

DESPERATELY SEEKING MENTORS: THE IMPACT OF
DEPARTMENT-LEVEL AND GENDER-RELATED CHARACTERISTICS
ON MENTORING IN GRADUATE DEPARTMENTS OF SOCIOLOGY

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by
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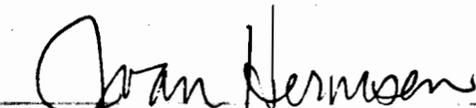
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Presented by Priya Dua

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And hereby certify that in their opinion it is worthy of acceptance.







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ABSTRACT

There has been much research on gender inequality in higher education and the benefits of mentoring. However, since mentoring has been a predominantly male experience, most research with female students focuses on advising relationships. However, for women, there is a significant difference between experiences of advising and mentoring – with problematic effects for women. Attrition rates are high for men and women; however, the causes of female attrition are unique and possibly related to their mentoring experiences. It is important to explore how department members shape department culture, which in turn, shapes the activities members engage in. This study explores how department-level and gender-related characteristics are related to informal and formal mentoring in graduate departments of sociology. Bivariate correlations indicated that these characteristics, gender-related characteristics in particular, had significant relationships with mentoring. This study concludes with a discussion of these relationships, an overview of policy implications, and suggestions for future research

Chapter 1

Introduction

Melanie, a new student in a graduate program in sociology, is deciding what classes to take her first semester. She does not know what the details of degree requirements she needs to fulfill are and is looking through a schedule of courses to see what courses would be a good fit for her interest in feminism. She is unable to find a faculty member who shares her research interests. Her advisor suggests that she take a required research methods course along with two classes of her choice. Her advisor suggests that she wait until she has become a little more familiar with the department before selecting a permanent advisor. A year later, Melanie has completed some of her degree requirements and is just starting to think about her thesis. However, she still has not found an advisor that is a good match for her interests. Although, she has received good grades and positive comments from faculty, she has not had much contact with faculty outside the classroom. She is unsure of what she needs to do next. She is excited about the thesis process but is worried about choosing a committee. She wonders why other students are navigating this process so easily and is uncertain if she will be able to complete her degree.

Emily, a doctoral student in sociology, is having difficulty managing her multiple roles. She is a graduate instructor in her department and a single mother with two children. She has just started doing her dissertation research and feels stressed because she is unable to manage her time effectively. She does not know how she will be able to

juggle her parenting and teaching responsibilities with her coursework and research. She wishes that she had a faculty member she could talk to in her department about their experiences in graduate school so she can develop some strategies for managing these roles.

These stories illustrate the experiences that many female graduate students face. Female students often lack knowledge of department culture and policies when they enter graduate programs causing them to be unsure of how the system works and how to make it work for them. The discussion of the experiences of female students (as shown in the literature) demonstrates how mentoring can address gender inequality. It is important to understand the organizational structure of departments in order to examine how it can foster the growth of not only female students but all students, improve the graduate experience and foster mentoring both informally and formally.

Statement of the Problem

Given the breadth of the research on mentoring, it is surprising how little is known about mentoring in graduate departments. This project focuses on a nationwide sample of graduate departments in sociology and looks closely at how department-level and gender-related characteristics are linked to “mentoring-friendliness” and mentoring structures in these departments. It analyzes the effects of the above characteristics on departmental mentoring support. The specific research questions this thesis addresses are: What department-level characteristics are related to the level of “mentoring-friendliness” and mentoring structures in graduate departments of sociology? What

gender-related characteristics are related to the level of “mentoring-friendliness” and mentoring structures in graduate departments of sociology?

Significance of the Study

Mentoring addresses several causes of attrition for female graduate students including the lack of knowledge of how the higher educational system works as well as gender inequality in academia. However, much less is known about the reasons for departmental support of mentoring and how this support is demonstrated. This thesis research will make several contributions to the existing literature on mentoring and the sociology of education because it extends current mentoring research, surveys departments to see if they have policies, examines mentoring structures in departments, uses gender/feminist variables as possible explanations for “mentoring-friendliness”, and uses quantitative research methods.

First, this project extends the current research on mentoring by going beyond a discussion of the definition of mentoring, mentoring outcomes, and mentoring activities by exploring why mentoring occurs in some departments and not in others. How are structural conditions associated with mentoring? How do these structural conditions facilitate and constrain departmental mentoring?

Second, the existing literature has often assumed but rarely explored whether or not departments have formal, written mentoring policies and this project surveys whether or not this is the case. This is essential to discovering the characteristics that are associated with departments that have such policies. This may shed light on the

conditions (e.g. structural constraints and opportunities) that may need to exist in departments for such policies to be implemented.

Third, this research looks at mentoring structures in departments by examining the different ways departments can support mentoring such as through the use of formal, written policies, peer mentoring programs, mentor support structures, and the development of a mentoring culture. This sheds light on which mentoring structures are typically found in departments and which structures have not been implemented in departments.

Fourth, this project explores the way gender and/or feminist scholarship influences departmental support of mentoring. Departments that encourage gender and/or feminist scholarship give voice to women's experiences because they bring gender/feminist issues to the forefront. This is one promising avenue of analysis because departments with a greater degree of gender and/or feminist scholarship may be more aware of the gender inequality that female graduate students face in academia, thus making them more likely to implement mentoring structures in their department.

Furthermore, the values of feminism are related to the values of mentoring. Feminist values emphasize the importance of reciprocity, empowerment, solidarity, and equality and mentoring (especially feminist mentoring) is often used to achieve these ends. Feminist mentoring may be a healthier model than traditional mentoring because it is more inclusive by giving voice to marginalized individuals, empowering mentees, valuing collaboration, working toward equality, and recognizing that mentors and mentees teach to and learn from one another.

Fifth, this project is one of the first attempts to analyze academic mentoring quantitatively. Most of the research that looks at mentoring relationships and how mentoring occurs in academia is qualitative. Qualitative research has provided valuable insight into the multidimensional nature of mentoring by analyzing narratives of faculty-student mentoring while quantitative research has focused on mentoring outcomes such as graduation rates, academic success, and level of professional involvement. However, quantitative research may shed light on the role department structure plays in the formation of mentoring structures and/or culture. Furthermore, this study explores if the mentoring process can be studied quantitatively at all.

I came to this research question after much research of the existing literature on mentoring because I had many unanswered questions -- the most important one was *why*. After learning about the benefits of mentoring and why students felt that they were not getting enough mentoring, I still did not understand why there was such a lack of mentoring. Where were the mentors that students were so desperately seeking? I was unable to understand what caused some departments to support mentoring while others did not support it, particularly when graduate students were complaining about the lack of mentoring in their departments. What differentiates departments with mentoring structures from those that lack such structures? Furthermore, most of the existing literature discusses mentoring activities that occur in faculty-student interactions but largely ignores how “gender-friendliness” and/or presence of feminism in departments shapes these relationships. Are departments that are “gender-friendly” (because they have more female faculty and graduate students as well as more gender and/or feminist scholarship) more likely to have mentoring structures and/or be “mentoring-friendly”?

This data may be especially relevant to understanding why mentoring occurs because the values of gender research and feminism, namely solidarity, empowerment, and reciprocity are closely related to the values related to mentoring. Although it is important to understand the way that departments are organized it is equally if not more important to understand and analyze the values of the individuals in these departments because they shape department policies and climate. They play a critical role in socializing students into department life as well as helping them inculcate professional values.

In a pilot study¹, I found that departments and institutions in general tended to extol the virtues of mentoring and call for the need for mentoring in academic departments. Many of the departments that I surveyed stated that they had a mentoring culture/climate but never explicitly defined what they meant by a mentoring culture/climate. This project seeks to go beyond these superficial claims and justifications to explore how departments actually support mentoring. There is a need for research that goes beyond simply examining how mentoring informally occurs to how mentoring structures are formally implemented in departments through policies, programs, and structures. I hope that this thesis paves the way for future research on these important questions.

¹ In the spring of 2005, I surveyed 100 graduate departments in sociology to see how many have formal, written mentoring policies. The results of the study revealed that approximately 4% had such policies.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

This thesis examines how mentoring occurs at an organizational level (i.e. in departments). However, much of the existing literature explores how mentoring occurs between individuals in dyad relationships. Thus, this literature review focuses on how mentoring occurs at an individual-level. It is important to examine individual mentoring relationships because they often occur with a broader context of departments as well as play a critical role in fostering a mentoring climate in departments. Furthermore, departments that lack these informal mentoring relationships may decide to implement formal mentoring structures in order to ensure that students have access to mentoring relationships.

There is good news and bad news about the status of women in doctoral programs. The good news is that women received 20% of all doctorates in 1975, over 35% in 1990, and 45% in 2000, but the bad news is that it takes them longer to complete the doctoral degree, increasing from 8.7 years in 1975 to 10.3 years in 2000 (Maher, Ford, & Thompson 2004, p.385-386). Women tend to get Ph.D.'s at higher rates in traditionally female fields such as education, the humanities, and the social sciences (Smith, 1995, p.5). Yet, although women are receiving a greater share of doctoral degrees they are underrepresented among faculty, serving as 51% of instructors, 45% of assistant professors, 37% of associate professors, and only 23% of full professors in 2001 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005). Female students face a paradox: although they represent a greater share of graduate students, they have few female

professors to mentor them. Women may be at an additional disadvantage because the attrition rate of doctoral students is approximately 50% (Lovitts, 2001, p.2). Thus, female graduate students are more likely to leave before they complete the doctoral degree, complete only a master's degree, or not complete any graduate degree at all (Schroeder & Mynatt, 1993).

What is going on here? Though women are entering graduate programs in virtually the same numbers as men, something about their experiences in graduate programs across the United States is radically different from those of men. Attrition rates are high for both men and women; however, the causes of female attrition are unique. Mentoring remains largely an informal activity in most graduate departments, and due to the patriarchal nature of graduate education, mentoring has been a predominantly male experience--most research with female students focuses on "advising relationships." Furthermore, I examine how department-level and gender-related characteristics are associated with departmental mentoring. The next section discusses how academic departments function as gendered organizations that may lead to gender inequality for female students.

Academic Departments as Gendered Organizations

Departments are structured as academic organizations within the larger organization of the university or institution itself. Drawing on Acker's (1990) argument that "...organizations are one area in which widely disseminated cultural images of gender are invented and reproduced" (p.140), one cannot understand the experiences of female graduate students without understanding how gender is practiced within this

organizational structure. The definition of gender “...rests on an integral connection between two propositions; gender is a constitutive element of social relationships based on perceived differences between the sexes, and gender is a primary way of signifying relations of power” (Scott, 1986, p.1067).

Martin (2004) builds on this by stating that gender is a social institution worth studying because it endures and persists over time, has distinct social practices, facilitates and constrains behavior, involves social relations that are characterized by rules and norms, is constituted and reconstituted by embodied agents, is internalized by individuals as identities, has a legitimating ideology, and highlights issues of power. Thus, thinking of gender as a social institution increases awareness of the origin and persistence of gender. Acker (1992) asserts that gender “...stands for the pervasive ordering of human activities, practices, and social structures in terms of differentiations between women and men” (p.567). This suggests that gender is an institutionalized system of social practices that categorizes individuals as male and female as well as organizes inequality around these differences.

Martin (2003) posits that gender is practice because it is dynamic and emergent. It occurs in time and is practiced not according to what others do but what one expects they will do. Practicing it correctly depends on tacit knowledge and skills. This practice reflects and reconstitutes the gender institution—it is authentic and effortless. Thus, “over time, the saying and doing create what is said and done” (p.352). However, those with less privilege (women) are more reflexive about their actions than those that have more privilege (men). This allows men to deny that they are doing gender and forces women to perform gender to gain male approval and status.

A parallel can be drawn from Acker's (1990) image of an abstract worker to the image of an ideal student. Acker argues that in organizational logic, disembodied workers fill abstract jobs. These workers exist for their work and have no external demands, if such demands were present, they would be considered unsuitable for the job. Thus, "the closest the disembodied worker doing the abstract job comes to a real worker is the male worker whose life centers on his full-time, life-long job, while his wife or another woman takes care of his personal needs and his children...the woman worker, assumed to have legitimate needs other than those required by the job, did not fit with the abstract job" (p.149). Similarly, the ideal student is a male student who has no demands that distract him from his graduate education. If he has any such demands, departments expect them to be taken care of by his partner/spouse leaving him free to exist only for his education and to define himself as a student. Thus, just as "the worker with 'a job' is the same universal 'individual' who in actual social reality is a man, the concept of a universal worker excludes and marginalizes women who cannot, almost by definition, achieve the qualities of a real worker because to do so is to become like a man" (p.150), the same can be said for the ideal student. The next section explores how department culture leads to attrition and gender inequality for some female students.

Causes of Attrition and Gender Inequality

Graduate students often apply to doctoral programs based on the overall reputation of the university, not the character of the department, learning about the department only once classes begin (Lovitts & Nelson, 2000). Female attrition may be due to issues related to gender inequality in departmental culture, academic or

professional development, balancing work and family roles, time management, stress, financial concerns, and job/career opportunities that hinder their progress to degree completion (Moyer, Salovey, & Casey-Cannon, 1999). Mentoring may be beneficial to women by reducing the effects of these manifestations of gender inequality that cause attrition.

One clear and historically rooted expression of gender inequality in academia is through departmental climate/culture. Such contexts may force female students to leave for a variety of reasons that are worth considering – I mention a couple. First, sociology departments often lack a focus on race and gender issues in the curriculum and such research areas may be perceived as secondary or marginal; therefore, students (often female) who pursue these areas may be placed on a less prestigious track within the program because their interests are largely unsupported and/or stigmatized by the faculty. Secondly, departments may also have a "hidden curriculum" which works to further reproduce stratified and unequal social relations through gender hierarchies and stereotyping (Margolis & Romero, 1998).

Margolis and Romero (1998) posit that the hidden curriculum has a weak and a strong form. The weak form includes professionalization, departmental culture, and TA/RA opportunities as well as the emphasis placed on competition, isolation, detachment, distance, self-confidence, and independence. The strong form of the hidden curriculum may be seen in the deafening silences wherein faculty include the scholarship of white men and exclude minority or female scholarship, even if the department claims to specialize in these areas. Thus, students are socialized into a traditional perspective. Students who choose to focus on racism or sexism may be excluded or ignored by faculty

members. Faculty may argue that if students study their own community they lack professional distance and/or send these students to take classes in other departments, viewing these students as pursuing secondary research areas. Furthermore, these students may be placed on a low status track in the department, wherein they have limited TA/RA opportunities, less access to postdoctoral fellowships, fewer publishing opportunities, and limited access to jobs at prestigious institutions (Margolis & Romero, 1998).

