupings are relevant because differences and similarities rooted in ascribed attributes and available resources govern most social relationships in organizations (Blau, 1982). Similarity of identity characteristics produces common interests and world views.

Ibarra (1995) measured network characteristics yielded support for the three structural dimensions: (1) **Redundance**, operationalized that combined the proportion of extra-business unit ties, relative to total ties, and frequency of interaction (daily, weakly, less often). (2) **Intimacy** of network ties, included very

close relationships. (3) **Homophily** operationalized as the proportion of same-gender contacts relative to the total. **Homophily** refers to the degree to which pairs of individuals who interact are similar in identity or organizational group affiliations (Marsden, 1988).

There are two important patterns of Ibarra's (1995) study. Firstly, the high potential women evidenced a trend towards having a higher proportion of homophilous career ties, relative to high potential men their career contacts homophily was significantly less. Secondly, the high potential women had less redundant networks, relative to non-high potential women, whose networks tended to be based within their organizational; they did not however differ significantly from either male group in this regard. Intimacy results, indicated a pattern similar to the redundancy results: non-high potential women had a lower proportion of intimate ties relative to all other groups.

Results for both the career and information network indicated that men tend to have more homophilous contacts than women but that intimacy and redundancy are better explained by the interaction of gender and advancement potential. Friendship network results indicated main effects for gender in homophily and neither main nor

interaction effects for intimacy and redundancy (Ibarra, 1995).

Although homophily need not be defined exclusively in terms of gender, following Kanter's (1977) description of the formation of closed social circles that limit women's participation in workplace informal networks, numerous studies have indicated the prevalence of sex-based homophily in workplace relationships and its detrimental consequences for women. Brass (1985), in a study of a gender-balanced non-supervisory group, observed that although both sexes were equally central to interaction networks, men and women tended to interact within **sex-segregated networks**. Moreover, women in his study firm, with the exception of those who were part of mixed-gender work-groups, were less central to those networks associated with future promotion: Men's networks and the interaction network of the "dominant coalition."

Ibarra (1992) found that, men and women differed in homophily and multiplexity of network ties and in determinants of network centrality. The pattern that emerges, however, when examined in light of contrasting theoretical perspectives, is not the simple picture of female exclusion portrayed in much previous research. Men choose different men for different types of network relationships. Women did not always direct the majority

of their ties to men (because they are more powerful) or to women (because they are so similar) but, differentiated their choices. The dilemma for women may lie in men's reciprocation of their choices: If network contacts are chosen according to similarity and/or status considerations, they are less desirable network choices for men on both counts.

Ibarra (1995) suggests that homophily moderates the relationship between network structure and instrumental outcomes such that advantageous network patterns for women differ from those most beneficial for their male counterparts.

Interpersonal similarity increases ease of communication, improves predictability of behavior, and fosters relationships of **trust** and **reciprocity** (Kanter, 1977). People who have similar jobs tend to share similar ways of viewing the world, and this commonality facilitates interaction (Alderfer, 1987). Particularly in turbulent task environments, individuals are more likely to direct their networking strategies to persons who have similar personal attributes (Kanter, 1977).

Range is defined as the degree of diversity contained in a personal network (Burt, 1982). Having a broad range of network relationships provides greater access to

instrumental resources than drawing contacts from a restricted group (Aldrich, 1989).

Empirical reports suggest that people whose network contacts extend beyond their required workflow interactions, immediate workgroups tend to be perceived as more powerful (Blau & Alba, 1982; Brass, 1984).

3.2. Tie Strength

Tie strength is a function of "the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimacy, and reciprocal services that characterize the tie" (Granovetter, 1973, p. 1361). Multiplexity, refers to the number of dimensions defining a network relationship (Monge & Eisenberg, 1987). The more relationships that link one person to another, the stronger the link (Tichy, 1981).

Weak ties are the channels through which socially distant ideas, influences, or information reach the individual. Their value lies less in the weakness of the relationship than in the greater likelihood that they constitute a bridge to parts of the social system.

Strong ties, bond similar people, and similar people tend to be interconnected. Granovetter (1973) proposes that information obtained through strong ties is more likely to be redundant.

People have many instrumental network ties with individuals who they do not like and with whom they would not interact but who must be dealt with to get things done (Wellman, 1983).

Women will differ from men, not in their preference for stronger bonds, but in the higher degree of tie strength needed to achieve the same level of benefits as their male counterparts may obtain via weaker links. As such, the expectation is not that intimacy of network ties will differentiate the genders, but that those women with more intimate ties will derive better resources from their networks (Ibarra, 1995).

Ibarra (1995) found that high potential women differed from high potential men in the intimacy of their information but not career ties is interesting since one might expect that the importance of strong ties increases with the uncertainty of the judgement involved. The results reflect higher need for both men and women to develop strong career ties in order to get ahead; thus, only in the task domain, where men are adequately able to get things done via weak ties are the conditional effects of gender evidenced. The mentoring literature suggests another possible explanation: the development of close career relationships between female protégés and male

mentors or sponsors may be restrained by actual or perceived sexual dynamics (Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1988).

The critical issue thus may not be whether or not women network constitutes dense webs of strong ties (Aldrich, 1989) but simply that the network resources reached through ties to women are relatively poor, regardless of the strength of the ties. Ibarra's research does suggest that women are likely to benefit from the development of greater ties to their male colleagues; whether they were unable or unwilling to do so in the organization can not be answered by the data.

Organizational studies, usually measuring stronger links, indicate that ties to powerful persons in the organization are critical for centrality to organization-wide works (Brass, 1984; Ibarra, 1992).

The network literature (Burt, 1982; Granovetter, 1973; Lin, 1982) has tended to assume "one best one way" of gaining access to instrumental resources: Individuals either derive social support from close-knit networks of relationships with people who are similar to them and who occupy similar social worlds, or they obtain instrumental access by developing weak ties and diversifying their networks such that they are able to reach a wide range of information and resources, to exercises control over

their unconnected contacts (Granovetter, 1977; Burt, 1982) and to connect to higher status others (Lin, 1982). Because strong ties are likely to be redundant, they are viewed as inefficient for instrumental purposes (Burt, 1992).

A diversity of empirical findings, however, suggest that intimacy and redundancy should not be viewed as mutually exclusive strategies of the same conceptual dimension but examined separately in different types of instrumental networks. Intraorganizational network studies, which usually measure stronger links, indicate that ties to dominant coalitions are critical for centrality in firm-wide networks and are correlated with future promotion (Brass, 1984, 1985). Further managers rely on strong ties of trust and loyalty to ensure reliability under conditions of uncertainty (Galskiewicz and Shatin, 1981; Kanter, 1977; Krackhardt, 1992). For example, career-related instrumentalities such as career guidance and advocacy for promotion may require stronger ties than other types of instrumental resources (Kram, 1988) and redundancy of information ties may be at times useful in signaling reliability (Brass, 1992).

Network density, refers to the extensiveness of contact among the members of an individual's personal network. Density focuses attention on how a focal individual is

affected by relationships among his/her contacts. Density is high if a person's network contacts all have close network connections with each other (Marsden, 1990).

Homophilous ties tend to be stronger than heterophilous ties, that are among people who differ in certain attributes, because similarity fosters intimacy and networks composed primarily of strong ties tend to be densely knit; alternately, broad-ranging networks comprise a greater number of weak ties and are less likely to include interconnected members (Granovetter, 1982; Marsden, 1990). Homophily is associated with ease of relationship formation, density has brokerage implications, and tie strength is associated with critical work-place relationships such as mentoring (Ibarra, 1993).

Ibarra, (1992) argued that two network mechanisms operate to create and reinforce gender inequalities in the organizational distribution of power: sex differences in homophily (tendency to form same sex network relationships) and in ability to convert individual attributes and positional resources into network advantages.

Men were more likely to form homophilous ties across multiple networks and to have stronger homophilous ties; while women evidenced a differentiated network pattern in which they obtained social support and friendship from women and instrumental access through network ties to men.

Centrality in organization-wide networks did not vary by sex once controls were instituted, relative to women, men appeared to reap greater network returns from similar individual and positional resources, as well as from homophilous relationships.

A variety of theoretical perspectives have been offered to explain or predict sex differences in network structure and access. Persons-centered or dispositional explanations (Riger and Galligan, 1989; Downey and Lahey, 1988) focus on **individual preferences, personality characteristics** and **behavior patterns** that differentiate men from women. Situation-centered argue that characteristics of individual's **social contexts**, rather than their traits count for differences based on gender.

3.3. Formal versus Informal Network Structures

Ibarra (1993) noted that the organizational context in which interaction networks are embedded produces unique constraints on women and racial minorities, causing their

networks to differ from those of their white male counterparts in composition and characteristics of their relationships with network members. Organizational context is hypothesized to affect personal networks directly, as well as through its impact on individuals' strategies for managing constraints.

She emphasized a distinction between **formal** and **informal network** structures. A **formal** (or prescribed) **network** is composed of a formally specified relations between mentors and protégés and among representatives of functionally differentiated groups. Formal networks also encompass relationships created by "quasi-structure": committees, task forces, teams, and dotted-line relationships (Schoonhoven & Jelinick, 1990).

Informal (or emergent) **networks**, involve more directionary patterns of interaction, where the content of relationships may be work related, social, or a combination of both. Informal networks develop out of "the purposive action of social actors who seek to realize their self-interests, and...negotiate routinized patterns or relationships that enhance these interests" (Galaskiewicz, 1979, p.16).

In the workplace, because those interests include work and career goals, informal networks tend to be "pegged"

to formal organizational arrangements (Tichy & Fombrun, 1979) and may include formal relationships. Informal networks of relationships tend to be much broader than formal networks.

Ibarra's research (1995) focusing on the situational factors that affect informal network patterns (e.g., Kanter, 1977) has noted obstacles faced by managerial women in developing strong instrumental ties to mentors, sponsors and their firm dominant coalitions (Brass, 1985). In most corporate settings, women have fewer opportunities than men for informal interaction with instrumentally useful, same-gender others (Ibarra, 1992; McPerson and Smith-Lovin, 1987; Smith-Lovin, and McPerson 1992).

Brass (1985), conducted a study that investigated the interaction patterns of men and women in an organization. Results indicated that individuals' positions in workflow and interaction networks relate strongly to measures of influence. Women were not well-integrated into men's networks including the organization's dominant coalition.

Studies suggest that women have not acquired status and influence comparable to that of their male counterparts in organizations (Hendrick, 1982; Missirian, 1982; Steawart & Gudykunst, 1982). There are few significant

differences in the behavior of men and women in organizations (Bartol, 1978; Rice, Instone & Adams, 1984). Women don't have equal access to informal interaction and communications (Hendrick, 1982; Kanter, 1977).

Several rationales have been presented as to why women do not benefit from informal interactions to the degree that their male colleagues do. One line of thought is that women as relative newcomers in organizations, are not aware of informal networks or as adept at building them as men are. For example, research has indicated that women do not differentiate formal from informal organizational structures as well as men do, and that women tend to rely on formal structures (Henning & Jardim, 1977).

Another rationale concerns ease of communication and preference for interacting with persons with similar attitudes, values and experiences. Kanter (1977) found that men managers felt uncomfortable communicating with women. An alternative view suggests that men, as the typical dominant group in most business organizations, wish to maintain that dominance by intentionally excluding women from informal interactions.

Women will be less central than their male counterparts to the informal interaction networks in an organization. Women may not receive the possibly valuable information, resources, or support that often comes with inclusion in such network. There is little empirical evidence regarding the relationship between informal network position and influence, the importance of informal contacts has often been hypothesized in the power literature (Allen & Porter, 1983; Fombrun, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981).

Being part of informal interaction network of supervisors and top executives will be more instrumental to acquiring influence than being part of non-supervisory networks (Brass, 1985).

Brass (1985) found that informal interaction patterns are important to consider in assessments of influence and promotions in an organizations. The view that women are not aware of informal networks in the work place did not receive support. Women are more adept at building informal networks, especially with other women, than are men. In the organization as a whole, women were more central to the interactions network than are men. Men and women appeared to build networks equally well although each gender tended to interact with itself.

There appear to be two informal, segregated networks operating in the organization.

Women were less central to men's networks, in particular the interaction network of the dominant coalition. Access to this group of high-level men was very strongly related to influence for the women employees and was significantly related to promotions for the entire sample. Both supervisors and non-supervisors perceived women as less influential than men. In addition, women received disproportionately fewer promotions than men. Men in the integrated work groups were more central in the women's network than men who were members of segregated work groups. The men in the integrated work groups were significantly less central to the women's network than women who were members of integrated workgroups (Brass, 1985).

The strong correlation between influence and access to the dominant coalition supports the popular notion of the importance of mentors (Kram, 1983; Missirian, 1982). According to Brass (1985) organizations can attempt to integrate workgroups or to form task forces with balanced numbers of men and women. Both men and women be encouraged to build contacts with members of the other gender.

The results of a research that is conducted by Blau and Alba (1982), suggest that individuals are more powerful if they themselves have external contacts, but it is the extent to which their units have external contacts that is more important for their personal power.

In the study, conducted by Orpen (1996), it is argued that the effect of networking behavior on managerial career success is moderated by the extent to which persons in the network can facilitate job performance. The study indicated that the effect of networking on both promotions and salary growth was greater on managers in high-dependency jobs than on managers in low-dependency jobs.

Kawaura et. al. (1996) have conducted a study that investigated various psychological aspects of social networks of married women and their spouses. The main three findings were as follows: **Firstly**, with marriage, support agents of women and men change extensively in their social networks. Wives have more variety in support agents within their social network, through children to their friends' parents. On the other hand, husbands' agents are likely to be confined to their wives and children. **Secondly**, wives and husbands are similar in that their first choice for seeking advice is their spouse. A friend is the second choice for both of them.

While parents, brothers and sisters serve as wives' third choice, there is no third for husbands. **Thirdly**, enrichment of wives' social network, based on a well-functioning relationship with husbands, leads to a lower degree of social isolation experienced by them.

Social influence in consensus formation was examined using a notion of **sociocognitive network**. Kameda et al. (1997) propose the concept of a sociocognitive network that captures the degree of members' knowledge-sharing prior to group interaction. A link connecting a given pair of members represents the amount of information that the pair shares before interaction. As in a regular social network, a member's status can be defined by the centrality in the network; the more information a member shares with others, the more cognitively central the member is in the group. The authors hypothesized that a cognitively central member would acquire pivotal power in a group and exert more influence on consensus than would peripheral members, independently of the member's preference majority or minority status.

4. Teacher Mentoring

Most mentoring research has been in business and industry. Most research examining mentoring has been theoretical, focusing on career development. Results of the few empirical studies conducted in educational settings indicate that faculty mentors improve the student's employment possibilities (Cameron, 1978), professional skills (Bova & Phillips, 1984), and professional growth (Harris & Brewer, 1986). Faculty mentors also have reported that their own growth continues when they mentor students (Busch, 1985).

There are few quantitative research projects that examine mentoring in educational settings. Merriam, Thomas, and Zeph (1987) identified only 26 empirical studies in their review of the literature on mentoring in education.

Three goals of mentoring beginning teachers have survived the conceptual analyses of teacher mentoring and teacher induction offered over the past decade. These goals are to provide beginning teachers with guidance and support from mentor teachers, to promote the professional development of beginning teachers, and the retain beginning teachers (Odell, 1990). Evidence that teacher mentoring fosters the development of new teachers is

increasing. Mentored beginning teachers seem to evince more competency and motivation than teachers without mentors (Huling & Austin, 1990).

Various estimates suggest that about 30% of beginning teachers do not teach beyond 2 years and that almost 40%, and especially the most academically talented, leave the profession within their first 5 years of teaching (Heyns, 1988). Recent data from the National Center for Educational Information (Feistritzer, 1990) show that the attrition rate across all teachers is 4.1% annually, suggesting that the annual attrition rate for beginning teachers is approximately twice that of experienced teachers.

The retention of teachers is determined by a host of demographic, professional, environmental, psychological, organizational, and social factors. Variables such as the sex, age, socioeconomic, minority, and marital statuses of teachers, the amount and adequacy of their preparation, the extent of their professional and social integration into teaching, and their job and career satisfaction, context, status, and stress have all been hypothesized by Heyns (1988) to influence retention.

