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Mentoring, Networking, and Role Modeling Opportunities Between Men and Women in Management Positions

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Walden University
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Abstract

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by

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MBA, Webster University, Charleston, SC, 2003

BS, South Carolina State University, 1983

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Although women represent more than half of the U.S. population, in 2015 women held less than 25% of senior-level positions, and less than 5% of executive positions in corporate America. The underrepresentation of women in leadership position is partially attributable to a lack of role models, mentoring, and networking programs needed to develop women executives and senior-managers. The purpose of this quantitative, comparative, field survey study was to examine the differences in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions, and to explore causes of such differences. The attribution theory was used as a framework to gain a better understanding of what men and women perceive to be the underlying success factors leading to their roles as managers. The Career Competencies Indicator survey instrument was adapted and used to collect data from a random sample of 175 participants (85 men, 90 women) in managerial positions in corporate America. Correlation analysis and independent samples *t* tests were used to test 3 hypotheses. The results indicated significant gender differences in the availability of professional mentoring and role-modeling opportunties for career success in management positions in corporate America, but no significant gender differences in the availability of networking opportunities. Positive social change implicatons include opportunities for corporations and organizations to create mentoring and role modeling opportunties for women who aspire to excel to senior management and executive positions in for-profit companies.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to Joseph Adonor Ohens because he encouraged and supported me to pursue a doctorate. He believed in me when I did not believe in myself. I am grateful to my elder brother Anthony (Tony) and his wife Sharon who have always been my support team. I am a first-generation bachelor, masters, and doctoral graduate, and it is my goal to motivate and mentor family members to excel in higher education. I dedicate this dissertation to all future generation of Frank and Diana Simmons-Moultrie family to pursue their dreams and reach for the stars. There is nothing too hard for God. Everything that you desire in life, God has already provided. Go after your God-given desires in life.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

America's corporate society is male-dominated, and women are under-represented in senior management and top executive positions. Research has shown that professional mentoring, networking, and having role models are success factors that facilitate an individual's acceleration to leadership positions (Gibson, Hardy, & Buckley, 2014; Hoyt & Simon, 2011; Rockwell, Leck, & Elliott, 2013). However, researchers have noted that women require mentoring opportunities for career advancement (Washington, 2010), and that women also lack networking opportunities and role models to help them succeed in top executive and senior management roles (Catalyst, 2015; Neck, 2015). Many researchers have focused on the career-promoting contributors and success factors of men and women who achieve top executive and senior management positions in corporate America, but little research exists in the differences in availability of career-promoting contributors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for men and women in corporate America (Blake-Beard, 1999; Murrell, Blake-Beard, Porter, & Perkins-Williamson, 2008; O'Neill, Shapiro, Ingols, & Blake-Beard, 2013). My research was essential because it showed a need for workplace diversity in management positions and outlined the success factors required for attaining those positions.

In this chapter, I present the introduction, purpose, background, theoretical framework, and nature of my study of career-promoting attributes such as mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in managerial positions in corporate America. Research has shown that mentoring, networking, and having role models are crucial for professional and career advancement (Catalyst, 2012b;

Porter & Woo, 2015). Mentoring for career advancement refers to a professional relationship in which a more experienced person (mentor) provides ongoing direction, guidance, and encouragement to an individual who is a mentee or protégé (Allen, 2006; Heigaard & Mathisen, 2009; Washington, 2010). Networking for career advancement is an interpersonal relationship that links professional colleagues together for maintaining and advancing individuals' careers (Porter & Woo, 2015). Networking among professional colleagues provides access to resources, information, influence, and friendships that may facilitate desirable career advancements (Porter & Woo, 2015). Role models for career advancement are successful and professional people who individuals want to emulate for their achievement and career success (Hoyt, Burnette, & Innella, 2012).

Background of the Study

Women account for 50.8% of the population in the United States (Census Bureau, 2011) and 47% of the workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014a), yet women are underrepresented in senior management and top executive leadership roles in corporate America. Researchers have claimed that women hold less leadership position because they lack mentoring, networking, and role-modeling opportunities that would assist them in their quest for high-profile jobs in male-dominated industries (O'Neil, Hopkins, & Sullivan, 2011; Washington, 2010). Researchers have also shown that mentoring women in leadership roles can yield positive results for the firm, and is a contributing factor in job satisfaction, career planning, and perceived leadership abilities (Washington, 2010; Heigaard & Mathisen, 2009). Companies and organizations with networking

opportunities for women can provide “information, influence, guidance, and support” (Colakoglu, 2011, p. 49), and can also promote perceived control over an individual’s career (Porter & Woo, 2015). Networking can be either formal or informal. Formal networking is mostly business-related and easily identifiable. The informal network can be business-related or socially-related, or both (Durbin, 2011). Hoyt and Simon (2011) argued that role models provide a positive influence on individuals’ career goals and self-perception and that having role models is crucial to women who are underrepresented in male-dominated professions.

McDonald and Westphal (2013) and Rosette and Washington (2012) revealed that, compared to men, women lack access to mentors and role models in high-profile positions that would aid in their goal of achieving top executive and senior management positions. The number of women in senior management positions in large organizations is far fewer than men (Dworkin, Maurer, & Schipani, 2012), and men dominate executive and board of directors positions (Buckalew, Konstantinopoulos, Russell, & Seif, 2012). The explanations for the gap in women leaders in corporate America are complex, but there is a gap in the literature regarding the differences or similarities in the availability of career-promoting contributors such as mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities for men and women in corporate America. Women face many challenges that prevent them from achieving senior management and top executive positions in corporate America (Skaggs, Stainback, & Duncan, 2012). It is unfortunate that when people think of top executives, they think of a man rather than a woman (Buckalew et al.,

2012). The image of a corporate leader is a man who does not have responsibilities that would restrict him from working long hours (Smith & Joseph, 2010).

Although top executives and senior managers of large for-profit corporations are predominantly men, women are just as educated, experienced, skilled, and capable of performing in top leadership roles. Despite the barriers and challenges, some women have climbed to top executive and senior management positions in corporate America. According to the Catalyst, women hold approximately 23 of the top executive positions of Standard and Poor's (S&P) 500 companies (Catalyst, 2015). For example, Mary T. Barra was appointed CEO of General Motors Company in 2014, Lynn J. Good the CEO of Duke Energy in 2013, Denise M. Morrison the CEO of Campbell Soup Company in 2011, Meg Whitman the chair, president, and CEO of Hewlett-Packard in 2011, and Ursula M. Burns the CEO of Xerox in 2009 (Catalyst, 2015).

Problem Statement

Women represent more than half of the U.S. population, but women are under-represented in executive and senior management positions in corporate America (Skaggs, Stainback, & Duncan, 2012). Women currently hold 4.2% of the top executive positions, 25.1% of the executive/senior-level officer positions, and 19.2% of the S&P 500 board seats (Catalyst, 2015); consequently, men dominates top executive positions in corporate America. Researchers have claimed that women, in comparison to men, lack mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities that would assist them in their quest for high-profile positions in male-dominated industries (Washington, 2010; O'Neil et al., 2011). The general business problem is that companies lack role modeling, mentoring,

and networking programs to develop future women executives and senior-managers in for-profit companies. The specific business problem is that women are underrepresented in executive and senior management positions in corporate America. Researchers have claimed that firm performance and corporate governance improves for companies and organizations that hire or promote women to top management positions (Cook & Glass, 2015; Peni, 2014). Diversity, creativity, and innovation also increase in companies with women in management positions (Catalyst, 2014d; Krome, 2014; Ng & Wyrick, 2011). In the scholarly research, a gap exists regarding the differences in the availability of role models, professional networking, and mentoring opportunities for career success among men and women in management roles, and the causes for such differences. My research contributes to positive social change by providing a model which companies and organizations might use to implement mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities for women who are inspired to become managers. Also, businesses and organizations may use the findings from this research to make informed decisions on gender diversity in senior management and executive positions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative comparative research was to examine the differences in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America. Further, I sought to address the current gap in the literature regarding the causes of women's under-representation in executive and senior management positions in corporate America. I designed the three research questions for this study to focus on differences in three

variables: networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities in a sample of supervisors and managers in corporate America. The dependent variables for the study were the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities, and the independent variable was gender. I used a quantitative survey design and online assessment instrument to collect responses from a sample of participants. The target samples were both men and women who were currently or had attained supervisory and management positions in corporate America. This study contributes to social change by serving as a platform to bring awareness to companies to provide role models and to integrate networking and mentoring programs to promote diversity in the workplace for women to excel in the middle, senior-level, and executive positions.

Research Question(s) and Hypotheses

I designed the following three research questions to address the purpose of the study. I examined the differences in the availability of professional networking, professional mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America.

Research Question 1: Is there a difference in the availability of professional networking opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$1: Networking opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a1: Networking opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

Research Question 2: Is there a difference in the availability of professional mentoring opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$2: Mentoring opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a2: Mentoring opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

Research Question 3: Is there a difference in the availability of professional role modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$3: Role modeling opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a3: Role modeling opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

Theoretical Foundation

I used attribution theory as the theoretical framework for this quantitative study. Attribution theory, developed by Heider in 1958, is concerned with how individuals perceive reasons for their successes and failures (Oghojafor, Olayemi, Oluwatula & Okoni, 2012; Weiner, 2010). While conducting this research, I used attribution theory to gain a better understanding of what men and women perceive to be the underlying factors of success leading to their roles as managers in corporate America. According to Weiner (2010a), attribution theory focuses on phenomenal causality. Causes, not actions, explain

outcomes or end results such as successes and failures. Causal perceptions may vary by gender, ethnicity, age groups, and cultures (Weiner, 2010b). Table 1 outlines some of the perceived differences of the causes or reasons why women are underrepresented in top executive and senior management positions in corporate America.

Table 1

Career Success Opportunities Comparison Between Men and Women

Career success opportunities	**Men**	**Women**
Networking	Active participation in "old-boy network" Competitive Risk takers Have access to resources and information	Lack of professional networks Non-risk takers Non-competitive Lack access to resources and information
Mentoring	Work twice as hard Dominates corporate world Mentors are available Men are reluctant to take on female mentees due to fear of relationship misinterpretations	Balancing work and family life Lack of professional mentors Too nurturing Women are reluctant to pursue mentoring opportunities from men due to fear of relationship misinterpretations
Role Modeling	Role models are many	Lack of role models Fear of failing

Weiner (2010b) noted that attribution theory involves causes that provide explanations of an outcome such as success and failure, and identified the locus of causality or control as causal characteristics of attribution theory. Heider's claimed that the locus of causality or control referred to whether the perceived cause of an outcome was internal or external (as cited in Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook, & Crook, 2014; Weiner, 2010b). Internal causes are based on the outcomes of the individual's behavior

and actions. External causes refer to situations or circumstances that contributed to a person's outcome. Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook, and Crook (2014) posited that internal attribution happens when the cause is perceived as reflecting a characteristic of the individual's effort or ability. External attribution occurs when the individual perceives that the cause or outcome is attributed to an individual or the environment (Harvey et al., 2014, Weiner, 2010b). Perceptions of causes of success and failure vary in situational context (Weiner, 2010b). Salas-Lopez, Deitrick, Mahady, Gertner, and Sabino (2011) claimed that women who ascended to senior management positions attributed their successes to having mentors and professional networks. Elsesser and Lever (2011) argued that women have a difficult time obtaining top managerial positions because of how leadership and social roles are viewed. The leadership role is seen as more appropriate for men than women; therefore, women are not considered as having the potential for leadership (Elsesser & Lever, 2011).

Nature of the Study

I chose to conduct quantitative comparative research instead of qualitative research because quantitative research enables A focus on large samples, differences, or relationships between variables, and researchers can use it to summarize data in statistical or quantifiable measurements (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). The focus of this quantitative survey study was to examine differences in the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions and examine the causes of such differences. I used a quantitative survey design to collect

responses from a sample of both men and women in leadersjo[positions in for-profit companies.

According to McCusker and Gunaydin (2015), researchers use quantitative data to tests hypotheses, and quantitative research is more efficient as compared to qualitative research. In quantitative studies, "researchers use a pre-constructed standardized instrument or pre-determined response categories into which the participants' varying perspectives and experiences are expected to fit" (Yilmaz, 2013, p. 312). The quantitative design could be experimental, quasi-experimental, or non-experimental methods (Kraska, 2010). Quantitative research produces results that are numerically measured (Salkind, 2010a). The dependent variables for this study were the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities. The independent variable was gender. I used the survey design to test the differences between the independent variables and the dependent variables, and an independent samples *t* test to analyze the data.

Definitions

Attribution theory: A theory that involves causes which provide explanations of an outcome such as success and failure (Weiner, 2010)

Executive positions: Positions, with titles such as CEO, CIO, COO, president, vice president, and director, that represent the highest-level leadership positions in companies.

Career competencies: Skills, knowledge, abilities, and behaviors that individuals should possess in order to be successful in the organization (Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas, & Steele, 2013).

Career success: The positive material and psychological outcome resulting from individuals' work-related activities and experiences (Seibert, 2006). Advancement in hierarchical positions.

Corporate America: Corporations and large businesses listed as S&P Fortune 1500 in the United States.

Corporate ladder: A theorized view of levels of positions that individuals climb to reach the top position in companies. (Investopedia, 2015b).

Glass ceiling: The invisible barrier that prevents women from having access to higher levels of corporate and government position (Bruckmüller & Branscombe, 2011; Kulich et al., 2011).

Locus of control: Individuals' beliefs or perceptions regarding internal and external factors that determine consequences in their lives (Weiner, 2010).

Mentoring: A relationship in which a more experienced person provides ongoing direction, guidance, and encouragement to an individual who is a mentee or protégé (Allen, 2006; Heigaard & Mathisen, 2009; Washington, 2010)

Networking: A form of goal-directed behavior, both inside and outside of an organization, focused on creating, cultivating, and utilizing interpersonal relationships (Gibson, Hardy & Buckley, 2014).