In part, related to departmental culture, women may take longer to complete their degree or leave the program because they feel isolated from faculty and other students. Lovitts and Nelson (2000) found that those who finish their degree have more social capital because they are more likely to share an office with other graduate students. This gives them not only access to internal knowledge, but makes them more likely to participate in the social and intellectual life of the department. Women who do not have this access may be excluded from the academic community and leave because they do not feel integrated into the department.

Female students may suffer from discrimination related to faculty attitudes and beliefs as well. Women may feel that the faculty is less interested in them because they perceive them as “less dedicated to their education,” causing women to have less self-confidence and set lower goals (Deats & Lenker, 1994). Faculty often have negative views of women as students by questioning (overtly or covertly) their intellectual ability. In fact, faculty may blame students who leave the program by citing their lack of ability and poor performance, instead of realizing that they, the faculty themselves, have a responsibility for seeing students through the program (Lovitts, 2001). Faculty may also

view female students as sexual beings leading to sexual harassment, that may in turn, also cause attrition (Smith, 1995).

Faculty members (mostly male) are more likely to support their own sex (male students); this can be detrimental to female students (Berg & Foster, 1983). Due to this fact, female students may not have the opportunity to interact with professors outside of class. Thus, they may lack access to male power, resources, and valuable networks that may increase their academic success. In short, female students feel overlooked, unsupported, neglected, and dismissed by faculty members (Schroeder & Mynatt, 1993).

Female doctoral students are often expected to know how the system works, but may have trouble making the system work for them because they are much less likely to have a “guide” or a mentor to help them both understand and negotiate the system. This is a disadvantage because although 53% of graduate students are women, only 27% of college professors are women, thus many female students do not have female faculty to help them negotiate the system (Schroeder & Mynatt 1993, p.556). Moyer and colleagues (1999) found similar results in that female faculty are approximately 20% of full professors although they are 33% of faculty (p.608). In sociology departments, female faculty are approximately 28% of full professors although they are 26% of faculty (Romero & Margolis, 2000, p.494). Female minority students are at an even greater disadvantage because of the lack of female minority professors in academia--causing them to feel marginalized by the whiteness of the professorate (Turner & Thompson, 1993).

Since mentoring structures are both informal and scarce, students must compete for the few mentorships that are available to them. According to Lovitts (2001), women

are twice as likely than men to lack an advisor. In addition, female students who are mentored often feel like it does not meet their needs (Frestedt, 1995). Lovitts (2001) further found that faculty in a range of disciplines were more likely to cite male students when asked about their most successful advising relationships. The professors claimed that male students were more “self-directed” and “independent” than female students were. On the other hand, the same professors cited female students when asked about their least successful advising relationships. They claimed that female students could not “handle the work,” were “needy and dependent,” and “lacked motivation.” Furthermore, none of the professors Lovitts interviewed stated that they had collegial relationships with female students, only advising relationships, thus signaling that male students were more likely to be viewed as colleagues than female students were.

Processes of role strain affect male and female graduate students quite differently. Female students often have multiple roles that conflict causing them to feel role strain and discouragement that could lead to attrition (Herzig, 2004; Maher, Ford, & Thompson, 2004; Moyer, Salovey, & Casey-Cannon, 1999). Smith (1995) provides a telling example where a female student was discouraged by her department from starting a family. They told her that becoming pregnant would show a “lack of dedication” on her part towards the program. If she became pregnant before her dissertation proposal was approved, she would be asked to leave the program. However, her department did not have the same attitude towards male students with families.

The financial resources that men and women both bring to and receive from the university also differ and create yet another gendered barrier for female graduate students. Female students often leave doctoral programs because of lack of funding as it

affects enrollment status and time to degree. One study found that 40.5% of female students rely on their own financial resources as compared to 25.7% of male students (Maher, Ford & Thompson, 2004, p.357). Furthermore, traditionally female areas may receive less funding from the university (Smith, 1995). Female students may turn to teaching assistantships (TA) or research assistantships (RA) for additional funding; however, they are usually asked to be TA's rather than RA's; this can be disadvantageous because teaching is more time-consuming leaving them less time to work on publications (Deats & Lenker, 1994; Herzig, 2004; Moyer, Salovey, & Casey-Cannon, 1999). Women in graduate programs may not apply for RA positions because they perceive barriers that prevent them from doing research with faculty. Women are less likely to ask to be involved in faculty projects because they do not want to seem aggressive and prefer to be invited instead (Connors & Franklin, 1999). This certainly influences the types of positions they are able to apply for as well as the types of institutions that employ them in the future.

As women enter their first academic positions, they are also at a disadvantage. They have increased unemployment, are less likely to be hired by academic institutions, are hired in lower ranked graduate institutions, and are paid less than men (Smith, 1995). Smith (1995) also found that women often do not have tenure-track positions, tend to teach more undergraduate classes, have fewer benefits, have less job security, and fewer professional opportunities than men. Women are more likely to deal with sexism and tend to work in less productive disciplines as well (Moyer, Salovey, & Casey-Cannon, 1999). The list of issues female graduate students face is extensive and much these can be traced to a lack of available and effective mentoring for women in graduate education.

The following three sections explore the different ways mentoring has been defined, provide an overview of feminist models of mentoring, and discuss the benefits of mentoring for female students.

Organizational Mentoring

Women may face gender inequality in organizational settings in terms of career advancement, discrimination, salary, and access to networks, which in turn, decreases organizational effectiveness because women's abilities are not used to their maximum potential (Parker & Kram, 1993; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). The pyramid shape of organizations prevents all low ranking employees (who tend to be women) from having access to senior employees (i.e. potential mentors) that can help them overcome these organizational barriers.

Organizational mentoring is one method that women can use in order to overcome these barriers. Kram (1985) provides a foundational definition of organizational mentoring as an interpersonal process in which a more experienced colleague provides professional guidance and support to a less experienced colleague. She posits that mentoring involves career-related and psychosocial functions. Career-related functions help the mentee learn skills and strategies that enhance career development by facilitating exposure and visibility, coaching, and providing challenging assignments arising from the mentor's experience, status, and influence. Psychosocial functions include activities that enhance the mentee's self-confidence such as role modeling, counseling, and friendship arising from a relationship that fosters mutual trust and intimacy.

Organizational mentoring offers several benefits to women. It increases the visibility of women and allows them to be recognized as talented organizational members. Furthermore, mentoring helps women develop career plans and self-identity, reduce job stress, and increase power, job satisfaction, and job success. Mentoring allows women to operate outside of organizational norms because they learn the unwritten rules of the organization, enabling them to experiment with new behaviors and ideas. A study of gender differences in mentoring relationships among 280 female business graduates found that female graduates with male mentors were at higher organizational levels than those with female mentors (Burke & McKeen, 1996). One explanation for this finding is that male mentors may be at higher organizational levels than female mentors and are able to exert greater influence on their protégé's behalf due to their power and status within the organization.

Although mentoring is beneficial for women in organizational settings, women often lack access to mentors because of selection bias and interpersonal barriers. Women may not be noticed by potential mentors because they have few interactions with those in power since they lack access to male networks. Furthermore, women tend to be excluded from participating in important, visible projects within the organization, which in turn, makes them less visible to potential mentors. Therefore, women may be perceived as unsuitable for managerial success and uninterested in career advancement (Ragins & Cotton, 1993a). Women are less likely to be mentored if they are given preference for certain jobs within the organization because other organizational members may not want to help them succeed (Noe, 1988). They may want to see these women fail because they do not think that they deserve to be a part of the organization. Women may be at a

further disadvantage because mentors tend to select protégés that are similar to themselves in terms of gender, race, and social class (Chandler, 1996). Hence, if most high-ranking members within an organization are men, women may be less likely to be selected as a protégé.

Women may feel uncomfortable initiating mentoring relationships with men because they are afraid that it will be misconstrued as a sexual advance by their potential mentor and fear office gossip and innuendoes that may occur as a result. Thus, they may prefer to have a female mentor. However, they may have trouble finding a female mentor because women face barriers in becoming mentors as well. Women may be reluctant to act as mentors because they are more visible in organizations than men are. If protégés of female mentors are unsuccessful, it reflects negatively on them because they will appear to have poor judgment and be discounted by the organization while male mentors with unsuccessful protégés are given more latitude. Women may decide not to become mentors because they do not have time to invest in a mentoring relationship as well as believe that they do not have anything of value to offer protégés due to low self-confidence (Ragins & Cotton, 1993a). Moreover, female mentors have a smaller pool of protégés to choose from because often men do not want to be mentored by women. Female mentors may not want to mentor women exclusively because they do not want to be perceived as wanting to work only with women. Nonetheless, it is important to recognize that female protégés may not choose female mentors because of the lack of female mentors and since male mentors tend to have more power thus enhancing the protégé's visibility and access to resources (Noe, 1988). Female mentors benefit from

the mentoring relationship through career rejuvenation, increased organizational recognition, and higher job performance.

Allen, Poteet, and Russell (2000) found that female mentors are more likely to choose protégés based on protégé ability/potential than whether they believe protégés need to be mentored. Female mentors (regardless of their career advancement aspirations) may believe that helping high ability/potential protégés helps them overcome their own organizational barriers by increasing their visibility and status. They may believe that these protégés are more likely to be successful which in turn, makes them look successful. However, men with low advancement aspirations were more likely to select protégés based on whether they thought protégés needed help (Allen, Poteet, & Russell, 2000). One explanation for this finding is that low aspiring men may feel less pressure to succeed since they face fewer organization barriers themselves. Thus, these men may be more willing to invest in those that are more likely to encounter these barriers.

Experienced protégés may perceive fewer barriers to gaining a mentor because they know how to initiate mentoring relationships, perceive that they have more opportunities for meeting mentors, and have received organizational recognition because they have been mentored in the past, thus attracting potential mentors (Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Women face a paradox in that they need mentors to help them be successful but cannot attract mentors because of their lack of experience with mentoring and organizational recognition (Parker & Kram, 1993; Ragins, 1996).

Organizations may want to create formal mentoring structures to ensure that all employees (women in particular) have access to mentors. Noe (1989) examined assigned

mentoring relationships in an educational administration setting. He found that male mentors with female protégés reported that women used the mentoring relationship more effectively than women with female mentors did. Women in cross gender mentoring relationships may work harder to make these relationships successful in order to maximize the benefits they receive from them because they realize how critical they are to their career success. Organizational mentoring models have served as templates for academic mentoring. The next section discusses what constitutes academic mentoring.

Academic Mentoring

An academic mentor can be defined in several ways. Table 2.1 provides an overview of the characteristics of mentoring relationships. Kea, Penny, and Bowman (2003) defined a mentor as someone with greater rank who uses their experience to teach, give advice, and help their students develop personally and professionally. Phillips-Jones (1982, in LeCluyse, Tollefson, & Borgers 1985, p.411) defined a mentor as an "influential person in the student's graduate program who significantly helps the student reach a major goal." A mentor is an advocate, an open-minded and well-rounded individual who empowers students through guidance that helps them negotiate the unwritten rules of the system. An ideal mentor is someone who challenges students yet acts as a safety net in case they need it.

Redmond (1990) posits that mentoring has two components: the transfer of marketable and professional skills, behaviors and attitudes and the social and emotional interactions that allows this transfer to occur. According to Fassinger (1997), mentoring functions include behaviors such as "accepting, supporting, advising, assisting, guiding,

coaching, sponsoring, instructing, advocating, counseling, informing, endorsing, praising, exposing, encouraging, clarifying, educating, protecting, socializing, modeling, and befriending” (p.2).

Effective mentoring means that faculty spend time with students outside of class and requires that the academic system is manipulated to meet individual and group needs. According to Brown, Davis, and McClendon (1999), mentoring is a form of structured interaction with faculty that increases the probability of degree completion and career success. It is a nurturing process where faculty serve as role model, counselor, and friend in order to help graduate students develop personally and professionally.

Redmond (1990) argues that “effective mentoring involves not only the transfer of academic skills, attitudes, and behaviors but a level of interaction, trust, and communication which results in a psychosocial comfort that empowers a student with the knowledge and confidence to grow academically and socially, regardless of the environment” and that “in a holistic sense, planned mentoring can be seen as a way of addressing society’s injustices” (p.191). Furthermore, planned mentoring systematically addresses causes of student attrition and delayed graduation by promoting greater student/faculty contact, communication, and understanding, encouraging the use of university resources designed to aid students with nonacademic patterns, intervening promptly with academic difficulties; and creating a culturally validating psychosocial atmosphere (Redmond, 1990).

Table 2.1. Distinguishing functions/characteristics of advising, mentoring, and support systems.

Definition/Function	Relationship		
	Faculty advising	Traditional mentoring	Student support systems
Intentional/planned process	X	X	X
Give advice	X	X	X
Make recommendations	X	X	X
Provide counsel	X	X	X
Promote personal development	X	X	X
Stimulate acquisition of knowledge	X	X	X
Provide information about educational programs	X	X	X
Create understanding of educational bureaucracy	X	X	X
Strengthen motivation to perform at potential	X	X	
Provide emotional support, encouragement		X	X
Help build self confidence, heighten self-esteem		X	
Teach		X	
Sponsor		X	
Befriend		X	X
Provide training		X	
Socialization into institutional culture		X	
Inculcate values, ethics		X	
Defend and protect		X	
Provide nurturing environment		X	
Develop trust		X	X
Is long-term		X	
Requires time commitment		X	
Partnership		X	
Promotes mutual respect		X	
Development of whole person		X	

Source: Dickey (1996) p.44

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Mentoring relationships have three basic approaches: a masculine approach that focuses on task completion, a feminine approach that focuses on the interpersonal dimension between mentor and student, and an androgynous approach that combines task and interpersonal dimensions--this is the best approach (Smith, 1995).

Mentoring relationships often start with faculty members choosing who they want to mentor. According to Schwiebert (2000), they may select someone who has similar qualities, good interpersonal and communication skills, professional promise, intelligence, a strong work ethic, confidence, initiative, and assertiveness. Women may be less likely to be chosen for a mentoring relationship because many of these traits have typically been associated with men. Women can be proactive by selecting someone they believe they can work well with in order to gain the benefits of a mentoring relationship.