A social learning model of the multiple influences on teacher retention proposed by Chapman (1983, 1984)

encourages the expectation that long-term teacher retention can be improved by mentoring teachers during their first year of teaching. This model suggests that the roots of long-term teacher retention longitudinal and harken back to the teachers' early commitments to and experiences in teaching. Indeed, the quality of the first teaching experience seems to be more positively related to teacher retention than is beginning teachers' prior academic performance or the adequacy of their teacher preparation programs.

If it can be shown that improving the quality of the first year of teaching through mentoring can increase retention, it might be useful to understand better the nature and content of the mentoring experience. The literature contains no retrospective data that reveal how experienced teachers perceive the content of mentoring support to have influenced the quality of their early teaching experience. Odell and Ferraro (1992) suggested that teacher mentoring may reduce the early attrition of beginning teachers.

Although most definitions stress the one-sided transferal of guidance and information from mentor to protégé, O'Neil (1981) has provided a definition of mentoring that proposes benefits from the relationship for both mentors and protégés: The complex process where personal, role,

and situational factors interact between an older (more experienced) professional person and a younger (less experienced) person that includes the parameters of **mutuality, comprehensiveness, congruence, and gender sensitivity** (O'Neil & Wrightsman, 1982).

According to O'Neil's interactive model, high degrees of mutuality (sharing of reciprocal feelings and values), comprehensiveness (interacting in a variety of settings), and congruence (agreement on the purpose of the relationship) produce positive and functional mentoring relationships with the outcomes of interpersonal respect, professionalism, collegiality, and role fulfillment. Gender sensitivity is an outcome of successful mentoring when mentor and protégé help each other overcome the restrictions imposed by sex-role socialization. O'Neil and Wrightsman (1982) propose that the importance of the aspects of these parameters change as the relationship moves through several stages; this has been confirmed by Kram (1983).

Wilde and Schau (1989) combined O'Neil's psychological emphasis of mutuality and comprehensiveness with traditional career development. They identified the components in mentoring relationships as reported by graduate students in education and examined the importance of each component.

Few studies have been published that focus specifically on teacher-teacher relationships and the phenomenon of mentoring in schools. Gehrke and Kay (1984) investigated the presence of mentoring among teachers and the nature of the mentored relationship. These authors used the terms mentor and protégé to denote relationships that were positive and healthy. They distinguished mentors from the neutral term "sponsor", which indicated a less comprehensive relationship, containing less favorable elements. Of the 188 teachers who responded to the questionnaire, 111 indicated (59%) having known a person who had "helped, guided, or sponsored them" in the teaching profession (p.21). The 41 (21%) interviewed teachers who claimed a mentoring relationship stated that their mentors were college professors/supervisors, school principals, and former teachers. The study showed that few of the teachers had become mentors for other teachers even though they expressed a desire to do so. Lambert (1985) also addresses the training of teachers. She advises that "teachers need mentors".

In another study, Little et. al. (1984) examined closely the classroom interactions of advisors (teachers on special assignment, released from the classroom full-time and paid according to the established teacher's pay scale) with beginning and experienced teachers. The advisors' roles were parallel to those envisioned in

master and mentor teacher plans and in descriptions of the senior positions in career ladder plans.

Huling-Austin, Barnes, and Smith (1985), suggest that the involvement of a support or peer teacher is a valuable aspect of an induction program. The productive mentor-new teacher relationship is most likely to develop when the two teachers instruct similar grade levels and content and when their classrooms are located in the same area of the building. Two other criteria were found to be beneficial in the pairing process: (1) The first-year teacher and support teacher must have compatible ideologies about teaching. (2) The first-year teacher should understand and accept the need for a support teacher arrangement. Induction programs should include a provision for the formal involvement of the school principal.

Ballantyne et. al. (1995) conducted a research in Queensland Catholic schools. Sixteen beginning teachers commencing their first year of teaching in the schools, together with nine experienced teachers appointed as their mentors, provided detailed written reflections on their experiences during the beginners' first year of teaching. Using their responses as data, the nature and value of the peer mentoring relationship are analyzed in relation to the needs, concerns and professional

development of beginning teachers as they progress through the year. Patterns and themes emerging from the data are described qualitatively and illustrated by direct quotations from participants' responses. Conclusions are drawn regarding the roles and functions of mentors which are most helpful at various stages, the benefits and limitations of peer mentoring in relation to these functions and issues involved in the development of the mentoring relationship over the course of the first teaching year.

Atkins and Williams (1995), explored and analyzed registered nurses' experiences of mentoring undergraduate nursing students within a single health authority in England. The findings of the study indicate that **mentoring** undergraduate nursing students is a **complex** and **skilled activity**, requiring **educational preparation**, **support** and **recognition**.

The purpose of the study made by Bainer et. al. (1994), was to identify the dimensional structure of mentoring and other support behaviors that occur naturally among adults in elementary school settings. Six separate factors emerged as dimensions of support among teachers: **Mentoring**, **Supporting**, **Collaborating**, **Career Strategizing**, **Supervising**, and **Grounding**. The study lends credence to the idea of multidimensional support

within an elementary school organization characterized by relationships that are distinct from those described in business and academic settings. The findings suggest that in elementary school settings a broad base of support may be preferable to having a single exclusive mentor and that formalized programs should be based on these **natural informal networks**.

A survey of graduate chairpersons in psychology about the prevalence and value of mentoring relationships between psychology graduate and undergraduate students was conducted by Bettencourt et. al. (1994). The results indicate that formal mentoring programs were rare (6%); however, a substantial percentage of respondents (75%) reported that graduate students interact informally with undergraduates on research projects. In addition, respondents estimated that a large percentage of psychology graduate students (49%) and faculty members (66%) would favor interactions in which graduate students serve as mentors to undergraduate students. Respondents endorsed significantly more advantages than disadvantages associated with this type of mentoring relationship for both graduate (48% vs 35%) and undergraduate students (54% vs 19%).

Kerry and Farrow (1996) looks at mentoring in the Open University's Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE)

course: a distance learning, competence-based course of part-time Initial Teacher Training (ITT) for primary and secondary students. It emphasizes the importance of school-based mentoring, and looks at changing student perceptions of mentoring over the duration of the course. Questionnaires and interviews are used to explore a range of issues about mentoring in ITT. The findings suggest that students become more discerning about, and more critical of, their mentors as the course proceeds. Some attempt is made to suggest how these attitudes can be improved.

In the study of Wildman et. al. (1992), a conceptual framework composed of eight categories of mentoring activities that address five domains of beginning teachers' concerns was developed based on the reported activities of 150 teachers who were lead mentors. The study suggests that experienced teachers possess an extensive repertoire of helping strategies and that, with opportunities for collaboration, **teachers can develop and shape complex mentoring roles that meet beginning teachers' needs.** Conditions that influence mentoring relationships include **school context factors** and **mentor and beginning teacher characteristics.** Mentoring programs thus should not attempt to rigidly specify mentoring roles. With support, experienced teachers can

provide assistance tailored to the circumstances of beginning teachers in individual schools.

4.1. Socialization in Teacher Mentoring

Fieldwork provides a means by which students are **socialized** into their profession and their careers. During fieldwork, students acquire and apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will enable them to achieve entry-level competence. To support these experiences, students form a variety of helping relationships with faculty members, clinicians, peers, family, and friends. Nolinske (1995) examines the role and responsibilities of the student as protégé and of the clinical educator as information peer, collegial peer, special peer, and mentor. In light of the challenges faced by most clinicians secondary to health care reform, an alternative to the one-to-one supervision model is presented. The multiple mentoring model of fieldwork supervision has several advantages: (1) fieldwork educators work with students according to their **strengths and interests**; (2) the model promotes collegiality and clinical reasoning skills because students use each other as resources and observe different fieldwork educators approaching similar situations; and (3) the model allows a fieldwork site to accept more students at one time, while minimizing stress on any one fieldwork educator. In this study, a framework defining the functions of the

mentor-protégé relationship is provided, with an emphasis on the effect that clinical educators have in their roles as mentors, guides, role models, and teachers who provide opportunities for the student to develop entry-level competency in a chosen profession.

In Brereton's study (1995) the theory-practice relationship and the use of communication and interpersonal skills in nursing have been recurrently identified as issues causing concern. There was agreement that **communication** is fundamental to nursing and that the **socialization** process strongly **influences** the development of **communication** and **interpersonal skills**. There appears to be a reliance on mentors to assess student progress and determine whether they have knowledge underpinning practice. Classroom teaching was recognized as idealistic but the divisions in participants' opinions led to difficulty in determining whether a theory-practice gap actually exists. The main influences on the theory-practice relationship were the mentor's knowledge of the curriculum and mentoring system.

Waite (1993) examined five teacher-supervisor conferences and their contexts. Related to the literature of supervision, teacher **socialization**, and mentoring, this report details how three teacher conference roles-

passive, collaborative, and adversarial-were constructed, face-to-face and moment-by-moment. Teachers' interactional resources are illuminated as supervisors' presumed hegemony is reconsidered. Implications derived from this study include those for: **supervision, educational leadership, school reform, teacher recruitment and placement, beginning teacher development, and action research.**

4.2. Gender in Teacher Mentoring

Gender effect is also important in school environment. In the study by Wilson and Reschly (1995), female doctoral practitioners rated themselves as less confident of their skills in research or writing, and also noted less mentoring during their doctoral programs than their male counterparts did. Female school psychologists, both practitioners and faculty, were more likely to have worked part time because of family responsibilities than males. Few differences in practice or roles were found for practitioners or faculty; both indicated a high level of satisfaction with their career choice. Both male and female practitioners preferred to do significantly less assessment and more systems level consultation, but these trends were less pronounced for females.

Stein (1981) found that male subjects expected more friendship between mentor and protégé and greater

subsequent job-seeking assistance from the mentor than did female subjects.

Wilde and Schau (1989) investigated whether there are differences in mentoring based on sex of mentor and or sex of protégé and whether student age is related to the mentoring support received. According to their research results, students reported the existence of **career** and **psychological** aspects in their mentoring relationships (Kanter, 1977; Levinson, 1978; Kram, 1983). Sex discrimination is decreasing because of the increased numbers of women seeking advance degrees, especially in education. These students sought out the professors who met their needs and who treated them as people rather than as women and men. Yet, the structure of mentoring relationships is perceived somewhat differently by male and female students. Both sexes reported the strong occurrence of the psychological component of mutual support. Women students, with both female and male mentors, reported the existence of a separate component a comprehensiveness that men did not identify as a separate component.

In a major study of the academic mentoring system, Mokros, Erkut, and Spichiger (1981) interviewed 40 faculty members from two selective Eastern liberal arts colleges (one a women's college, the other

coeducational). Almost half of these faculty said they had no mentor during their own undergraduate experiences; 56% of the men and 53% of the women reported that they had had at least one mentor. The professors selected one student whom they felt they had influenced more than any other. Male and female professors were equally likely to have female students (37.5%); male professors were more likely to have male students than were female professors (20% vs. 5%). Erkut and Mokros (1981) also found similar percentages.

Nora et. al. (1996) indicated that institutional experiences, academic achievement, and environmental pull factors contributed the most to persistence decisions. Furthermore, analyses revealed that differences in the effects of these factors for different ethnic and gender groups were important in explaining persistence decisions. No pre-college factors (educational aspirations, prior academic achievement, attitudes toward learning, and support and encouragement to attend college) were found to improve the overall fit of the models for any of the groups in the study. For minorities, the biggest detrimental effects on dropout behavior were derived from pull factors in the form of family responsibilities and working off-campus. No significant positive effects from informal and formal interactions with faculty, close personal relationships

with peers, and academic experiences during their first year in college were found to negate the large negative influences from the pull factors. For females, the most significant positive effect on college persistence came from mentoring experiences in the form of non-classroom interactions with faculty.

The goal of the study conducted by Duin et. al. (1994), was to expand their understanding of mentoring situated within electronic exchanges. Focusing on three graduate and five undergraduate mentors' responses via telecommunications, the authors explored the strategies mentors used to make their reading and understanding of the texts explicit to their students, the responses mentors provided to demonstrate how students might revise, and mentors' perceptions toward mentoring. Results showed that mentor pre-project expectations about responses they might make to students did not correspond to their actual responses, and that as the project progressed, mentor responses formed patterns corresponding to the draft of the students' writing assignment. Additional differences were found based on **mentors' previous teaching experience, gender, and requests for feedback.** Mentors expressed as their greatest difficulty not knowing which comments were perceived by students as most helpful.

Mentors are important in the personal and professional development of medical students. Little is known about how the structure of a mentoring program impacts on student-faculty relationships. Seal and Mutha (1996) wanted to evaluate and compare 2 structurally different mentoring programs at Stanford University School of Medicine, students and faculty were surveyed to rate and characterize aspects of the student-mentor relationship and rate overall satisfaction with the program. More than 90% of respondents were satisfied with the new mentor program compared with 24% of those in the preceptor program. Students in the new program rated discussions as significantly more useful than those in the preceptor program. In selecting a mentor, faculty's clinical and research **interests** were more important criteria than gender or race. Students emphasized the need for more clinically-oriented mentors. As a conclusion, programs that allow students to select mentors based on **shared personal and professional interests** lead to greater **satisfaction** and potentially more effective mentoring.

4.3. Age in Teacher Mentoring

Wilde and Schau (1989) found some **age** variations in regard to pervasiveness of career ended. The older the student, the less professional development occurs in mentoring. In education, older students often have

occupations and need an advanced degree for the status awarded to degree-holders by others and as educational justification for their continued job performance. Thus, these individuals may need and seek fewer of the traditional professional development aspects of mentoring.

Busch (1985) sampled a large number of professors currently working with graduate students in educational programs in state college and universities across the United States to study mentoring relationships from the mentor's perspective. She also used O'Neil's four components for her research. She found that professor mentors see benefits for themselves, as well as for mentees, in the relationship. In addition, younger professors reported more depth in their mentoring relationships, whereas older mentors reported more breadth in their relationships.

5. Qualitative Research (An Extreme Case Study)

5.1. Research Design and Methodology

5.1.1. Research Objectives

The purpose of this study is to find out the differences of mentoring relationship in a different organizational setting. Therefore an extreme case study is conducted in a different organization. For this case study, qualitative research method is used (Yin, 1989).

Methodology:

This research is conducted in an organization with strong organizational values sharing ideologies. In this different organizational setting an extreme case study is conducted. The real purpose is to find out new concepts about mentoring relationship intra-dyads. 17 dyads are determined in the institution. This amount is enough for the evaluation of the relationships. If the amount of the dyads were not enough for the research, the other units which are in Bolu and Düzce, would be included the study. Therefore, "replication logic" is not used, and another organization is not included the research.

5.1.2. Research Questions

There are two parts of research questions of this study. One part is related to mentoring relationship in the

organization. The other one is about the organization for understanding the organizational differences.

I-) Research Questions about **Mentoring Relationship** :

- 1- How is the mentoring relationship in the organization?
Is there any difference in the content of the relationship?
- 2- What are the types of mentors?
- 3- What is important (similarity, or performance), in the determination of dyads in the mentoring relationship?
- 4- What are the advantages and disadvantages of dyads in mentoring relationship? Are they different according to gender?
- 5- How is the networking system of the organization?

II-) Research Questions about the **Organization**:

- 1- Who determines the organizational outputs (such as reward, bonus, promotion, increment, dividend)? How are these outputs distributed? Is there any gender effect?
- 2- Are Islamic Values dominant in the organization? What are they?
- 3- What are the characteristics of relationships in the organization?
- 4- What are the characteristics of decision making process in the organization?

5.1.3. Industrial Analysis

In Turkey, all educational activities are conducted by the Ministry of Education. Therefore, the Ministry of Education is very important in the lives of educational institutions.

Every year, approximately 1,500,000 candidates take the central university examination which is prepared by the Higher Education Commission. This exam consists of two steps. The first step is called Student Selection Exam (ÖSS). This exam takes three hours, and there are two parts in this exam. These parts are social and quantitative science parts. The score of the students is calculated based on these two distinct parts. Students who got more than a score of 105, can pass the first step. For example, in 1997, 647,929 candidates could have a right to enter the second step. If the exam score is between 105 and 120, students cannot take the second step. They can attend the School of Profession (Meslek Yüksek Okulu-MYO) which provide an intermediate degree. These schools are for two years. Their quotas are also very limited. Unfortunately, after the graduation from these schools, most students cannot find a desirable job. Therefore, most students do not prefer these schools. Students who got more than a score of 120, have a right to take the second step of the exam, approximately three months later than the first one. This second step is

called the Student Placement Exam (ÖYS). This exam takes 3.5 hours, and there are five parts in this exam. These parts are, social, technical sciences, mathematics, Turkish, and a foreign language. After this exam, students are placed at a university department according to their scores. In 1997, there was a capacity for 421,235 candidates in under-graduate programs of 75 universities. For this exam, having a high score and ranking of preferences is very important. As a result, to enter a university is very difficult in Turkey.