Role models: Individuals who are exemplars to be imitated in certain elite positions in corporate America (Haar, 2006).

Assumptions

It is necessary for researchers to identify assumptions to validate hypotheses and mitigate bias in the study. Corporate America is viewed as a man's world, and a glass ceiling that prevents women from holding management positions. I assumed that all participants in this study would participate freely, fully, and honestly in this research. I assumed that participants who completed the online survey were to be men and women in supervisory and management positions in corporate America. I also assumed that the quantitative survey that I used was objective and that the sample was representative of the population.

Scope and Delimitations

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine differences in the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America, and to explore causes of such differences. I limited participants in this study to men and women in middle and senior management positions in not-for-profit industries and higher education. Further, this study was delimited to networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities as career promoting opportunities that contribute to men's and women's succession to top executive and senior management positions. Men and women working for local, state, and the federal governments are excluded from this study.

Limitations

Several limitations affected this study. The first limitation of this study involved lack of prior research study that examined the causes of the under-presentation of women

in top management positions in for-profit companies. A lack of research focused in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role-modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions. I performed several queries in the research database using the three key dependent variables, but the results were few.

The second limitation was to recruit men and women in senior management and executive positions from a representative sample of a population to take the survey. This limitation was addressed by choosing an online survey design to recruit participants. I used SurveyMonkey Audience to launch my survey. SurveyMonkey Audience recruited participants from a represented sample size from a population to take the online assessment instrument.

Timing and funding were other limitations in this study. To reduce time in collecting data for this study, I had to purchase survey responses from SurveyMonkey Audience. SurveyMonkey Audience has millions of users, and to recruit participants from a represented sample of men and women in senior management and executive positions working in various for-profit companies, I had to purchase surveys. It was very costly for me; however, it was necessary to collect and analyze my data efficiently and effectively.

Significance of the Study

Women represent more than half of the population in the United States, but women hold very few senior management and top executive roles in corporate America (Catalyst, 2015; Dworkin, Maurer, and Shipani, 2012). Corporate America has been and is currently male-dominated (Catalyst, 2014a). This study is significant because women

are under-represented in top executive and senior management positions in corporate America. Rosette and Washington (2012) argued that women are under-represented in managerial positions because of the lack of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities in a male-dominated environment. Salas-Lopez et al. (2011) claimed that women in senior management positions attribute their successes to having mentors and professional networking. Few researchers have explored and identified opportunities and availabilities of success factors for women in their advancements to top executive and senior management positions in corporate America. The findings of this study will contribute to the literature to increase awareness that women continue to lack networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities in career advancements.

This research is also important because it will impact social change because the findings of this study can be used by organizations to bring about workplace diversity. Although the number of women in management and leadership roles has increased over the years, women remain underrepresented in top executive and senior management positions (Catalyst, 2014b). I designed this study to serve as a platform for women who aspire to advance in management and executive positions in corporate America, and for organizations to implement and promote diversity and advancement of women. Women who desire top management positions should network with people in high profile positions. Women should also find mentors and role models who would assist in their career advancement. Cook and Glass (2014) postulated that diversity increases women's possibility of promotion to top leadership positions. Women have a better chance of promotion in companies that embrace diversity in the workplace. Gender diversity also

increases the ethical and societal values of the company or organization (Perrault, 2015). For the purpose of this study, mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities were the external attributes or causes for success or failure to attain management positions in corporate America.

Significance to Theory

Fogliasson and Scales (2011) observed that women perceived certain social barriers that prevented them climbing the corporate latter. According to Fogliasson and Scales (2011), society views women as nurturing, communal, non-competitive, and having to balance family life and work. Men are perceived as being part of the "ole boy" network, competitive, unemotional, and they have more access to mentors, networks, and role models (Fogliasson & Scales, 2011). Washington (2010) claimed that women often attribute their failures to attain top executive and senior management positions to the lack of mentors, networks, and role models within the organization and companies. Dworkin, Maurer, and Schipani (2012) postulated that having mentors, networks, and role models within the organization provide career planning, guidance, and increased aspiration levels for men and women. Heider explained the locus of causality in the attribution theory as the perceived causes of an outcome as internal or external (as cited in Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook, & Crook, 2014; Weiner, 2010); consequently, the reasons are attributed to success or failure (Harvey et al., 2014).

Significance to Practice

The population in the United States has become more diverse than ever before; therefore, gender should not inhibit women from excelling all the way to the top in

corporate America. In spite of women's efforts to advance in education, training, and skills, women still do not have equality with men in senior management and top executive positions and compensation (Parcheta, Kaifi, & Khanfar, 2013). Beeson and Valerio (2012) recommended that companies and organizations should implement professional development programs for women to utilize in becoming future business leaders. Companies should also implement programs geared to promoting women for career advancement. Women aspiring to become managers in corporations and businesses need people within the organization who will network, mentor, or become role models to them. Networking and mentoring programs, and having role models within the organization is pivotal in establishing talent and preparing both men and women for management and leadership positions (Dworkin, et al., 2012).

Significance to Social Change

This research was important because it may impact social change that brings about awareness of workplace diversity in top executive and senior management positions in corporate America and also provide career-promoting contributors or success factors required for attaining those positions. Corporations, businesses, and other organizations should implement practices and procedures that will integrate women into managerial positions. Catalyst reported that research consistently finds that diversity inclusiveness improves fims and organizations performances (Catalyst, 2014). Catalyst reported several reasons why diversity matters in business, including:

- Better financial performance.

- Higher return on sales.
- Higher return on equity.
- Higher return on invested capital.
- Performance that outperformed industry averages.
- Higher operating result.
- Better stock growth.
- Smaller gender pay gap.
- Better economic growth.
- Greater social responsiveness.
- Improved corporate sustainability.
- Lower risk of insolvency.
- Increased productivity.
- Increased profitability.
- Better corporate social performance (Catalyst, 2014d).

Summary and Transition

The purpose of this quantitative comparative research was to identify the differences in availability of career-promoting contributors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America, and the causes of such differences. Identifying career promoting contributors or success factors may serve as agents to inspire women interested in attaining management positions. Diversity is an essential element of an

organizational environment; therefore, the increased representation of women in top executive positions will decrease stereotypes regarding the competency and capability of women leaders (Skaggs, Stainback, & Duncan, 2012). This study is significant because in it I present tools women can use attain and excel in management positions in corporate America. In this chapter, I have provided the background and described the research questions for this study. I have also provided the three research questions and their associated hypotheses, described the theoretical framework, and offered working definition of key terms. After noting the assumptions, limitations, scope, and delimitations of this study, I have concluded with a discussion of its significances to theory, practice, and social change.

In Chapter 2, I present a review of scholarly literature and explore the background and related research on networking, mentoring, and having role models as success contributors for advancement and appointments to management positions in corporate America. Further, I present a review of the literature of men and women in management positions, and men and women climbing the corporate ladder, and then provide a detailed examination of the literature on differences in career promoting opportunities such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling between men and women in management positions in corporate America.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Women represent more than half of the population in the United States, yet women are underrepresented in top executive and senior management positions in corporate America (Beeson & Valerio, 2012; Cook & Glass, 2014; Vickenburg, Engen, Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011). Corporate America has been and is currently male-dominated (Catalyst, 2014), and women struggle to climb the corporate ladder. While some women have achieved the highest echelons in corporate America, Skaggs, Stainback, and Duncan (2012) claimed that many women who continue to struggle to attain even lower-level managerial positions. Smith, Caputi, and Crittenden (2012) posited that women are perceived as too emotional and not risk takers. Parchetta, Kaifi, and Khanfar (2013) also claimed that women are perceived as emotional, nurturing, and too passive for leadership and management roles. In addition to the perception of women's lack of leadership and management abilities, scholars have argued that women lack networking (Durbin, 2010), mentoring (Dworkin et al., 2012), and role modeling opportunities (Hoyt et al.,2012; Hoyt & Simon, 2011) needed to succeed in management positions in corporate America.

Such social and corporate perceptions of women are no longer appropriate. Women have made tremendous strides in education, experience, and skills (Haveman & Beresford, 2012; Michailidis, Morpitou, & Theophylatou, 2012), but women lag behind men in top management positions. Having more women in management positions increases advancement opportunities and also increase diversity within the organization

(Skaggs et al., 2012). According to Richard, Roh, and Pieper (2013), diversity in management positions produces a competitive advantage for organizations. Women thus need more career promoting opportunities to achieve these positions. The general business problem is mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities are lacking for women seeking to attain management positions in corporate America. The specific business problem is that women are under-represented in senor-management and executive positions in corporate America. Cook and Glass (2015) and Peni (2014) have claimed that firms' performances increase when women are in management positions. Other researchers have found that companies and organizations with women in management positions increased in diversity, creativity, and innovation (Krome, 2014; Ng & Wyrick, 2011). However, there is a lack of research that specifically addressed the differences in the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the differences in mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in corporate America and the causes of such differences.

In this chapter, I examine scholarly literature relevant to career success contributors such as mentoring, networking, and have role modeling opportunities for men and women in management positions. Secondly, I examine the current peer-reviewed literature that addressed workforce diversity and gender disparity of management positions in corporate America. Third, I discuss the key variables such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities that contribute to men and

women succeeding to management positions in corporate America. Finally, I examine work by researchers who used the attribution theory to study what men and women perceive as the causes of their successes or failures in attaining management positions Attribution theory explains the causes of success and failures of an outcome or situation (Harvey et al., 2014; Oghojafor et al., 2012; Weiner, 2010).

Literature Search Strategy

There is abundant research women's challenges and success in corporate America; however, limited research exists in differences in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions. To conduct my literaure review, I began by generating search queries using the following online databases, which I accessed via the Walden University library: Business Source Complete/Premier, Emerald Management Journals, ProQuest, ABI/INFORM Complete, Management and Organizational Studies, Academic OneFile, Business Insights: Essentials, Google Scholar, PaycARTICLES, Emerald Insight, and Ebsco Host. Other online sources included the Bureau of Labor Statistics, WhiteHouse.gov, Catalyst.org, and the U.S. Census database. I searched the following key terms and combinations thereof: *mentoring, networking, role model, attribution, career, mentorship, network, gender, management, leader, women or female, men or male, manager, C-suite, executives,* and *corporate*. I limited my search for articles published between 2009 and 2016 and used key terms such as *mentoring, networking, role models,*

gender, *attribution theory*, and *management.* However, I expanded my search to include articles of the attribution theory used by researchers.

I used attribution theory (Weiner, 2010) as the theoretical framework for this study. The purpose of this study was to build on Weiner's theory of the causes to men and women attribute to their successes or failures in attaining management positions in corporate America. In the literature review, I investigated perceived career-promoting contributors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for men and women in management positions in corporate America. I conducted database queries to search for articles that focused on the three variables (mentoring, networking, and role models), but found few articles that specifically addressed the differences in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions. Given this lack of research in the business and management field, I had to expand my literature search into the fields of psychology, human resources, and gender diversity. I expanded my search to include studies published between 1980 to 2016 with subjects such as *gender diversity, workforce diversity*, *workplace discrimination*, *attribution theory*, *stereotyping*, and *gender disparity*.

Theoretical Foundation

I used attribution theory as (Weiner, 2010) the theoretical framework for this research. Specifically, I used this theory, in conjunction with theories of self-perception, to gain a better understanding of what the participants' perceived to be the underlying principle of success factors leading to their roles as executives and senior managers in

corporate America. Researchers use attribution theory to explain causal decisions that individuals make as results of success and failures (Weiner, 2010). It is typically grouped with other cognitive theories such as goal orientation theory, expectancy X value theory, and self-efficacy theory (Oghojafor, Olayemi, Oluwatula & Okonji, 2012). According to Weiner (2010), attribution theory focuses on phenomenal causality. Causes explain outcomes or end results such as successes and failures and not actions (Weiner, 2010). Causal perceptions may vary by gender, ethnicity, age, groups and cultures. In external causes, individuals will attribute the cause(s) to another person or a situation or an event (Oghojafor et al., 2012). Causes can be compared and contrasted quantitatively rather than qualitatively.

Attribution theory can be relevant to organizations and management because researchers use it to study the perceived causality of events and outcomes, attainment-related success and failures, and the consequences of those perceptions (Weiner, 2010). According to Weiner (2010), causes explain results or outcomes such as success and failure. However, the intended or unintended outcome or end result may or may not be controllable (Weiner, 2010). Attribution theory was originally developed in the domain of social psychology, but Weiner suggested that attribution theory is crucial to industrial and organizational psychology because it provides a framework for understanding individual differences, leader/member interactions, conflict resolution, and leadership research (as cited in Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook, & Crook, 2014). Locus of control, stability or relative endurance, and controllability are the three dimensions of attribution theory (Weiner, Nierenberg, & Goldstein, 1976; Weiner, 2010). Locus of

control involves causes that are internal (ability, effort, mood) or external (task difficulty, luck, bias) to an individual (Weiner et al., 1976). Stability refers to the likelihood that causes will recur over a period of time (Weiner, 2010; Weiner et al., 1976), and controllability refers to whether the individual has control over the situation (Weiner, 2010, Weiner et al., 1976).

According to Weiner, Nierenberg, and Goldstein (1976), internal causes such as "ability, task difficulty, and bias are perceived as relatively stable" (p. 55); however, causes such as effort, luck, and mood can fluctuate. Ability is a stable internal cause, while effort and mood are unstable internal causes. Likewise, task difficulty and bias are stable external causes, while luck is an unstable external cause of success and failure (Weiner et al., 1976). An employee may attribute not receiving a lead position to her lack of skills (internal attribution; Eberly, Holley, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2011), or to not having a mentor, network, or role model within the organization (external attribution). Heilman claimed the women attributed their accomplishments to luck and external factors, and men attributed their achievements to internal factors such as skills and ability (as cited in Kirchmeyer, 1998). For the purpose of this study, I focused on external factors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities to examine whether these factors are perceived causes or attributions for the success of men and women in management positions in corporate America. Figure 1 shows that mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities within the business organization are attributes needed for career success (Durbin, 2010; Dworkin et al., 2012; Hoyt et al., 2012; Hoyt & Simon, 2011).