Feminist Models of Mentoring

Heinrich (1995) states that for feminists, a mentoring relationship is one where individuals are “in relationship with one another with the expressed desire of assisting in a particular goal, including reciprocity, empowerment, and solidarity” (p.465). Moss, Debres, Cravey, Hyndman, Hirschboeck, & Masucci, (1999) posit that mentoring as feminist praxis involves promoting women within the academy. However, there are relatively few women faculty to do this effectively. They argue that feminist mentors should work from a woman centered approach, align with marginalized groups, enable democratic access to intellectual resources, use collaborative decision making, and work to dismantle academic structures.

Fassinger (1997) in her feminist mentoring model posits that the task of feminist mentors is to empower others by helping them realize that “...*they* are their own sources of truth, knowledge, judgment, and ...authority—that they have the capacity within themselves to maximize their own potential” instead of conferring the power they hold on mentees as traditional mentors do (p.3). Thus, anyone can be a feminist mentor because everyone has some degree of power.

Fassinger’s (1997) model includes the following characteristics (see Table 2.2 for an overview). First, it involves re-thinking power in that feminist mentors should share power, mutuality, equality, and respect with mentees in order to empower the mentee and further their needs and goals. Second, it emphasizes the relational because it requires mentors to be open and honest with mentees. Third, it values collaboration in that mentors work with mentees on joint projects and bring mentees into the networks they have with professional colleagues. Fourth, it is committed to diversity because mentors

give voice to marginalized individuals by recognizing their own “isms” and challenging those “isms” in themselves and others. Fifth, it involves the integration of dichotomies that links personal experience to abstract knowledge by recognizing that “...knowledge is constructed within the contextual boundaries of the knower” (p.10). Finally, it incorporates political analysis by recognizing that the personal is political as well as teaching mentees that patriarchal values are embodied in individuals and institutions.

According to Benishek, Bieschlke, Park, and Slattery (2004) a feminist model of mentoring would build off Heinrich’s (1991/1995) tentative outline of theory development, involving reciprocity, solidarity, and empowerment and Fassinger’s (1997) feminist model. They believe that a feminist model of mentoring should build self-esteem, address aspects of gender inequality, prevent attrition, and counter the hidden curriculum, which in turn, enriches the graduate experience of students. They argue that in this model, mentors and students must be aware that mentoring has the capacity to reproduce the hidden curriculum by reproducing the faculty and the social order. Mentors and students must work together to create an environment where there is greater equity among students by making all students feel welcomed and valued by the faculty and the university in general. This would not just benefit female graduate students but all students; it is not a matter of building one up at the expense of others but making equality a more visible aspect of the graduate environment, thus answering Dickey’s (1996) call for academia to not only expect diversity but value it.

Table 2.2. Fassinger's Model of Feminist Mentoring

Mentor	Mentoring Process	Mentee
Emphasizes equality, mutuality Focuses on needs of mentee Eschews hierarchies, shares power *Gains colleague Is congruent Shares all of self Connects mentee to others Is open, honest *Gains support, friendship Involves mentee in joint projects Networks *Obtains task assistance *Increases productivity Gives voice to all Focuses on marginalized *Broadens own horizons *Increases sensitivity Teaches connection of knowledge, personal experience Values: thinking/feeling objective/subjective public/private *Reinforces self-congruence Challenges status quo Acknowledges politics of education, science Accepts conflict	Re-thinking of power Emphasis on relational Valuing of collaboration Commitment to diversity Integration of dichotomies Incorporation of political Analysis	*Learns to trust, respect self *Feels competent *Gains support *Develops networks *Gains appreciation of Balance *Gains direct experience *Observes close model *Develops image of self as Professional *Gains voice *Develops pride, self-respect *Learns to express needs *Develops self- congruence *Respects both knowledge, Feelings *Gains awareness *Is empowered to work toward Social change

Source: Fassinger (1997)

The effects of mentoring have been recently discussed. Johnson and Huwe (2003) made a list of characteristics that mentored and unmentored students have. This is presented in Table 2.3. Interestingly, stereotypical traits of women (such as being needy, dependent, and emotional) can be found in the list of unmentored characteristics while stereotypical traits of men (such as high self-esteem and ambition) can be found in the list of mentored characteristics. This may lead faculty members to engage in mentoring relationships with men rather than women. It is clear that women in graduate programs are facing an interpersonal, departmental, and mentoring structure that is largely based in stereotypes and patriarchy that place unfair and ungrounded barriers in female graduate students' paths as they navigate this system.

Table 2.3. Characteristics of Graduate Students

	Mentored	Unmentored
Emotional stability	These students have emotional stability because they are self-aware, have high self-esteem, and are open to feedback.	These students are emotionally unstable because perceived as moody, dependent, aloof, and needy.
Emotional intelligence	These students are emotionally intelligent because they are good self-monitors. They are sensitive to the mood of their adviser and can adjust their behavior to meet their advisor/mentor's expectations.	These students lack emotional intelligence because they have inappropriate boundaries by sharing too much personal information with their advisor.
Commitment	These students demonstrate commitment by being conscientious, high achieving, ambitious, and hardworking, as well as rapidly completing tasks.	These students demonstrate lack of commitment to graduate education by being procrastinators and disorganized causing their advisor to believe that they are underachieving academically.

Source: Johnson and Huwe, 2003

Mentoring relationships that are gender-sensitive may be more beneficial to female graduate students – it is to the benefits of mentoring that we now turn.

Mentoring Benefits for Women

Women want advisers to act as mentors and are disappointed when they do not. Benkin, Beazley, and Jordan (2000) found that women are less satisfied with the faculty mentoring they receive than men. This can be detrimental to their success in the program because mentoring helps them make the transition to the doctoral program and creates the conditions for their success thereby making them more likely to finish their dissertation and receive their degree. By allowing women to learn the formal and informal structure of the institution (related to resources and support) as well as department policies, mentoring provides the support needed for them to get through the doctoral process.

Mentors offer many benefits to female students. According to LeCluyse and colleagues (1985), mentored female students are involved in more professional activities than non-mentored ones. Mentors help women develop professionally by providing knowledge, making recommendations, consulting, motivating, and encouraging them. Mentoring goes beyond simple advising because mentors respect students' ideas and are concerned about their professional welfare. They act as sponsors to students by facilitating their access to colleagues and engaging them in professional activities such as joint publications, writing proposals or grants, presenting conference papers, research projects, workshops, and networking opportunities that they may not have access to otherwise because of their gender (Bruce, 1995; Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001;

Smith, 1995). Furthermore, mentors may provide opportunities for students to demonstrate their competence to others through teaching undergraduates. They help students develop new ideas and scholarly insights by encouraging innovative thinking that could lead to later career success. These relationships improve students' ability in professional work as well as increase their knowledge of structures in their profession, thus making it more likely that they will enter the field (Brown, Davis, & McClendon, 1999). As they develop a clear professional identity, learn technical aspects of the field, and define career goals because mentors demonstrate professional tasks and skills, mentored students can grow professionally.

Faculty mentors may nominate or promote their students within the program. They may do this by nominating them for awards/recognition for their research or by sponsoring/showcasing/promoting their work for publication or presentation at a conference (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). This provides added exposure and experience for women that may help them later in their career. Faculty may collaborate with students to help them gain experience and develop skills. Connors and Franklin (1999) state that mentors should offer research opportunities for female students that are based on the specific and lived experiences of women so that they can realize "the perceived uniqueness of female scholarship" (p.20).

Mentoring can increase production after graduation as well. The mentor and the student may become colleagues once the student has completed their doctoral degree by engaging in joint publications or presenting together at conferences (Schwiebert, 2000). Thus, others in the field become more aware of female scholarship as well as the particular student's scholarship. Furthermore, mentoring can help students get training or

internship opportunities. It can foster career promotion and mobility by providing more career opportunities earlier in their career than they would have had otherwise. These opportunities may be due to the reputation and status of their mentor in the field (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Students may find jobs through referrals and open doors provided by their mentor as well as higher salaries. These opportunities may lead to greater career satisfaction. In short, mentored students have greater retention, development, confidence, satisfaction, job/career opportunities, and career advancement (Bruce, 1995). These benefits are especially advantageous for women because it helps them counter some of the disadvantages and discrimination they may face because they are female.

Mentoring also provides psychosocial support for women because they know that others believe in them (Tenenbaum, Crosby, & Gliner, 2001). It helps women counter “imposter syndrome,” the feeling that they do not belong in a doctoral program, because the mentor has confidence in their ability to succeed. Women with mentors have higher levels of self-awareness, confidence, self-esteem, self-respect, and assertiveness, leading them to have higher expectations for themselves (Bruce, 1995). Women receive these benefits because mentors tend to protect them from hostility and criticism from faculty, especially male faculty members (Bruce, 1995; Johnson & Huwe, 2003).

Mentors may serve as role models for women by showing them how to shape their lives into what they want it to be instead of what faculty members think it should be (Brown, Davis, & McClendon, 1999). Thus, mentors help them find their niche. Mentors help model how students can balance work and family roles successfully by discussing their own experiences. This is critical for women because they may feel unable to manage work and family roles while they are in school. This may be especially

true for women who are married and/or have children because they may feel guilty about taking time away from these relationships. The benefits of mentoring are broad and strong, especially for women. Benefits like these flow from a wide variety of mentor-mentee structures, ideologies, and composition; however, some provide more benefits than others do. The following sections examine the different types of mentoring relationships.

Mentoring Relationships

Female to Female Mentoring

Female doctoral students may seek female mentors but may have trouble finding them due to the lack of female faculty members. Female faculty provide support that female students need to progress through doctoral programs. According to Neumark and Gardecki (1998), relationships with female faculty reduce the time to degree completion and increase the probability that female students will finish graduate school. Similarly, Herzig (2004) found that female faculty provide moral support and motivation for female students. In addition, they provide access to informal structures that women may not otherwise know about.

Relationships with female mentors are characterized by mutual empowerment, empathy, reciprocity, role flexibility, acceptance, and caring that allows female students to develop a professional identity (Heinrich, 1995; Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Female mentors use a collegial sharing of power to create warm, professional relationships that tend to be informal. These relationships have higher quality interactions where mentors show concern for student welfare (Schroeder & Mynatt, 1993).

Women may want female mentors because of their gender role socialization. There may be a mismatch in teaching or learning styles with male mentors. Female mentoring relationships provide the full benefit of role modeling. Gilbert and colleagues (cited in Schroeder & Mynatt, 1993) found that female graduate students who identified female professors as role models viewed themselves as more confident, career oriented, and instrumental than students who did not (p.556). Women may perceive that female mentors can understand them better and serve as role models so they can learn how to balance work and family roles. Minority women may benefit from female professors of the same ethnicity who can understand their experience and empathize with them. However, there are few such professors in graduate departments.

Power can be a critical problem in female advising/mentoring relationships. An overview of the use of power is presented in Table 2.4. Students and advisers both have personal power but only advisers have legitimate power due to their status in the department. Heinrich (1995) examined power in advising relationships and found that students referred to advisers as mentors only when they shared power as colleagues and negotiated conflict openly and directly. Mentors were gender sensitive, balancing task and interpersonal dimensions of the relationship. They protected students by using their power to benefit them as well as negotiated with others to help students get through the doctoral experience. Interestingly, female mentors were never referred to as "idealized mothers" by their female students although some male mentors were referred to as "idealized fathers" (Heinrich, 1995). One possible explanation of this is that female faculty may want to avoid disapproval of male faculty by choosing not to engage in stereotypical female behavior such as mothering.

According to Heinrich (1995), students are involved in "power disowned" relationships when advisers focused on the interpersonal dimension of the relationship while ignoring the task dimension to avoid conflict. Female students were often upset and disappointed when advisers were ineffective and silent when they needed help. Women did not feel comfortable confronting these advisers because they felt betrayed by their silence. Instead, they justified the adviser's behavior and tried to compensate for poor advising by working harder themselves.

Table 2.4. Types of Female to Female Mentoring Relationships

Power	Mentoring vs. Nonmentoring	Advisory Team Typology	Task/Interpersonal Balance	Style of Conflict Resolution
With	Mentoring	Professional Friend/Colleague	Balanced	Negotiation
Over	Nonmentoring	Iron Maiden/ Handmaiden	Task Oriented	Direct Confrontation
Disowned	Nonmentoring	Negative Mother/ Good Daughter	Interpersonal	Avoidance
		Inadequate/ Overadequate	Interpersonal	Avoidance

Source: Heinrich, 1995, p.451

Heinrich (1995) also explored "power over" relationships where mentors used their power against students. These relationships were task oriented and hierarchical with aggressive and confident advisers who were insensitive to students. However, these advisers did defend advisees against male professors and bureaucracies. Female faculty may adopt this attitude if they are using a male model of education (Frestedt, 1995). Such a model places serious burdens on female faculty – therefore, while female students may expect support from female faculty, they may not receive it due to stress and pressures felt by female faculty.

Male to Female Mentoring

Female students benefit from male mentors because male advisers may have access to a male structure of resources that female advisers do not. Women may be more likely to choose male professors as advisers because they have higher ranks, more power, greater influence, more powerful leadership positions, and are likely to have broader, stronger connections than female advisers (Heinrich, 1995; Johnson & Huwe, 2003).

Table 2.5. Types of Male to Female Mentoring Relationships

Cross-Gender Advisor/Advisee Roles*	Interpersonal/Task Balance	Advisory Use of Power	Advisory Approach to Sexual Attraction
Father (A)-Daughter	Balanced	For advisee	Not an issue
Guru (M)-Harem	Task Oriented	For advisor	Knowledge as aphrodisiac
Casanova (M)-Sex Object	Task Oriented	For advisor	Knowledge as aphrodisiac
Intellectualized (M)- Object	Task Oriented	For advisor	Repressed, emerges as a series of sexist putdowns
Colleague (A)- Colleague	Balanced	For advisee	Transformed to caring
Inadequate (F)- Overly Adequate	Neither	Gives to advisee	Not an issue

Source: Heinrich, 1991, p.523.

* M= masculine approach to advisement, F= feminine approach to advisement, and A= androgynous approach to advisement.