Because of the deriving from the gap between supply and demand, and difficulties, private schools offering specialized institutions preparing for the central university examination are established rapidly, in the last 8-10 years. There are 28 high-schools, and 18 preparatory institutions for central university examination in Adapazarı. There are approximately 11,100 students in the high-schools, and approximately 5000 of them are attending preparatory institutions for preparing university exams. These preparatory institutions are very expensive.

There is high competition between the preparatory institutions in Adapazarı. There is also a high rate of turnover of teachers in between the institutions. All institutions try to register the successful and

intelligent students into their institutions. Because of this, they also test the students free, and separate them according to their success. In special classrooms, students can be educated very well, and the success of the institution can also be very high. This success is also a very good advertisement for these preparatory institutions. In this industry, there is high competition, there are very powerful competitors, and there are also a lot of services for the university candidates.

5.1.4. Data Collection Method

The data for this study were collected from primary sources by in-depth interviews with mentors and protégés. One in-depth interview took approximately three or four hours. Interviews started with general questions, and every one of them gained different directions with specialized questions.

In the in-depth interviews, effects of mentoring, mentoring experiences in the organization, opinions about mentors/protégés, and that about the organization, advantages and disadvantages of mentoring relationship, and finally demographic features of the respondents are asked in detail.

The findings about the institution were obtained by observing the organization during an academic year. The researcher observed the institution during one year. In addition to this, in-depth interviews with two unit managers and the General Manager, and archival data provided many information about the institution.

Additional interviews were conducted with 50 students, 50 parents as customers of the institution, and 11 members of staff (5 from female unit, 3 from male unit, and 3 from the third unit). Their general opinions about the institution were asked and their answers also contributed the information about the organization.

5.1.5. Organizational Analysis

This organization (Private Sakarya Education Institution -PSEI) is one of the preparatory institutions in Adapazarı. PSEI was established in the 1990-1991 academic year. A large ratio of the candidates in the Adapazarı area are attending this organization. This organization is the biggest preparatory institution of Adapazarı. It has 2000 students, holding 40 % of the market in its region.

There are three units of this organization. One of them is called as "center" of the corporation. This main unit which has the largest number of students and teachers is

for male students. The teachers are also male. The other unit is for female candidates. The teachers are female, in general. But sometimes male teachers may come, and have a lesson. The third one is for primary school students, and there are male and female students and teachers in this unit.

At the beginning, in 1991, after the organization was known for its success, four more units were established consecutively. Two of them are in Bolu, and two of them are in Düzce. But, in 1995, these units were transferred to the other private enterprises which have operations in those districts. Now, PSEI has only three units in Adapazarı.

PSEI also has boarding facilities. There are a lot of districts of Adapazarı which are far away from the city center. Therefore, PSEI established two dormitories for male and female candidates. The capacity of male dormitory is 100, and that of female dormitory is 60. These dormitories have full capacity every year. Managers reported that these dormitories were not enough for the demand in Adapazarı. Boarding service is not available in the other preparatory institutions in the Adapazarı region.

There is only one day off in a week. The personnel work six days a week. Monday is the off day. Students attend the institutions at the weekends, so personnel (staff and teachers) must work during Saturday and Sunday.

Students: The students prefer this institution, because of its success. In 1989, Adapazarı was the 56th province in the ranking of student placement in the universities. Respondents indicated that, after the establishment of PSEI, it started to rank 35th. The General Manager of the institution emphasized that, placement percentage of this institution was 75%.

Education quality and discipline are the most important criteria for students in choosing a preparatory institution. Interviewed candidates (50) said that interest of the teachers, long study-times and qualified quizzes have affected them positively.

Parents: Parents also prefer this institution, because of its success. The interviewed parents (50) said that they have trusted this corporation, they have believed that their children were in a secure climate, and they have felt at ease about attendance of their children to this institution. Some parents prefer this institution because of the segregation of divisions based on students' sex. Most of them believe that the success of

PSEI depends on the fact that there is sex sex-segregation. They thought that the institution was like a "second house" for them or their children. They find the organizational climate warm. The General Manager of the organization emphasized that, the parents were also very important for the organization because teacher-parent cooperation was so important for education functions. Teachers organize meetings with the parents, and they can have ideas about their children's success. Separate programs, video projections, and some parties are organized for them. The aim of these activities is to increase the success of the students. The teachers stressed the support of the parents as an important factor for the success of students.

Staff: They explained themselves as conservative people. The secretaries are happy-faced, and know all parents of the candidates. Parents usually visit the institution, and see their children, the teachers and secretaries. They do not complain from working at the weekends.

One of the teachers is responsible from the **staff**. S/he listens to the staff, learns their needs, contacts with them directly. The teacher tries to determine the necessary things for successful job performance of the staff.

The General Manager said that, **cultural activities** were also important for the organization. This is also one of the distinctive characteristics of the corporation. Before the exams, some morale days, panels of some important speakers, and some lectures are organized. Professors from Sakarya University give seminars about educational systems, and students can ask related questions to these professors. Students who are interested in these cultural activities can participate in these programs.

In the institution, there is another facility for **university students** in Adapazarı. They have a chance to study in the classrooms of the institution, when the classrooms are empty. They also teach some lessons to their friends or the younger students. By this way, university students can establish close relations with the institution. The seniors can attend the lessons that are related to their branches. In the following year, they can be a teacher candidate for this preparatory institution. Therefore relationship with university students (especially from Sakarya University) is very important for the corporation.

One of the teachers is responsible from taking the **tests** and **quizzes, documents** from the center unit. The teacher is interested in the determination of the necessary

tests, and the obtainment of them. All teachers determine the insufficient tests or quizzes, and communicate with this teacher. In a period of time, the teacher contacts with the staff in archive in the male unit, and obtain the notified documents.

One of the teachers is responsible for the relations with **press**. The teacher examines the new related books, or test books, and advertises them to the students. S/he is interested in the students who would like to subscribe to the related test books, and journals. S/he also analyze these test books, and journals. The teacher would like to give some instructions to the students about ways of subscription and methods of payments in order to improve the service.

One of the teachers is responsible from **reports** of the students. Reports are sent to the parents in periods of two months. Most of the parents choose to pay the price by installments. In these reports installment situation is also pointed out for the parents. Collection of installments is very difficult for the organization. The General Manager emphasized that some parents do not pay the price, before the succession of their children in the university examination. If their children cannot pass the examination, some parents do not want to pay the

price. Therefore, at the end of every year, these problems pass to the courts.

There is a **day nursery** for the kids of the teachers in the female unit. One of the teachers is responsible from the coordination of the day nursery. She determines the problems, listens to the nursery personnel, and acts as a liaison to the administrators.

Islamic Values in the Organization

Administrators do not openly admit that Islamic values are dominant in the organization. However, there are outright indicators of the predominance of Islamic values in the organization. This institution is a private enterprise, and Islamic values are prevalent in the organization. The predominance of Islamic values in the organization are observed by the following qualities:

- 1- Some of the female teachers use headscarfs. Female teachers cannot use headscarfs during the lectures, but they wear headscarfs out of classrooms. (There are some regulations for dress codes of the personnel. These regulations are determined by the General Manager. He said that, the teachers had to wear clean and ironed clothes. Male teachers must use tie, and all teachers must be seen modern by the students and the parents).

- 2- Teachers often pray in the corporation. Females pray in day nursery. Males pray in archives room.
- 3- There is segregation of units based on sex. There are two distinct units, one of them is for males and the other one is for females. Male unit was established first, and this part is considered as center of the corporation. Everything is administered from there. Director of male unit is General Manager of the firm. Director of female unit is a subordinate of General Manager.
- 4- Interviewed teachers indicated that they give importance to Islamic belief and its practices as a way of life. But they indicated that they were not very radical in Islam.
- 5- Personnel indicated that they see their colleagues as their "co-religionists" and because of this they have so supportive relationships. When it is necessary, they fill the others' deficits. They try to solve the problems as soon as possible.
- 6- Personnel define their jobs as holy. They indicated that they live for doing good and are ready to sacrifice themselves for the good of others. They indicated that money factor is not very important for them.

Sex-segregation, wearing headscarfs (Islamic veiling), to sacrifice themselves for the good of others, dominance of

men, and Islamic practices are Islamic values according to different writers. Musa Lotüs (1989), in his book which is named "Being Veiled Matter" (...Ve Tesettür Meselesi), indicated that being veiled was Islamic rule. He referred to 31. verse of Nur Surah, and 59. verse of Ahzab Surah in Koran. In the book named "Religious Attitudes, Behavior and Personality Properties", Veysel Uysal (1996) emphasized that ritual worship, Salah, Fast, and reading Koran were Islamic practices. He also used these practices as religiousness criteria in his research.

Formal Departmentation and Study Group System

There is a **formal departmentation** and **facilitated mentoring program** in the organization. Formal organization chart is basic. There is a structure in the institution about different study group on every branch. This system is very important for the firm. **Study Group System (SGS)** is more dominant for the relationship between teachers and advisors than **Facilitated Mentoring Program (FMP)** in the organization. FMP is necessary for supporting the SGS. In the SGS, there are different groups on different sciences (e.g. Geography, History, Turkish, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Algebra, Geometry, Philosophy), there are branch teachers and a chairman in every study group. There are also different study groups by female and male teachers. Therefore, there are 9 men

and 9 women **study group chair persons** for these 18 study groups that are organized based on subject and gender. These chair persons are qualified and experienced teachers, and they are also mentors in general. Their ideas are very important, and administrators usually ask their thoughts on different managerial decisions. General Manager indicated that they were very altruistic people, and preferred to sacrifice their livings in order to give life to others. They work and earn more than the other teachers. They can be defined as "building-stones" of the firm. These study groups meet one or two times per month. In these study groups, study group chair persons teach the explanation of specific subjects, show teaching methods to the new teachers, and all teachers prepare test questions for quizzes and tests simultaneously.

Both the General Manager and the managers indicated that **performance** is very important for them, and above all of the other factors. Loyalty of the staff is also very important for the corporation. All the staff work for only this corporation, and they are full-time workers.

The situation of the teachers is a little different. The teachers do not have to be on the job full-time. They go to the job, when they have lectures. Sometimes they have additional tasks (like responsibility of Staff, Press, Cultural Activities, Documentation, Reports of the

students). They are only responsible from their lectures and the additional tasks.

On the other hand, the teachers are very important for the firm. Finding especially qualified teachers is very difficult. In this sector, there is a "high rate of turnover". The first year of the teachers is very important. If they can be successful in the first year, they also can be popular in the sector. They can be considered to be an experienced teacher even the end of one year. If a teacher could be popular in the sector, his importance increases for the firm. Experienced, and qualified popular teachers may move from a firm to another one. Therefore, general turnover is rapid in this sector.

There is no written, formal Performance Appraisal practice in the organization. The performance and success of the teachers is asked to the mentors and study group chair persons. There are one or two branch examinations for teachers in a year. Every teacher has to enter these exams. If the teachers do not enter the exams, they have to pay punishment in money.

According to the results of these exams, teachers can learn their success degrees on their branches, and they can take actions to develop themselves. There is no

effective sanction of these exams. In addition to this situation, a **control committee** is formed every year. In this committee, there are two or three study group chair persons, and they are the most experienced, and usually male study group chair persons. This committee controls the performance of the study groups, their successes, and checks the functions of the other study group chair persons. Study group chair persons, always report the activities of their study groups to the control committee.

Additionally, for the control committee, feedback from the students and the parents are very important signals about the success of the teachers. If there is any complaint about the teachers from the customers, the unit of the teachers can be changed.

Formal Meetings

There are three different types of **meetings** in the organization. In the *meetings of managers*, general manager and the other two administrators of units take place. Usually, administrative subjects are discussed. In the *meetings of study group chair persons*, especially technical subjects that are related to educational problems (e.g. curriculums, tests, quizzes etc.) are determined. In the *meetings of the teachers*, problems

about classes and that about students are talked, and guidance and counseling functions of the teachers are defined. All these meetings are being done for increasing of education quality, and for finding new practices in education sector.

Consultation

Respondents frequently indicated that there was a "consultation climate" in the organization. It means that, there is open communication between teachers and management team in the organization. It does not mean that every person could say every thing in every time. There is a mechanism for this communication system. First of all, teachers tell their ideas or wants to assistant directors, and than assistant directors transfer these ideas to the managers of the units. Unit managers tell them to General Manager or bring them into the board of management. Board of management consists of three unit managers, one counseling expert, and General Manager. In light of these different ideas, the last decisions are taken in the board of management.

In addition to this, mentors and protégés can say their ideas about each other and about their success in their branches. They also share their ideas with the other mentors and protégés. There is also open communication

among mentors of different branches. Sometimes they consult each other about mentoring functions.

As the Table 1. shows that cumulatively, all the males (18 - 100.0 % of them) and 15 (93.7 %) of female teachers thought that the institution asked their ideas when it was necessary. Only one female protégé thought that it did not ask her ideas. Especially mentors and also study group chair persons (all study group chair persons are also mentors in the institution) are very powerful in the corporation. Mentors are advisable, respectable, and asked for their opinions. Sometimes, they enter the lessons of the teachers, and criticize that teacher, study group chair persons express their opinions about the education techniques of the teacher. It can be understood that Study Group System is very dominant in the institution.

Table 1. Asking the Ideas of the Teachers

(N=34)

Values	Frq	Σ%	F	F%	M	M%
It asks (Consultation is common)	16	47.1	8	50.0	8	44.4
Sometimes (related to my branch)	17	50.0	7	43.7	10	55.6
It does not ask	1	2.9	1	6.3		

Level Determination Test

In every year, a level determination examination is organized for the students who attend the first and second years of high-schools (lycée) in Adapazarı. Every institutions organize this type of examination free. By

this way, the successful students can be determined, and the teachers are given work for dealing with these students. The lists of the students are distributed to the teachers, they call the students, and talk to them about the facilities of the firm. The institution determines a target number of registrations. If the teachers can reach and pass this target, they are rewarded. This reward may be a present, or money. In general, the advisors ask the teachers what they had wanted as reward.

Hierarchy Among Mentors

There is no hierarchical structure among mentors, but men are always in the front, partly they are more experienced than women. Women study groups send the questions that are prepared by them, to the related male study groups. Study group chair persons of men decide which questions were qualified, which were not. According to these decisions, tests and quizzes are prepared. Type-setting machine is also in the unit of men. Dominance of men can be seen clearly in the organization.

Wage System of the Organization

There is not an elaborate and detailed wage system in the organization. There are two differences in the wage system of the organization for the teachers. One of them

is between **apprentice** and **experienced** teachers, and the other difference is about **gender** effect.

First of all, different base salaries are determined for apprentice and experienced teachers in every six months. They get a raise two times a year. These base salaries are the same for men and female teachers. At the beginning of 1997, this quantity was 51.200.000 TL. (466 \$) for apprentice teachers, and 57.000.000 TL. (518 \$) for experienced teachers. If the teachers are study group chair persons, their base salary is 61.500.000 TL. (559 \$) for women chair persons. If they are single men chair persons, their base salary is 62.000.000 TL. (564 \$); if they are married male teachers, their base salary is 65.000.000 TL. (590 \$).

Additionally, there are some supplementary payments to the personnel (staff and teachers). There is a social payment to female personnel only for giving birth and death of a close family member. On the other hand, there are many supplementary payments for men in the organization. Male personnel can take social payments for marriage, birth, and death of every child. In addition to these, if their wives do not work, male teachers can take an additional supplementary payment. While both male and female personnel are paid for birth and death, male get payment for marriage in addition. If

the male personnel of the organization were enlisted, the firm give an additional social payment of 10.000.000 TL. (100 \$) to the single men, 30.000.000 TL. (273 \$) to the married ones.