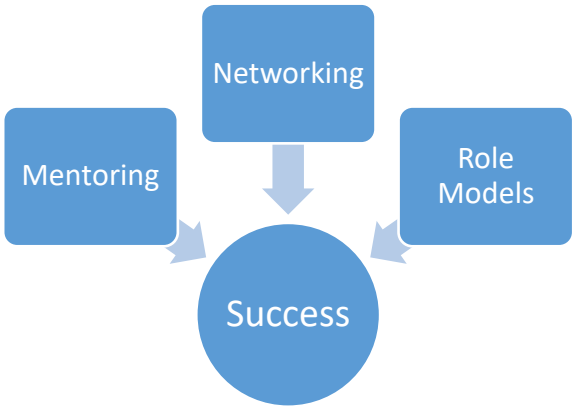

Figure 1. Career promoting contributors.

Ciabuca and Gheorghe (2014) conducted a study to explore the applicability of Weiner's attribution model for performance based on the perceptions of a convenience sample of 120 (*N*=120) participants. Ciabuca and Gheorghe's "sample consisted of 30 men and 30 womens from each organizational setting. The researchers used the Attribution Style Questionnaire (ASQ) to test Weiner's attribution theory. The ASQ was developed by Peterson, Semmel, Baeyer, Abramson, Metalsky, and Seligman to evaluate differences in how individuals attribute causes to hypothetical events (as cited in Bagby, Atkinson, Dickens, & Gavin, 1990). Participants in Ciabuca and Gheorghe's study responded to situations based on Weiner's classification of causes using a 5-point Likert scale: "internal stability (ability and personality), internal instability (effort and perseverance), external stability (task difficulty and other's support), and external instability (luck and context)" (Ciabuca & Gheorghe, 2014, p. 255).

Ciabuca and Gheorghe (2014) conducted a two-way between-subject ANOVA with 2 X 2 factorial design to examine the effect of gender and organizational context on the way individuals attribute performance (success and failure). They concluded that men attributed their success to ability, whereas women attributed their success to effort. Ciabuca and Gheorghe (2014) also claimed that both men and women were more likely to attribute their successes to ability or effort (internal cause), than to external causes. Men attributed success to ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck, whereas women attributed success to effort, task difficulty, ability, and chance (Ciabuca & Gheorghe, 2014). This study was consistent with findings in other studies that showed a success was attributed mostly to effort and ability rather than external factors or causes (Eberly, Holley, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2011; Oghojafor et al., 2012; Zaleski, 1988).

The attribution theory has been used in management and business organization strategic decisions. A study conducted by Oghojafor, Olayemi, Oluwatula, and Okonji (2012) examined the pattern of attributions of managers in business organizations and how critical success factors were used in strategic management. Managers (n=60) completed a cross-sectional survey that examined factors that managers attribute organizational success, and evaluated contributing factors that led to the organization's success. The participants of the survey consisted of 19 men and 41 women in management in corporations and self-owned businesses. Managers attending a conference completed the questionnaire using the 5-Likert scale 1 (lowest) to 5(highest) to rate their attributions of management decisions on internal factors (ability and effort), and external factors (task, strategy, and luck) (Oghojafor et al., 2012).

The Big-Five Personality Scale developed by John, Donahue, and Kentle which consisted of 44 items and five subscales (personality traits) that included extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness (as cited in Oghojafor et al., 2012, p. 35; Wolff & Kim, 2012); however, for the purpose the researchers' study, extraversion and conscientiousness were adopted. According to Wolff and Kim (2012), extraversion and agreeableness referred to interpersonal behavior. In Ashton and Lee's study, conscientiousness related to engaging in task-related functions (as cited in Wolff & Kim, 2012). The results from the study concluded that 44.4% of managers attributed strategic decisions to ability and 38.9% to effort, but managers did not attribute luck to their success. Although the sample used in this study was small, the research contributed to literature as to how the attribution theory is used to examine the causes attributed to the success of managers and their decisions strategies in business organizations. The study also had other limitations which included unexplained information of the meaning of the variables used in the questionnaire.

Career success may be defined differently for men and women; however, Sierbert (2006) defined career success as positive and psychological results from individuals' experiences and work-related performances. Career success in employment environment provides clear pathways and advancements as vertical and linear (Seibert, 2006). Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz defined career success as real or perceived accomplishments individuals have achieved due to the result of work experiences (as cited in Guan, Wang, Dong, Liu, Yue, Liu, Zhang, Zhou, & Liu, (2013). A study conducted of 204 (n=204) full-time Chinese employees (108 men and 96 women) from the various organization was

conducted by Guan, Wang, Dong, Liu, Yue, Liu, Zhang, Zhou, and Liu, (2013). The purpose of the study was to examine the factor structure and convergent validity of the career locust of control and to determine if employees supported the locus of controllability of the attribution theory. The measurements were as followed: Employees completed a survey in which they had to rate on a 7-point Likert scale of statements regarding their career success in the organization. Participants had to rate responses on the survey as to what extent they decided that their career success depended on 19 factors. Participants had to also rate statements as to what extent they agreed that their career success was determined by internal factors or external factors, and the 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (internal factors) to 9 (external factors) was used (Guan et al., 2013). The Cronbach's α coefficient was .73 for the three measurements.

In Guan, Wang, Dong, Liu, Yue, Liu, Zhang, Zhou, and Liu (2013) study, the first factor (external factors) that participants attributed to their career success listed (1) assistance from networking, (2) assistance from other people, (3) whether individuals' supervisors' regarded them as in-group member by supervisors, (4) whether individuals had a good relationship with supervisors, and (5) whether employers provided career training and choices to employees. The second factor which was internal factors that participants attributed to their career success were listed as (1) talent and abilities, (2) professional knowledge and skills, (3) work experiences, (4) time and efforts, (5) whether individuals had clear career goals, and (6) whether individuals proactively searched or created career opportunities (Guan et al., 2013). The third factor (chance) of the survey that participants attributed to their career success were listed as (1) the extent to which

individuals attributed their success to chance, fate, or luck (Guan et al., 2013. The α coefficient was calculated for each three factors (external, internal, chance) a test of internal consistency (Guan et al., 2013) The external factors α = .87; internal factors α = .75; and chance factors α = .83 which resulted in good internal consistency. Guan, Wang, Dong, Liu, Yue, Liu, Zhang, Zhou, and Liu's (2013) study confirmed that locus of control was negatively related to internal factors $r(204) = -.32$, $p < .001$, and positively related to both external factor, $r(204) = p < .001$, and chance factor, $r(204) = .29$, $p < .001$ (p. 301). Guan, Wang, Dong, Liu, Yue, Liu, Zhang, Zhou, and Liu (2013) did not examine the differences in gender because previous studies had concluded that individuals' career success was based on internal factors (abilities, traits, and work experiences).

Literature Review Related Key Variables and/or Concepts

To provide a historical perspective as to how women were viewed and treated in society, this section provided research that contributed to the societal viewpoint of women. During the nineteenth century, women worked exclusively in the home. Women took care of the children and the home. Women married farmers and assisted their husbands with cultivation, food preservation, and taking care of the livestock. Traditionally, men were placed as the head of the home and were called the bread winner (Hill, 2013). Historically womens were treated differently from men s. Girls were taught that their responsibilities and duties were inside the home, whereas boys were taught that their activities and responsibilities were outside of the home (Hill, 2013). Womens were not allowed to marry without the consent of the father. The father controlled the entire

household in which he made all of the decisions (Hill, 2013). Therefore, women were treated as the weaker vessel. This perception crossed over into the workforce. Women were denied and rejected job opportunities because society perceived women as not being capable of performing some jobs. Women were considered for child care, elementary teachers, nurses, secretaries, and social workers' positions (Hill, 2013), whereas men worked in corporate offices, engineering, construction, and financial companies (Hill, 2013).

Olivetti (2013) argued that women actively participate in the labor force because home and work activities were performed in the same place. The change in production processes and the production of factories decreased women's participation in the labor force (Olivetti, 2013). Women were compelled to stay home to raise their children and to take care of the home while the husbands went to work in the factories. However, all of that changed when women decided to pursue an education and to re-enter the workforce with men. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014a), women's participation in the labor forced expanded after World War II. During the recession in 2007-2008, women participating in paid employment increased because most of the "heavier job losses were among men" (Hill, 2013, p. 30).

Women make up approximately 51% of the U.S. population, which amounts to four million more womens than men s (White House, 2014). Women were represented by 46.9% of the labor force in 2012 (Catalyst, 2014a). The White House (2014) provided the following information:

- While the population of both men and women are aging, the women outnumber men at an older age.
- Both men and women are delaying marriage.
- Fewer women are married than in the past.
- More women than in the past have never had a child.
- Women are giving birth to their first child at older ages.
- Women have fewer children.
- Most adults live in households headed by married couples; single-mother households are common than single-father households.
- Women are more likely than men to be in poverty (White House, pp. 7-14)

Women continued to participate in the workforce by obtaining a higher level of education (Hill, 2013). Advancing in education provided women with promotion and advancement opportunities for jobs. Also, women between the ages of 25 to 64 attained a higher level of education from 1970 to 2012 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014a). The percentage of women between the ages of 25 to 64 attained college degrees increased from 11% in 1970 to 38% in 2012 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014a). In 2012, women earned 57.3% of bachelor's degrees, 59% percent of master's degrees, and 51.7% of doctorate degrees (Catalyst, 2014b). Also, women earned 49% percent of professional degrees, 48.4% in medicine, 61.8% in pharmacy, 77.4% veterinary medicine degrees, and 47.1% in law degrees in 2012 (Catalyst, 2014b). In 2012, women represented 52 percent of all workers in the field of management, professional, and related occupations (Bureau

of Labor Statistics, 2014; Catalyst, 2014a). Twenty percent of software developers and 31% of lawyers were women; 61% of accountants and auditors and 81% of elementary and middle school teachers were also women (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Although women represent approximately 51% of the U.S. population, 52% of all professional level positions, 44% of master's degrees in business and management, women lag behind men in leadership roles (Center for American Progress, 2015).

The advancement of women to senior management and executive roles continues to be slower than for men. When leadership is dominated by men, the unconscious bias penetrates the hallways of power, and women have difficulties in being perceived as leaders (Hewlett & Green, 2015). Researchers have claimed that attrition is one of the many factors influencing how women have perceived and the choices that are available to them, such as the organizations' culture. Dannels, McLaughlin, Gleason, McDade, Richman, and Morahan claimed that women lack role models (as cited in Salas-Lopez, Deitrick, Mahady, Gertner, & Sabino, 2011), affecting women's ability to climb the corporate ladder. The trajectory of women in senior management and executive positions have been referred to as a leak in the pipeline (Salas-Lopez et al., 2011).

In a study of women leaders' challenges and successes, the researchers postulated that regardless of the organizations' work settings, women faced challenges and struggles in climbing the leadership hierarchy (Salas-Lopez et. al., 2011). Semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with a female doctoral-level anthropologist, two physicians (one male and one female), and two female master's level executives in medicine and academic medicine (Salas-Lopez et al., 2011). Female participants in the study felt that

they had to work even harder than their male counterpart in the same position. Participants in the study agreed that gender, more than race or ethnicity, was reported as the main concern in attaining leadership roles (Salas-Lopez et. al., 2011). Male participants in the study perceived that women leaders faced challenges and difficulties balancing family and life responsibilities; therefore, the trajectory of management positions for women would be difficult (Salas-Lopez, et al., 2011).

Women aspiring to executive and senior management positions in corporate America need prominent people within the organization who will support or mentor them and are willing to give women the opportunity to prove themselves. Participants in this study pointed out that they had mentors and informal mentors during their career (Salas-Lopez et al., 2011). Formal mentoring involves a senior employee with a mentee or protégé who is an employee with fewer skills and experience. According to Joo, Sushko, and McLean (2012), formal mentoring are more structured where a mentor and protégé are paired within the organization. Informal mentoring are less structured and develops spontaneously, naturally and voluntary (Joo et al., 2012; Liang & Gong, 2013). Mentors were professional colleagues, superiors, family, friends, professors, and clergy. Respondents in the study identified education as a crucial factor in their leadership journey. Although women have made tremendous strides in education, skills, and experience, women lag behind their male counterparts. Clarke (2011) claimed that although business organizations have completed many strategic commitments to improve women's presence in leadership roles, women are still lack an executive and senior management positions. Clarke (2011) also claimed that women's career has many

constraints that prevent women from achieving top executive and senior management roles in corporate America.

Michailidis, Morphitou, and Theophylatou (2012) conducted a study that examined probable barriers women faced in career advancement in business and whether the organizations provided developmental practices to assist women's careers. Questionnaires were randomly distributed to 250 women that worked in private, public and semi-public companies. The study had a 64% response rate, and 154 questionnaires were used. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the statistical analysis. The questionnaire consisted of five parts which included: (*Part I*) questions related to work discrimination, gender discrimination during hiring, promotion or career advancement, (*Part II*) questions to determine if gender was a factor that could limit promotion, compensations, access to clients and training, (*Part III*) questions related to how men and women were treated in the organization, such as equal treatment, equal opportunities for advancement, childbearing, and career commitment, (*Part IV*) statements whereby participants rated possible barriers that prevented women's career advancement using a 5-point Likert scale, and (*Part V*) questions that asked women to rate the importance of various organizational practices that aid in women's career advancement and development (Michailidis et al., 2012).