Male advisers have several different advising approaches. An overview of these approaches is presented in Table 2.5. They may use a masculine approach where they tend to be very intellectual and distant from female advisees. A different use of the same approach occurs when male advisers treat female students as sex objects through sexual advances and innuendo. This type of adviser may have a cult following of female students who compete for his attention though few, if any, receive it (Heinrich, 1991).

Male advisers may have a feminine approach whereby the student has to take care of the adviser and try to get through the program on their own because the adviser is unable to guide them through the process (Heinrich, 1991).

Research from female students suggests that behavior distinguishes mentors. Women claimed that male advisers with an androgynous approach were mentors because they were gender sensitive, balanced interpersonal and task dimensions, and used their power to benefit students (Heinrich, 1991). Androgynous male mentors treated women as human beings because they did not reflect traditional gender roles and provided personal/professional affirmation. Female students had a collegial relationship with these mentors because they shared power, friendship, and mutual respect. These professional relationships often continued after graduation. Some male mentors with this approach treated female students as daughters by having caring, warm, benevolent, and protective relationships (Heinrich, 1991). Furthermore, these mentors allowed female students to be independent and own their own power.

Cross gender advising can have several problems. These relationships are often noticed and remarked upon as intimate relationships by other students and faculty members. Bowman and Hatley (1995) claim that women may be more likely to perceive unethical behavior and sexual harassment in these relationships. Hence, men may not want to mentor women because they fear female students' reaction to constructive feedback. Intimacy and sexual concerns may lead to infrequent meetings and therefore a less productive relationship (Schwiebert, 2000).

Male advisers may have traditional gender role attitudes that can be detrimental to the relationship as well. They may believe that women cannot succeed in doctoral

programs causing them to be inadequate or unhelpful advisers for female students. This, in turn, may cause male advisers to provide less psychosocial help by being emotionally distant from female advisees (Heinrich, 1991; Tenenbaum, Crosby, & Gliner, 2001). Therefore, female students may not be able to grow professional and personally. Furthermore, men may not be good role models because female students may not be able to identify with them due to different experiences.

Feminist Mentoring Relationships

Feminist mentoring relationships call for mentors to be able to understand the complexities of gendered identities and locations, acknowledge the inextricable, gendered links between personal issues and choices and political realities, and strive for relationships characterized by equality, respect, and shared power (Fassinger & Hensler-McGinnis, 2005). Feminist mentoring relationships challenge the assumption that education, science, work, and relationships are value-free, try to eliminate oppression, use science for social change, and identify the importance of context in life and institutions (Fassinger & Hensler-McGinnis, 2005). Furthermore, multicultural feminist relationships value diversity, flexibility, and tolerance for ambiguity. Thus, feminist mentoring, multicultural feminist mentoring in particular, may be a healthy model for developing an organizational culture of mentoring because it assumes that mentoring relationships and processes are transparent and open to examination. This model values individuals and changes the power dynamic in mentoring relationships due to its emphasis on shared power/empowerment, making it less likely that mentees will be dominated by their mentors. Feminist mentors assume that both mentors and mentees have something to teach to and learn from one another.

Feminist mentoring relationships benefit mentors in that they provide colleagues/friends, task assistance, increased productivity, re-empowerment of self, enhanced professional recognition, and challenge the patriarchal status quo. These relationships benefit mentees because they increase mentee competency and self-respect, provide support, experience, professional development, and role modeling, involve networking, and empower mentees to fight for social justice.

Although, feminist mentoring may be beneficial for both parties involved, these relationships have problems as well. Feminist mentors may be disappointed if their expectations are not met and if anticipated mentoring outcomes are not achieved because they are so invested in the mentoring relationship. Mentors face a psychological burden because they often mentor marginalized individuals that need additional support. Furthermore, since feminist mentors tend to be female faculty, they often have additional work in the department (such as having a high course load, serving on multiple committees, etc.) and may be assigned more mentees than that they have time to adequately mentor which in turn, may lead them to depend on students to help them meet their personal and/or professional needs. Feminist mentors often must face the challenge of creating the rules of the mentoring relationship for themselves because there is no established model for them to follow as there is in non-feminist mentoring. However, feminist mentors may be more likely to engage in peer mentoring with other faculty as well as develop relationships with colleagues.

Mentees face several issues in feminist mentoring relationships as well. They may have difficulty finding mentors, making themselves appeal to mentors, assess if a particular mentoring relationship will meet their needs, living up to the norms and

expectations of mentors, and leaving mentoring relationships that are ineffective (Fassinger & Hensler-McGinnis, 2005). Feminist mentoring may be confusing for non-feminist students because they do not know what to expect and what their role is in the relationship since traditional models depend on a power differential between the two parties wherein the mentor uses their power to help the student while feminist mentoring has more fluid boundaries between mentors and mentees. Hence, mentees may be unfamiliar with the concept of shared power in feminist mentoring relationships. Shared power exists when the mentor relies on the relationship instead of their external power and status to help the mentee. This is largely due to the fact that the dynamics of the relationship establish the rules of the relationship. Mentees may not have much to offer in terms of reciprocity at the beginning of the relationship because they lack experience with feminist mentoring. Furthermore, they may not tell their mentor that previously shared goals have changed for them.

Successful feminist mentoring relationships require honesty and clear communication (perhaps in the form of contracts) with mentors taking into account their personal and professional resources when accepting mentees, readjusting their demands/expectations over time, and not relying on mentees to help them with their own professional commitments. Thus, a feminist mentor "...is attempting to build with feminist tools an edifice that will survive the demands of patriarchy" (Fassinger & Hensler-McGinnis, 2005, p.20). In feminist mentoring relationships, the student's success and/or failure is the mentor's success and/or failure.

The previous literature review has provided an overview of how departmental organization, namely department culture shapes the experiences of female students in

terms of gender inequality and attrition, examined the different ways mentoring has been defined, discussed how mentoring can be beneficial for female students because it addresses gender inequality, and explored the different types of mentoring relationships female students participate in.

There are two primary gaps in the existing literature/research on mentoring. First, it does not explore why some departments support mentoring, informally through “mentoring-friendliness” and formally through mentoring structures while others do not. Second, it does not examine how structural variables and the presence of gender/feminist scholarship influences departmental support. The research on mentoring explores either dyadic mentoring relationships (i.e. individuals) or at the lack of mentoring in departments. In sum, the literature has informed our knowledge of what constitutes “mentoring-friendliness” and demonstrated that there is a need at the department-level for formal mentoring structures. The literature has demonstrated that mentoring is something that departments should not just be thinking about doing but implementing and encouraging

This thesis will examine the way mentoring occurs within the context of departments, namely the level of “mentoring-friendliness” in departments as well as the way formal departmental structures facilitate and constrain opportunities for faculty to engage in mentoring relationships with graduate students. It is an attempt to clarify why certain departments are more likely to support mentoring than others are by examining department-level and gender-related characteristics.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

Introduction

This chapter will do the following things. First, it will provide a conceptual model that explores how structural characteristics are related to mentoring. Second, it will describe the research methodology used in the study, namely how departments were recruited and data collected. Third, it will provide an operational definition for mentoring. Fourth, it will operationalize department-level and gender-related characteristics as well as state their expected relationships to mentoring. Finally, it will discuss the analytic techniques used in the study.

Conceptual Model

The conceptual model explores how the characteristics of departments are related to mentoring in these departments (see Figure 3.1 for an overview of the model). This model includes two types of characteristics. Department-level characteristics include variables that are related to department size, age, policies, and the degree progress of students. *I expect that department-level characteristics will be related to mentoring.* Gender-related characteristics include variables that explore the gender composition and the presence of gender/feminist scholarship in departments. *I expect that gender-related characteristics will be related to mentoring.*

Department-level and gender-related characteristics may be related to mentoring because they influence the department's (particularly the faculty's) ability to adequately

mentor students. First, they influence whether the department has resources to mentor students in terms of faculty and time. Second, these characteristics include the values, attitudes, and behaviors that faculty possess. Third, they influence who determines departmental policies and processes.

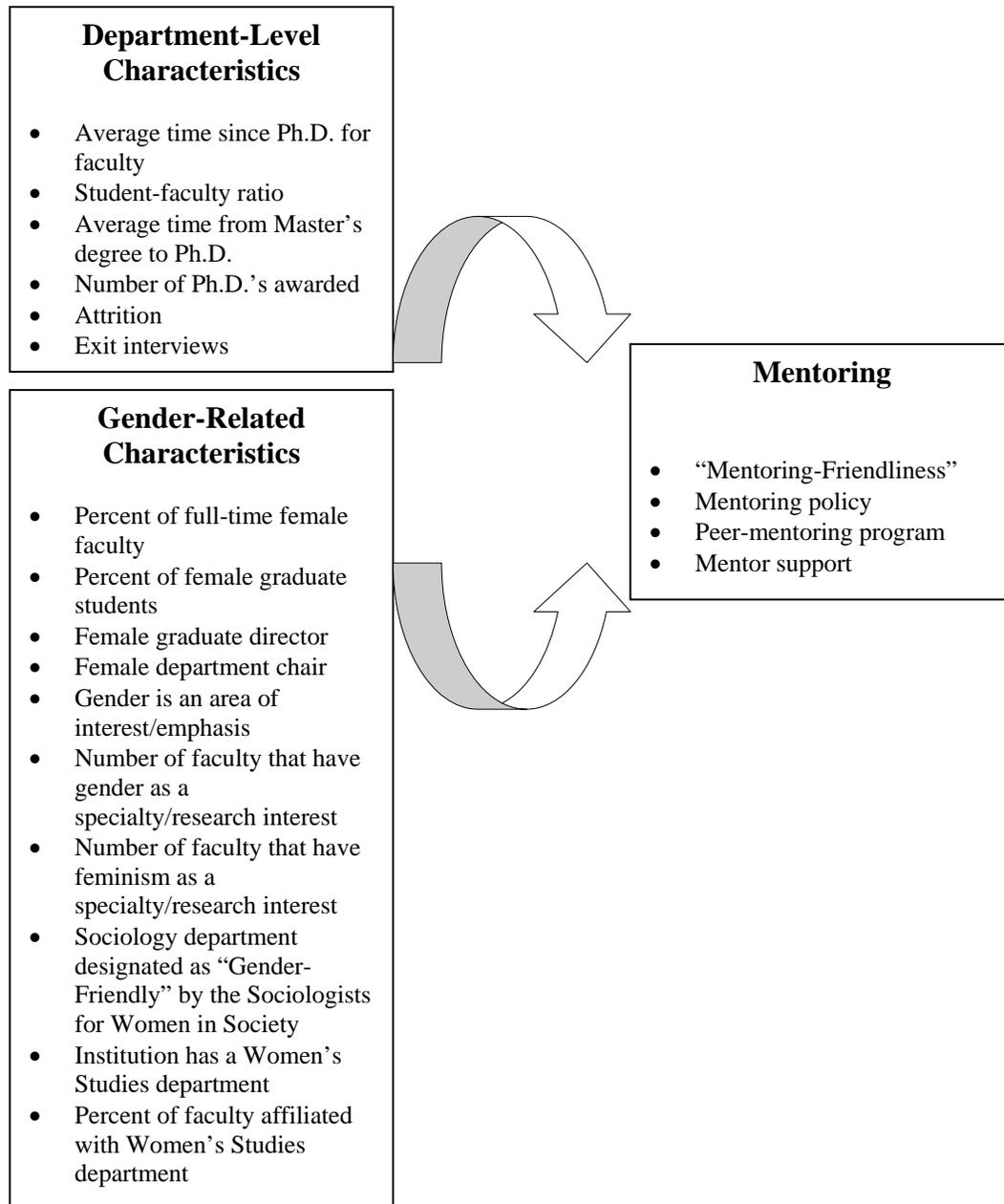
In essence, these characteristics shape the climate of the department. Department climate is subjective to some extent in that the individuals who are part of the department bring their personal lives to work. They bring all of their perceptions, attitudes, and experiences (in this case gender and feminist beliefs) with them to the department, which in turn, shapes their attitudes towards the purpose of graduate education and faculty-student relationships. Thus, one cannot study mentoring in a department without including measures that consider characteristics of department members.

Methodology

The purpose of this thesis research study is to investigate the effect of department-level and gender-related characteristics on “mentoring-friendliness” in graduate departments of sociology². It explores if departments formally support mentoring through written policies or if they facilitate mentoring by establishing “...expectations, training, structures, and supports for mentoring...while allowing mentors and mentees to select one another” (Fassinger & Hensler-McGinnis, 2005, p.6).

² I chose to focus on departments of sociology because existing research typically examines mentoring across a range of disciplines. This makes it difficult to determine how findings relate to each discipline studied. For example, a survey of students in education and the social sciences may reveal that these departments lack mentoring structures. However, it is difficult to understand if this means that these departments lack mentoring structures overall or that certain departments lack these structures more than others.

Figure 3.1. Conceptual Model of the Relationship between Department-Level and Gender-Related Characteristics and Mentoring.



This study uses departments as the level of analysis because the experiences of female graduate students (and graduate students in general) and mentoring as discussed in the literature review occurs within the context of departments (i.e. individuals are embedded in departments). Thus, exploring department structure and culture informs our knowledge of individual experiences. Individuals create department structure and foster department culture and then are shaped by these structures and/or culture in an ongoing cyclical process.

Phase I: Recruitment

I selected the 116 graduate departments in sociology that are listed in the *2005 ASA Guide to Graduate Departments* that offer a doctoral degree to be participants in the study³. In early September 2005, I sent the director of graduate studies⁴ in each department an email notifying them that they were selected to participate in the study. In addition, this email provided information about the nature of the study and let them know that a link to an online survey would be forthcoming. The list of institutions surveyed, a sample department listing, the recruitment emails, and a copy of the survey are presented in Appendix A, B, C, and D respectively. I received approval from the University of Missouri Institutional Review Board on September 21, 2005⁵. On September 21, I sent them an email that provided the link to the survey.

³ I chose departments that offer a doctoral degree because research shows that doctoral students are more likely to be mentored (Johnson & Huwe, 2003).

⁴ I selected the director of graduate studies to participate in the study because they are more familiar with the graduate program in their department. An important point to make is that this study relies on the way the director of graduate studies perceives departmental support of mentoring. Thus, one must interpret study findings with caution because one cannot assume that the perceptions of a single individual accurately reflect the mentoring culture/structures of departments.

⁵ This study was IRB Case Number 1053978 and expires on September 21, 2006.