At the same time, personnel take an additional payment based on their seniority. Students demand a lot of additional lessons from their teachers, therefore, the number of these additional lessons increases the salary of the teachers. If the number of the lessons is more than 20 in a week, the teacher can take 400.000 TL. for every additional lesson. This number may change every month, so the amount of salary of the teachers is not stable. Their salaries may change every month.

"Accelerated Courses"

These courses are the most important differentiation of the institution in the sector. There are three "accelerated courses" for the students in an academic year, and the courses take approximately ten days. One of them is at the beginning of the year. The second one is before the first step of the university examination. The third one is before the second step of the university examination.

In these "accelerated courses", there are more lessons for every branch than normal times. The schedule is very

condensed. There are also many quizzes and tests for the students in every lesson.

The first "accelerated course" is very important especially for the new teachers. Performance of the teachers is also important at this time. If the students like the teacher, s/he have an advantage for being successful in the institution. This course starts before the school time, therefore the students can attend the institution. The aim of this course is to teach the first subjects to the students, and to gain speed in teaching the subjects.

The aim of the second and the third "accelerated courses" are the same. Before the examinations, the learned subjects are repeated in general. Students solve the "repeat tests", and try to solve the problems faster than before. "Repeat tests" consist of the learned subjects until that time. Students can repeat the subjects by these tests. Teachers also have to solve every test related with their branches.

Facilitated Mentoring Program (FMP) of the Organization:

In addition to the formal departments, the organization has a formal mentoring program (Exhibit 1). The **recruitment** sources are two types. One of them is the application of new teachers, and the other one is from

new graduated teachers who attend the related lessons in the previous year. As it is explained before, the university students could attend the related lessons in the organization before graduation. They are usually new teacher candidates for the institution.

After the recruitment of the teachers, **seminar programs** are organized for these new teachers by experienced teachers. A seminar coordinator is determined by the board of management, and he coordinates these different seminars on different branches. The program takes ten days, and consists of two parts. In the first five days, the experienced teachers explain the related subjects, and in the last five days, the new teachers give lectures to their seminar groups, and their experienced teachers. During this program, attendance and participation of the new teachers is very important. At the end of the seminars, the new teachers take branch examinations. The results, and their general skills are evaluated by the seminar coordinator and by their experienced teachers. According to this program, the organization identifies the teachers who would be considered as a protégé.

On the other hand, mentor candidates are identified by the organization. They are generally selected from experienced, and successful teachers in the organization. Being a mentor is an extra task for the experienced

teachers in the institution even though they do not want to be mentor. On the other hand, the interviews showed that, they want to share their experiences with inexperienced teachers. An **orientation program** is organized for the experienced teachers. Mentor candidates may volunteer for the role, or may be recruited by a senior manager. Time commitments, types of activities, time and budget support, relationships with advisors, and reporting requirements are typical subjects covered in the Mentor Orientation Program.

In the next step, selected protégés are matched with the oriented mentors by the organization. Until now, there is not any disagreements noted between mentors and protégés. Mentors and protégés are usually matched on the basis of the self-diagnosed professional needs of the protégés. Personalities, and compatibility of teaching styles also play an important role in matching.

Then, in the Orientation Program, the mentors and protégés meet at a study group, and know each other in detail. This period takes the first "accelerated course" at the beginning. The success of the teacher is very important at this time. During this gathering, presentations are made about program expectations. Experienced teacher mentors teach the critical and easy

lecturing techniques to their protégés. At this step, mentors are rather didactic.

In the next step, teaching and learning session starts, and continues during the academic year. This step, takes a very long time (during the initiation stage of mentoring relationship - 6 months or one year). Mentors give lectures to the students in the classroom, and the protégés attend their lessons. In this step, protégés work through the program that is given to them by their mentors; and mentors coordinate protégés in the related study groups periodically.

At the end of this model, the agreement of the dyads is very important. Protégés who can complete the steps successfully, receive teacher degree, and they are accepted as new mentors of the future. New mentor candidates are identified from these teachers by the advisors in the institution.

Facilitated mentor-protégé relationship finishes at the end of the academic year, but the relationship continues informally.

Networking in the Institution

There is a different networking structure of the organization. Social networking is very strong in the

units, but it is weak between the units. Network ties of intra-units are stronger than that of inter-units. Network density is very low between males and females. Gender factor is effective for this situation. Males and females use network ties if it is necessary.

Another different structure is about "married pairs" in the organization. All important decisions are taken in the unit of males (center of the organization). Women whose husbands work in the center, can learn the decisions before other females. Generally, females can hear the decisions later than males. This situation is known by the customers. In general, customers connect with the center for their different questions about this preparatory institution.

Females want to communicate with the males who were in the same branch, but males usually cannot be found, and this connection cannot be done. Females have some complaints about this situation. Especially female study group chair persons stressed that they could not connect with the male study group chair persons when it was necessary. This situation is not seen in every study group. Some male chairmen show interest in female study groups, tell them every important decision and changes about their branches.

Males and females explained the institution almost in the same ways. 13 (81.3 %) females and 11 (61.1 %) males described it by using these concepts: "Love, Qualified Education, Friendship, Trust, Self-sacrifice, Societal Contribution, Understanding the Students". Additionally, 3 (18.7 %) females and 6 (33.3 %) males described the institution as "successful and harmonious work climate". Only one male (5.6 % of them) protégé used the "family climate" term in describing the organization.

5.1.6. Determination of Dyads

As it is told before, in this study, there were two steps. One of them was to know the institution in different perspectives, and the other one was to find out the characteristics of mentoring relationship intra-dyads. For this step, mentors and their protégés were determined and known in detail.

In this dyadic approach, the first step was to identify the dyads. First of all, the new and experienced teachers are determined in terms of their ages and their seniority from a list of all teachers that is provided by the administration. Mentor and protégé concepts were explained to the teachers, and their mentors or protégés were asked them.

First of all the youngest teachers who have less experience, were determined from the list. Their mentors were asked them. Before the question, the definition of mentor was given to them. The definition and the question was like this: "A mentor is an experienced person who befriends and guides a less experienced one. Mentors teach the vital spots in their branches, show the way, and be friends, career coaches, trainers, and role-models for their protégés. Now, please think about the persons who helped your career or personal development. Could you please, tell me one or two persons who was appropriate to the definitions? Where are they now?" It was also noted that, their answers would be hidden.

New possible names of mentors were determined according to the answers, and approximately the same question asked to these new persons. The mentor and the protégé concept definitions were also given to them, in the same way. Then this question was asked them: "Could you please, tell me one or two person(s) who was helped to reach the career and life goals by your help?"

If the names ,which provided from the both sides, were matched, these two persons formed dyads in this case study.

There were some problems in matching the names. Because, some protégés gave the names who were in another organization, or in another city! They were not included in the research. Some protégés or mentors did not give any names, and they emphasized that nobody helped them in their career development. On the other hand, after the determination of dyads, some of them did not want to be interviewed, and they did not want to meet with the researcher.

There were 53 teachers in the institution, but only 34 of them were included in the research because the rest were not found to be engaged in a mentoring relationship. There were 16 female and 18 male teachers. The numbers of different sexes were almost equal in this study. 17 dyads were determined in the organization. Two of the dyads were cross-gender, the others were the same-gender dyads. In the cross-gender relationships, the mentors were male, and they were husbands of their protégés. There were 7 female, and 10 male mentors; 9 female, and 8 male protégés in the study.

A major difficulty of the study were the conservative respondents. Especially, a few of male respondents did not want to answer the questions without the permission of their advisors. Therefore the general manager gave

his permission with a paper, and this was used in some interviews.

Most of the personnel, and the advisors did not want this closed structure of the organization to be learned by the outsiders. Therefore it was necessary to wait during amount of time for developing of trust to the researcher. The researcher had to attend the institution approximately three months, and she tried to create good dialogues with the personnel of the organization. Because of the sex of the researcher, interviewing with male teachers was so hard. Many times, husband of the researcher helped her for interviewing with male teachers.

This organization is very different than the others, and its climate is also so different. The different values are determined by this extreme case study. The values may be found in a mentoring relationship in another organization.

5.1.7. Questions of In-depth Interview with Dyads

The objective of this research is to know the institution, and define the mentoring relationship in this different organization. Therefore, the questions consists of two parts. The first part of the questions is related to the opinions of the teachers about the

institution; and the second part is about mentoring relationship in this different climate.

I. General Questions

- 1) How did you enter this corporation?
- 2) Why did you prefer to work here?
- 3) Is there any event that affect you positively in your career? What are they?
- 4) Does the corporation give importance to mentoring?
- 5) Do you think that the corporation ask your ideas when they are necessary?
- 6) How do you explain your corporation?
- 7) Why do you work?

II. Questions About Mentoring Relationship

- 1) Did you ever enter any mentoring relationship before?
If yes, how many times? What are they doing now?
- 2) How did your mentor/protégé determined? What do you think about this determination?
- 3) How do you explain your mentor/protégé?
- 4) How do you regard your mentor/protégé as...
- 5) Which activities are available in supporting function?
- 6) What do the mentors do?
- 7) What do you want your mentors/protégés to do?
- 8) What are the most important features of your mentors/protégés?

- 9) Is there any **similarity** between you and your mentors/protégés? What are they?
- 10) If there would not any similarity with your mentor/protégé, would you like to work with them?
Why would you like to work with them?
How long would you work with them?
- 11) What are the **advantages** and **disadvantages** of mentoring relationship for you?
- 12) Do you want to be a mentor? Do you want to enter a mentoring relationship in the future? Why?

In addition to these, the demographics (age, gender, marital status, occupation of husband/wife, number and age of their children, graduation school) were asked (Tables 26 - 31).

5.2. Findings About Mentoring

In organizational analysis part, the findings about the institution are explained in detail. After the determination of the differences of this institution, in this part, the findings about the opinions of the teachers about mentoring relationship will be clarified.

Findings About General Questions:

7 (43.7 %) of female teachers entered the organization by informal mechanisms via known people (husband/wife, relative...), but only 1 (5.6 %) of the men entered the

organization by informal mechanisms. On the other hand, entering via formal application seems to be more common among men. 4 (22.2 %) of the men entered the organization by formal applications. Formal applications of males were greater than the females. 3 (8.8 %) of the teachers called the entering this institution as "holy befitting". They said that "This job was destined to me!". They emphasized that they saw their jobs as a favor of God. 7 (43.7 %) of the females and 12 (66.6 %) of the males had been thinking of working in this institution when they were students in the university. They also enter the institution by formal applications. These findings also suggest that males actively plan their early career life than females. See Table 2. for a summary of entrance the firm.

Table 2. Entrance the Institution.

(N=34)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Formal application	4	11.8			4	22.2
Informal means	8	23.5	7	43.7	1	5.6
Holy befitting	3	8.8	2	12.6	1	5.6
Planning, Formal application	19	55.9	7	43.7	12	66.6

As Table 3. shows, 15 men (83.3 % of them) and 7 women (43.7 % of them) of the corporation preferred to work at this job for "doing good and useful things for people". Most of the personnel stressed that they have "lived for servicing and helping to human-being". Especially 7 female teachers (43.7 % of them), and 3 (16.7 %) of male

teachers emphasized that the organization was "appropriate to their ideologies". Therefore, they have preferred to work in this organization. Female teachers who use headscarfs stressed that they have felt better in this corporation. Female teachers cannot use headscarfs during their lectures, but they can use them outside of the classrooms. They emphasized that this permission was very important for them. It is also interesting that, none of the males emphasized "earning money" reason for preferring the organization, only 2 females (12.6 %) noted that they preferred this institution for earning money.

Table 3. Reasons for Preferring to Work at the Organization

(N=34)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Doing good things	22	67.7	7	43.7	15	83.3
Earning money	2	5.9	2	12.6		
Ideological fit	10	29.4	7	43.7	3	16.7

Some of male teachers emphasized that they also had an opportunity to pray in the work place in archives room. Both male and female teachers claimed ownership of the corporation. They indicated that they worked a lot, and their loyalty to the organization was very high.

As Table 4. shows, a large group of male teachers (9 - 50.0 % of them) were affected from altruistic persons (managers, teachers, staffs, etc.) in their career life.

On the other hand, 9 female teachers (56.1 % of them) were affected mostly from "kindness and success of their students". 3 males (16.7 %) emphasized that especially "togetherness and consultation in everywhere" affected them in this institution. 2 (12.6 %) females talked about the "support of their husbands".

Table 4. Positive Events in Career Life

(N=34)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Altruistic persons	12	35.3	3	18.7	9	50.0
Students	14	41.2	9	56.1	5	27.7
Support of husband	2	5.9	2	12.6		
God's help	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Fight against to negativity	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Not an exact event	1	2.9			1	5.6
Togetherness and Consultation	3	8.8			3	16.7

As it is seen in Table 5., most of the teachers, 10 females (62.5 %) and 16 males (88.9 %) noted that mentoring relationship was very important for the corporation. They emphasized that increased experiences, and class studies showed the degree of importance of mentoring. But, 6 female teachers (37.5 % of them), especially study group chair persons wanted to be controlled by advisors more than now. In their opinions, controlling was not enough in the organization. Here it can be seen that there is a difference based on gender in terms of the amount of control that is perceived by the teachers. It shows that females want to be controlled more than males. They are dissatisfied from the mentoring relationship in the institution. They thought

that their satisfaction level can increase if they are controlled more than now. This want is about justice among the teachers in the institution.

Table 5. Importance of Mentoring in the Institution.
(N=34)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Important	26	76.5	10	62.5	16	88.9
Not enough	8	23.5	6	37.5	2	11.1

Table 6. shows that 20 (58.9 %) teachers, 7 females (43.7 % of them) and 13 males (72.2 % of them) emphasized that, they worked for "doing good things" for the benefit of human-beings. Only 3 (18.7 %) of female teachers preferred working for "transferring ethical and moral values" to new generations; but only one male teacher pointed out this reason. This situation shows that the females' involvement of transferring national and moral values is greater than that of the males. 2 females (12.6 % of them) said that they worked for "taking the results of their education". One female emphasized that she worked for "God's sake". One female mentor emphasized that she was working for sharing her knowledge on her branch with the others. Another female protégé emphasized that she worked for increasing her experiences. One female and one male teacher said that "Working is a natural character of human-being. I will always work, until the end of my life like a pure-bred horse". Only two of the males emphasized that they were

working for earning money, but the females did not say this reason. In addition to these, one male teacher considered of "developing new and original experiments about their branches in performing their jobs".

Table 6. Working Reasons of the Teachers

(N=34)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Doing good things	20	58.9	7	43.7	13	72.2
God's sake.	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Results of education.	2	5.9	2	12.6		
Transferring values	4	11.8	3	18.7	1	5.6
Being "pure-bred horse".	2	5.9	1	6.3	1	5.6
Earning money.	2	5.9			2	11.1
Sharing knowledge	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Increasing experiences.	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Developing original experiments	1	2.9			1	5.6

Most of the teachers identified themselves as "pure-bred horses" in different times. They said that, "I am like a pure-bred horse, I will run until I die of exhaustion". They have planned to work, to service, to help human-being until the end of their lives.

Findings About the Questions of Mentoring Relationship:

8 male (44.4 % of them) and 5 female (31.2 % of them) teachers entered mentoring relationship before, but 11 (68.8 %) of female and 10 (55.6 %) male teachers did not enter this type of relationship before. The reason why mentoring experiences of men were more frequent than that of women may be because men were older than the women in the organization. 10 teachers who had mentoring experience, said that they had this type of relationship

one time in their career life. Only 3 of them had mentoring experience more than once. See Table 7. for a summary of mentoring experiences of the teachers.

Table 7. Mentoring Experience Before

(N=34)						
Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Entered	13	38.2	5	31.2	8	44.4
Did not enter	21	61.8	11	68.8	10	55.6

For most of the dyads, the formal mentoring relationships which are determined at beginning of the academic year, is continuing. In the facilitated mentoring program, the institution determines the dyads. The Table 8. summarizes that, 14 female (87.5 % of them) and 16 male (88.9 % of them) teachers emphasized that the institution determined their current mentors/ protégés. On the other hand, 2 males (11.1 %) and 2 females (12.6 %) claimed that they chose their mentors/protégés. They were cross-gender dyads, and they were also married with other. One dyad married after the mentoring relationship, and the other one were already married before the mentoring relationship in this institution. Both mentors and protégés indicated that sometimes the problems may appear because of this formal mentoring, but both sides try to behave honestly for preventing them.