The results of the study revealed that over 80 percent of women did not feel or observed gender discrimination in the workplace. Also, women responded to the questionnaire that they did not experience or observed differential treatment between men and women in job promotions or compensation (Michailidis et al., 2012). However,

women responded that male domination in senior management positions presented barriers to women seeking advancement in their career. Michailidis, Morphitou, and Theophylatou (2012) also concluded that women felt that organizations did not do enough to implement developmental programs that would assist women in their career advancement. The lack of role models, mentoring and networking opportunities in business organizations are barriers to women's career advancement (Billing, 2011; Catalyst, 2014a; Michailidis et al., 2012). Ibarra, Ely, and Kolb (2013) argued that it is important for organizations to implement mentoring and leadership development programs for women; however, it is not enough. For women to succeed in leadership positions, Ibarra, Ely, and Kolb (2013) suggested that men and women should be educated and trained in professional development efforts that provide transitions to higher positions within the organizations.

Workforce Diversity Needed in Male Dominated Society

Workforce diversity is one of the many challenges facing companies and institutions. In today's workforce, employees are from various background, race, ethnicity, gender, religion, and education (Gwal, 2014). Gender and race diversity have increased in the workplace, yet organizations are unsuccessful in amalgamating women and racial minorities (Ng & Wyrick, 2011). Managing diversity and addressing discrimination has become an impetus for human resource specialists, managers and diversity practitioners to explore strategies and approaches to instituting in their organizations (Alcázar, Fernández, & Gardey, 2013; Trenerry & Paradies, 2012). Diversity in the workplace is crucial in promoting creativity, flexibility, and maximizing

effectiveness of the organization (Gwal, 2014). Krome (2014) also confirmed workforce heterogeneity increases various problem-solving approaches that improve the efficiency of an organization. Ng and Wyrick (2011) also confirmed that by promoting and increasing diversity in the workplace, organizations benefit by "attracting the best talents, a higher level of creativity and innovation, more creative problem solving, and improved marketing efforts" (p. 170).

Virick and Greer (2012) claimed that the importance of workforce diversity had been confirmed by research that examined the relationship between diversity and firm performance. Virick and Greer (2012) conducted a study to find out the implications of women being more likely to be nominated as successors in more favorable diversity climate. Virick and Greer (2012) tested several hypotheses:

> (1) more favorable perceptions of diversity climate for women will be associated with a greater likelihood of nominating female successors; (2) female incumbents will have a greater probability of nominating female successors; (3a) incumbent performance ratings will be positively associated with a greater likelihood of nominating female successors; (3b) incumbent performance ratings will moderate the relationship between perceptions of diversity climate and the nomination of women, such that lower performers are less likely than higher performers to nominate female successors when the diversity climate for women is less favorable, and (4) female successors will be perceived as having more objective strengths/special skills than their male counterparts. (Virick & Greer, 2012, p. 579-583)

Virick and Greer's (2012) questionnaires were completed by survey respondents at the North American operations of a technology firm that included 628 incumbent executives and managers with a line or staff responsibilities; 228 incumbents responded to the survey. Virick and Greer (2012) concluded from their study that lower-performing incumbents were less likely than higher-performing incumbents to nominate women as successors when the diversity climate was unfavorable. When the diversity climate was favorable, lower performers were more likely and higher performers were equally likely to nominate women as successors. Future studies should examine multiple aspects and dimensions of incumbent performance, such as the role and extra-role performance, as well as performance ratings specific to employee development.

The workforce has become more diverse, and companies are facing shortages in talents and skills, organizations should recruit and advance more women. The experience of high-performing employees who recognize and develop superior and diverse talent should be examined in future research. The general finding of Virick and Greer's (2012) research was that more favorable diversity climates are associated with incumbent nominations of female successors, which should be of particular interest to practitioners because the climate measure incorporates perceptions of practices important to the management of diversity, such as training, networking opportunities, and mentoring.

Kmec and Skaggs (2012) concluded in their study that gender diversity management varied among states in the United States. Organizations and companies may implement gender diversity practices that reflect their state laws. Kmec and Skaggs (2012) conducted the study to determine whether state-level statutes were uniquely

related to gender diversity in upper versus lower management. As women's employment and education levels increase, the labor pool will also increase, and there will be a competition for managerial positions. Also, state mandates were found to be differentially associated with upper-level management as compared to lower-level management positions (Kmec & Skaggs, 2012). Women's presence in lower management positions was positively associated with women's presence at the top. Kmec and Skaggs' (2012) study confirmed that white men in upper management positions would select other white men as their successor or in other management positions. Skaggs, Stainback, and Duncan (2012) argued that having more women in management increases advancement opportunities for other women. Women's presence on corporate boards also increases advancement opportunities for women in management and executive positions. Board diversity promotes organizations as egalitarian and provides a competitive edge in the recruitment and hiring of top female applicants (Skaggs, et al., 2012). The findings of Kmec and Skaggs' (2012) study confirms individuals bias perceptions of women's leadership capabilities.

Gender Stereotyping

Gender stereotyping is not only an American phenomenon, but it is also a phenomenon in Western industrial nations (Dworkin et al., 2012). In France and the United Kingdom (UK), gender pay gap is an indicator of inequality or disparity between men and women (Milner & Gregory, 2014). The gap refers to the condition of being unequal in work, pay, education, home, situations, or places (Witkowska, 2013). Stereotypical thinking and discriminatory actions have reduced opportunities in various

circumstances for women (Kubasek, Brennan, & Browne, 2009). Gender or sex stereotypes are biased and based on unsupported views about particular characteristics of males and females (Katz & Winiarski, 2012). Heilman (2012) explained in her research that "gender stereotypes are generalizations about the attributes of men and women" (p. 114). The social role theory explains gender stereotyping. Gender discrimination in the labor market occurs when there is differential or unfavorable treatment during the process involving hiring selection, promotion, training, recognition, and compensation (Fogliasso, 2011; Macarie & Moldovan, 2012). When discrimination occurs, the individual pays or forfeits the income for the privilege (Becker, 1957). Feminists agree that discrimination is still evident because of the continued disparity in jobs held by men and women (Lovell, 2009). Companies and organizations perceive women as incompetent leaders, but researchers argued that companies managed by women performed much better than men (Buckalew et al., 2012; Dezső & Ross, 2012; Vieito & Khan, 2012).

Kehn and Ruthig (2013) conducted a quantitative correlational study on the perceptions of gender discrimination between men and women. The study was to determine if men and women viewed discrimination as having changed over the last six decades. Three research questions were analyzed: (1) how did gender discrimination change; (2) "whether changes in anti-women bias are viewed as directly associated with changes with changes in anti-men bias"; and (3) what influence did the age of the participants in the study have on gender discrimination (Kehn & Ruthig, 2013, p. 290). A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to examine gender and age

difference in demographic covariates. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to determine men and women's perception of gender discrimination over six decades (Kehn & Ruthig, 2013). A total of 218 men and 281 women with ages ranging from 18 to 73 participated in the study. Participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk, and they were paid $0.25 for their participation. An online consent form was completed by the participants. Kehn and Ruthig (2013) concluded from their research that men and women perceived that gender discrimination declined over the years. Further research could address age differences in perception of discrimination. Also, the research did not include differences between men and women such as race, education, religious beliefs, and geographical regions.

Matsa and Miller (2011) argued that having women present on a corporate board made a difference in female representations in CEO and top executive positions. Matsa and Miller (2011) conducted a study to determine if women's representation on corporate boards affected the gender composition of companies' top senior management. An analysis was conducted of corporate board members and top executives of the U.S. publicly traded firms from 1997 to 2009. Data such as name, title, pay, and gender of the top five executives from the S&P 1500 publicly-traded firms was gathered from Execucomp, Investor Responsibility Research Center, and RiskMetric's directors' databases (Matsa & Miller, 2011). The study revealed that female representation was much higher among directors than among top executives (Matsa & Miller, 2011). According to Matsa and Miller (2011), the study also revealed that 64% of the companies in the sample had at least one woman on the corporate board, and 24% had a woman

among the top five executives (p. 636). Bertrand and Hallock's study also revealed that women representation on the board of directors increased the likelihood of female representation in CEO and top executive positions and also led to an increase in compensation (as cited in Matsa & Miller, 2011).

Women in the United States held 14.6% of the executive officer positions in 2013 (Catalyst, 2013a). The *2013 Catalyst Census: Fortune 500 Executive Officers and Top Earners* reported that in 2012, approximately 14.3% executive officer positions were held by women in corporate America, and women held only 8.1% of senior executive officers' earners' positions (Catalyst, 2013a). The majority of female executive officers were from the Midwest region of the U.S., and most female executive officers' jobs were in Finance and Insurance (Catalyst, 2013b). According to the *Calvert Investments 2013 Diversity Report, Examining the Cracks in the Ceiling: A Survey of Corporate Diversity Practices of the S&P 100*, over 56% of the S&P 100 firms have no women or minorities in high-paid senior executive positions (Calvert, 2013). Despite women's advancement in education, skills, and training, few women are in top executive positions. The Catalyst attributed the slow progress of female senior executives to (1) gender-based stereotyping, (2) exclusion from informal networking, and (3) lack of role models (Fain, 2011, p. 56). The Catalyst is a non-profit organization that provides research on women and businesses (Catalyst, 2014c). Other studies have suggested that there are fewer female executives in the United States because of gender bias and that women have to work even harder than men to prove their capabilities and experience (Muller-Kahle & Schiehll, 2013. In 2013,

Mary Barra was appointed the first female CEO of General Motors (Kranc, 2014). Ursula Burns was the first African-American woman named CEO of Xerox Corporation in 2009.

Calvert Investments 2013 Diversity Report (Calvert, 2013) also reported that 11 S&P 100 companies had diverse CEOs: five women and seven minorities. Pepsi Company has a female minority, Indra Nooyi, who was appointed CEO in 2006. The problem is that women represent more than half of the population in the United States, but there is a shortage of female representation in top executive positions. A gap in literature existed on gender disparity in executive and senior management positions, and this study is important because it will promote social change within organizations and corporations to develop mentorship, networking programs, and role models for women. Women are capable of performing the role of CEO and other top executive and senior management positions in Fortune 500 companies. Buckalew, Konstantinopoulos, Russell, and Seif (2012) argued that women perform more efficiently than men in leadership roles and that women are more effective communicators. Organizational commitment and employee job satisfaction are vital elements to a company's bottom line; therefore, employees happy at work remain committed to staying longer in the organization, thus creating a history that can be a valuable resource to the organization (Buckalew et al., 2012).

Climbing the Corporate Ladder

Currently, top executive positions are predominantly held by men. The problem is there are few top female executives in Fortune 500 companies in the United States. This research is important because women represent more than half of the population in the

United States, but only a few females are in top executives and senior managers in corporate America. Giberson and Miklos (2012) explained that women held more middle-management level positions, but few senior management jobs. Several academic and government studies have confirmed the 'glass ceiling' prevented or slowed the advancement of women in successfully reaching top executive and senior management positions (Buckalew et al., 2012; Carnes & Radojevich-Kelley, 2011; Eisner & Harvey, 2009; Fogliasso, 2011; Pai & Vaidya, 2009; Gregory, Jeanes, Tharyan, & Tonks, 2013; Shin, 2012: Skelly & Johnson, 2011). The 'glass ceiling' is the invisible barrier that prevents women and minorities from reaching the high echelons of the corporate hierarchy (Pai & Vaidya, 2009; Skelly & Johnson, 2011). One barrier that may prevent women from breaking the glass ceiling is the tension between family and work life (Buckalew et al., 2012). Women who are mothers also have the responsibilities of taking care of their children and husband; therefore, balancing work and family may be too stressful for women when it comes to the demanding responsibilities of top executives or any other senior management positions (Buckalew et al., 2012). Many research organizations, such as the American Association of University Women, The Catalyst, the Center for Creative Leadership, the Institute for Women's Policy Research, and the U.S. Glass Ceiling Initiative/Compensation recognized the glass ceiling phenomenon of women's progression to top executive positions (Eisner & Harvey, 2009). Women are not only facing challenges of the glass ceiling effect but also the glass cliff effect.

Cook and Glass (2014) conducted a study to test the "glass cliff" and the "savior effect" theories to analyze the concepts that shape the promotion opportunities and post-

promotion tenure of white women and men and women of color in Fortune 500 companies. Cook and Glass (2014) described the glass cliff theory as the idea that women are placed in risky top positions that might result in their failure or falling off the cliff. Hunt-Earle (2012) also posited that the glass cliff is the metaphor used to conceptualize the danger women face in being promoted to top positions in which there are risks involved. The savior effect occurs when white men are appointed to high positions of firms that experienced declines in firms' performance during white women and racial/ethnic minorities' tenure (Cook & Glass, 2014). Taylor (2010) classified women and racial/ethnic minorities as occupational minorities because of their underrepresentation in an occupation. According to Cook and Glass (2014), occupational minorities confront more challenges when they are appointed as CEOs, and they are provided less freedom to establish leadership capabilities. Cook and Glass (2014) tested three hypotheses: (1) occupational minorities are more likely to be appointed CEO in struggling firms; (2) occupational minority CEOs will have shorter tenures than traditional CEOs, and (3) occupational minority CEOs will be replaced by white male CEOs if firm performance is weak during their term of office.

Cook and Glass (2014) collected datasets of all CEO transitions within the Fortune 500 companies from 1996 to 2010. CEOs' names, gender, race, year of appointment, tenure, prior experience, and internal/external data were collected from various resources including *Business Week*, *Forbes*, and company websites. The percentage of women and minorities in management by industry were obtained using the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) website. Specific company

information, including a total number of employees, total assets, total equity, total liabilities, net income, and sales were collected from Compustat and Center for Research and Security Prices (CRSP).