Phase II: Data Collection

During August through October 2005, I collected the data that would be used in my study from the following sources: the *2005 ASA Guide to Graduate Departments*, websites, and an online survey. The source of each variable is presented in Table 3.1.

Dependent Variables

Mentoring can be measured in multiple ways since it has several dimensions⁶. In this study, each mentoring variable measures a different dimension. The mentoring variables are defined below.

“*Mentoring-Friendliness*”. This variable was operationalized as scores on a 27-item scale that was a part of an online mentoring survey. The “Mentoring-Friendliness” Scale⁷ (Cronbach Alpha=.94) is a brief self-report instrument grounded in Dickey’s (1996) discussion of quality mentoring and includes additional items specifically designed for this study. This survey was developed for the purpose of clarifying more precisely what a mentor is and does in the context of doctoral education, from the perspective of faculty (in particular the director of graduate studies). Items explore the overall “mentoring-friendliness” of departments by examining informal mentoring activities that occur in faculty-graduate student relationships. Items begin with the stem “Faculty...” and respondents are instructed to rate on a Likert-type scale of 1-5 the importance of several behaviors and activities a potential mentor might possess or engage in.

⁶ Although mentoring has many dimensions that can be explored such as mentor-student matching, the use of power in mentoring relationships, mentoring style, etc., this study only focuses on “mentoring-friendliness, mentoring policies, peer-mentoring programs, and mentor support.

⁷ I created this scale using items from Table 2.1.

Table 3.1. List of Variables and Sources

Variable	ASA Guide	Websites	Survey
Mentoring Variables			
“Mentoring-friendliness”			X
Department has a mentoring policy			X
Peer mentoring			X
Mentor support			X
Department-Level Characteristics			
Average time since Ph.D. for faculty	X		
Student-faculty ratio	X		
Average time from Master’s degree to Ph.D.			X
Number of Ph.D.’s awarded	X		
Attrition			X
Exit interviews			X
Gender-Related Characteristics			
Percent of full-time female faculty	X		
Percent of female graduate students			X
Female graduate director	X		
Female department chair	X		
Gender is a special program	X		
Number of faculty that have gender as a specialty	X		
Number of faculty that have feminism as a specialty	X		
Designated as “Gender Friendly” by SWS		X	
Institution has a women’s studies department		X	
Percent of faculty affiliated with Women’s Studies Department			X

A list of scale items is presented below.

- Faculty make recommendations to students.
- Faculty give advice to students.
- Faculty provide counsel to students.
- Faculty promote the personal development of students.
- Faculty try to stimulate students’ acquisition of knowledge.
- Faculty provide information about educational programs.
- Faculty try to help students understand educational bureaucracy.
- Faculty serve as role models for students.
- Faculty try to motivate students to perform at their potential.
- Faculty provide emotional support to students.
- Faculty encourage students.
- Faculty try to help students build self-confidence.

- Faculty try to improve students' self-esteem.
- Faculty train students into the profession.
- Faculty sponsor students.
- Faculty befriend students.
- Faculty engage in joint research/publications with students.
- Faculty treat students as colleagues.
- Faculty nurture students.
- Faculty socialize students into institutional culture.
- Faculty socialize students into departmental culture.
- Faculty inculcate professional values and ethics in students.
- Faculty defend and protect students against others.
- Faculty-graduate student relationships are characterized by mutual respect.
- Faculty and graduate students are partners in the graduate experience
- Faculty are interested in developing the graduate student as a whole person.

Mentoring Policy. On the online survey, departments were asked if they had a formal mentoring policy in order to explore the relationship between department-level and gender-related characteristics and the existence of a formal mentoring policy. Departments that had a policy were coded 1 and those that did not were coded 0.

Peer-Mentoring Program. On the online survey, departments were asked if they had a peer mentoring program in order to explore the relationship between department-level and gender-related characteristics and the existence of a peer-mentoring program. Departments that had a peer-mentoring program were coded 1 and those that did not were coded 0.

Mentor Support. On the online survey, departments were asked if they offered mentor support in the form of mentor training and/or workshops in order to explore the relationship between department-level and gender-related characteristics and mentor support structures. Departments that offered mentor support were coded 1 and those that did not were coded 0.

Independent Variables and Expected Relationships

Department-Level Characteristics

Average time since Ph.D. for faculty. Average time since Ph.D. for faculty was measured by subtracting the year in which each faculty member received their doctorate from the current year (2005) and averaging these numbers for each department. *H1: I expect that the average time since Ph.D. for faculty will be positively related to mentoring because departments with older faculty will have more experienced faculty which in turn, they may want to pass on to students. Furthermore, departments with experienced faculty may establish policies/programs that recognize the importance of mentoring because they realize that mentors need active support.*

Student-faculty ratio. Student-faculty ratio was calculated by dividing the number of students (part-time and full-time) by the number of full-time faculty members in each department (i.e. a department with 100 graduate students and 25 faculty members has a student-faculty ratio of 4 to 1). *H2: I expect that departments with lower ratios will be more likely to mentor students because faculty members are not assigned more students than they can adequately mentor.*

Average time from Master's degree to Ph.D. Average time to degree was measured by the survey question asking directors of graduate students to estimate the average time to a doctoral degree for students in their departments. *H3: I expect that departments where students complete their degree in a shorter period of time will have a higher degree of mentoring because students in these departments are able to navigate the doctoral process smoothly.*

Number of Ph.D.'s awarded. Number of Ph.D.'s awarded was measured by counting the number of Ph.D.'s awarded in sociology between 2003 and 2004. *H4: I expect that departments that award more Ph.D.'s will be more likely to support mentoring because students are more likely to complete their doctoral program.*

Attrition. Attrition was measured by the survey question asking directors of graduate studies if they considered attrition (students leaving without completing a degree) to be a problem in their department. Departments that perceived attrition to be a problem were coded 1 and those that did not were coded 0. *H5: I expect that departments where attrition is not a problem will be more likely to support mentoring because mentoring is one way of preventing attrition.*

Exit interviews. Exit interviews was measured by the survey questions asking directors of graduate studies if their departments conducted exit interviews of students who leave the department through attrition, transfer, or graduation. Departments that conducted interviews were coded 1 and those that did not were coded 0. *H6: I expect that departments that conduct exit interviews will be more likely to mentor students because exit interviews may reveal students' desire for mentoring.*

Gender-Related Characteristics

Percent of full-time female faculty. Percent of full-time female faculty was measured by counting the number of faculty members who are female for each department and dividing it by the number of full-time faculty in each department. *H7: I expect that departments with a higher percentage of female faculty will be more likely to*

mentor students because female faculty may be more likely to understand the importance of mentoring for students (female students in particular).

Percent of female graduate students. Percent of female students was measured by the survey question that asked directors of graduate studies how many female graduate students were in their department and then divided this number by the total number of students in the department. *H8: I expect that departments with a high percentage of female students will be more likely to mentor students in order to address gender inequality or because female students are attracted to these departments.*

Female director of graduate studies. This was measured by looking in the 2005 *ASA Guide to Graduate Departments* to see if the director of graduate studies listed was female. If this could not be determined from the guide, I went to the department website to look at their photo. Departments with female directors were coded 1 and those that did not have a female director were coded 0. *H9: I expect that female directors may be more likely to foster “mentoring-friendliness” as well as implement mentoring structures because they are aware that mentoring is critical to graduate student success and degree completion.* Female directors may also be more aware of the gendered nature of their department climate, which in turn influences them to encourage faculty mentoring of graduate students (female students in particular) in order to prevent talented students from leaving the department.

Female department chair. This was measured by looking in the 2005 *ASA Guide to Graduate Departments* to see if the department chair listed was female. If this could not be determined from the guide, I went to the department website to look at their photo. Departments with female chairs were coded 1 and those that did not have a female chair

were coded 0. *H10: I expect that departments with female department chairs will be more likely to be “mentoring-friendly” and/or have mentoring structures because these departments may be more aware of the importance of mentoring of graduate students (female students in particular). Thus, they may be more likely to implement structures in order for all students to have equal access to mentors.*

Gender is a special program. Gender is a special program was measured by examining if the department listed gender as a special program in the department. Departments that listed a program on race/class/gender or sex and gender were coded as 1, departments that had both programs were coded as 2, and those with neither program were coded 0. *H11: I expect that departments that have gender as a special program may be more “mentoring-friendly” and/or have mentoring structures because they may be more aware of inequality (especially gender inequality) and thus encourage mentoring to address this inequality.*

Number of faculty that have gender as a specialty. Number of faculty that have gender as a specialty was measured by counting the number of full-time faculty members that listed gender as a specialty in the 2005 ASA *Guide to Graduate Departments*⁸. *H12: I expect that departments with faculty that specialize gender may be more “mentoring-friendly” and/or have mentoring structures because they have greater awareness of how mentoring addresses gender inequality.*

Number of faculty that have feminism as a specialty. Number of faculty that have feminism as a specialty/research interest was measured by counting the number of full-

⁸This was added as a substitute for number of gender courses that I was considering adding to the list of variables. I selected number of faculty that specialize in gender because often gender courses are not regularly offered. Thus, departments with faculty that specialize in gender may be more likely to introduce these concepts/values into their department and classrooms.

time faculty members that listed feminism or feminist studies as a specialty in the 2005 *ASA Guide to Graduate Departments*⁹. *H13: I expect that departments with faculty that specialize in feminism may be more likely to support mentoring because they may be more likely to engage in feminist activities such as feminist mentoring.*

Department designated as “Gender-Friendly” by the Sociologists for Women in Society. Department designated as “Gender-Friendly” by the Sociologists for Women in Society (SWS) was measured by assessing if they were given the SWS Seal of Excellence which recognizes departments listed in the 2003 *American Sociological Association Guide to Graduate Departments* where 40 percent or more of the faculty are women *and* over 25 percent of faculty name gender or inequality among their specialties (Hays & Risman, 2004)¹⁰. Departments with this designation were coded 1 and those that lacked this designation were coded 0. *H14: I expect that departments designated as “Gender-Friendly” will be more likely to support mentoring because they have greater awareness of how mentoring addresses gender inequality in academia.*

Institution has a women’s studies department. Whether an institution has a Women’s Studies department or not was measured by conducting a search of each institution’s website to see if they had a women’s studies department. Institutions with a women’s studies department were coded 1 and those that did not were coded 0. *H15: I expect that departments at an institution with a women’s studies department will be more*

⁹This variable was added as a substitute for number of feminist organizations because it is difficult to gather this type of data online. This variable examines if departments have faculty that specializes in feminist issues. Departments with this faculty may have adopted some of these values in their climate. I think that feminism may be related to mentoring support because they share the values of solidarity, empowerment, and reciprocity.

¹⁰ Specifically, this included all those faculty that listed “Gender”, “Feminist Theory”, “Sex and Gender”, “Inequality”, “Race/Class/Gender”, “Race, Class, and Gender”, “Gender Inequality”, “Gender and

likely to be “mentoring-friendly” and/or have mentoring structures because they have greater awareness of the importance of mentoring for students (especially female students).

Percent of faculty affiliated with women’s studies department. Percent of faculty affiliated with women’s studies department was measured by the survey question asking directors of graduate studies how many sociology faculty are affiliated (e.g. joint appointments, cross-list courses, informal affiliation) with the women’s studies department (if their institution had one) and then dividing it by the number of full-time faculty in their department. *H16: I expect that departments with a high percentage of faculty affiliated with their women’s studies department will be more likely to support mentoring because gender/feminist scholarship increases awareness of how mentoring addresses gender inequality.*

Analytic Techniques

The analytic techniques used in the study were largely determined by the sample size. Since this study had a relatively small sample size, the data was analyzed through bivariate correlations. Thus, analysis looked for associations between department-level and gender-related characteristics and mentoring. However, there may be spurious correlations between the above characteristics and mentoring that will be attended to if possible. The small sample size may have affected the power of the analysis, which in turn, may have been unable to detect other significant correlations between the variables

[blank]”, “Gender and [blank] Inequality”, “Feminist [blank]”, “Women/Men and [blank]”, in the 2003 *American Sociological Association Guide to Graduate Departments*.

studied. Furthermore, the significance of the correlations may have been stronger if certain variables could have been controlled for or if multivariate techniques were used.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter describes the statistical findings of this study. First, it provides an overview of the descriptive statistics of “sample departments”. Second, it examines the bivariate correlations of department-level and gender-related characteristics with mentoring. Third, it examines the correlations of department-level and gender-related characteristics with selected scale items. Finally, it concludes with a summary of study findings.

The response rate for the survey was 34% (39 out of 116 surveys were returned)¹¹. This study only analyzes the data from the 39 departments that responded to the survey. Where possible, a comparison of means between sample and non-sample departments was conducted in order to ensure that no significant differences existed between the two groups. This is presented in Table 4.1 below.

The only significant difference between means was found for the variable measuring the number of faculty that has gender as a specialty/research interest. For this variable, the non-sample mean ($x=2.82$) was significantly lower than the sample mean ($x=3.85$). Sample and non-sample departments had comparable means for all other variables.

¹¹ The actual response rate was 41% (47 out of 116 surveys were returned). However, eight blank surveys were discarded and not included in the analysis.

Table 4.1. Comparison of Means between Sample and Non-Sample Departments.

Variable	Means	
	Sample Departments	Non-Sample Departments
Department-Level Characteristics		
Average time since Ph.D. for faculty	18.67	18.93
Student-faculty ratio	3.90	3.20
Average time from Masters degree to Ph.D.	6.03	NA
Number of Ph.D.'s awarded	4.44	5.13
Attrition	0.26	NA
Exit interviews	0.23	NA
Gender-Related Characteristics		
Percent of full-time female faculty	41	36.83
Percent of female graduate students	61.77	NA
Female graduate director	0.41	0.38
Female department chair	0.23	0.17
Gender is a special program	0.79	0.78
Number of faculty that has gender as a specialty	3.85	2.82*
Number of faculty that has feminism as a specialty	0.08	0.04
Designated as "Gender-Friendly" by SWS	0.13	0.09
Institution has a women's studies department	0.26	0.21
Percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies Department	17	NA

⁺ p≤0.1, *p≤.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Note: The significance level of p≤0.1 was included because of the small sample size (n=39). Not applicable (NA) indicates that a comparison of means was not possible for that variable because this data was gathered from the online survey.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the variables included in the study are presented in Table 4.2.