Table 8. Determination of Current Mentors/Protégés

(N=34)						
Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Organization determined	30	88.2	14	87.5	16	88.9
Personal choice	4	11.8	2	12.6	2	11.1

3 female (33.3 %) and 5 male (62.5 %) protégés explained their mentors as "successful, rash, energetic, and charismatic" persons. 3 female (33.3 %) and 3 male (37.5 %) protégés described their mentors as "decent, attentive, and serious in the job". Only 3 female protégés explained their mentors as "determined, fast-trackers, and gentle", but none of the male protégés mentioned these properties about their mentors. See Table 9. for a summary of the explanations of the protégés about their mentors.

Table 9. Protégés' Explanations about their Mentors
(n=17)

Values	Frq.	Σ%	F	%FP	M	%MP
Successful, rash, energetic, charismatic	8	47.1	3	33.3	5	62.5
Determined, one of fast-trackers, gentle	3	17.6	3	33.3		
Decent, attentive and serious in the job.	6	35.3	3	33.3	3	37.5

As table 10. shows, 2 female (28.3 % of female-mentors) and 1 male (10.0 % of male-mentors) mentors described their protégés as "successful, rash, energetic, and charismatic" persons. 2 female, and 2 male mentors explained their protégés as decent, attentive and serious in their jobs". Most of the male-mentors (40.0 % of them) defined their protégés as "hard-working, disciplined, and orderly" persons. This ratio shows that discipline and order are emphasized by male-mentors mostly. One female-mentor explained her protégé as "frank and attentive" person. One male-mentor defined

his protégé as "determined, one of fast-trackers, gentle and suitable to talk with". One of male-mentors described his protégé as "reasonable, intelligent, logical, and possessing good judgement". One of them also emphasized that his protégé was becoming experienced. These explanations show the involvement of the mentors, and it can be summarized that which properties were important for the mentors in mentoring relationships.

Table 10. Mentors' Explanations about their Protégés
(n=17)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	%FM	M	%MM
Successful, rash, energetic, charismatic.	3	17.6	2	28.6	1	10.0
Determined, one of fast-trackers, gentle, suitable to talk with	1	5.9			1	10.0
Frank and attentive person.	1	5.9	1	14.3		
Decent, attentive, serious in the job.	4	23.5	2	28.6	2	20.0
Hard-working, disciplined, orderly person.	5	29.4	1	14.3	4	40.0
Not so hard-working.	1	5.9	1	14.3		
Reasonable, intelligent, logical, and possessing good judgement.	1	5.9			1	10.0
He is unripe now, but he is becoming experienced.	1	5.9			1	10.0

Mentor types are determined according to the definitions of the protégés. Table 11. shows the mentor types which are defined in the study. 5 female and 6 male protégés regarded their mentors as "well-informed **master**". 4 female and 1 male protégés regarded their mentors as

"decent, believing, charismatic **wise leader**". This definition came from female-protégés mostly.

Table 11. Mentor Types

(n=17)						
Values	Frq.	%	F	%FP	M	%MP
Wise leader.	5	29.4	4	44.4	1	12.5
Well-informed master.	11	64.7	5	55.6	6	75.0
Believing, religious person.	1	5.9			1	12.5

According to the interviews, a different mentor type is identified by the protégés. This type of mentor is "**wise leader**". Wise leader is a decent and altruistic person, is a master of his job, has charismatic personality characteristics, believing, has deep faith and trust in God, knows what was lawful what was unlawful according to Islamic Law, and prefers to sacrifice living in order to give life to others. Besides the protégés, most of the interviewed mentors, stressed that they wanted to be a good person like this. In general, mentors indicated that they aspire for being a wise leader.

*

Protégé types were determined in terms of the answers of the mentors. 4 female and 6 male mentors regarded their protégés as a "very attentive **apprentice**". 2 female and 4 male mentors described their protégés as "believing, **religious**" people. This approach is seen in the mentoring literature first time. Mentors (35.3 % of them) noted the religiosity of their protégés. Only one female-mentor indicated that her protégé was a lazy

person, and she said that her mentoring task was very difficult at this time.

Table 12. Protégé Types

(n=17)						
Values	Frq.	%	F	%FM	M	%MM
Believing, religious person.	6	35.3	2	28.6	4	40.0
Attentive apprentice .	10	58.8	4	57.1	6	60.0
Believing, but addict to pleasure, lazy person .	1	5.9	1	14.3		

According to a matching pattern of the types of mentors and protégés, an interesting result is found. 10 dyads is formed by a "well-informed master" and an "attentive apprentice"; in 5 dyads mentors are "wise leaders" and protégés as "believing, religious persons". These findings show that, well-informed masters explained their protégés as "attentive apprentices", and attentive apprentices defined their mentors as "well-informed masters". In the same way, wise leaders explained their protégés as "believing, religious persons", and visa versa. The second type of dyad shows the importance of ideological perspective in mentoring relationship according to dyads.

Results indicated that there is a difference in the importance of psychological support for women and men. 8 females (50.0 % of them) indicated that both technical and psychological support is important; and for 10 males (55.6 % of them) only technical support is important in

mentoring relationship. See Table 13. for seeing the important activities in supporting functions.

Table 13. Important Activities in Supporting Functions.
(N=34)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
No support	2	5.9	2	12.6		
Psychological support	2	5.9	1	6.3	1	5.6
Technical support	15	44.1	5	31.2	10	55.6
Both of them (Psychological, technical support)	14	41.2	8	50.0	6	33.3
Support for wholeness of the corporation	1	2.9			1	5.6

In this organization, friendship between mentors and protégés is just like a "co-religionist" relationship. Therefore, the relationship is more reciprocal, comprehensive, and multi-directional, because mentors are interested in their protégés not only on the job, but also in their houses. They participate in different types of activities jointly. For example, they go to some trips with their families, they invite them to their houses, they study and chat in friendly way. 8 females (50.0 % of them) and 7 males (38.9 %) emphasized that the mentors "taught every details of their branches to their protégés". 3 (18.7 %) of females and 1 of males stressed that the mentors "shared their private and special secrets with their protégés". Mentoring relationship among women has more informal characteristics than that of men. 3 female teachers (18.7 % of them) prefer to "share their special secrets" and (1 of them) "try to

create a good dialogue" in each. On the other hand, 5 male teachers (27.7 % of them) prefer to study even if they are at home, and 4 males (22.2 %) emphasized that they had a chat and go to some trips with their mentors/protégés. Table 14. shows the activities of mentors in the institution. 2 female-protégés emphasized that their mentors did not do anything for them. It shows that females share their private lives, or they cannot benefit from the mentoring relationship. Males are more task oriented in the mentoring relationship than the females. It is interesting that many things are done out of the work climate. Teachers usually do job related things in their homes.

Table 14. Activities of Mentors.

(N=34)						
Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Nothing	2	5.9	2	12.6		
Teach details of the branches	15	44.1	8	50.0	7	38.9
Study in their homes, together	6	17.6	1	6.3	5	27.7
Chat, and go to trips	5	14.7	1	6.3	4	22.2
Share private special secrets	4	11.8	3	18.7	1	5.6
Try to create a good dialogue	2	5.9	1	6.3	1	5.6

As Table 15. shows, 7 male and 7 female protégés wanted that, their mentors must "teach them the technical knowledge" about their branches. 5 female and 10 male mentors stressed on the same point as preferring to teach the technical knowledge about their branches. Female teachers revealed that they have worked for transferring their views, their standards of judgement, and their way

of thinking to new generations, while no male-mentor mentioned about this. This involvement may come from instinct of motherhood.

Table 15. Wants from Mentors/Protégés.

Values	Frq	$\Sigma\%$	Who	(N=34)			
				F	F%	M	M%
Teach technical knowledge about our branches	14	41.2	(P)	7	43.7	7	38.9
Transmit the standards of judgement, express their views, way of thinking.	3	8.8	(P)	2	12.6	1	5.6
Give important technical knowledge about our branches	15	44.1	(M)	5	31.2	10	55.6
Transmit the standards of judgement, way of thinking	2	5.9	(M)	2	12.6		

Most of the teachers are very young. Their ages are between 22-32. Therefore, the age factor does not cause differentiation between mentors and protégés. Young personnel give attention to performance and success. 9 female (56.1 % of females) and 10 male (55.6 % of males) teachers emphasized that the "performance and the success" of the mentors/protégés was the most important feature of them (Table 16). Performance and success of the teachers is also important for the organization. The other important factors of mentors/protégés are "personal characteristics of dyads", their "beliefs and religiousness", and the activities for "good dialogue".

Table 16. Important Features of Mentors/Protégés.

(N=34)

Values	Frq	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Performance, success on job	19	55.9	9	56.1	10	55.6
Personal characteristics	4	11.8	2	12.6	2	11.1
Similarity with us	3	8.8	1	6.3	2	11.1
"Believer, and religious"	2	5.9	1	6.3	1	5.6
Established "good dialogue"	3	8.8	2	12.6	1	5.6
Original, intelligent people	3	8.8	1	6.3	2	11.1

Most of the teachers pointed out that, the dyads were similar on some factors. 7 female (43.7 % of females) and 7 male (38.9 % of males) teachers pointed out that, they were similar on their "personalities"; 8 female (50.0 % of females) and 6 male (33.3 % of males) teachers emphasized that their "Islamic beliefs and practices" were almost the same. The other similarity factors were "childhood background", "branches", "schools that they had graduated from", and "genders". See Table 17. for a summary of similarities between mentors and protégés. On the other hand, interviewed teachers emphasized that similarity of the beliefs was more important than the similarity of personality characteristics of dyads.

Table 17. Similarity Between Mentors and Protégés.

(N=34)

Values	Frq	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
No similarity	1	2.9			1	5.6
Personal characteristics	14	41.2	7	43.7	7	38.9
Islamic beliefs, practices	14	41.2	8	50.0	6	33.3
Graduated university	1	2.9			1	5.6
Childhood backgrounds	2	5.9			2	11.1
Gender	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Branch	1	2.9			1	5.6

All the teachers stressed that, even if there was not any similarity with their mentors/protégés, they could work with these different people from them. As Table 18. shows, similarity is not a matter for 6 female and 4 male teachers. 5 female teachers (31.2 % of them) wanted that, their mentors/protégés had to be "respectful" to their personality and to their ideologies. 8 male teachers (44.4 % of the males) emphasized that they would work with dissimilar persons for "co-operation and togetherness". In addition to these, 7 protégés noted that they could work with dissimilar people "for their professional solidarity, and for deriving a benefit from their experiences".

Table 18. Conditions for Working with Dissimilar Mentors/Protégés

(N=34)

Values	Frq	Σ%	F	F%	M	M%
No matter	10	29.4	6	37.5	4	22.2
Co-operation, togetherness	10	29.4	2	12.6	8	44.4
Respectful to me, my beliefs	5	14.7	5	31.2		
Deriving benefit from their experiences	7	20.6	3	18.7	4	22.2
Because of necessity	1	2.9			1	5.6
Helping to every person	1	2.9			1	5.6

As it is seen in Table 19., most of the males (27.7 %) mentioned that they would work with dissimilar people from them. On the other hand, for females, this time period is less than the males. 10 female (62.5 %) and 12 male (66.6 %) teachers said that, the time to work with dissimilar people was not an important factor for them.

Table 19. Working Duration with Dissimilar Mentors/Protégés

(N=34)						
Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
Long time	8	23.5	3	18.3	5	27.7
Short time	4	11.8	3	18.3	1	5.6
No difference	22	64.7	10	62.5	12	66.6

Table 20 shows the advantages of mentoring relationship for the protégés in this study. As the advantages of mentoring relationship, 9 protégés (4 of female, 5 of male) pointed out that, they learned the job in a very short time by the support of their mentors. For 3 female protégés (33.4 % of them), sharing their knowledge, relaxing, and consultation with their colleagues were very important. Two protégés emphasized that they learned the importance of "giving alms for their knowledge" by this relationship. Two of them mentioned that the relationship increased their self-confidence.

Table 20. Advantages of Mentoring Relationship for Protégés

(n=17)							
Values	Frq	$\Sigma\%$	F	%FP	M	%MP	
Giving alms for knowledge	2	11.7	1	11.1	1	12.5	
Learn job in a very short time	9	52.9	4	44.4	5	62.5	
Sharing knowledge, feel relieved	3	17.6	3	33.4	1	12.5	
Increasing self-confidence	2	11.7	1	11.1	1	12.5	

As Table 21. shows, 11 mentors (4 female, 7 male) emphasized that, they were so happy for helping the others, and they gave "alms for knowledge" by mentoring relationship. Only 3 female-mentors noticed that mentoring relationship developed their responsibility

feeling, but none of the males mentioned this advantage of mentoring. For 3 male-mentors (30.0 % of them), the relationship increased their self-confidence.

Table 21. Advantages of Mentoring Relationship for Mentors

(n=17)

Values	Frq	$\Sigma\%$	F	%FM	M	%MM
Responsibility development	3	17.6	3	42.9		
Giving alms for knowledge	11	64.7	4	57.1	7	70.0
Increasing self-confidence	3	17.6			3	30.0

According to the interviews, mentors are happy for seeing the career and intellectual growth of protégés. They also noted that, mentoring relationship increased their experience. They do not expect anything for themselves. In spite of facilitated mentoring program, mentors pointed out that they were volunteer for mentoring programs. Mentors stressed on the benefits of mentoring relationship.

As it is seen in Table 22., most of the teachers (26 of them) pointed out that there were no disadvantages of mentoring relationship. On the other hand, some of the respondents, defined some disadvantages. 2 male mentors (11.1 % of them) pointed out that this relationship caused "waste of time"; one female-protégé emphasized that she sometimes remained in "the shadow of her mentor", and one female-protégé involved to "enjoy what is already prepared". Only one female mentor complained

from feeling like a "divided person", but males did not mentioned this disadvantage of mentoring relationship.

Table 22. Disadvantages of Mentoring Relationship
(N=34)

Values	Frq	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
No disadvantage	26	76.5	11	68.8	15	83.3
Waste of time	3	8.8	1	6.3	2	11.1
Feel like a "divided person"	1	2.9	1	6.3		
To be remained in the shadow of mentor	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Apathetic protégé	1	2.9	1	6.3		
Protégés become mimic persons	1	2.9			1	5.6
Being over dependent on mentor	1	2.9	1	6.3		

Almost all the teachers (33 - 97.1 % of them) wanted to be mentors, and they wanted to enter mentoring relationships in the future. Only one male mentor said that "It makes no difference for me!".

As Table 23. shows, especially male teachers (10 of them) preferred mentoring relationship for "helping the others who need help". 6 female teachers (37.5 % of them) wanted to enter mentoring relationship for "transferring their knowledge and their experiences to new generations". 8 teachers (4 females, 4 males) emphasized that, they did not want to live only for themselves, and they stressed that "human-being must sacrifice living in order to give life to others". 3 teachers see the mentoring relationship as a task, and if this task is given to them they emphasized that they could enter this relationship.

Only one female-protégé said that "If I can win my confidence, I want to be a mentor in the future".

Table 23. Reasons for Entering Mentoring Relationship in the Future.

(N=34)

Values	Frq.	$\Sigma\%$	F	F%	M	M%
If it is task	3	8.8	1	6.3	2	11.1
Self-sacrifice	8	23.5	4	25.0	4	22.2
Helping people	14	41.2	4	25.0	10	55.6
Transfer experiences	8	23.5	6	37.5	2	11.1
If self-confidence is enough	1	2.9	1	6.3		

According to the interviews, women perceive themselves as a different group with respect to men. They agree on their different work conditions. They indicated that, their family life, children, psychological characteristics, the reactions from environment affect them negatively. These conditions make it difficult to concentrate on their work. But men can take these conditions easy. Men can give importance to their job. The organization is also managed by the men. Cash-box, archives, type-setting machine, and optic reader machine were in the unit of male. Therefore, the other units depended on this unit. The unit of males was accepted as the center of the organization. This situation shows the "dominance of men" in the institution.

Female teachers wanted to say their opinions in more masculine environments. This notion shows their wants of

legitimacy. There is an example about this situation: Most of the female chair persons wanted to prepare and press some tests, but males did not permit them, and they said that "you prepare the questions, and send us, we press them". Females prepared the questions, and sent to the male unit. But their tests were not pressed. Instead of their tests, males pressed the tests which were prepared by males. This situation affected the motivation of female teachers negatively. Female chair persons said this event to the General Manager, and he warned the male teachers.