Cook and Glass (2014) concluded that diversity among decision makers significantly increased women's possibility of promotion to top leadership positions. The dataset included 21 female CEOs (17 white and four racial/ethnic minorities) and 36 racial/ethnic minority male CEOs. The dependent variable to test the glass cliff theory was the transition of an occupational minority to CEO. The dependent variable used to test the savior effect was the change of a traditionally white male leader that replaced an occupational minority CEO. The predictor variable was the measure of the firm's performance (financial measures), which was collected from Compustat and CRSP databases. A firm's financial performance was categorized into accounting-based and market-based measures. The control variables included the number of employees at the firm, percentage of women and minorities in management, tenure of the CEO, the year of transition, prior CEO experience, and firm size, which was measured by total assets. The glass cliff hypothesis theory was tested using conditional logistic regression (CLR), and the savior effect hypothesis was tested using ANOVA.

The results indicated a consistency with the glass cliff theory. Occupational minorities were more likely than white men to be promoted to CEO positions in firms experiencing short, medium or long-term declines. Cook and Glass (2014) also found that negative firm performance in the short, medium or longer term led to the replacement of occupational minority CEOS with white men in agreement with the savior effect. Cook

and Smith's (2014) sample was limited because only 57 occupational minorities were replaced by white men as CEO in Fortune 500 firms between 1996 and 2010. Future research could examine large samples of leadership transitions in and outside of the Fortune 500 companies. Also, future research should explore the career trajectory of white women, minority men, and women separately. Finally, future research could explore and test the relevance of significant variations among and between racial/ethnic groups. Cook and Glass did not clarify the number or percentage of women that were categorized as racial or ethnic women (African American, Asian, or Latino).

Shin (2012) argued that women face other challenges, including the social, cultural, and institutional barriers that prevent women from reaching top executive positions. Also, according to Shin (2012), women find it more challenging to succeed in top positions once held by women. The Catalyst reported in 2010 that women made up 2% of CEOs, 14% of top executives, and 16% of directors of Fortune 500 companies (Shin, 2012). Hausmann reported that in Germany, women account for 13% of top managers and 14% of top managers in the United Kingdom (as cited in Schuh, Bark, Niels, Rüdiger, Philip, Rolf, 2014). Some researchers argued that the glass ceiling does not impact women in non-profit organizations. Branson, Chen, and Redenbaugh (2013) discovered in their research more women are CEOs in non-profit organizations than in Fortune 500 companies (Goff, 2013).

The objective of the study was to determine if there was a significant difference in the number of women in top executive positions in major non-profit organizations as compared to Fortune 500 companies. A list of non-profit organizations was obtained

from the Charity Navigator, a national service that evaluates and rates 501(c) 3 organizations (Branson et al., 2013). The 2006 list of Fortune 500 companies was obtained from CNN Money website. A sample size of 250 was used, and a random number generator was used to determine the sample for the Fortune 500 companies and the non-profit organizations. A random number generator or randomizer was obtained from Randomizer.org, an online website. The Form 990 for non-profit organizations and the Form DEF 14A were used to determine the top four executives' salaries. Form 990 is required for non-profit organizations to file with the Internal Revenue Service (IRS), and the DEF 14A is a requirement for the Security Exchange Commission (SEC) filing (Branson et al., 2013).

The research conducted by Branson, Chen, and Redenbaugh (2013) was to determine if there were more female CEOs in non-profit organizations than in Fortune 500 companies. They concluded that non-profit organizations had 41.6% more women in top executive positions than Fortune 500 organizations, which only had 1.6% women in executive roles. Branson, Chen, and Redenbaugh (2013) found that women are more likely to hold CEO and top executive positions in non-profit organizations than in Fortune 500 companies, and non-profit organizations are likely to have more than one woman in top executive positions. Claus, Callahan, and Sandlin (2013) also confirmed that women are more likely to hold CEO and senior executive positions in non-profit organizations than in Fortune 500 companies. Some of the limitations of Branson, Chen, and Redenbaugh's (2013) study were (1) the size of the non-profit organizations and the Fortune 500 companies may have also impacted results; (2) the inclusion of some

uncompensated executives may have affected the results; and (3) the historical data from 2006 were used because it was considered to be a stable time for organizations prior to the 2008 recession (Branson et al., 2013). Men's reluctance to accept lower compensation as CEOs of non-profit organizations might explain the reason for more female CEOs and top executives in such organizations (Branson et al., 2013). Also, Branson, Chen, and Redenbaugh (2013) postulated that non-profit organizations are perceived as nurturing, caring, and benevolent, which are characteristics associated with women. Van Buren stated that "the vast majority of non-profit organizations focuses on the arts, children, animal welfare, poverty, and other social initiatives," which are also associated with women (as cited in Claus et al., 2013, p. 331).

Scholars have claimed more female are top executives in non-profit organizations than in for-profit organizations or corporations. However, there still exists a pay gap between men and women in both non-profit and for-profit organizations. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014a), the earnings ratio for women had improved over the years (Tavakolian, 2012). However, despite women's educational advancement, training, and accomplishments, women still have a long way to go before gaining compensation parity in the workforce. Women have the education, skills, talents, abilities, and the career competence to work in executive and senior management positions in corporate America. Career competencies include skills, knowledge, abilities, and behaviors that individuals should possess to be successful in the organization (Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas, & Steele, 2013). The Career Competencies Indicator (CCI) was developed to measure seven areas of career competence in individuals

(Francis-Smythe et al., 2013). The seven areas of career competencies included (1) goal setting and career planning, (2) self-knowledge, (3) job-related performance effectiveness, (4) career-related skills, (5) knowledge of office politics, (6) networking and mentoring, and (7) feedback seeking and self-presentation (Francis-Smythe et al., 2013).

Beeson and Valerio (2012) also claimed that women's behavior and achievement are more likely to be misconstrued because of gender stereotypes. For women to succeed in executive positions, companies should institute succession planning practices and career development within the organization. Gender stereotyping and promoting equality should be addressed in the organization. Companies should also provide steps that women can utilize to take the initiative in their development as leaders (Beeson & Valerio, 2012). Companies should implement developmental programs geared to promoting women for long-term career advancement to include mentoring, coaching, and skill enhancement to maximize success in the companies. Schulz and Enslin (2014) also agreed that gender plays a role in gender disparity at the executive levels in companies. Schulz and Enslin (2014) also agreed with Beeson and Valerio (2012) that corporations should empower women with career succession planning and developmental programs.

A development of career ladders for women in management is needed in corporate America. Researchers have claimed that having women in top management positions increased diversity and firm performances. Peni (2015) used an empirical analysis of CEOs and Chairperson in 305 firms of the S&P 500 companies to determine if there was a relationship of CEO and Chairperson's characteristics and organization

performance. Peni (2015) claimed that institutions with female executives and senior managers outperformed companies that had men as executives and senior managers; therefore, gender made a difference in the performances of firms. Perryman, Fernando, and Tripathy (2016) also claimed that firms with gender diversity in top management reported lower risks and delivered improved performance. Gender diversity is equal representation of women in top management positions. Men tend to hire or promote individuals that are part of the ole' boy network (Fogliasson & Scales, 2011; Neck, 2015); however, women were driven to diversity in the workplace (Javidan, Bullough, & Dibble). Companies should include training, mentors, self-assessment tools and coaching that will enable women to excel in senior management and executive levels within the organization.

Career Promoting Opportunities

Networking Opportunities

Networking is defined as a set of behaviors that individuals use to develop and maintain relationships that would potentially provide support, influence, information, and guidance to career advancement (Colakoglu, 2006). Networking between individuals can develop inside, outside, or within an organization. A network is also defined as an interpersonal relationship that links together people, places, objects, or events. Networks could consist of informal sources and formal sources. Informal sources include the individual's personal network, whereas formal sources consist of organizations and sources in which the person receives information (Saltiel, 2006). Networking enhances individuals' resources to provide exposure, expertise, information, support, professional,

and political advice (Colakoglu, 2006). For this study, I will use the definition used by Gibson, Hardy, and Buckley (2014) posited that "networking is a form of goal-directed behavior, both inside and outside of an organization, focused on creating, cultivating, and utilizing interpersonal relationships" (p.150). Porter and Woo (2015) suggested that networking also involved an intentional behavioral effort that results in the exchange of resources. For the purpose of this study, networking will be based on the fundamentals of individuals developing and maintaining relationships for support of current job or certain career trajectory (Gibson et al., 2014). Networking within the company or organization is crucial for career advancement and professional development (Chichester, 2014).

O'Neil, Hopkins, and Sullivan (2011) investigated the differences in perception of members of women's network and the firm's executive leadership team regarding the women's network and the anticipated outcomes. O'Neil, Hopkins, and Sullivan (2011) conducted interviews due to the lack of literature on women's network and the lack of research that examined the perceptions of women's network and the executive leadership team. Participants interviewed included 21 members of the women's network and six executives that included Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Chief Financial Officer (CFO), Presidents, and one senior-level Vice President from a global food services organization (O'Neil et al., 2011). The research cited that the women's network group wanted to bring change in the number and visibility of women in leadership roles of the firm (O'Neil et al., 2011). The network and executive groups perceived that mentoring and network opportunities should take place in the organization. However, the women's network recognized the value of networking at 62%, whereas the executive team rated networking

at 17%. The women's network perceived networking as a tool for career advancement and organizational competitive advantage, but the executive team viewed networking primarily as a diversity initiative that would provide women with visibility to "prove themselves worthy of promotion" (O'Neil, Hopkins, & Sullivan, 2011, p. 750). The sample size in this study was small (members of women's network n=21/ executive team n=6).

Women may be in an organization where the "old boy" network operates; therefore, their visibility to decision-makers goes unnoticed. The "old boy" system or club refers to the "boys surrounding themselves with 'people like them'" (Neck, 2015, p. 499). Durbin (2011) claimed that women are denied access to the allusive 'old boy' network. Neck (2015) found that women left senior level roles in finance for many reasons. Women who left senior level positions from two Australian finance companies were interviewed to gain an understanding of the factors that contributed to the women's decisions to leave their jobs. Finance is a homogenous masculine environment, and women find it difficult to fit in. Neck (2015) postulated that the women had difficulty networking because of the masculine or "old boy" system. Also, the women had problems in finding mentors. Kark and Ely argued that the mentoring relationship is usually aligned or developed along the same sex lines (as cited in Neck, 2015). Women that were currently working in the finance industry were also interviewed for the study.

Neck (2015) used a purposeful, snowball, and convenience sampling of 27 women for the interviews. The interviews took approximately one hour each and was recorded and then transcribed to verify accuracy. The women in the study stated several

reasons for their departure from the finance industry. The following attributions were stated by the women who left senior-level positions: (1) frustration (e.g., in balancing work and family life), (2) lack of management support, (3) lack of enjoyment in their position, (4) differential treatment, and (5) lack of opportunities and politics. Neck (2015) argued that future research similar to this one should use statistical methods to test factors as to why women leave senior-level positions.

Gender and Networking

Durbin (2011) claimed that "gender is based on the social characteristics of and relations between men and women, both being recipients and shapers of gender relations" (p. 95). Kanter's research revealed that gender segregation is more evident in senior management positions, and women are underrepresented in the predominantly male environment (as cited in Durbin, 2011). Ibarra's argued that the essence and possibility of opportunities that were available through networking were contingent on the type of individuals with whom one interacted (as cited in Durbin, 2011). Homophily is the mechanism that exists when people with similar interests and commonalities forms a network (Bevelander & Page, 2011;Durbin, 2011; van den Brink & Benschop, 2014). Ibarra noted in her research that "although people tend to interact with others who are similar in socially significant ways, that tendency is highly constrained by the availability of similar others within the social groups to which an individual belongs" (as cited in Durbin, 2011, p. 96). What may be perceived as the 'old boy' network may be misconstrued due to the prevalence of men in a firm or organization (Durbin, 2011). Durbin (2011) argued that women have less homophilous ties as compared to men due to

the lack of women in hierarchy positions, and it requires more time and effort to maintain because of dispersals and turnovers.

Although men and women network differently, Gibson, Hardy, and Buckley (2014) postulated that professional networking is an important factor to career success. Networking can impel positive outcomes or results for individuals such as career success, increased power, and increased visibility (Gibson et al., 2014). McCallum, Forret, and Wolff (2014) argued that people having a network with individuals from several organizations provide an broad spectrum to "different job opportunities, organizational cultures, working conditions, or initiatives that others are pursuing" (p. 599). However, networking can be subjected to individuals' gender, personality, education, and marital status (Gibson et al., 2014). As depicted in Figure 2, there are many variables that influence networking within organizations (Gibson et al., 2014).

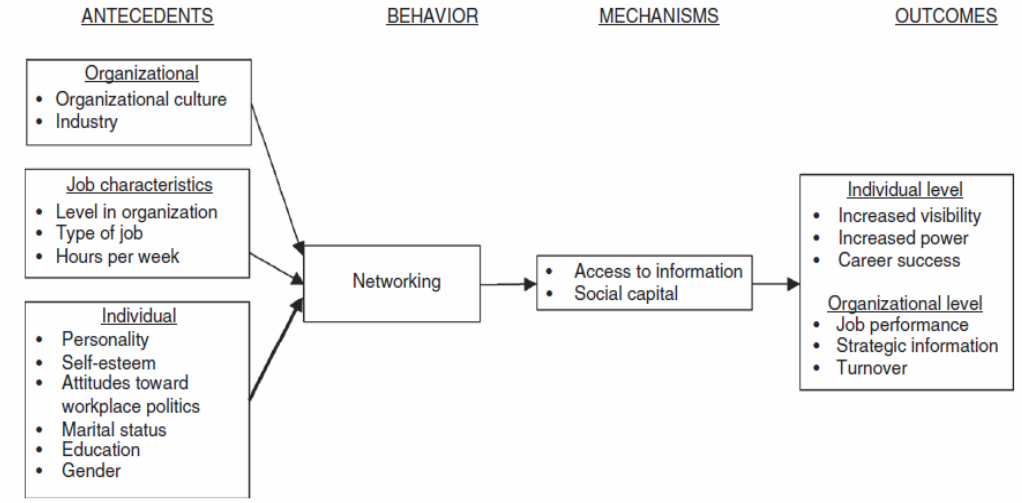

Figure 2. A theoretical model of the antecedents, mechanism, and outcome of networking.