Departments tended to have moderate to high scores on the “Mentoring-Friendliness” Scale indicating that informal mentoring was perceived to be somewhat characteristic of faculty-graduate student relationships. This demonstrated a positive skew since the scale had a possible range of 27-135 points. The sample mean was high ($x=117.69$, $SD=13.71$). Although, departments in general were “mentoring-friendly”, only 19% had mentoring policies ($x=.19$, $SD=.40$), 47% had peer-mentoring programs ($x=.47$, $SD=.51$), and 30% offered mentor support ($x=.30$, $SD=.46$) indicating that informal mentoring does not always coexist with formal mentoring structures.

Department faculty had moderate experience ($x=18.67$, $SD=4.12$). The student-faculty ratio for departments was low ($x=3.90$, $SD=3.00$) although 2.6% of departments had a high ratio of about 19 students per faculty member. Students in surveyed departments completed their degrees in approximately six years ($x=6.03$, $SD=1.11$). Departments awarded four doctoral degrees per year ($x=4.44$, $SD=2.88$). However, 5.2% of departments awarded over ten degrees per year. Attrition was perceived as a problem in 26% of departments ($x=.26$, $SD=.45$). Exit interviews were conducted in 23% of departments surveyed ($x=.23$, $SD=.43$).

Female faculty made up a modest percentage of total faculty in departments ($x=41$, $SD=11$). Female graduate students on average, were a majority of the departmental student body ($x=61.77$, $SD=15.33$) although they composed 9% of students in 2.9% of departments and 84-89% of students in 11.4% of departments. Departments

were almost evenly split on whether they had a female director of graduate studies ($x=.41$, $SD=.50$) with 41% having a female director. This split was less evident when looking at whether departments had a female department chair, however. Only 23% of departments had a female chair ($x=.23$, $SD=.43$). Departments tended to have gender as a special program ($x=.79$, $SD=.66$). In fact, only 33% of departments did not have gender as a special program. Furthermore, most departments had at least one faculty member that had gender as a specialty ($x=3.85$, $SD=2.28$). However, 7.7% of departments did not have any faculty with gender as a specialty. Departments usually did not have any faculty with feminism as a specialty perhaps because it is folded under gender ($x=.08$, $SD=.27$) although 8% of departments had a faculty member that researched feminism. Most departments were not designated as “Gender-Friendly” by the Sociologists for Women in Society ($x=.13$, $SD=.34$) although 13% of departments had this designation. Approximately 26% of departments were at institutions that had a Women’s Studies department ($x=.26$, $SD=.44$). Furthermore, departments at institutions where there was a Women’s Studies department had approximately 17% of faculty affiliated with it ($x=.17$, $SD=.14$) with only 2.7% having over 50% of faculty affiliated.

The next section explores how department-level and gender-related characteristics are correlated with mentoring.

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics of Independent and Dependent Variables.

Variable	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Mentoring Variables					
“Mentoring-friendliness”	32	117.69	13.71	80	134
Mentoring policy	37	0.19	0.40	0	1
Peer mentoring	38	0.47	0.51	0	1
Mentor support	37	0.30	0.46	0	1
Department-Level Characteristics					
Average time since Ph.D. for faculty	39	18.67	4.12	12	28.20
Student-faculty ratio	39	3.90	3	1.08	18.57
Average time from Masters degree to Ph.D.	36	6.03	1.11	4	8
Number of Ph.D's awarded	39	4.44	2.88	0	12
Attrition	38	0.26	0.45	0	1
Exit interviews	39	0.23	0.43		1
Gender-Related Characteristics					
Percent of full-time female faculty	39	41	11	22	62
Percent of female graduate students	35	61.77	15.33	9	89
Female graduate director	39	0.41	0.50	0	1
Female department chair	39	0.23	0.43	0	1
Gender is a special program	39	0.79	0.66	0	2
Number of faculty that has gender as a specialty	39	3.85	2.28	0	8
Number of faculty that has feminism as a specialty	39	0.08	0.27	0	1
Sociology department characterized as "Gender-Friendly" by SWS	39	0.13	0.34	0	1
Institution has a women's studies department	39	0.26	0.44	0	1
Percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies Department	37	17	14	0	57
Valid N (listwise)	25				

Correlations

This section briefly explores the relationships between department-level and gender-related characteristics with mentoring by using bivariate correlations. These results will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. The correlations are presented in Table 4.3. Only statistically significant correlations are reported. Chi square analyses were conducted to verify that correlations between categorical variables and mentoring were statistically significant.

Department-Level Characteristics

Average number of years of faculty since Ph.D. was positively correlated with mentor support thus confirming hypothesis 1. Departments with experienced faculty were perceived as being more likely to offer mentor support (e.g. mentor training and workshops). In fact, age of faculty was the only variable significantly correlated with mentor support.

The number of Ph.D.'s awarded was positively correlated with “mentoring-friendliness” supporting hypothesis 3. The more doctoral degrees a department awarded, the more “mentoring-friendly” they were perceived to be.

Attrition was negatively correlated with the department having a mentoring policy contradicting hypothesis 4. Departments where attrition was perceived as a problem were less likely to have a mentoring policy. Furthermore, departments that did not have a mentoring policy were more likely to report attrition as a problem.

Department conducts exit interviews was negatively correlated with “mentoring-friendliness” contradicting hypothesis 6. Departments that conducted exit interviews

were perceived to be less “mentoring-friendly”. Furthermore, departments that were perceived to be less “mentoring-friendly” were less likely to conduct exit interviews.

Gender-Related Characteristics

Percent female graduate students was negatively correlated with “mentoring-friendliness” contradicting hypothesis 8. Departments with a high percentage of female students were perceived as less “mentoring-friendly” and vice versa (i.e. departments that were perceived as less “mentoring-friendly” had more female graduate students).

Female department chair was positively correlated with the department having a mentoring policy supporting hypothesis 10. Departments that had female chairs were more likely to have a mentoring policy.

Gender is a special program was negatively correlated with the department having a mentoring policy contradicting hypothesis 11. Departments that had gender as a special program were less likely to have a mentoring policy. Furthermore, departments that lacked a mentoring policy were more likely to have gender as a special program.

Number of faculty that has gender as a specialty was positively correlated with the department having a peer-mentoring program supporting hypothesis 12. Departments with several faculty that have gender as a research interest are more likely to have peer-mentoring programs. However, this finding must be interpreted with caution since sample and non-sample departments differed significantly on this variable. Thus, this result may not be generalizable to all graduate departments of sociology. This was the first of two measures significantly correlated with peer mentoring.

Table 4.3. Correlations between Department-Level and Gender-Related Characteristics and Mentoring.

Variable	"Mentoring-Friendliness"	Mentoring Policy	Peer Mentoring Program	Mentor Support
Department-Level Characteristics				
Average time since Ph.D. for faculty				0.28 ⁺
Student-faculty ratio				
Average time from masters degree to Ph.D.				
Number of Ph.D.'s awarded	.38*			
Attrition		.33*		
Exit interviews	-.30 ⁺			
Gender-Related Characteristics				
Percent of full-time female faculty				
Percent of female graduate students	-.32 ⁺			
Female graduate director				
Female department chair		.37*		
Gender is a special program		-.28 ⁺		
Number of faculty that has gender as a specialty			.32*	
Number of faculty that has feminism as a specialty				
Designated as "Gender-Friendly" by SWS			.41**	
Institution has a women's studies department				
Percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies Department	.31 ⁺	-.37*		

⁺ p≤0.1, *p≤.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Note: The significance level of p≤0.1 was included because of the small sample size (n=39)

Department designated as “Gender-Friendly” by the SWS was positively correlated with the department having a peer-mentoring program supporting hypothesis 14. Departments that were designated as “Gender-Friendly” were more likely to have a peer-mentoring program. This was the second of two measures that were significantly correlated with peer mentoring.

Percent of faculty affiliated with Women’s Studies department was positively correlated with “mentoring-friendliness” supporting hypothesis 16. Departments that had a higher proportion of faculty affiliated with Women’s Studies were more likely to be perceived as “mentoring-friendly”. However, this variable was negatively correlated with the department having a mentoring policy contradicting hypothesis 16. Departments with a high proportion of faculty affiliated were less likely to have a mentoring policy and vice versa. This finding will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

However, the average time from Master’s degree to Ph.D. (hypothesis 3), the percent of female faculty (hypothesis 7), female graduate director (hypothesis 9), number of faculty that specialize in feminism (hypothesis 14), and institution has a Women’s Studies department (hypothesis 15) did not have statistically significant relationships with mentoring.

Scale Item Correlations

An inspection of survey responses revealed an interesting pattern in the way departments rated certain scale items. Departments responded to items that focused on interpersonal activities that occurred in faculty-graduate student relationships differently than the way they responded to items that focused on practical/task-oriented activities in

these relationships. After seeing this pattern, I conducted a factor analysis to determine if any mentoring dimensions were embedded within the scale and found that it had a feminist subscale (Cronbach Alpha=.886). After realizing that there was a feminist subscale, I conducted correlations between department-level and gender-related characteristics with feminist scale items. The correlations are presented in Table 4.4 below. Again, only statistically significant correlations are reported. The scale items used in these correlations are listed below¹².

- Faculty provide emotional support to students.
- Faculty sponsor students.
- Faculty befriend students.
- Faculty treat students as colleagues.
- Faculty nurture students.
- Faculty are interested in developing the graduate student as a whole person.

Department-Level Characteristics

The average time for faculty since Ph.D. was significantly correlated with faculty sponsoring students. Thus, departments with older faculty are perceived as being more likely to sponsor students.

The student-faculty ratio was significantly correlated with faculty befriending students. Departments with high student-faculty ratios are more likely to be perceived as having faculty that befriends students.

¹² The scale for emotional support, sponsor, befriend, colleagues, and nurture ranged from 1 (very uncharacteristic) to 5 (very characteristic). The scale for whole person ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The number of Ph.D.'s awarded by departments was significantly correlated with faculty sponsoring students. Departments that award many doctoral degrees are more likely to be perceived as having faculty that sponsors students.

Department conducts exit interviews was negatively correlated with faculty emotionally supporting students, nurturing students, and helping students develop as a whole person. Thus, departments that conduct exit interviews are perceived as being less likely to have faculty that emotionally support students, nurture students, or help students develop as a whole person.

Gender-Related Characteristics

Number of faculty that has feminism as a specialty was and negatively correlated with departments having faculty that sponsored or befriended students. Departments with faculty that research feminism are less likely to be perceived as having faculty that sponsor or befriend students.

Designated as "Gender-Friendly" by the SWS was significantly correlated with departments having faculty that treated students as colleagues. Departments with this designation are more likely to be perceived as having faculty that treats students as colleagues.

Percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies department was significantly correlated with faculty emotionally supporting students, treating students as colleagues, and being interested in developing students as a whole person. Departments with a high percentage of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies are more likely to have faculty that

Table 4.4. Correlations between Department-Level and Gender-Related Characteristics with Scale Items.

Variable	Support	Sponsor	Befriend	Colleagues	Nurture	Whole Person
Department-Level Characteristics						
Average time since Ph.D. for faculty		.40*				
Student-faculty ratio			.39*			
Average time from Master's degree to Ph.D.						
Number of Ph.D.'s awarded		.29 ⁺				
Attrition						
Exit interviews	-.32 ⁺				-.34*	-.32 ⁺
Gender-Related Characteristics						
Percent of full-time female faculty						
Percent of female graduate students						
Female graduate director						
Female department chair						
Gender is a special program						
Number of faculty that have gender as a specialty		-.37*	-.29 ⁺			
Number of faculty that have feminism as a specialty						
Designated as "Gender-Friendly" by SWS					.32 ⁺	
Institution has a women's studies department						
Percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies department	.35*				.31 ⁺	.38*

⁺ p≤0.1, *p≤.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Note: The significance level of p≤0.1 was included because of the small sample size (n=39). Chi square analyses were conducted to verify that the correlations of categorical variables and scale items were statistically significant.

emotionally support students, treat students as colleagues, and help students develop as a whole person.

Chapter Summary

The results show that department-level and gender-related characteristics were related to mentoring as shown in the conceptual model. Although, department-level and gender-related characteristics influenced “mentoring-friendliness” in departments (mentoring climate/culture), gender-related characteristics seemed to have a greater impact on departments having mentoring policies and/or peer mentoring programs (mentoring structures) than department-level characteristics did. The characteristics examined in this study often had surprising relationships with mentoring, contradicting several of the expected relationships laid out in Chapter 3. In particular, departments that conducted exit interviews and/or had a high proportion of female students were less likely to be “mentoring-friendly” while departments with a high proportion of faculty affiliated with Women’s Studies, stated that attrition was a problem, and/or had gender as a special program were less likely to have a mentoring policy.

The next chapter includes a discussion and analysis of these results, policy implications, a discussion of study limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion

This chapter does the following things. First, it discusses study findings by placing them in four conceptual categories. Structural factors explore the relationships of departmental characteristics to mentoring. Integration of women discusses the relationship of gender composition in departments as well as the positions female faculty hold with mentoring. Gender/feminist scholarship explores how the presence of this type of scholarship influences departmental support of mentoring. Influence of Women's Studies examines the effect of having a Women's Studies department on campus as well as how having a faculty affiliated with it influences mentoring in departments.

Conceptualization of Study Findings

Structural Factors

The average time since Ph.D. for faculty was positively correlated with mentor support. Departments with experienced faculty may be more likely to realize the importance of mentoring and that mentors need active support. Furthermore, they may have more experienced faculty mentors that may be more qualified to train and support young, inexperienced faculty who want to be mentors which in turn, influences the overall level of mentoring support in departments.

Average time since Ph.D. for faculty was also correlated with faculty sponsoring students. Experienced faculty may be more willing to do so because they have the power, experience, and the status to help students navigate the system. They have the ability to fight for students because they know what students need to do to be successful in the department since they have seen why some students succeed and others fail to complete their degrees. Thus, they have insider knowledge of how the department and the larger institutional system works that they can pass on to students. They have knowledge of the profession as well as of what students need to do in order to become a successful professional as Kram (1985) noted in her definition of mentoring.

Student-faculty ratio was positively correlated with faculty befriending students. Faculty may befriend students in large departments because they want to prevent students from getting lost in the system. These faculty may befriend students in order for students to feel like they are valued by the department.