5.3. New Concepts

According to the interviews, some new and important concepts that were not in the mentoring literature, are determined. Sometimes their meanings cannot be explained in English (Some of them are related to Islamic values, and the exact word cannot be found). Therefore the meanings of the concepts are explained in detail.

Holy-befitting: Some teachers evaluated their entrance to the institution as holy-befitting. They accepted their jobs as "blessing of God" for them. According to them, this job was destined to them. They saw themselves in harmony with their jobs.

Self-sacrifice: Most of the teachers emphasized that they did not want to live only for themselves. According to them, human-being must serve and help the others until the end of their life. They also stressed that being a good human was not an easy thing. If it is necessary, human-being must sacrifice living in order to give life to others.

Altruism: This concept is determined in this study clearly. Altruism is unselfish concern for other people's happiness and welfare. If a person's behaviors or motives are altruistic, he shows concern for the happiness and welfare of other people rather than for himself. Being altruistic person is a pre-condition of self-sacrifice. Altruistic managers, teachers, and staff affected many teachers positively in their career life.

Pure-bred horse: As a special property, pure-bred Arab horses run until die of exhaustion. Some of the teachers said that, working was a natural character of human-being, they would work until the end of their life like a "pure-bred horse". They emphasized that if every person could behave like this, there would not any problem in the world.

Doing "good" things: Most of the teachers noted that, they chose teaching as a profession, because of teaching

was a holy thing. They talked about a proverb like this: "I can be a slave of a person who taught me a letter for forty years". They told that they preferred their jobs only for doing "good" and useful things for people. They also described their job as "this job had no equivalent".

Alms for Knowledge: Most of the teachers talked about helping people (especially people who want to learn) as their essential task. Some of them said that, "Obligatory-alms" was a rule in Islam. From this point of view, they stressed that, they had to give alms for their knowledge. By this way, they emphasized that, they could feel better, and their knowledge would gain additional values for them. Some of the teachers emphasized that they could give alms for their knowledge thanks to mentoring relationship. This concept gained an importance in mentoring relationship.

God's Sake: One of the teachers told that she was working for God's sake. She stressed that teaching was appropriate for the aim. According to her, teaching was a holy task of a human, and God likes persons who could do this task perfectly. She also emphasized that she felt God's help in many problems about her branches.

Transferring Ethical and Moral Values: Some teachers, especially females, talked about transferring ethical and

moral values to their students or to their protégés. This involvement was not described in the literature. The teachers who have this involvement, want to teach the right behavior models to their students. Female teachers emphasized that they worked for transferring their way of thinking, and their standards of judgement to new generations. They thought that, every person must do this task in every opportunities.

Togetherness: This concept was said by especially male teachers. Most of the male teachers said that, they were affected from "togetherness" in this institution at the beginning. As time goes by, this concept took a very important place in their career life. They emphasized that they could come over many problems in mentoring relationship many times. They give importance to behave with their friends harmoniously. Everyone knows the task and activities of the others.

Consultation Climate: This is also related to concept of "togetherness". It means that, there is open communication between teachers and management team in the organization. An interesting approach is mentioned by the General Manager that, the formal hierarchy was not important for them, because they saw all human-beings in the same level. He said that "Even our prophet asked the ideas of his companions. Therefore, we have to consult

with our teachers about the situations which are related with them".

Co-religionist: Friendship is defined as a part of mentoring relationship in the literature. But friendship has different directions in this organization. Friendship between mentors and protégés is just like "co-religionist" relationship. The mentoring relationship is more reciprocal, comprehensive, and multi-directional, because mentors are interested in their protégés not only on the job, but also in their houses. They participate in different types of activities jointly. They go to some trips with their families, they invite them to their houses, they study and chat in friendly way in their houses.

Ideological Fit: This concept affected the decisions of teachers about entering the organization. Especially female teachers mentioned that the institution was appropriate to their ideologies. Most of the teachers clarified that they could behave in accordance with their ideologies in the institution. Female teachers also wanted that their mentors/protégés to be respectful to their ideologies. Ideological fit concept is mentioned two times in the research. One of them is about the reasons of preferring the organization, and the other one is about the mentoring relationship intra-dyads.

Wise Leader: Wise leaders are decent and altruistic persons, are masters of their jobs, have charismatic personality characteristics, believing, have deep faith and trust in God, know what was lawful what was unlawful according to Islamic Law, and prefer to sacrifice living in order to give life to others. In general, mentors indicated that they aspire for being a wise leader. This mentor type is also new for mentoring literature.

These new concepts show the different organizational setting of the institution, and the different opinions of the dyads about mentoring relationship. Most of the differentiation may come from Islamic culture. On the other hand some of these new concepts may be relevant in a mentoring relationship in another organization in which the Islamic values are not dominant.

6. Summary and Conclusions

6.1. Summary

The objective of this study was to find out the characteristics of mentoring relationship in a different organizational setting with strong ideological values. For this research, an extreme case study was conducted, and qualitative research method was used (Yin, 1989).

An organization which has Islamic values, was determined, and mentoring relationships intra-dyads were investigated. The organization was a private preparatory institution for central university examination, and it was holding 40 % of the market in its region. Respondents were teachers, managers, and staff of the institution. Additionally, students and their parents were the other respondents of the study.

The data on mentoring relationship were collected from 34 respondents composed of 16 females and 18 males. 17 dyads were determined in the institution, and in-depth interviews were done with the teachers. There are 7 female, 10 male mentors, and 9 female, 8 male protégés in the study. Questions prepared in Turkish were asked to

the respondents and one in-depth interview took approximately three or four hours.

In addition to this, the researcher interviewed the General Manager of the institution and two unit managers, and she also interviewed 50 students and 50 parents as customers, and 11 staff members of the institution. The interviews with the students, parents, and staff members were conducted with the purpose of obtaining more information about organizational characteristics.

After the in-depth interviews, according to different answers, some groupings and their tables were formed, and they evaluated with the other observed knowledge .

The findings of the study showed that different mentoring relationships and different mentors may exist in a different organizational setting. The research was also formed on the differences about mentoring, and related factors. Therefore an extreme case study was conducted. Additionally, different concepts were defined by the respondents, and some unexpected results were seen in the institution.

Conclusions and suggestions for future research will be presented in the following section.

6.2. Conclusions

A mentor is an experienced person who will be able to effectively relay to a less or inexperienced individual and also facilitates his/her personal development for the benefit of both the protégé, who is a young professional with high career aspirations and desires, and the organization. Mentors provide career and psychological advantages by creating opportunities for the protégé to demonstrate competence and special talents while suggesting strategies for the achievement of the job, and job related objectives. Mentoring relationships articulate significant impact in career development, career satisfaction, and further organizational success to the protégés.

As increasing number of organizations in the United States realize the importance of mentoring relationship and they provide formal mentoring programs for their employees. Such corporations as Bell Laboratories, Jewel Companies, American Telephone and Telegraphs, Glendale Federal Saving and Loan, Hughes Aircraft and Merill Lynch, and also the Federal Government are active in forming formal mentoring programs (Ragins, 1989). By assigning such programs, organizations are willing to change the structural, social, and cultural barriers that

prevent young professionals from developing effective mentoring relationships. Furthermore, while the organizations gain successful professionals, young professionals reach their career goals more effectively.

The organization that is studied in this thesis is in the education sector; it is one of the private preparatory institutions, and its name is Private Sakarya Education Institution (-PSEI). There are many **different characteristics** of the institution from those described in the literature.

The institution has **three units**, one is for males, the other is for females, and the third one is for primary school students. It has boarding facilities, and it has two dormitories for males and females. There are many candidates, who are from the villages in the periphery of Adapazarı, and they demand this facility. The teachers have additional tasks (like responsibility from staff, taking the tests and quizzes, press, reports, archives, day-nursery).

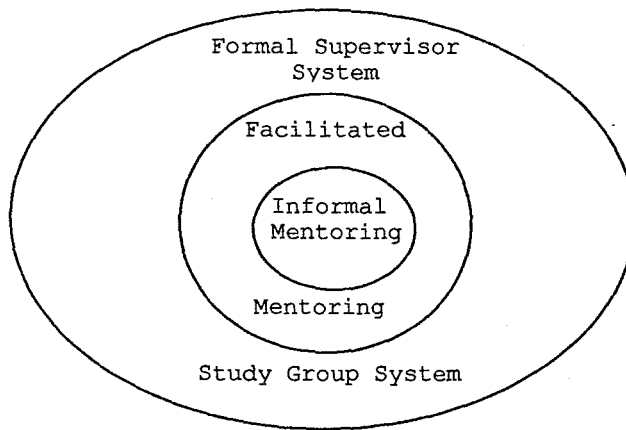
Islamic values are dominant in the firm. Some of the female teachers, and staff use headscarfs out of classrooms, some of the personnel pray in the institution (females in the day-nursery, and males in archives room), and they have additional Islamic practices (like Fast,

Salah, and reading Koran as ritual worships). Teachers see their colleagues as their "co-religionists", therefore, the mentoring relationship is very supportive.

There is a formal departmentation, and there are two applications in the institution. One of them is **Study Group System**, and the other one is **Facilitated Mentoring Program** (Exhibit 1). Facilitated mentoring model of the organization extends into informal mentoring in the organization. Study groups work periodically. The study group system is just like a formal supervisory system, because study group chair persons can supervise the other teachers in their study groups. There is not any difference between formal supervisory system and study group system of the institution. This system causes a controlling among the teachers.

Teachers form new friendships, and help the other teachers informally. For example, one of the teachers may tell his/her experiences about a special topic to another teacher. This type of behavior creates an informal mentoring climate in the organization. This informal mentoring can be placed in the core of the mentoring activities (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Encompassing Relationships of the Organization



The "**Dominance of men**" can be seen in the hierarchy among mentors, in wage system of the institution, in networking system, and in many events. For example, cash-box, archives, type-setting machine, and optic reader machine are in the male unit.

In the in-depth interviews, effects of mentoring, mentoring experiences in the organization, opinions about mentors/protégés, and those about the organization, advantages and disadvantages of mentoring relationship, and finally demographic features of the respondents are asked to the teachers in detail.

According to the in-depth interviews the findings can be concluded in two perspectives. One perspective is about gender effects on mentoring relationship in the

institution. The other one is the ideological perspective, and related unexpected findings.

Gender Perspective

Gender effects on mentoring relationship is summarized in Table 24.

Table 24. Gender and Mentoring in the Institution

Variables	Males	Females
Way of entering the organization by	Formal applications	Informal applications
Reasons for preferring the institution	For doing "good" things	For doing "good" things; ideological fit
Factors that influenced teachers most in their career	From altruistic persons	Kindness, success of their students
Working reasons	Developing original experiments about their branches	Transferring Ethical and Moral Values to new generations
Mentoring experience	Have more mentoring experience	less mentoring experience
Type of support preferred by teachers	Technical support	Both technical, psychological support
Focus of mentoring relationship	Task oriented	More psychosocial
Important values in their mentoring relationship	Formal values, togetherness, cooperation, consultation, power	Informal values sharing secrets, transferring values, respect to their beliefs
Power	More powerful	Less powerful
Advantage of mentoring relationship	For the mentors the relationship increased self-confidence	Developed their responsibility feelings
Wages of teacher	Greater	Lower
Effects of demographics	Take many conditions easy, give importance their job	perceive themselves as a different group. Family responsibilities psychological chars.
Conditions of entering mentoring relationship in the future	For helping people	For transferring experiences

According to the findings, male teachers entered the institution by formal applications; they preferred this organization for doing "good" things; they are mostly affected from altruistic persons in their career life; they also work for developing original experiments about their branches.

On the other hand, female teachers entered the firm by informal applications mostly; they chose the institution because of its harmony with their ideologies; they are affected from their students in their career life; and they mentioned that they worked for transferring ethical and moral values to new generations.

Most of the male-protégés (62.5 %) described their mentors as "successful, rash, energetic, and charismatic" persons; and 40 % of the male-mentors defined their protégés as "hard-working, disciplined, and orderly" persons.

While most of the male teachers preferred technical support; most of the females preferred both technical and psychological support in mentoring relationships.

For the male teachers "togetherness", "co-operation", "consultation", and "power" are important factors. Males are more "task oriented" in the mentoring relationship

than the females. Although females have both psychosocial and task oriented mentoring relationship, more dominantly they emphasized psychological factors in their relationships.

Females give more importance in their mentoring relationships to informal values than males. For female teachers "sharing special secrets", "respect to their personalities", and "transferring ethical and moral values to new generations" are very important. Females also maintain the mentoring relationship in their private life. Females have more paternalistic relationship than the males.

Females are very hard-working, and they depend on life as much as the other business women. Against the stereotype of a religious women, the women teachers included in this study preferred to work instead of being housewives. Their husbands also support them. They want to be visible in the institution, they also have legitimacy problem. They also wanted to be controlled by advisors more frequently. According to female teachers controlling was not enough in the institution. This is also a new finding for gender literature.

There is a "sex-segregation paradox" for females. The mentoring barriers which are summarized in mentoring

literature, do not exist for the females by the facilitated mentoring program. On the other hand, they cannot derive a benefit from the more experienced male mentors. By this way, females become less powerful in the organization.

Advantages of mentoring are different in terms of gender. Most of the female-mentors noticed that mentoring relationship developed their responsibility feeling. For the male-mentors the relationship increased their self-confidence. Most of the protégés emphasized that they learned the job in a very short time by this relationship.

In general, wages of males are greater than that of females. Its reason was explained by the General Manager like this: "Males are householders, and they have to gain much more than females. Wives of many males are housewives!".

There is no hierarchical structure among mentors, but men are always in the front, partly they are more experienced than the other female mentors. There is a "hidden" hierarchy between males and females.

General Manager said that personal life of dyads was very important for the managers. Managers are interested in

the private lives of personnel. Sometimes, all personnel (including staff, teachers and the managers) of the institution go to trips, have dinner, or they have picnic together.

Sometimes managers invite the teachers to their "houses", and they have dinner. Similar activities are available between mentors and protégés. They study at homes together, chat in friendly way, and go to trips. It is interesting that many things are done out of the work environment. Teachers usually do job related things in their houses. This situation is also new for the mentoring literature.

In general, male and female teachers of the institution stressed "performance" as well as "ideological similarity" in determination and continuation of the relationship. Mentors and protégés mentioned "personal characteristics", and "Islamic beliefs and practices" as similarity factors among them. Both males and females gave an additional point that, similarity of the beliefs has more importance than the similarity of personality characteristics.

Ideological Perspective

Some of the teachers called their entrance to this institution as "holy befitting". They explained this

situation as favor of God. Some of them also emphasized that they worked for God's sake, and they felt his help in many times. Most of the teachers who mentioned these concepts are females.

Some teachers emphasized that they were like "pure-bred horses", and they must work until the end of their lives. Most of the teachers pointed out that they could give "alms for their knowledge" by mentoring relationship. They also said that they did not want to live just for themselves. According to them, "good human-beings must sacrifice living in order to give life others. Only altruistic persons can behave like this".

The point of view of the teachers is different in this institution. They see their colleagues as their "co-religionists", and they can be more patient and sincere for them. Therefore the formal relationship has also informal properties at the same time.

According to the in-depth interviews, some concepts are determined. Some of them are already in the mentoring literature (e.g. trust, support, self-confidence, friendship). On the other hand there are new concepts which are related to mentoring relationship and organizational studies. These new concepts are: "Holy-befitting" (tevafuk), "Self-sacrifice" (kendini feda

etmek), "Altruism" (diğergamlık), "Pure-bred horse" (küheylan gibi olmak), Doing "good" things (hayırlı birşeyler yapmak), "Alms for Knowledge" (bilginin zekatını vermek), "God's Sake" (Allah rızası), "Transferring Ethical and Moral Values" (milli-manevi değerlerin aktarımı), "Togetherness" (birlik, beraberlik), "Consultation Climate" (istişare ortamı), "Co-religionist" (din kardeşliği), "Ideological Fit" (ideolojik oluşum), and "Being wise leader" (bilge bir lider olmak). They were explained at the end of the fifth chapter in detail. It can be said that, new concepts may affect mentoring relationships.