According to Gibson, Hardy, and Buckley (2014), the theoretical model above (Figure 2) reflects the "antecedents, outcomes, and mechanisms of networking in organizations" (p. 152). The antecedents are organizational, job characteristics, and individual levels. Individuals' personality, self-esteem, workplace politics, marital status, education, and gender are integral roles in promoting or impeding the progress of establishing and maintaining network contacts (Gibson et al., 2014). People with low self-esteem will be less likely to become involved in networking. Engaging in workplace politics may increase individuals visibility within the organization.

Gibson, Hardy, and Buckley (2014) claimed that individuals that are married tend to belong to different types of networking opportunities because they tend to socialize less after work, but married individuals will more likely to participate in networking outside of the organizations such as in the community and church. The type of job may also promote or impede an individual access to networking within an organization. Advancement in job positions may prompt individuals to develop new or different network contacts within the organization. Individuals may feel compelled to develop new contacts, be affiliated with new professional societies or to acquire more visible projects in the organization (Gibson et al., 2014; McCallum et al., 2014). Gibson, Hardy, and Buckley (2014) argued that there is less research that examines the role of job context in networking and how job types influence or inhibits networking opportunities. Research was conducted by Bevelander and Page (2011) to determine the differences in the way men and women network. Bevelander and Page (2011) claimed that women trust men more as compared to trusting other women in risky professional environment. Women

preferred to network more with men when risks were involved which resulted in distrust among women in business (Bevelander & Page, 2011). Durbin (2011) and Neck (2015) and other researchers support Durbin's(2011) study that women have less access to networking opportunities as compared to men. Also, McDonald and Westphal (2013) argued that women are underrepresented in senior-level positions due to lack of mentoring opportunities.

Mentoring Opportunities

Mentoring is recognized as a key success factor for career development and advancement. Mentoring is a relationship in which a more seasoned person provides ongoing direction, guidance, and encouragement to an individual who is a protégé. In business, mentors provide their protégé with psychosocial functions and career-related functions (Allen, 2006). Mentors are usually in more senior positions, have more experience and knowledge, and provide support to lower-level employees in their trajectory to higher positions. Psychosocial functions may include the individual's "sense of identity, competence, and effectiveness in the professional role" (Allen, 2006, p. 487). Career-related functions may include exposure and visibility within the organizations. Some researchers have argued that men have more access to information, management decisions, job opportunities, and pending projects due to the "old boy" system (Elacqua, Beehr, Webster, & Hansen, 2009). The underrepresentation of women in senior-level and executive positions presented challenges for female protégés or mentees with access to female mentors (Rockwell, Leck, & Elliott, 2013). Rockwell, Leck, and Elliott (2013) argued that women agree that mentoring was more effective when they have female

mentors. Ultimately, mentoring offered many benefits to protégés or mentees, including self-efficacy, promotion, job satisfaction, and career satisfaction (Washington, 2010).

McDonald and Westphal (2013) conducted research on the underrepresentation of women and minorities and why they are perceived as members of the "corporate elite" when they hold multiple corporate board seats. Holders of multiple board positions were perceived as influential and as members of the corporate elite (McDonald & Westphal, 2013). Women and first-time minority directors faced difficulties in their career success because they lack mentorship (McDonald & Westphal, 2013). McDonald and Westphal (2013) argued that mentoring contributed to newcomers' success because the newcomer learned quickly and accurately about the prevailing behavioral norms in a particular context that represented "secrets to success" (p. 1173). McDonald and Westphal's (2013) research included a sample of directors who acquired their first board seat at a U.S. public company between 1999 and 2006. Survey questionnaires were sent to first-time directors at the 2,000 largest publicly-held companies. The questionnaires were disseminated to individuals six months after they assumed directorship positions.

A qualitative pretest of the survey instruments among 22 corporate directors was conducted to ensure the highest possible response rate for the survey. The interviewers provided feedback that resulted in the revision of the cover letter, a revised format of the questionnaire, and revisions of the wording of questions to make the survey easier and clearer to complete (McDonald & Westphal, 2013). McDonald and Westphal (2013) claimed that both women and first-time minority directors received less mentoring from their incumbent colleagues and thus received fewer additional board appointments.

McDonald and Westphal (2013) also claimed in their research that even though demographic minorities first-time directors had significantly higher levels of management experience, provided higher levels of advice and information to CEOs, and demonstrated more knowledge and strategic insight than their peers, demographic minorities received less mentoring and fewer board appointments compared to their male counterparts.

McDonald and Westphal's (2013) research primarily focused on the impact that mentoring had on women and minorities' ability to acquire appointments to other boards. However, research on how mentoring influences women and minorities in other senior-level and executive positions in corporate America is needed (McDonald & Westphal, 2013). Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelgesang, and Avolio (2011) claimed in their research that mentoring could improve and accelerate leaders' self-efficacy. Also, research examining the differences in having access to mentoring between gender and ethnicity is also relevant. Few studies have focused on comparing ethnicity groups regarding their career aspiration, success, and challenges. Research on men's careers was used to expound on women's goals, challenges, and strategies; subsequently, research on women's careers was generalized without accounting for ethnicity and race (O'Neill, Shapiro, Ingols, & Blake-Beard, 2013).

O'Neill, Shapiro, Ingols, and Blake-Beard (2013) conducted an exploratory study to examine the difference in how women from different ethnic groups strive for career goals, balancing goals with life and work and measuring success by money and position. Surveys were disseminated to several organizations at a Women's Leadership

Conference, and the snowball sampling technique was used. Approximately 2,200 surveys were distributed, and 860 women responded. There were 309 white women, 207 black women, 304 Latina women, and 40 Asian women who responded. The average age of the women was 42 years old, and the average work history spanned 18 years. Eighty-five percent of the female participants had college degrees, 60% were married, 45% had children at home, 93% were full-time employees, 81% contributed 50% or more to their household income, 40% were in middle or higher levels of management, and they had an average salary of $112,000 (O'Neill et al., 2013).

The female participants rated 16 goals from prior research on a five-point scale. Participants rated the career goal that was most important to them. Principal factor analysis with varimax rotation was used. Factors used from a prior research conducted by Shapiro were used, such as contemporary career goals (*do work I am passionate about*; *make a positive impact*; *be a role model*), balance goals (*time for personal relationships and outside interests*; *live in location of importance, and have children*), and convention measures of success goals (defined as: *advancement to prestigious positions or top leadership*; and *make a great deal of money*) (as cited in O'Neill et al., 2013, p. 221). Despite the women's career goals, lack of mentorship, networking, and role models prohibited women from pursuing their career goals (Washington, 2010).

Grima, Paillé, Mejia, and Prud'homme (2014) conducted research that involved a survey of 161 French managers to test the benefits of mentoring opportunities, the relationship between formal and informal mentoring, and the gender composition of the dyad. Five hundred surveys were mailed to former students enrolled in management that

attended a French business school between 1994 and 2004. Out of 500 questionnaires, 194 questionnaires were returned (38.8% response rate), 177 were usable, but 16 were excluded from the analysis because the participants had less than two years seniority in their position in an organization (Grima et al., 2014). A total of 161 participants included 100 men and 51 women in management positions in finance, accounting, marketing, production, logistics, engineering, and other functions. Participants worked in various industries such as manufacturing, insurance, banking, consulting, trade, transportation, communications, and other sectors in the industry. Grima, Paillé, Mejia, and Prud'homme's (2014) research contributed to other research that internal or psychological abilities contributed to perceived outcomes than external contributors such as mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities in career advancements (Ciabucca & Gheorghe, 2014; Eberly, Holley, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2011; Oghojafor et al., 2012). In this research, there were several limitations such as the size and the location of the organizations, length of time of mentoring of protégé', and the number of male participants was greater than the number of female members. Grima, Paillé, Mejia, and Prud'homme's (2014) also concluded that role modeling was important because it improved mentors' work performances in the organization.

Mentoring and Gender

Ensher and Murphy (2011) claimed that men in high-level positions might feel reluctant to mentor women for several reasons which result in the underrepresentation of women in executive and senior-level management positions (cross-gender mentoring). According to Ensher and Murphy (2011), the same-gender mentoring are more

acceptable in the workplace because mentor and protégé may share similar experiences, whereas, sexual insinuations may inhibit cross-gender mentoring. Blake-Beard, Bayne, Crosby, and Muller (2011) supported Ensher and Murphy's (2011) claim that female protégés were supportive of having female mentors as opposed male mentors. McDonald and Westphal (2013) contributed to the literature on men in directorship positions were supportive of mentoring men within the organization but were reluctant to mentor female directors. Washington (2010) claimed that mentoring is pivotal for professional development, and women can use it to overcome obstacles. Having access to professional mentoring opportunities in companies and organizations provides employees to achieve career development and advancement (Wilson, 2014).

Role Modeling Opportunities

Role models are defined as persons who are exemplars to be imitated in certain areas of life (Haar, 2006). Role models can be important to an individual's career development. Role models provide inspiration and motivation to individuals. Role models differ from mentors in that a role model "focuses on matching specific actions and attitudes between an individual and a model," whereas mentors provide an active interest in advancing an individual's career (Gibson, 2006, p. 702). Individuals frequently look to successful and influential people as role models. The role models provide inspiration and motivation to individuals to accomplish goals or success. Brown and Treviño (2014) argued that men and women in supervisory positions could be important role models because of their high positions. Men and women serving as role models should possess competence and creditability (Brown & Treviño, 2014). Role models can

provide a positive impact on an individual's goals and self-perceptions (Hoyt & Simon, 2011). Role models serve as an advantage for individuals who are underrepresented in their profession or career (Hoyt & Simon, 2011).

Hoyt and Simon (2011) argued that women were underrepresented in high-level positions because women confronted stereotyping, discrimination, and prejudice, whereas men did not encounter these challenges. One factor that Hoyt and Simon (2011) agreed upon was that women with role models within the organization have an opportunity for career advancement. However, Hoyt, Burnette, and Innella (2012) argued that role models can have both a positive and negative impact on people. An individual may perceive that a role model's achievement and attainment can be motivating and inspiring; however, if the individual perceives that the successes and accomplishments of the role model are unattainable, having a role model can be negative (Hoyt et al., 2011). Having a role model is associated with men and women achieving success in their careers.

Hoyt and Simon (2011) examined the impact of female leaders on women's self-perceptions and leadership aspirations. The participants were undergraduate women at a small liberal arts university. Hoyt and Simon (2011) concluded that exposure to outstanding high-level female role models could have a deflating effect on self-perceptions and leadership aspirations as compared to exposure to male leaders or middle-level female leaders. This study had some limitations because the participants in the study were college students and not professionals or executive women. Research with actual senior-level and executive as participants will provide more validity because they will provide their life and career experience, knowledge, challenges and success in their

career trajectory. There is a gap in the literature regarding differences in the availability of career-promoting contributors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in corporate America.

Summary and Conclusion

This chapter presented a review of literature related to men and women in management positions. To establish the theoretical framework for the research, I discussed attribution theory. This study was to build on Weiner's attribution theory of the causes attributed to men and women's success and failures of attaining management positions (Weiner, 2010). Attribution theory explains causal decisions that individuals make as results of success and failures (Weiner, 2010; Weiner et al., 1976). In this chapter, I investigated perceived career-promoting contributors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America. One of the dimensions of attribution theory is locus control. Locus of control involves causes that are internal (ability, effort, mood) or external (task difficulty, luck, bias) to an individual (Weiner, 2010; Weiner et al., 1976). Individuals may attribute the lack of skills (internal attribution) for not receiving a lead position (Eberly, Holley, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2011) or not having a mentor, network or role model (external attribution) within the organization.

Ciabuca and Gheorghe (2014) research resulted in that both men and women attributed internal causes (effort, ability, perseverance) to their success and not external causes (task difficulty, luck, and other's support). According to Ciabuca and Gheorghe (2014), the results revealed no significant influence of gender when comparing attributes.

Oghojafor, Olayemi, Oluwatula, and Okonji (2012) research also revealed that managers in business organization attributed internal causes to their strategic business decisions and strategies and not external causes. Despite what men and women attribute their success or failure, women remain underrepresented in executive and senior management positions. Hewlett and Green (2015) postulated that women have challenges in career trajectory in male dominate leadership roles which have resulted in a 'leak in the pipeline' (Salas-Lopez et al., 2011). Michailidis, Morphitou, and Theophylatou (2012) research revealed that women felt that working in an organization where men dominate executive and senior management positions posed challenges and barriers in attaining higher-level positions. It is crucial for organizations to incorporate diversity into the workplace. Krome (2014) and Ng and Wyrick (2011) argued that by increasing diversity in leadership roles in the organizations promotes creativity, innovation, and attract the best talents. Beeson and Valerio (2012) posited that organizations should implement succession planning and development programs that will enable women to excel to executive and senior management positions. O'Neil, Hopkins, and Sullivan (2011) study revealed that organizations should include networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for employees to succeed in their careers.

Neck (2015) research showed that although some organizations had networking opportunities for employees, women faced challenges with networking because of the 'old boy' network, lack of opportunities, and challenges with balancing work and family life. Durbin (2011) noted that what may be perceived as the 'old boy' network could misinterpret due to the dominance of men in the organization. Homophily may exist

within the organizations because people tend to join or network with people with similar interests and commonalities (Bevelander & Page, 2011; Durbin, 2011; van den Brink & Benschop, 2014). Women should take every opportunity to network within the organization because networking can provide career opportunities, visibility, and power (Gibson et al., 2014). However, Bevelander and Page's (2011) research revealed that women tend to trust men more than women that are in high-level positions. Also, there is a lack of women in executive and senior management positions; therefore, finding a mentor posed challenges. McDonald and Westphal (2013) argued that women received less mentoring in organizations as compared to men. Ensher and Murphy's (2011) revealed that men in management positions were reluctant to mentor women because of sexual implications. According to Ensher and Murphy (2011), female protégé felt more comfortable with female mentors. There are few female mentors in executive and senior management positions; consequently, there are few female role models. Hoyt and Simon (2011) claimed that high-level female role models in organizations can have a dwindling effect on leadership aspirations because individuals may perceive that the role model's accomplishments and success may not be attainable.