The number of Ph.D.'s awarded by a department was positively correlated with "mentoring-friendliness" but it is difficult to determine the causal direction of this relationship. Instead of the number of doctoral degrees awarded influencing the level of "mentoring-friendliness" in departments, it may be that "mentoring-friendly" departments award more doctoral degrees. Students in "mentoring-friendly" departments may be more likely to be mentored, which in turn, increases the likelihood that they will complete their degree since they have someone to help them get through the program. These students may have someone to prevent them from making mistakes and offer support, thus helping them navigate the doctoral process smoothly. The number of Ph.D.'s awarded was correlated with faculty sponsoring students as well. The same

reasoning holds true in that students who are sponsored by faculty may be more likely to complete their degree because they had someone to guide them through the doctoral program.

Attrition was positively correlated with departments having a mentoring policy. Department that claimed attrition was a problem were more likely to have a mentoring policy. Departments with high attrition may decide that they need to implement a mentoring policy in order to reduce attrition and keep talented students from leaving the department. This increases faculty awareness for the need for mentoring in the department, which in turn, may influence more faculty to engage in mentoring relationships with students.

Departments conducts exit interviews was negatively correlated with “mentoring-friendliness” departments that conduct exit interviews are less “mentoring-friendly”, reflecting that these departments may be more bureaucratic in nature, tending to use formal, rational, and impersonal procedures/ policies. If these departments are more bureaucratic, it is likely that faculty engage in strictly formal relationships with students inside and outside of the classroom, leaving little room for a mentoring climate to develop. The reverse may be true as well. Departments that are less “mentoring-friendly” may be less likely to conduct exit interviews for whatever reason. This may explain why department conducts exit interviews was negatively correlated with faculty emotionally supporting, nurturing, and treating students as a whole person. These departments may have an alienated environment where there is a disconnect between students and faculty. Faculty may come into the department, do their job, and go home.

They may fulfill the basic requirements of the job without looking at or questioning what students need from them.

Integration of Women

The percent of female students in a department was negatively correlated with “mentoring-friendliness”. This finding may be a function of size because departments with a high proportion of female students may have more students in general, leading them to be less “mentoring-friendly” because they faculty are unable to engage in mentoring activities with all the students in the department. Faculty may simply be able to meet students’ basic advising needs but be unable to meet mentoring needs because they lack the time to engage in mentoring activities with students and/or create a mentoring climate. It may reflect faculty attitudes and beliefs towards female students as well as lack of female faculty mentors (Berg & Foster, 1983; Schroeder & Mynatt, 1993; Lovitts, 2001).

Female department chair was positively correlated with the department having a mentoring policy. Female chairs may be more likely to implement a mentoring policy because they may understand the importance of mentoring for students. Furthermore, they may be aware of how mentoring addresses inequality (especially gender inequality) among students. Female chairs may be more likely to hold feminist values, which in turn, leads them to implement mentoring policies so that all students have equal access to mentors (Fassinger & Hensler-McGinnis, 2005).

Gender/Feminist Scholarship

Gender as a special program was negatively correlated with the department having a mentoring policy. However, it is difficult to determine what this indicates because this variable may be an inaccurate measure since almost all departments had gender as a special program and only a few departments had mentoring policy. Thus, most of the departments surveyed had gender as a special program but lacked mentoring policies.

The number of faculty with gender as a specialty was positively correlated to the department having a peer-mentoring program. It is difficult to interpret this finding since sample and non-sample departments had significantly different means on this variable. Thus, findings with this variable may not be generalizable to all graduate departments of sociology. Faculty who specialize in gender may bring certain gender values to the department (e.g. equality, empowerment, reciprocity, solidarity, etc) that is then reflected in the departmental programs. These faculty may believe that it is important for students to engage in teamwork and collaboration with one another, thus leading to the development of a peer-mentoring program. The number of faculty that specializes in gender is negatively correlated to faculty sponsoring and befriending students. Again, this may be related to size in that departments that have more faculty specializing in gender may have more faculty overall. Thus, they are unable to engage in these types of activities with students.

The department is designated as “Gender-Friendly” by the Sociologists for Women in Society was positively correlated with the department having a peer-mentoring program. This may be related to the gender/feminist values associated with being designated as “Gender-Friendly”. Since these departments have a relatively high

proportion of female faculty and faculty that research gender, feminism, and/or inequality, they may be more likely to formally implement these values in departmental programs by understanding that anyone can be a mentor. Furthermore, departments is designated as “Gender-Friendly” by the Sociologists for Women in Society was positively correlated with faculty treating students as colleagues that again reflects the gender and feminist values that may be a part of the departmental culture. This also supports Fassinger’s (1997) contention that mentors do not have to confer power to mentees but share power with and empower students.

Influence of Women’s Studies

The percent of faculty affiliated with the Women’s Studies department was positively correlated with “mentoring-friendliness” in departments. Departments that had a high percentage of faculty affiliation were more likely to be “mentoring-friendly”. Faculty that are affiliated with Women’s Studies may bring gender/feminist values and attitudes into the department that shape its culture. However, the percent of faculty affiliated with Women’s Studies was negatively correlated with the department having a mentoring policy. Thus, faculty that are affiliated with Women’s Studies may be more likely to divide their time between multiple departments, which in turn, leaves them less time to devote to departmental issues. Since they split their time with another department, they may not have as much influence on what occurs in the Sociology department, especially if they have a joint appointment with Women’s Studies. Thus, affiliated faculty are not leaving these gender/feminist attitudes in Women’s Studies but are bringing them back to their home department. Furthermore, this finding may indicate that faculty are affiliated because they hold these values to begin with (intrinsic values).

The percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies was positively correlated with faculty treating students as colleagues. Faculty may treat students as colleagues because they hold feminist values (e.g. reciprocity, empowerment, and solidarity), supporting Fassinger's (1997) idea that feminist mentoring values collaboration. Faculty affiliation was positively correlated with faculty emotionally supporting students as well. Again, this supports Fassinger's (1997) belief that feminist mentoring relationships emphasize the relational interaction between mentors and students. The percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies was positively correlated with faculty being interested in helping students develop as a whole person. This supports Fassinger's (1997) notion that feminist mentors should strive to help students in the integration of dichotomies as well as showing them that they are valued for who they are as individuals instead of what they bring to the department. Overall, the percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies seems to support feminist mentoring models in general and Fassinger's (1997) model of feminist mentoring in particular because it is significantly correlated with several dimensions described in the model.

Discussion Summary

An important point to make is that although this study had a small sample size, the correlations indicated that the characteristics examined had strong associations with mentoring. "mentoring-friendliness" was strongly associated with the number of Ph.D.'s awarded, departments having a mentoring policy was strongly associated with attrition, female department chair, and percent of faculty affiliated with Women's studies department, peer-mentoring was strongly associated with number of faculty that

specialize in gender and “Gender-Friendly” designation, and mentor support was significantly associated with average time since Ph.D. for faculty. Furthermore, there were strong associations between characteristics and scale items. These associations may reflect even stronger relationships that could not be detected because of the small sample size.

This thesis tentatively demonstrated that there is a link between gendered organizations and departments in the sense that gender is something that needs to be accounted for in examining faculty-graduate student interactions and department culture. This project has indeed shown that similar to Acker (1990/1992) sociology departments are similar to gendered organizations because gender is something that is practiced in these departments. Gender influences the types of mentoring activities that occur in department culture (i.e. informal mentoring) as well as whether departments have formal mentoring structures. Furthermore, it demonstrates that the selection bias (with regards to gender) that occurs in organizations occurs in sociology departments and that this deserves further exploration.

Policy Implications

This study has several policy implications for departments. First, orientations for new doctoral students are one method of creating awareness of mentoring programs within the department. These orientations should include information on the background of faculty members, specifically the number of students they are advising, their research interests, and the professional associations they belong to (Frestedt, 1995; Lovitts, 2001). This allows students to make an informed decision when selecting an adviser/mentor.

Second, Frestedt (1995) recommends that department policy should emphasize mentoring, departments should hold annual meetings with administration to discuss mentoring, and have subsequent and ongoing evaluation of mentoring programs. Formal mentoring programs should set explicit goals and practices for linking students with mentors. They should be supported by department administration in order to ensure that all senior faculty (and faculty in general) are made aware of these structures and are encouraged to participate in them on a voluntary basis (Burke & McKeen, 1989). Faculty that participate in these structures should want to help students, understand sociology and department politics, and have good interpersonal/communication skills. This type of facilitated mentoring recognizes the importance of informal mentoring and the reality that not everyone has access to informal mentoring networks. A coalition of female graduate students recommended course descriptions that recognize mentoring in order to increase faculty awareness of the importance of mentoring in the classroom (Frestedt 1995).

Third, departments should be self-reflective about their own culture to ensure that its norms encourage mentoring. Departments should work towards creating a culture of mentoring where mentoring beliefs and processes are discussed openly. This can be done by creating a mentoring charter that outlines the roles of mentors and mentees and through educational forums that discuss the benefits faculty receive from engaging in mentoring relationships. Furthermore, departments may want to encourage faculty members to implement an open door policy to make them seem more approachable to students.

Fourth, departments should improve mentoring through training workshops that will help them learn about the internal and external barriers students face in establishing

mentoring relationships, how gender role attitudes affect perceptions of potential mentees, and how to prevent sexism/harassment in these relationships (Frestedt, 1995; Ragins & Cotton, 1993b). Departments need to actively support mentors by holding advanced mentoring workshops and clinics. Departments may want to develop strategies that help potential mentees find mentors such as holding several department events annually and encouraging them to attend these events.

Finally, undergraduate institutions should have pregraduate advising so students can be socialized about the graduate experience (Lovitts, 2001). They can shadow graduate students, have a graduate student mentor, read articles in the discipline they are interested in, and learn to assess their interests. This informs them about the nature of graduate life so they can make an informed decision about if graduate school is the right choice for them.

Limitations

The major limitation of this study was the small sample size used that may be related to the timing and length of the data collection. This study was conducted in late September to early October 2005, a time when the academic year has begun and departments may be making last minute adjustments for the year ahead. Furthermore, several of the departments in the southern United States that were recruited for the study may have been unable to participate due to Hurricanes Katrina and Rita. The response rate may have been higher if the survey had been posted for longer than three weeks because departments would have had a longer period to complete the survey.

Another study limitation was that survey responses relied on the perceptions of one individual, the director of graduate studies. Although the director of graduate studies may be the most knowledgeable about the mentoring of graduate students and the graduate program, they are still only one voice in the department. They can only offer their perceptions of mentoring in the departments and may not accurately reflect departmental mentoring.

The response rate may have been higher if the online survey had been sent to department chairs in addition to directors of graduate studies because it may have increased the likelihood that one of the two parties would complete the survey, thus boosting the overall response rate.

The low response rate restricted the analytic methods that could be used to analyze the data as well as the generalizability of the findings. It is difficult to determine if the significant correlations of the variables studied were picked up because they were signs of larger effects that could not be picked up due to the small sample size or if they were detected because of the small sample size. This study needs to be replicated with a larger, more representative sample in order to state with any certainty the effect these characteristics have on mentoring.

Another limitation of this study is related to the prestige level and size of the departments that responded to the survey. Most of the departments that responded tended to be smaller and less prestigious than those that did not respond. In fact, only ten percent (4 of the 39 departments) of the top twenty departments in sociology responded to the survey (see Hays & Risman, 2004 for a detailed description of the rankings). Thus, these results may not be generalizable to larger and/or more prestigious departments

because they may not have been adequately represented in this study. Furthermore, the departments surveyed tended to have high scores on “mentoring-friendliness” and it may be easier for smaller departments to have a mentoring culture/climate because of their size. Faculty in smaller departments may be more able to develop “mentoring-friendliness” because they come into contact with students more frequently and interact with the same students more often, which in turn, fosters mentoring.

Finally, it may have been more appropriate if I had assessed how departments foster mentoring cultures by including survey questions that specifically examined how departments engineered a mentoring culture (i.e. What steps does a department take in order to make the department more “mentoring-friendly”?).

Future Research

There are several directions for future research. First, this study needs to be replicated with a larger sample size in order to confirm findings. Do the relationships between department-level and gender-related characteristics with mentoring stay the same or change with a larger sample size?

Second, researchers should continue to explore the relationship between gender-related characteristics and mentoring because they seem to be the most promising avenue of research. These characteristics were significantly correlated with several dimensions of mentoring as well as with several of the scale items. Thus, it is important to look at the role faculty (and department) attitudes and values play in departmental support of mentoring. The culture/structures of departments are not created naturally but are created by individuals. It is critical to understand the values, attitudes, and experiences faculty

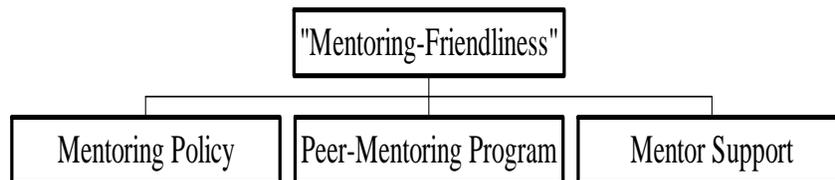
bring to departments in order to understand any differences in mentoring culture/structures found in these departments. The percent of faculty affiliated with Women's Studies seems to be an especially fruitful line of research because it had significant relationships with "mentoring-friendliness" and whether the department had a mentoring policy as well as some of the more feminist/interpersonal scale items.

Third, the "Mentoring-Friendliness" Scale needs to be refined by adding more questions to it. Questions need to explore if departments give awards/recognition for excellent mentoring, if student evaluations of mentoring are used in faculty hiring, promotion, and/or tenure decisions, and the role of power in mentoring relationships. Furthermore, questions should examine how "mentoring-friendliness" is manifested in departments. How do departments make faculty aware that mentoring is something that is valued by the department? How do departments make students aware that faculty-student mentoring is something that the department supports and encourages?

Fourth, research should examine why formal mentoring structures are created. Who initiates the discussion of the need for such structures? What is the reasoning behind the creation of a formal mentoring policy? How are such policies implemented? This research would be especially fruitful because there is little, if any research that traces the creation, development, and implementation of formal mentoring policies in academic departments. However, this research may be challenging because of the lack of awareness or knowledge about the importance of mentoring for graduate students. Thus, researchers may have difficulty locating graduate departments that are starting to develop these policies.