According to the in-depth interviews two types of mentors are determined. One of them is "well-informed **master**", and the other one is "decent, believing, charismatic **wise leader**". The second one is a new type of mentor, this description is not available in the mentoring literature.

According to findings, two types of dyads are defined. One type of dyad is formed by "wise leader" as mentor and "religious person" as protégé. In the other type of dyad, mentors are well-informed masters, and protégés are attentive apprentices. These types of dyads are defined according to matching pattern in the study. This perspective is also new for the mentoring literature.

Demographics (Tables 26 - 31; in Appendix 2) also affect the mentoring relationship intra-dyads, and the success of the teachers. According to the interviews, the women perceive themselves as a different group with respect to men. In their opinion, their work conditions was very different. They indicated that, their family life, children, psychological characteristics, the reactions from environment affect them negatively compared to their male colleagues. These conditions make it difficult to concentrate on their work. But males can give more importance to their jobs than the females.

Theoretical Contributions

According to the research, a "well-informed master" is seen as a mentor, and this type of mentors is also explained in previous research in mentoring. As a new type of mentor, "wise leader" is defined in this study. Wise leader definition also consists of "self-sacrifice" and "altruism" concepts.

In terms of matching of mentors and protégés, a new type of dyad is also identified. In this type of dyad, mentors are wise-leaders and protégés are religious persons. These dyads show the effects of ideological perspective to mentoring relationship intra-dyads.

According to mentoring literature, mentors do not have to ask their protégés' ideas, and mentors evaluate the protégés. But in the mentoring relationships in this institution, protégés also evaluate their mentors and mentors ask their protégés' ideas. Such a relationship is frequently described as the existence of a "consultation" climate in the organization.

There is a hidden performance appraisal intra-dyads. Mentors and protégés can evaluate their performances reciprocally.

Protégés emphasized as the advantage of mentoring the fact that they could learn their jobs in a very short time. This advantage was also summarized in the mentoring literature. Differently from the literature, protégés pointed out that they could share their knowledge and they felt relieved by mentoring relationship. Consultation climate and asking their ideas, causes this feeling of protégés.

Appropriately with literature, mentors emphasized that mentoring relationship increased their self-confidence and developed their responsibility feelings. Differently, they said that they could give "alms for their knowledge and for their science" by mentoring relationship.

As an unexpected finding, teachers do job related things in their houses. Especially females maintain their mentoring relationships in their private lives. Managers invite the personnel to their houses for dinner, mentors also invite their protégés to their houses for studying.

As in gender literature, females also have some differential situations than males in mentoring relationship. They have hidden barriers in facilitated mentoring relationship. Because of sex-segregation paradox, females cannot derive a benefit from experienced male-mentors. They are dissatisfied from the relationship. They wanted to be controlled by the advisors more than now. They believed in this controlling increased their satisfaction of mentoring relationship. In general females have traditional gender role in the institution.

Networking ties are very strong among same gender dyads. On the other hand, they are weak between sex segregated units. Gender effect is slightly similar with the literature. Differently from the literature, network ties are very strong among married cross-gender dyads. As it is explained in teacher mentoring part, teachers also have socialization practices in the institution. Communication within the units, and interpersonal skills

of the teachers increase in their mentoring relationships.

In future research, the new concepts may be included in the mentoring scales, and with a quantitative research reliability and validity of these concepts can be measured with a large sample size.

For the future research, this type of qualitative research (extreme case study) may be conducted in the different extreme climates (in a Monastery, in a Synagogue, in Tibet with Buddhists, or in a political party etc.). It is clear that, new concepts which were not identified before in the mentoring literature, would be found. There may be some similarities between different religions, and this type of research can point out the similar factors that were related to mentoring relationship. In addition, it is possible that some of the new concepts, like consultation climate or sharing private lives, may be frequently observed in the educational institutions that do not have strong religious characteristics. Future research can test such possibilities as well.

REFERENCES

- Alba, R., & Moore, G. (1978). Elite social circles. Sociological Methods and Research. 7. 167-188.
- Aldag, R. J., & Stearns, T. (Eds.). (1991). Management. South Western Publishing Co. Cincinnati. Ohio. pp:344-365.
- Alderfer, C. (1987). An intergroup perspective on group dynamics. In J. W. Lorsh (Ed.). Handbook of Organizational Behavior. (pp. 190-222). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Aldrich, H. (1989). Networking among women entrepreneurs. In O. Hagan, C. Rivchun, & D. Sexton (Eds.). Women owned business. (pp. 103-132). New York, Praeger.
- Allen, R. W., & Porter, L. W. (1983). Organizational influence processes. Glenview, III: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Allen, T. D., Poteet, M. L., Russell, J. E. A., Dobbins, G.H. (1997). A field-study of factors related to supervisors willingness to mentor others. Journal of Vocational Behavior. 50 (1). 1-22.
- Anderson, E., & Shannon, A. (1988). Towards a conceptualization of mentoring. Journal of Teacher Education. 39 (1). 38-42.
- Aryee, S., Chay, Y. W., Chew, J. (1996). The motivation to mentor among managerial employees -an interactionist approach. Group & Organization Management. 21 (3). 261-277.
- Aryee, S., Wyatt, T., Stone, R. (1996). Early career outcomes of graduate employees - the effect of mentoring and ingratiation. Journal of Management Studies. 33 (1). 95-118.
- Atkins, S., & Williams, A. (1995). Registered nurses experiences of mentoring undergraduate nursing-students. Journal of Advanced Nursing. 21 (5). 1006-1015
- Bainer, D. L., & Didham, C. (1994). mentoring and other support behaviors in elementary-schools. Journal of Educational Research. 87 (4). 240-247.

- Ballantyne, R., Hansford, B., Packer, J. (1995). Mentoring beginning teachers - a qualitative-analysis of process and outcomes. Educational Review. 47 (3). 297-307.
- Bartol, K. M. (1978). The sex structuring of organizations: A search for possible causes. Academy of Management Review. 3. 805-815.
- Baugh, S. G., Lankau, M. J., Scandura, T. A. (1996). An investigation of the effects of protégé gender on responses to mentoring. Journal of Vocational Behavior. 49 (3). 309-323
- Bettencourt, B. A., Bol, L., Fraser, S. C., (1994). Psychology graduate-students as research mentors of undergraduates - a national survey, Psychological Reports, 75 (2), 963-970
- Bittel, L. R., & Newstrom, J. W. (Eds.). (1990). What Every Supervisor Should Know. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Blau, J. R., & Alba, R. D. (1982). Empowering net of participation. Administrative Science Quarterly. 27. 363-379.
- Blau, P. M. (1982). Structural sociology and network analysis: An overview. In P. V. Marsden, & N. Lin (Eds.). Social structure and network analysis. (pp. 273-279). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Bova, B. M., & Phillips, R. (1984). Mentoring as learning experience for adults. Journal of Teacher Education. 35. 16-20.
- Bowen, D. D. (1985). Were men meant to women? Training and Development Journal. 39 (2). 31-34.
- Bowers, A. G. (1985). Mentors and protégés in male dominated corporate cultures: The experience of top-level women executives. Dissertation Abstracts International. 45 (9). 3103B.
- Brass, D. J. (1984). Being in the right place: A structural analysis of individual influence in an organization. Administrative Science Quarterly. 29. 518-539.
- Brass, D. J. (1985). Men's and women's networks: A study of interaction patterns and influence in an organizations. Academy of Management Journal. 28. 327-343.

- Brass, D. J. (1992). Power in organizations: A social network perspective. In G. Moore & J. A. Whitt (Eds.). Research in politics and society. vol. 4. Greenwich, CT: JAI press.
- Brereton, M. L. (1995). Communication in nursing - the theory practice relationship. Journal of Advanced Nursing. 21 (2). 314-324.
- Brown, D. A. (1986). The role of mentoring in the professional lives of university faculty women. Dissertation Abstracts International. 47 (1-A). 160.
- Burke, R. J. (1984). Mentors in organizations. Group and Organization Studies. 9. 353-372.
- Burke, R. J., & McKeen, C. A. (1996). Gender effects in mentoring relationships. Journal Of Social Behavior And Personality. 11 (5). 91-104
- Burt, R. S. (1977). Positions in multiple networks. Social Forces. 56. 106-131.
- Burt, R. S. (1982). Toward a structural theory of action. New York. Academic Press.
- Burt, R. S. (1992). Structural holes. Cambridge, MA. Harvard University Press.
- Busch, J. W. (1985). Mentoring in graduate schools of education: Mentors' perceptions. American Educational Research Journal. 22 (2). 257-265.
- Cameron, S. M. (1978). Women in academia: Faculty sponsorship, informal structure, and career success. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, New York.
- Cascio, W. F. (Eds.). (1989). Managing Human Resources. McGraw-Hill. Singapore.
- Chao, G. T., Walz, P. M. Gardner, P. D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships - a comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with nonmentored counterparts Personnel Psychology. 45 (3). 619-636.
- Chapman, D. W. (1983). A model of the influences on teacher retention. Journal of Teacher Education. 34 (5). 43-49.

- Chapman, D. W. (1984). Teacher retention: The test of a model. American Educational Research Journal. 21. 645-648.
- Clawson, J. G., & Kram, K. E. (1984). Managing cross-gender mentoring. Business Horizons. 27 (3). 22-31.
- Collins, N. W. (1983). Professional women and their mentors. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Corzine, J. B., Buntzman, G. F., Busch, E.T. (1994). Mentoring, downsizing, gender and career outcomes. Journal of Social Behavior and Personality. 9 (3). 517-528.
- Davis, K., & Newstrom, J. W. (Eds.). (1989). Human behavior at work: Organizational behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Downey, R., & Lahey, M. S. (1988). Women in management. In M. London & E. M. Mone (Eds.). Career growth and human resource strategies. (pp. 241-256). New York: Quorum Books.
- Dreher, G. F., & Ash, R. A. (1990). A Comparative Study of Mentoring Among Men and Women in Managerial, Professional, and Technical Positions. Journal of Applied Psychology. 75(5), 539-546.
- Dreher, G. F., & Cox, T. H. (1996). Race, gender, and opportunity - a study of compensation attainment and the establishment of mentoring relationships. Journal of Applied Psychology. 81 (3). 297-308.
- Duin, A. H., Lammers, E., Mason, L. D., Graves, M. F. (1994). Responding to 9th-grade students via telecommunications - college mentor strategies and development over time. Research in the Teaching of English. 28 (2). 117-153.
- Emerson, R. M. (1962). Power-dependence relations. American Sociological Review. 27. 31-40.
- Erkut, S., & Mokros, J.R. (1984). Professors as models and mentors for college students. American Educational Research Journal. 21 (2). 399-417.
- Fagenson, E. A. (1988). The power of a mentor: Protégés and nonprotégés' perceptions of their own power in organizations. Group and Organization Studies. 13. 182-192.

- Fagenson, E. A. (1989). The mentor advantage: Perceived career/job experiences of protégés of protégés versus nonprotégés. Journal of Organizational Behavior. 10.309-320.
- Feistritzer, C. E. (1990). Profiles of a teachers in the US-1990. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Information.
- Fitt, L. W., & Newton, D. A. (1981). When the mentor is a man and the protégé is a woman. Harvard Business Review. 59. 56-60.
- Fombrun, C. J. (1982). Strategies for network research in organizations. Academy of Management Review. 7. 280-291.
- Gabor, A. (1994). Cracking the glass ceiling in research-and-development. Research-Technology Management. 37 (5). 14-19.
- Galaskiewicz, J. (1979). Exchange networks and community politics. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Galaskiewicz, J., & Shatin, D. (1981). Leadership and networking among neighborhood human service organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly. 26. 343-448.
- Gehrke, N. J., & Kay, R. S. (1984). The socialization of beginning teachers through mentor-protégé relationships. Journal of Teacher Education. 35 (3). 21-24.
- Gibb, S., (1994). Inside corporate mentoring schemes - the development of a conceptual-framework. Personnel Review, 23 (3). 47-60.
- Gilbert, L. A., & Rossman, K. M. (1992). Gender and the mentoring process for women - implications for professional - development. Professional Psychology-Research and Practice. 23 (3). 233-238
- Gilley, J. W., & Boughton, W. N. (1996). Stop Managing, Start Coaching!: How Performance coaching can enhance commitment and improve productivity, Times Mirror Higher Education Group Inc. Company, USA.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

- Gillis, P. (1980). The New Girl Network. Parents. 55. 34-40.
- Granovetter, M. (1973). The strengths of weak ties. American Journal of Sociology. 6. 1360-1380.
- Halcomb, R. (1980). Mentors and the successful woman. Across the Board. 17 (2). 13-18.
- Harris, R. J., & Brewer, C. L. (1986). Mentoring in teaching a university psychology class. In W. A. Gray & M. M. Gray, Mentoring: Aid to excellence in education, the family and the community. Vancouver, B. C.: International Association for Mentoring.
- Heinrich, K. T. (1995) Doctoral advisement relationships between women - our friendship and betrayal. Journal of Higher Education. 66 (4). 447-469.
- Hekelman, F. P., Zyzanski, S. J., Flocke, S. A. (1995). Successful and less-successful research performance of junior faculty. Research in Higher Education. 36 (2). 235-255.
- Hendrick, S. S. (1982). Cinderella success stories obscure real picture. National Employment Weekly. 17. 16-17.
- Heyns, B. (1988). Educational defectors: A first look a teacher attrition in the NLS-72. Educational Researcher. 17 (3). 24-32.
- Hickson, D. J., Hinings, C. R., Lee, C. A., Schneck, R. E., Pennings, J. M. (1971), A strategic contingencies' theory of intraorganizational power. Administrative Science Quarterly. 16. 216-229.
- Hinings, C. R., Hickson, D. J., Pennings, J. M., Schneck, R. E. (1974). Structural conditions of intraorganizational power. Administrative Science Quarterly. 19. 22-44.
- Huling-Austin, L., Barnes, S., Smith, J. (1985). A research based development program for beginning teachers. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
- Huling-Austin, L. (1990). Teacher induction programs and internships. In W. R. Houston (Eds.). Handbook of research on teacher education. (pp. 535-548). New York: Macmillan.

- Hunt, D. M., & Michael, C. (1983). Mentorship: A Career Training and Development Tool. Academy of Management Review. 8. 475-485.
- Ibarra, H. (1992). Homophily and differential returns: Sex differences in network structure and access in an advertising firm. Administrative Science Quarterly. 37. 422-447.
- Ibarra, H. (1993). Personal networks of women and minorities in management: A conceptual framework. Academy of Management Review. 18 (1). 56-87.
- Ibarra, H. (1995). Race, opportunity and diversity of social circles in managerial networks. Academy of Management Journal. 38 (3). 673-703.
- Johnsrud, L. K., & Wunsch, M. (1991). junior and senior faculty women - commonalities and differences in perceptions of academic life. Psychological Reports. 69 (3). 879-886.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). Men and women of the corporation. New York: Basic Books.
- Kanter, R. M. (1983). The change masters. New York: Simon Schuster.
- Kawaura, Y., Ikeda, M., Ito, Y. Honda, T. (1996). Social network and social support for married-women and their spouses. Japanese Journal Of Psychology. 67 (4). 333-339.
- Kerry, T., & Farrow, J. (1996). Changes in initial teacher-training students perceptions of the effectiveness of school-based mentoring over time. Educational Studies. 22 (1). 99-110.
- Klauss, R. (1981). Formalized mentor relationships for management and development programs in federal government. Public Administration Review. July-August. 489-496.
- Koberg, C. S., Boss, R. W., Chappell, D., Ringer, R. C. (1994). Correlates and consequences of protégé mentoring in a large hospital. Group & Organization Management. 19 (2). 219-239.
- Kotter, J. P. (1982). The general managers. New York: Free Press.