There is very few research on how mentoring, networking, and having role models impact men in their career trajectory in corporate America. Women are underrepresented in senior-level and executive positions in corporate America. Access to networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities are barriers to women achieving executive and senior management positions and becoming members of the board of directors in corporate America (Fitzsimmons, 2012).

Women constitute more than half of the population in the United States and have made tremendous strides in education, experience, and skills; yet women are still underrepresented in executive and senior management positions in corporate America. Women also hold fewer directorship positions in corporate America (McDonald & Westphal, 2013). There is a high percentage of women in middle-management positions, but the rate plunges dramatically for senior-level and executive positions in corporate America. Women have faced many challenges and barriers in attaining leadership positions because of bias and stereotypes. Other research revealed that women lack mentoring, network opportunities, and role models to help them in their career trajectory (Washington, 2010; O'Neil et al., 2011).

In chapter 1, I provide the introduction, purpose, and background of the study of career-promoting contributors such as network opportunities, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in corporate America. Chapter 2 is the literature on the background and related research on networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities as success contributors for advancement and appointments to senior management and executive positions in corporate America.

Chapter 3 include the methodology and research design that will be used for this quantitative comparative study to determine differences of career-promoting contributors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America and the causes of such differences. Chapter 3 also include the population, sampling and sampling procedures,

procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection. Internal and external threats to validity and ethical procedures are also in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative comparative research was to examine the differences in the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America, and to explore causes of such differences. The specific business problem is that women are under-represented in senior management and executive positions in corporate America. Companies that hire and promote women to top management positions have reported an increase in firm performance and stronger corporate governance control (Catalyst, 2014d; Cook & Glass, 2015; Peni, 2014). A gap exists in prior research that addresses the differences in the availability of role models, professional networking and mentoring opportunities for career success for men and women in management roles and the causes for such differences. More than half of the U.S. population is comprised of women, yet women are underrepresented in executive and senior management positions in corporate America. According to the Catalyst (2012), men dominate executive and senior management positions in the workplace. Ninety-six percent of top executive positions are held by men in the United States (Catalyst, 2012).

In this chapter, I provide a description of the research design and rationale I used to test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 1. I identify the independent and dependent variables and explain how the research design was connected to the research questions. Next, I describe the research methodology, including how I identified the target population and determined the sample size. I then discuss procedures for recruitment,

participation, and data collection before explaining the instrumentation and operationalization of constructs. Discussions of the reliability of the instrument, data assumptions, threats to validity, and ethical procedures conclude this chapter.

Research Design and Rationale

Women are underrepresented in executive and senior management positions in corporate America. A gap exists in the literature that explains the differences in the availability of career-promoting contributors such as networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions and the causes of such differences. I used the attribution theory to gain an understanding of what men and women attribute their success to after achieving management positions in corporate America. The dependent variables for the study were the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities. The independent variable was gender.

Specifically, I used a non-experimental, comparative study design to determine the differences in the dependent variables (networking, mentoring, role-modeling opportunities) and the independent (gender) or grouping variables (education, ethnicity). I gathered data using a survey instrument with close-ended questions. The study survey instrument was designed to measure managers' perceptions of career-promoting contributors or factors, namely the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities in corporate America. All variables in this study were measured using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree). The Likert scale is widely used to measure attributes in

social science contexts (Li, 2013). According to Li (2013), the Likert scale is a good method that is reliable and requires less time and effort, and "the numerical measurement results can be directly used for statistical inference" (p. 1609). The dependent variables measured in the survey were career advancing and promoting elements: the availability of networking opportunity, mentoring opportunity, and role modeling opportunity. The independent variable in this study was gender.

Method

Population

The population for this study included men and women in management positions in corporate America. My goal was to examine the difference in the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in corporate America, and to explore the causes of such differences. Managers are leaders who are in charge of groups or departments in companies and organizations. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) estimates, 7 million men and women are in management positions in various industries in the United States. Management positions in the United States are projected to grow 6% from 2014 to 2024 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). The population for this study consisted of men and women in management positions employed in various industries in for-profit companies in the United States. Participants varied in ethnic backgrounds, educational levels, age groups, and income levels, and worked in several geographical locations in the United States.

Sample and Sampling Procedures

I used a simple random sampling of men and women in management positions for this study. Although the convenience and snowball sampling techniques could have been used for this study, I decided to use random sampling to select a sample from SurveyMonkey Audience that would be representative of the population. Random sampling is a probability sampling used to identify participants from the population who meet the criteria for the purpose of this study (Archary, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013; Emerson, 2015; Ingham-Broomfield, 2014). Random sampling offers every person of a population an equal chance to be included in a sample (Archary, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013; Ornstein, 2013). Convenience sampling is a nonprobability technique that allows for participants to be easily recruited because of their availability (Skott & Ward, 2013). Snowball sampling is a nonprobability sampling technique in which individuals are contacted and asked to name additional individuals within their network of the same population (Olsen, 2012). The convenience and snowball sampling techniques could be limited to geographical location (Olsen, 2012; Skott & Ward, 2013; Sue & Ritter, 2012) and thus may not be representative of the targeted population, and may lead to problems with statistical inference (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

The target samples were men and women who were employed in supervisor and management positions in for-profit companies in the United States. I targeted men and women functioning in the role of supervisors, first-level, mid-level, senior-level management or executive positions employed in various industries in corporate America.

The sample was drawn from men and women in the SurveyMonkey Audience who were functioning in management roles in various for-profit industries in the United States. The SurveyMonkey Audience has access to millions of people who are recruited from a diverse population to complete surveys (SurveyMonkey, 2016a). The recruited members completed a detailed profile survey providing information about themselves (SurveyMonkey, 2016b). The members' profiles contain demographic information such as location, gender, age, household income, education, employment status, industry, job function, job levels, the number of employees in the company, and other selection criteria.The SurveyMonkey rewards their members by contributing to the members' charitable organizations.

The SurveyMonkey staff prescreened members' profiles that matched my targeted criteria and targeted members based on specific attributes, variables, or criteria indicated in the survey (SurveyMonkey, 2016b). SurveyMonkey Audience members who were in supervisory and management positions in various for-profit industries in the United States were randomly selected to complete the survey. SurveyMonkey Audience staff member excluded members employed in education, government, and non-profit industries, and then prescreened members who met the criteria for the survey were sent an invitation to the online survey. The population size exceeds over 7 million men and women in management positions in corporate America; however, the sampling frame that I used for this study consisted of the SurveyMonkey Audience of men and women who were functioning in supervisory, management, and executives' roles in various for-profit industries in corporate America. I determined the sample size for this research by using

the G*Power analysis calculator. Cohen's *d* statistic is used for this calculation to represent the difference between two independent groups (Piasta & Justice, 2010). Cohen's effect sizes are described as small (*d* = 0.2), medium (*d* = 0.5), or large (*d*= 0.8); however, small effect sizes such as *d* = 0.3 to *d* = 0.4 are used in research (Piasta & Justice, 2010). For this study, the effect size was *d* = 0.4. A minimum sample size of 156 was targeted in this study with an equal number of men (78) and women (78) participants. The power analysis indicated a minimum sample size of 156 to achieve a minimum statistical power of .80 assuming a one-tailed sample *t* test, an effect size of *d* = 0.4, an alpha of .05, and an allocation ratio equal to one (see Figure 3).

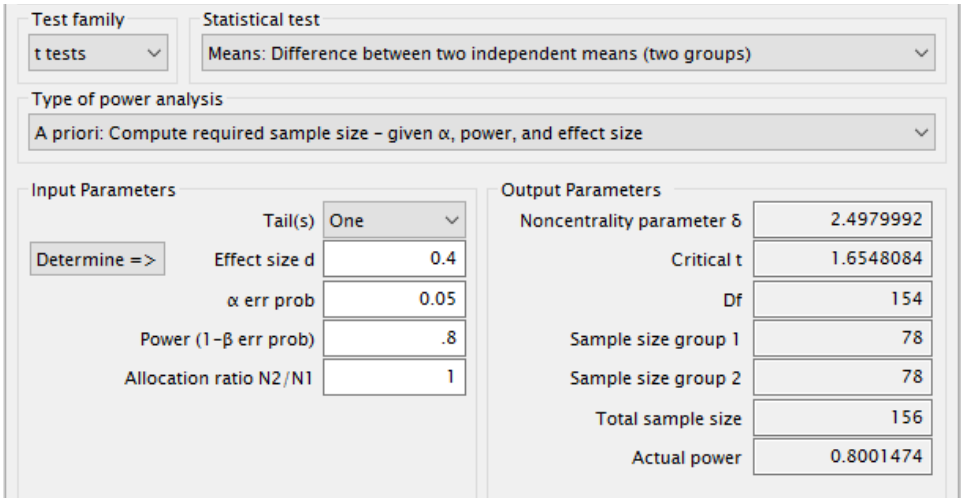

Figure 3. G*Power analysis.

The *t* test provides an estimate of whether differences exist in the mean between two groups (Clow & James, 2014; Tae, 2015). I used the *t* test in this study to examine the difference between the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between two groups (men and women) in management positions in corporate America. The independent samples *t* test compares the differences between two

groups and the means between the two groups (Sue & Ritter, 2012). Levene's test for the equality of variances is used to test for this assumption, with a significant result indicating the violation of this assumption (as cited in Tae, 2015). In cases where this assumption is violated, an alternate method of calculating the *t*-test statistic can be used such that this assumption is no longer incorporated (Warner, 2012). This particular type of *t* test, the independent samples *t* test, also assumes that the samples are independent and not connected (Suter, 2012). In in this study, I compared men and women, as opposed to repeated measures or matched-pairs data.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

I sought approval from the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) before collecting data and adhered to the policies and procedures to protect the participants' rights in the study. I obtained permission from SurveyMonkey (see Appendix B) to conduct research using the SurveyMonkey Target Audience for Academic and Research Purposes (see Appendix C). Upon IRB approval of the study, I used the modified and adapted Career Competency Indicator survey instrument (Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas & Steele, 2013) to collect data (Appendix D). Once I received approval from IRB, I contacted SurveyMonkey to initiate the survey process. A SurveyMonkey staff targeted their members' profiles from the population of men and women in management positions employed in various industries in corporate America. SurveyMonkey had a collection of prescreened members who were in supervisory and management positions in corporate America. However, SurveyMonkey Audience

members who were employed in supervisory and management positions in the areas of education, government, and not-for-profit industries were excluded from the survey. The qualifying prescreened SurveyMonkey Audience members received invitations to complete the online survey.

The SurveyMonkey Audience prescreened members were able to view the informed consent form prior to completing the survey. The consent form provided a brief explanation of the purpose of the research, procedures of the survey process, any risks and benefits of being in the study research, and privacy and confidentiality of their participating in the study. The consent form also indicated that the study was voluntary, and the survey participant can decline at any time to participate in the study. The consent form included Walden University IRB approval number and expiration date for the study, and the form will also provide explanations on how this research will impact social change within our society. The survey participants had the option to print the consent form if they desired for their records. By deciding and responding to the electronic survey, the SurveyMonkey Audience prescreened members provided their informed consent to participate in the study. Therefore, by completing the survey, the respondents agreed to participate in the study. After the respondents had completed the survey, the respondents were routed to a web debriefing form (Appendix F). The debriefing form provided the purpose of the study, final report, researcher's contact information, and references for additional information. This study did not require any follow-up procedures to participants. Also, interviews were not required for this study.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument used for this research was the Career Competencies Indicator (Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas & Steele, 2013). Sage Publications granted permission to reproduce and reuse the survey instrument for research and educational purposes (Appendix G). The Career Competencies Indicator(CCI) was appropriate for this study because of the focus in the availability of the dependent variables (networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities) between men and women in corporate America and the causes of such differences. The CCI survey instrument consisted of a list of statements based on a Likert five-point scale which contained the response categories of Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree after reading statements concerning career success factors such as the availability of mentoring, networking, role modeling opportunities(see Appendix I). Data were collected from a sample of men and women in management positions in corporate America.

The statements used in this study were modified to replicate the Career Competencies Indicator. Modifying the statements in the instrument did not present the reliability or validity of the constructs. The Career Competencies Indicator (Francis-Smythe et al., 2013) was used to evaluate individuals' skills, knowledge, abilities, mentorship, networking, and behaviors that affected their success in organizations. Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas and Steele (2013) developed the instrument to measure career competencies under three theoretical assumptions. An online questionnaire was developed and distributed to over 1,000 individuals working various industries in the United Kingdom. There were 316 men and 304 women between the ages of 26 and 45 that participated in the study over a three weeks' period. The Career Competencies

Indicator was found to be reliable and related to career success (Francis-Smythe et al., 2013). According to Drost (2011), reliability refers to repeated measurement of an instrument performed by different people on different occasions and at different times. Statements from scales with an acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .70$) were selected for the Career Competencies Indicator (Francis-Smythe et al., 2013).