Fifth, research needs to explore the relationship between “mentoring-friendliness” and mentoring structures. Why do some “mentoring-friendly” departments have formal mentoring structures while others do not? Why do some mentoring structures develop and others do not? How can a “mentoring-friendly” climate lead to departments creating and implementing formal mentoring structures? Furthermore, research should explore how “mentoring-friendliness” and mentoring structures are related (see Figure 2).

Figure 5.1. A Conceptual Model for Exploring the Relationship Between “Mentoring-Friendliness” and Mentoring Structures.



Finally, research should explore what types of students are found in departments that are “mentoring-friendly” and/or have mentoring structures compared to those students found in departments that are less “mentoring-friendly” and/or lack mentoring structures. What is the causal direction between departmental support and mentoring? Are certain types of students attracted to departments that support mentoring or do certain departments support mentoring because its students ask for more mentoring?

Appendix A

List of Institutions Surveyed

Table A.1. List of Institutions Surveyed.

Univ. of Akron	Georgia Institute of Technology	Univ. of Notre Dame*
Univ. of Alabama	Georgia State Univ.*	The Ohio State Univ.*
Univ. of Arizona ^a	Harvard Univ. ^a *	Univ. of Oklahoma*
Arizona State Univ.*	Univ. of Hawaii	Oklahoma State Univ.
Baylor Univ.*	Howard Univ.	Univ. of Oregon*
Boston College	Univ. of Illinois-Chicago	Univ. of Pennsylvania ^a
Boston Univ.*	Univ. of Illinois-Urbana-Champaign	Pennsylvania State Univ. ^a
Bowling Green State Univ.*	Indiana Univ.-Bloomington	Univ. of Pittsburgh
Brandeis Univ.	Indiana Univ. ^a *	Princeton Univ. ^a
Brigham Young Univ.	Univ. of Iowa	Purdue Univ.*
Brown Univ.	Iowa State Univ.	Rutgers Univ.*
Univ. of California-Berkeley ^a	Johns Hopkins Univ. ^a	Univ. of South Carolina
Univ. of California-Davis	Univ. of Kansas	South Dakota State Univ.
Univ. of California-Irvine*	Kansas State Univ.	Univ. of Southern California*
Univ. of California-Los Angeles ^a *	Kent State Univ.	Southern Illinois Univ.-Carbondale*
Univ. of California-Riverside	Univ. of Kentucky*	Stanford Univ. ^a
Univ. of California-San Diego	Louisiana State Univ.	SUNY-Albany*
Univ. of California-San Francisco	Loyola Univ. of Chicago*	SUNY- Buffalo
Univ. of California-Santa Barbara*	Univ. of Maryland	SUNY-Stony Brook
Univ. of California-Santa Cruz	Univ. of Massachusetts-Amherst*	Syracuse Univ.*
Case Western Reserve Univ.*	Miami Univ.	Temple Univ.
Catholic Univ. of America	Univ. of Miami	Univ. of Tennessee
Univ. of Central Florida	Univ. of Michigan ^a	Texas A & M Univ.
Univ. of Chicago ^a	Michigan State Univ.*	Univ. of Texas-Austin ^a
Univ. of Cincinnati	Univ. of Minnesota	Texas Woman's Univ.*
CUNY-Graduate Center	Mississippi State Univ.	Tulane Univ.
Univ. of Colorado-Boulder	Univ. of Missouri-Columbia	Univ. of Utah
Colorado State Univ.	Univ. of Missouri-Kansas City	Utah State Univ.*
Columbia Univ. ^a	Univ. of Nebraska*	Vanderbilt Univ.
Univ. of Connecticut	Univ. of Nevada-Las Vegas	Univ. of Virginia*
Cornell Univ. ^a *	Univ. of New Hampshire*	Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State Univ.
Univ. of Delaware*	Univ. of New Mexico*	Univ. of Washington ^a
Duke Univ. ^a	New York Univ.	Washington State Univ.*
Emory Univ.*	Univ. of North Carolina ^a	Wayne State Univ.*
Univ. of Florida	North Carolina State Univ.	Western Michigan Univ.
Florida International Univ.	North Dakota State Univ.*	Univ. of Wisconsin-Madison ^a
Florida State Univ.*	Univ. of North Texas	Univ. of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
Fordham Univ.	Northeastern Univ.*	Yale Univ.
Univ. of Georgia	Northwestern Univ. ^a	

^a Indicates that the department is ranked as one of the top 20 graduate departments in the U.S. (see Hays & Risman, 2004).

*Indicates that the department responded to the survey.

Appendix B

Sample Department Listing in the 2005 American Sociological Association Guide to Graduate Departments

Neitz, Mary Jo (PhD, Chicago 1981) Sex and Gender, Religion, Cultural Sociology; Professor.
Pearce, Ibitola O. (PhD, Brown 1977) Medical Sociology, Development, Race/Class/Gender; Associate Professor.
Wilkins, Amy (PhD, Massachusetts-Amherst 2004) Social Inequality, Identity, Sexuality and Family; Assistant Professor.

Affiliated and Joint Appointments, Part-Time, and Emeritus Faculty:

Bank, Barbara J. (PhD, Iowa 1974) Social Psychology, Youth and Education, Sex and Gender; Professor, Emerita.
Bickford, Adam (PhD, Chicago 1995) Cultural Sociology, Quantitative Methodology, Education; Adjunct, Affiliated with: Office of Social and Economic Data Analysis.
Biddle, Bruce J. (PhD, Michigan 1957) Social Psychology, Education, Policy Analysis/Public Policy; Emeritus.
Granberg, Donald O. (PhD, Pennsylvania State 1969) Social Psychology, Political Sociology; Professor, Emeritus.
Habenstein, Robert W. (PhD, Chicago 1954) Theory, Qualitative Methodology, Occupations/Professions; Emeritus.
Hall, Peter M. (PhD, Minnesota 1963) Social Organization, Policy Analysis/Public Policy, Education; Emeritus.
Holland, Catherine (PhD, New School 1996) Contemporary Political Thought, Feminist Theory, Sexuality; Adjunct, Affiliated with: Political Science and Women's & Gender Studies.
Litt, Jacqueline S. (PhD, Pennsylvania 1988) Women's Studies, Feminist Theory, Motherhood; Adjunct, Affiliated with: Women's and Gender Studies.
McCartney, James L. (PhD, Minnesota 1965) Deviant Behavior/Social Disorganization, Science and Technology, Policy Analysis/Public Policy; Director of International Center/ Associate Vice Provost of International Programs.
Ortega, Suzanne T. (PhD, Vanderbilt 1979) Mental Health, Race/Ethnic/Minority Relations, Criminology/Delinquency; Professor and Dean of the Graduate School.
Pioli, Mark F. (PhD, Maryland 2003) Social Psychology, Gender, Work and Family; Adjunct, Affiliated with: Department of Psychological Sciences.
Twaddle, Andrew C. (PhD, Brown 1968) Medical Sociology, Policy Analysis/Public Policy, Comparative/Historical Sociology; Emeritus.
Vaughan, C. Edwin (PhD, Minnesota 1969) Social Control, East Asia, Rehabilitation Policy; Professor, Emeritus.
Vaughan, Ted R. (PhD, Texas-Austin 1964) Theory, Knowledge; Emeritus.

PhDs Awarded in 2003-2004:

McGonigal, Kathryn. Mabel Elliott: One of the Boys
Paretsky, Nicholas. Policy-Planning Organizations and Capitalist Support for Industrial Policy, 1970-1984

University of Missouri-Kansas City
Department of Sociology/Criminal Justice and Criminology
208 Haag Hall
5100 Rockhill Road
Kansas City, MO 64110-2499
(816) 235-1116
Fax: (816) 235-1117
E-mail: falkp@umkc.edu
Home Page: <http://www.umkc.edu/sociol/>

Chair: Linda Breytspraak

Department Administrative Assistant: Patricia Falk

Director of Graduate Studies: Douglas Cowan (Sociology), Wayne Lucas (Criminal Justice and Criminology)

Degree(s) Offered: PhD (Interdisciplinary Studies with Sociology Emphasis), MA (Sociology),
MS (Criminal Justice and Criminology), BA (Sociology/Criminal Justice and Criminology)

Academic Year System: Semester

Tuition 2004-2005: *In-state:* \$5044.50 (based on 9 credits/semester in Fall and Winter)
Out-of-state, \$12287.70

Financial Aid Available to Full-Time Graduate Students: Teaching Assistantships, Research Assistantships—
university funded and under faculty members' grants, Tuition Waivers

Number of First Year Graduate Students Receiving Some Form of Assistance: 8

Appendix C

Recruitment Emails

This is a copy of the Recruitment Email sent in early September

To Whom it may Concern:

I am a graduate student in the Department of Sociology at the University of Missouri-Columbia. I am embarking on a study that explores mentoring in graduate departments in sociology. As part of this study, I have created an online survey that explores the relationship between mentoring and department/institutional characteristics. I would appreciate it if you could take the time to complete this survey. Further information and a link to the survey will be provided in a week. Thanks in advance for your time and participation.

Sincerely,

Priya Dua

This is a copy of the Recruitment Email sent on September 21, 2005.

Dear Director of Graduate Studies:

I am a graduate student in the Department of Sociology at the University of Missouri-Columbia. I am embarking on a study that explores mentoring in graduate departments in sociology. As part of this study, I have created an online survey that explores the relationship between mentoring and department/institutional characteristics. I would appreciate it if you could take the time to complete this survey before October 12. The link to the survey is provided below. Thanks in advance for your time and participation.

To take the online mentoring survey click the link below:

<http://www.questionpro.com/akira/TakeSurvey?id=282826>

Sincerely,

Priya Dua

Appendix D

Online Survey

Hello:

You are being asked to participate in a study of departmental mentoring. You were selected as a participant in the survey phase of this study because your department was listed in the 2005 ASA Guide to Graduate Departments and your department offers a doctoral degree.

As part of this study, you are being asked to complete a survey that will take approximately 15 minutes of your time. You will not receive any monetary compensation for filling out the survey. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential. Your name will not be used at any time nor will any information that could identify you.

There are no physical or psychological risks associated with completing this survey. You will also receive a summary of research findings when the study is completed if you so choose. Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with the University of Missouri in Columbia. If you decide to fill out the survey, you may choose to stop filling it out at any time without penalty. If I want to use any materials in any way not consistent with what is stated above, I will ask for your additional written consent.

If you have any additional questions, Priya Dua (573-441-0916) will be happy to answer them. You may also contact the Institutional Review Board at the University of Missouri Columbia (573-882-9585 or umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu) if you have any questions concerning your rights.

By completing the survey, you are consenting to participate in this study.

Thank you very much for your time and support. Please start with the survey now by clicking on the **Continue** button below.

The purpose of the following questions is to gather some background information about your department.

Please enter the name of your institution here:

1. What is the average time to a PhD degree for graduate students in your department?

2. Do you consider attrition (students leaving without completing a degree) to be a problem in your department? Please explain.

An empty text input field with a light beige background. It features a vertical scroll bar on the right side and horizontal scroll bars at the bottom left and bottom right corners.

3. How many female graduate students are in your department?

An empty text input field with a light beige background. It features a vertical scroll bar on the right side and horizontal scroll bars at the bottom left and bottom right corners.

4. If your institution has a women's studies department, how many sociology faculty are affiliated (e.g. joint appointments, cross-list courses, informal affiliation) with it?

An empty text input field with a light beige background. It features a vertical scroll bar on the right side and horizontal scroll bars at the bottom left and bottom right corners.

The following questions explore the mentoring of graduate students in your department. The term mentoring is used in reference to graduate students being mentored by faculty mentors not academic advisors although in some cases advisors and mentors are the same person. Please respond as honestly and accurately as possible.

5. Do you conduct exit interviews of students who leave the department through attrition, graduation, or transfer?

Yes

No

6. If so, for how many years has your department been conducting exit interviews?

An empty text input field with a light beige background. It features a vertical scroll bar on the right side and horizontal scroll bars at the bottom left and bottom right corners.

7. Does your department have a formal written mentoring policy?

Yes

No

8. If so, for how long has your department had this policy?



9. Some graduate schools have a policy that is known as a "best practices of mentoring" statement. Does your institution have a policy like this?

Yes

No

11. Does your department provide formal mentor support (e.g. mentoring workshops, mentor training, etc.)?

Yes

No

12. Does your department have a peer-mentoring program?

Yes

No

13. Relative to other departments on my campus, faculty in my department provide:

more mentoring

same amount

less mentoring

don't know

14. Relative to other Research I sociology departments, faculty in my department provide:

more mentoring

same amount

less mentoring

don't know

15. Looking back at your own graduate experience, as a graduate student did you have a faculty mentor?

Yes

No

16. If so, has this led you to encourage faculty to engage in mentoring relationships with graduate students in your department?

Yes

No

The following questions explore the activities that occur in faculty-graduate student interactions and relationships. In your department, which of the following are characteristic of faculty-graduate student relationships?

	very uncharacteristic	somewhat uncharacteristic	neutral	somewhat characteristic	very characteristic	don't know
Faculty make recommendations to students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty give advice to students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Faculty provide counsel to students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty promote the personal development of students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty try to stimulate students' acquisition of knowledge.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty provide information about educational programs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty try to help students understand educational bureaucracy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty serve as role models for students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty try to motivate students to perform at their potential.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty provide emotional support to students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

very uncharacteristic
 somewhat uncharacteristic
 neutral
 somewhat characteristic
 very characteristic
 don't know

Faculty encourage students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty try to help students build self-confidence.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty try to improve students' self-esteem.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty train students into the profession.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty sponsor students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty befriend students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty engage in joint research/publications with students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty treat students as colleagues.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty nurture students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Faculty socialize students into institutional culture.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	very uncharacteristic	somewhat uncharacteristic	neutral	somewhat characteristic	very characteristic	don't know
Faculty socialize students into departmental culture.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty inculcate professional values and ethics in students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty defend and protect students against others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Keeping your department climate in mind, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	don't know
Faculty-graduate student relationships are characterized by mutual respect.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty and graduate students are partners in the graduate experience.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faculty are interested in developing the graduate student as a whole person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My department encourages mentoring of graduate students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
University administrators encourage mentoring of graduate students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Comments:

Thank you for participating in the study!

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