- Krackhardt, D. (1992). The strength of strong ties: The importance of philos in organizations. In N. Nohria & R. G. Eccless (Eds.). Networks and organizations: Structure, form and action. Cambridge, MA: Harward Business School Press.
- Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the Mentoring Relationship. Academy of Management Journal . 26. 608-625.
- Kram, K. E. (1985). Mentoring at Work: Developmental Relationships in Organizational Life. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.
- Kram, K. E. (1986). Mentoring in the Workplace. In D.T. Hall and Associates (Eds.), Career Development in Organizations:160-201. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kram, K. E., & Isabella, L. A. (1985). Mentoring Alternatives: The Role of Peer Relationships in Career Development. Academy of Management Journal. 28(1) . 110-132.
- Kram, K. E. (1988). Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life. New York: University Press of America.
- Lambert, L. (1985). Adult learning, teacher preparation and inservice: An urgent agenda. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
- Lean, E. (1983). Cross-gender Mentoring-Downright upright and Good for Productivity. Training and Developmental Journal. 37(5). 60-65.
- Lenney, E. (1977). Women's self-confidence in achievement settings. Psychological Bulletin. 84. 1-13.
- Levine, H. Z. (1985). Consensus on career planning. Personnel. 62(3). 67-72.
- Levinson, D. J. (1978). Seasons of a Man's Life. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.
- Lin, N. (1982). Social resources and instrumental action. In P. V. Marsden & N. Lin (Eds.). Social structure and network analysis. (pp. 131-145). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Lincoln, J. R., & Miller, J. (1979). Work and friendship ties in organizations: A comparative analysis of relational networks. Administrative Science Quarterly. 24. 181-199.
- Lotüs, M. (1989). Ve tesettür meselesi. Nil Yay. İzmir.
- Luthans, F. (Eds.). (1995). Organizational behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Jacklin, C. N. (1974). The psychology of sex differences. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Marsden, P. V. (1982). Restricted access in networks and models of power. In P. V. Marsden & N. Lin (Eds.). Social Structure and Network Analysis. 201-218. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Marsden, P. V. (1988). Homogeneity in confiding relations. Social Networks. 10. 57-76.
- McPerson, J. M., & Smith-Lovin, L. (1987). Homophily in voluntary organizations: Status distance and the composition of face to face groups. American Journal of Sociology. 52. 370-379.
- Merriam, S. B., Thomas, T. K., Zeph, C. P. (1987). Mentoring in higher education: What we know now. Review of Higher Education. 11. 199-210.
- Miller, J., Labowitz, S., Fry, L. (1975). Inequities in the organizational experiences of women and men: Resources, vested interest and discrimination. Social Forces, 54. 365-381.
- Miller, J. (1980). Access to interorganizational networks. American Sociological Review. 45. 479-496.
- Missirian, A. K. (1982). The corporate connection: Why executive women need mentors to reach the top. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Mobley, G. M., Jaret, C., Marsh, K., Lim, Y. Y. (1994). Mentoring, job-satisfaction, gender, and the legal profession. Sex Roles. 31 (1-2). 79-98.
- Mokros, J. R., Erkut, S., Spichiger, L. (1981). Mentoring and being mentored: Sex-related patterns among college professors (Working Paper No:68). Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College Center for Research on Women.

- Monge, P. R., & Eisenberg, R. M. (1987). Emergent communication networks. In F. M. Jablin, L. L. Putnam, K. H. Roberts, & L. W. Porter (Eds.). Handbook of organizational communication: An interdisciplinary perspective. (pp. 304-342). Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Morzinski, J. A., & Fisher, J. C. (1996). An evaluation of formal mentoring studies and a model for their improvement. Evaluation Practice. 17(1). 43-56.
- Murray, M., & Owen, M. A. (1991). Beyond the Myths and Magic of Mentoring. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.
- Noe, R. A., (1988). Women and mentoring: a review and research agenda. Academy of Management Review. 13 (1). 65-78.
- Nolinske, T. (1995). Multiple mentoring relationships facilitate learning during fieldwork. American Journal of Occupational Therapy. 49 (1). 39-43.
- Nora, A., Cabrera, A., Hagedorn, L. S., Pascarella, E. (1996). Differential impacts of academic and social experiences on college-related behavioral outcomes across different ethnic and gender groups at 4-year institutions. Research in Higher Education. 37 (4). 427-451.
- Odell, S. J. (1990). Mentoring Teachers. Washington, DC: National Education Association.
- Odell, S. J., & Ferraro, D. P. (1992). Teacher mentoring and teacher retention. Journal of Teacher Education. 43 (3). 200-204.
- O'Neil, J. M. (1981). Toward a theory and practice of mentoring in psychology. In J. M. O'Neil & L. S. Wrightsman (Chairs), Mentoring: Psychological, personal, and career implications. Symposium presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Convention, Los Angeles.
- O'Neil, J. M., & Wrightsman, L. S. (1982). The mentoring relationship in psychology training programs. In G. F. Sumpree and S. Walfish (Eds.). Clinical, counseling, and community psychology: A student guide to graduate training and professional practice. New York: Irvington.
- Pettigrew, A. (1973). The politics of organizational decision making. London: Tavistock.

- Pfeffer J., & Salancik, G. (1974). Organizational decision making as a political process. Administrative Science Quarterly. 18. 457-461.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981). Power in organizations. Marshfield, Mass.: Pitman.
- Phillips-Jones, L. (1982). Mentors and Protégés. USA: R. R. Donnelly & Sons.
- Phillips-Jones, L. (1983). Establishing a formalized mentoring program. Training and Development Journal. 37(2). 38-42.
- Powell, G. N. (1988). Women and men in management. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L.. (1993). Gender and willingness to mentor in organizations. Journal of Management. 19. 97-111.
- Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1991). Easier said than done: gender differences in perceived barriers to gaining a mentor. Academy of Management Journal. 34 (4). 939-951.
- Ragins, B. R. (1990). Gender and mentorship: A role theory perspective. Working paper no.9-90. Marquette University College of Business Administration. Milwaukee.
- Ragins, B. R., & McFarlin, D. (1990). Perceptions of mentor roles in cross-gender mentoring relationships. Journal of Vocational Behavior. 37. 321-339.
- Ragins, B. R. (1989). barriers to mentoring: the female manager's dilemma. Human Relations. 42 (1). 1-22.
- Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified mentoring relationships in organizations - a power perspective. Academy of Management Review. 22 (2). 482-521.
- Ragins, B. R. & Scandura, T. A. (1994). Gender differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships. Academy of Management Journal. 37 (4). 957-971.
- Rank, O. (1996). Psychology and the soul. Journal of Religion & Health. 35 (3). 193-201.

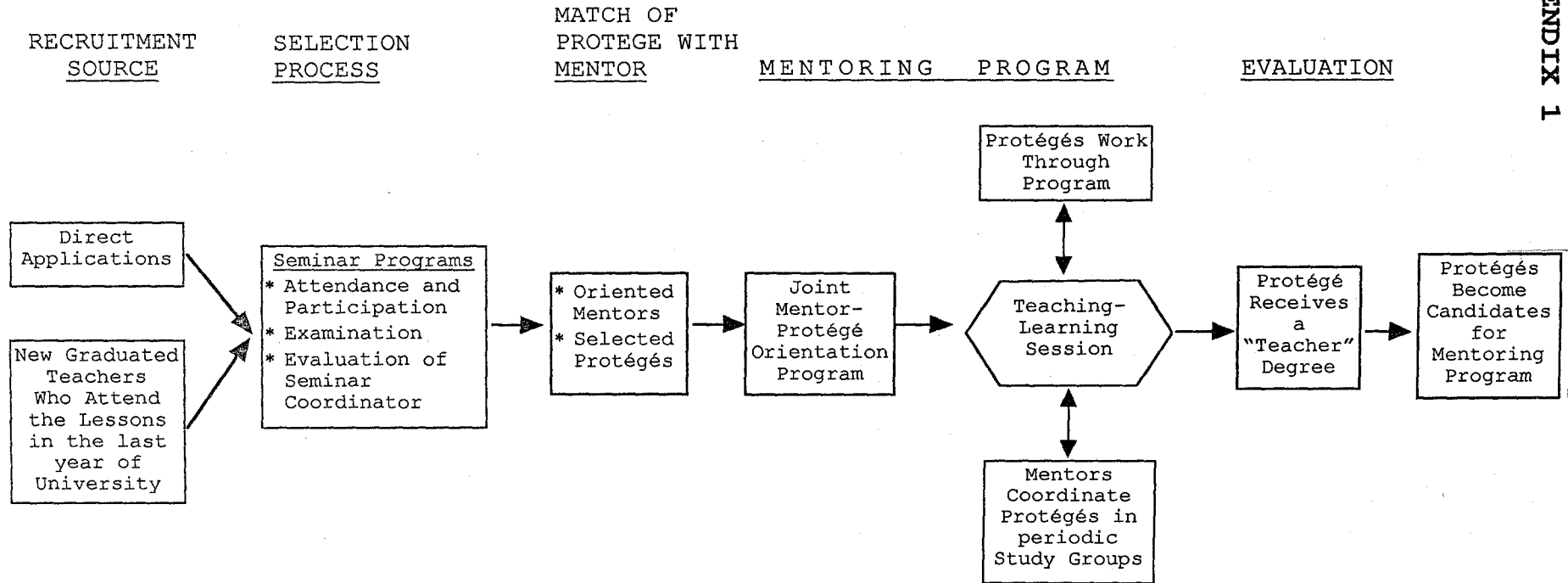
- Reich, M. H. (1986). The mentor connection. Personnel. 63 (2). 50-56.
- Rice, R. W., Instone, D., Adams, J. (1984). Leader sex, leader success, and leadership process: Two field studies. Journal of Applied Psychology. 69. 12-31.
- Riley, S., & Wrench, D. (1985). Mentoring among women lawyers. Journal of Applied Social Psychology. 15 (4). 374-386.
- Roche, G. R. (1979). Much ado about mentors. Harvard Business Review. 57 (1). 14-31.
- Scandura T. A., & Viator, R. E. (1995). Mentoring in public accounting firms - an analysis of mentor protégé relationship, mentorship functions, and protégé turnover intentions. Accounting Organizations And Society. 19 (8). 717-734.
- Scandura, T. A. (1992). Mentorship and career mobility - an empirical - investigation. Journal of Organizational Behavior. 13 (2). 169-174.
- Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (1994). Leader-member exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. Academy of Management Journal. 37 (6). 1588-1602.
- Schein, V. E. (1975). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. Journal of Applied Psychology. 60. 340-344.
- Schein E. H. (1978). Career Dynamics: Matching Individual And Organizational Needs. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.
- Schoonhoven, D. B., & Jelinick, M. (1990). Dynamic tension in innovative high technology firms: Managing rapid technological change through organizational structure. In M. A. Von Glinow & S. A. Mohrman (Eds.). Managing complexity in high technology organizations. (pp. 90-118). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Seal, K., & Mutha, S. (1996). Enhancing faculty mentoring of medical-Students. Teaching And Learning In Medicine. 8 (3). 174-178.

- Searcy, S., Leelawson, C., Trombino, B. (1995). Mentoring new leadership roles for parents of children with disabilities. Remedial and Special Education. 16 (5). 307-314.
- Shapiro, E. C., Haseltine, F. P., Rowe, M. P. (1978). Moving Up: Role Models, Mentors, and the "Patron System". Sloan Management Review, Spring. 51-58.
- Smith-Lovin, L., & McPerson, M. J. (1992). You are who you know: A network approach to gender. In P. England (Eds.). Theory on gender/feminism on theory. New York: Aldine
- Snyder, M. M., Osland, J., Hunter, L. (1995). Personnel practices in careers of women at the top in government and business in Nicaragua and Costa-Rica. Public Administration and Development. 15 (4). 397-416.
- Steawart, L. P., & Gudykunst, W. D. (1982). Differential factor influencing the hierarchical level and number of promotions of males and females within an organization. Academy of Management Journal . 25. 586-597.
- Stein, S. L. (1981). Sex differences in expectations of mentors. Paper presented at the annual meetings of the American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles, CA.
- Struthers, N. J. (1995). Differences in mentoring - a function of gender or organizational rank. Journal of Social Behavior And Personality. 10 (6). 265-272.
- Sutton, C. D., & Moore, K. K. (1985). Executive women- twenty years later. Harvard Business Review. Sept.-Oct. 42-66.
- Tannenbaum, A. S. (1968). Control in organizations. New York. McGraw-Hill.
- Tepper, B. J., Brown, S. J., Hunt, M. D. (1994). Strength of subordinates upward influence tactics and gender congruency effects. Journal of Applied Social Psychology. 23 (22). 1903-1919.
- Thomas, D. A. (1990). The impact of race on manager's experience of developmental relationships (mentoring and sponsorship): An intra-organizational study. Journal of Organizational Behavior. 2. 479-492

- Tichy, N. M., Tushman, M. L., Fombrun, C. (1974). Social network analysis for organizations. Academy of Management Review. 4. 507-519
- Tichy, N. M., & Fombrun, C. (1979). Network analysis in organizational settings. Social Science research. 19. 113-131.
- Tichy, N. M. (1981). Networks in organizations. In P. C. Nystrom & W. H. Starbuck (Eds.). Handbook of Organization Design. 2. (pp.22-248). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Turban, D. B., & Dougherty, T. W. (1994). Role of protégé personality in receipt of mentoring and career success. Academy of Management Journal. 37 (3). 688-702.
- Uysal, V. (1995). A pilot study on the Islamic religiosity scale. Journal of Islamic Research. 8 (3-4). 263-271.
- Uysal, V. (1996). Din psikolojisi açısından dini tutum davranış ve şahsiyet özellikleri. Marmara Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Vakfı Yay. İstanbul.
- Warshaw, P. D. (1980). The Climb to the top: Is the network the route for women? Personnel Administrator. 25. 55-66.
- Welch, M. S. (1980). Networking: The Great Way for Women to Get Ahead. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Wellman, B. (1983). Network analysis: Some basic principles. In R. Collins (Eds.). Sociological Theory. (pp.155-200). San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Whitely, W., & Dougherty, T. (1991). Relationship of career mentoring and socioeconomic origin to managers' and professionals' early career progress. Academy of Management Journal. 34 (2). 331-351.
- Whitely, W., Dougherty, T. W., Dreher, G. F. (1992). Correlates of career-oriented mentoring for early career managers and professionals. Journal of Organizational Behavior. 13 (2). 141-154.
- Wilde, J. B., & Schau, C. G. (1989). Mentoring in graduate schools of education: Mentees' perceptions. Journal of Experimental Education. 3. 165-179.

- Wildman, T. M., Magliaro, S. G., Niles, R. A., Niles, J. A. (1992). Teacher mentoring - an analysis of roles, activities, and conditions. Journal Of Teacher Education. 43 (3). 205-213.
- Wilson, M. S., & Reschly, D. J. (1995). Gender and school-psychology - issues, questions, and answers. School Psychology Review. 24 (1). 45-61.
- Yin, R. (1989). Case Study Research: Design and Methods. Applied Social Research Methods Series. London: Sage.
- Zey, M. G. (1984). The mentor connection. Homewood, IL: Dow Jones, Irwin.
- Zey, M. G. (1986). Mentoring programs: Making the right moves. Personnel Journal. 64 (2). 53-57.

Exhibit 1. Facilitated Mentoring Program (FMP) of the Organization.



APPENDIX 2: TABLES OF DEMOGRAPHICS

Table 25. Age

Age Groups	Frq.	%	Cum%
22-25	15	44.1	44.1
26-30	16	47.1	91.2
30+	3	8.8	100.0

Table 26. Gender

Gender	Frq.	%	Cum%
Female	16	47.1	47.1
Male	18	52.9	100.0

Table 27. Marital status

	Frq.	%	Cum%
Single	11	32.4	32.4
Married	23	67.6	100.0

Table 28. Occupation of husband/wife

Occupation	Frq.	%	Cum%
Teacher	13	38.2	38.2
Health Officer	1	2.9	41.1
Engineer	2	5.9	47.0
Housewife	7	20.6	100.0

Table 29. Children.

Values	Frq.	%	Cum%
Have children	18	78.3	78.3
No children	5	21.7	100.0

Table 30. Graduation School.

Values	Frq.	%	Cum%
Dicle University	1	2.9	2.9
Erciyes University	1	2.9	5.9
9 Eylül University	6	17.6	23.5
Atatürk University	3	8.8	32.4
İstanbul University	6	17.6	50.0
Marmara University	1	2.9	52.9
İstanbul Technical University	3	8.8	61.8
Abant İzzet Baysal University	1	2.9	64.7
Denizli Eğitim Fakültesi	1	2.9	67.6
Yıldız Technical University	1	2.9	70.6
Trakya University	1	2.9	73.5
Selçuk University	4	11.8	85.3
Anadolu University	2	5.9	91.2
Balıkesir University	1	2.9	94.1
Cumhuriyet University	1	2.9	97.1
19 Mayıs University	1	2.9	100.0