Researchers sometimes use the test-retest reliability and the internal consistency techniques to test the reliability of an instrument (Drost, 2011). The test-retest technique refers to the stability of a test in which the same test is administered to the same group of participants at different times or a later date (Drost, 2011). The test-retest reliability is the correlation between the scores of the identical tests that were administered to the same participants at different times (Drost, 2011; Scholtes et al., 2011). The internal consistency technique is used to test reliability and measures consistency of the instrument (Drost, 2011). The coefficient alpha is also known as the Cronbach' alpha is the most used method of testing for internal consistency (Drost, 2011). A panel of 28 experts in the career development field reviewed the Career Consistencies Indicator instrument. The instrument design was also based on information and definitions found in existing literature. The Career Competencies Indicator used a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). A panel of experts in the field of career theory also reviewed and assessed the statements for clarity and meaningfulness (Francis-Smythe et al., 2013). The statements from the survey instruments have been modified to adapt to this study. The 5-point Likert scale was used for this study (scale 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

Operationalization of Variables

Mentoring

Mentoring refers to a relationship in which a more experienced person provides ongoing direction, guidance, and encouragement to an individual who is a protégé (Washington, 2010; Heigaard & Mathisen, 2009; Allen, 2006). Mentors are usually in high-level positions, have advanced experience and knowledge, and provide support and coaching for their commitment to providing upward mobility and support in their protégés' career. For example, mentoring may be perceived as important (1) for attaining higher level positions in corporate America, (2) for helping individuals to attain career advancement in corporate America, (3) for enhancing career progression for protégés who seek to achieve management or executive positions in corporate America, and (4) for providing mentorship to other men and women in attaining management or executive positions in corporate America. Participants completed the study's survey (Appendix I) and rated the following statements using the 5-point Likert scale:

- Professional mentoring opportunities are available to me in my organization.
- Advancing in corporate America is attributed to having a good mentor.
- Balancing work and family prohibits me from spending time with a mentor.
- Having a mentor has helped me to achieve a management position.
- I do not have a mentor to help me in my career advancement in corporate America.
- My organization does not have a mentoring program.

- Having a mentor of the same gender is helpful to me in my career advancement.

Networking

Networking refers to relationships with individuals that provide support, influence, information, and guidance to career advancement. Networking may involve associates, colleagues, friends, and other contacts (Colakoglu, 2006, 2011; Heigaard & Mathisen, 2009; Saltiel, 2006). Participants in the survey rated the following statements that related to networking using the 5-point Likert scale (Appendix I):

- Professional networking opportunities are available in my organization.
- There is a lack of the same gender in professional networks in my organization.
- I do not have the time to be part of a networking group in my organization.
- I do not belong to any professional network that would help me in my career advancement in corporate America.
- My organization does not have a networking program.
- My organization does not provide networking opportunities during working hours.
- Managers do not participate in networking programs in my organization.

Role Models

Role models are individuals who are exemplars to be imitated in certain elite positions in corporate America (Haar, 2006). Role models provide inspiration and

motivation to individuals. Role models are different from mentors in that role models focus on matching specific actions and attitudes between an individual and model, whereas mentors provide an active interest in advancing an individual's career (Hoyt & Simon, 2011; Gibson, 2006). Participants in the survey responded to the following statements using the 5-point Likert scale (Appendix I):

- Professional role modeling opportunities are available in my organization.
- I have a role model that has helped me advanced in my career.
- My organization have role models that I can emulate.
- I take advantage of the role modeling opportunities in my organization.
- I do not have the time to spend with a role model in my organization.
- There is a lack of role models in my organization that are available to me
- It is difficult to find a role model to work with in my organization.

Demographics

Demographic variables such as gender, age, marital status, job experience, and education to career-promoting contributors will be examined in this study (Appendix H). Participants were able to select the following variables: (1) gender, (2) age, (3) education, (4) ethnicity, and (5) the number years of experience on the job as a supervisor, manager or executive in the company. Becker (1994) and Young (2010) argued that individuals who invest more of themselves through education, skills, training, and experience are rewarded in the workforce.

Data Analysis Plan

Data from the survey were transferred into an Excel spreadsheet, and the completed data were downloaded to SPSS 22.0 for Windows format for statistical analysis. Participation in the survey included men and women who aspired to be in supervisory, executive or management positions in corporate America. The main statistical test used for this study was the independent-samples *t*-test to compare the variable scores between the two groups (men and women). Prior to conducting any statistical analyzes; diagnostics were conducted on the SPSS dataset to ensure that no errors were made during the process of data entry/transcription. I ran frequency tables on all categorical measures to determine that there were no typographical or other errors made in entering these data, and that there were no entries included which existed outside of the response categories included within this study's survey. Additionally, minimum and maximum scores were calculated for any measures coded numerically, which includes all of the five-point Likert scale items, to ensure that all data lie within the numerical range associated with these responses, which is 1 through 5 with regard to all 5-point Likert scale measures. With respect to all questions included in this study, all demographic measures consisted of categorical variables (measured at either the nominal or ordinal level of measurement), while all remaining items included within this survey consisted of Likert scale items. If any errors were found, the specific data point in question were corrected.

The following three research questions were used to address the purpose of the study. I examined the differences, if any, in the availability of professional networking, professional mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America.

Research Question 1: Is there a difference in the availability of professional networking opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$1: Networking opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a1: Networking opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

Research Question 2: Is there a difference in the availability of professional mentoring opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

H_0**2:** Mentoring opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a**2:** Mentoring opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

Research Question 3**:** Is there a difference in the availability of professional role modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in corporate America?

$H_0$3: Role modeling opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a3: Role modeling opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

Following the completion of these diagnostics, I conducted descriptive statistics on these data with the descriptive statistics reported in the following chapter. First, with regard to the demographic measures included in this study, the entire set of items will consist of categorical measures. I constructed frequency tables to report the sample sizes and percentages of response associated with all response categories relating to those measures. If missing data were present, total percentages and sample sizes were reported to the entire valid sample, as well as the entire sample including all missing data. Similarly, percentages associated with each response category were calculated separately omitting all missing data, as well as incorporating the entire sample of responses that would include all missing data. This initial set of descriptive statistics will serve to present an initial picture of the respondents included in this study by describing the sample based on their demographic and related measures.

I used the Cronbach's alpha to determine the level of internal consistency reliability associated with the scale items included in this study. Next, a series of independent-samples *t*-tests were conducted to answer the research questions. The independent-samples *t*-test was appropriate to determine whether a significant difference existed between two groups about some continuous outcome measure. The individual

Likert-scale items were analyzed as a scale. The items constituting each scale will be averaged using the mean to determine an overall measure for the scale, with the independent-samples *t*-tests then being conducted on these newly-created scale measures.

If an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability is not found to any of these scales, conglomerating the constituent items and analyzing these measures as a single scale would then be inappropriate. In this case, the individual Likert scale items will then be analyzed separately using Mann-Whitney *U* tests. The Mann-Whitney *U* test is a non-parametric alternative to the independent-samples *t*-test (Chen & Thompson, 2016). The Mann-Whitney *U* test is also used when the data are not sufficiently normal for the purposes of an independent-samples *t*-test or if the dependent variable is ordinal as opposed to interval or ratio (Bin & Heng, 2014). Other than these differences, the Mann-Whitney *U* test essentially determines the same thing as the independent-samples *t*-test. Although the independent-samples *t*-test seeks to determine whether the mean of some dependent measure significantly differs between two categories, the Mann-Whitney *U* test instead seeks to determine whether the median of some measure significantly differs between two groups.

Threats to Validity

Threats to External Validity

External validity denotes the conditions under which a study results in generalization to a population outside the realms of the participants in the study (Drew, Hardman, & Hosp, 2008; Suter, 2012). Howell (2013) and Suter (2012) argued that

external validity is determined by how the findings in a sample can be generalized to the population. A random sample from the population minimizes threats to external validity (Alferes, 2012; Fink, 2013). Participants for the study will be from various backgrounds, industries, age groups, ethnicity, educational levels, gender, and from different locations in the United States that will affirm that the sample will be representative of the population. Threats to external validity could include population-sample differences. Men dominate the top senior-level management and executive position in corporate America, resulting in few female in top senior-level management and executive positions. Using the G*Power statistical power analysis, a large sample size of 156 (78 men/ 78 women) was determined for this study. Large sample size increases external validity (Suter, 2012). Within this study, the difference in the availability of career-promoting contributors (networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities) between the two groups (men and women) were examined.

Threats to Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to the extent in which extraneous influences other than the variables in the study have been controlled (Drew et al., 2008). Internal validity is also referred to the extent in which control is established under certain conditions and procedures of the study (Suter, 2012). Instrumentation may also be a threat to internal validity of this study. Instrumentation threat to internal validity occurs when there is a change in the measuring instrument during the collection of data (Suter, 2012). The Career Competencies Indicator survey instrument (Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas, and Steele, 2012) that will be used for this study has demonstrated levels of validity and

realibility by various researchers has alleviate the internal validity threat in this study. Threats to internal validity in this study may be that (a) participants could be biased in completing the survey; (b) participants in top senior-level, middle-management and executive positions may decide not to complete the survey, and (c) attrition or low response rate from an online survey. The possibility of a threat to internal validity has been minimized by a random sampling using SurveyMonkey Audience to invite members from the population. Also, the threat to attrition has also been minimized by using a short survey, and the participants will be able to respond to the survey on their own time.

Construct Validity

Construct validity determines whether the operations used in the research aligns with the theoretical models (Auspurg & Hinz, 2015; Heale & Twycross, 2015). Researchers must be able to provide evidence of construct validity that will justify that the measure that will be used for the study represents the underlying psychological construct that is being examined (Purpura, Brown, & Schoonen, 2015).). Heale and Twycross (2015) identified homgeneity, convergence, and theory evidence as the three ways in which a research instrument has construct validity. Homogeneity measures one construct, convergence measures instrument that is similar to other instruments, and theory evidence occurs when behaviors are similar to the theoretical concept of the "construct measured in the instrument" (Heale & Twycross, 2015, p. 66). The construct validity in this study will be centered on the Career Consistencies Indicator (CCI) instrument. Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas, and Steele (2012) provided evidence for the construct validity of the Career Competencies Indicator instrument by subjecting the two

groups (men and women) to the same factor analysis. The threat to construct validity in this study is alleviated by using CCI (Francis-Smythe et al., 2012) survey instrument which exemplified evidence of validities which were discussed in the instrumentation section of this study.

Ethical Procedures

This study adhered to the guidelines for ethical consideration. The American Psychological Association (APA) and Walden University have provided numerous guidelines for researchers to design and conduct studies in consideration of all ethical and legal consequences. The Institution's Review Board's (IRB) procedures were followed to ensure the protection of confidentiality and privacy. Permission from the IRB to conduct the research (Appendix I) and Sage Publications to use survey instrument (Appendix J) were obtained and available. Participants were notified of the purpose, procedures, and the benefits of the study. Also, the participants were notified that the survey is completely confidential and precautions have been taken to ensure confidentiality. The survey should take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete. The participants were informed that this research was approved by Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). By responding to the on-line survey, the participants provided their consent to participate in this study. Upon approval from IRB, I established a survey account with SurveyMonkey. SurveyMonkey Audience was employed to recruit participants. The online survey was accessible to all individuals of the SurveyMonkey Audience members participating in the survey.

Summary

A quantitative comparative design was selected for this study to examine the differences in the availability of professional networking, professional mentoring, and professional role modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America. The research questions and hypotheses are presented in this chapter. I have provided a description of the population, sample, sampling procedure, and recruitment of participants in this chapter. Data collection procedures and the instrumentation were also explained in this chapter. Participants responded to an online survey focusing on the variables in this study. Measures were taken to ensure the ethical protection of all participants anonymity have been discussed. Data analysis were conducted using SPSS 22.0. In Chapter 4, I will present the results of this study and the answers to this study's research questions. The description of the data collection involving time frame for data collection, descriptive and demographic characteristics of the sample, descriptions of the representation of the sample is of the population, descriptive statistics, statistical analysis findings will be discussed in Chapter 4. Also, I will present a description of the statistical tests, variables, and the purpose of the test and how they relate to the hypotheses. In Chapter 4, I will conclude with a summarization of the answers to the research questions.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative survey-based study was to examine the differences in the availability of professional networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America. The dependent variables for this study were the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities. The independent variable for this study was gender. I used SurveyMonkey Audience to recruit participants for the study. SurveyMonkey Audience recruits millions of participants from diverse population to participate in surveys. Men and women from various industries in corporate America were randomly selected from the SurveyMonkey Audience to participate in the study. I used the Career Competencies Indicator (Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas & Steele, 2013) as the survey instrument.

The fundamental research questions and hypotheses of this study are as follows:

Research Question 1: Is there a difference in the availability of professional networking opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$1: Networking opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a1: Networking opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

Research Question 2: Is there a difference in the availability of professional mentoring opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$2**:** Mentoring opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a2: Mentoring opportunities are more available for men than women in management

positions in corporate America.

Research Question 3: Is there a difference in the availability of professional role modeling for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$3**:** Role modeling opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a3: Role modeling opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

In this chapter, I present the results of the data collection process and the procedures I used to analyze the data. Chapter 4 also includes the psychometrics, results of the survey, descriptive statistics, analysis of the results, and additional findings. I conclude with a summary of the answers to the three research questions.

Data Collection and Process

I received IRB approval to conduct the research on September 8, 2016 (IRB approval # 09-08-16-0151490). Recruitment and data collection followed, as outlined in

Chapter 3. The target samples were men and women of the SurveyMonkey Audience who worked in various for-profit industries in the United States. SurveyMonkey recruits millions of people from diverse populations to complete surveys. SurveyMonkey Audience staff screened members to identify members from for-profit companies in the United States. Participants employed in education, government, or not-for-profit companies were excluded from the survey. The prescreened members consisted of men and women from a representative sample of the nationwide population from various for-profit industries and various locations. The prescreened SurveyMonkey Audience members received invitations by email to complete the online survey. The Web survey consisted of 21 statements relating to networking, mentoring, and role-modeling opportunities. I launched the survey on October 6, 2016, and received a total of 292 responses from participants.

This study was gender-focused to examine the difference in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities for men and women in management positions in corporate America. I downloaded the data collected from SurveyMonkey Audience into an Excel spreadsheet, sorted the incomplete data from the completed data, and then created a separate Excel spreadsheet for the complete data. Participants who failed to disclose gender were rejected from the study. I then downloaded the completed data from the respondents into SPSS for data analysis.

Demographic Characteristics of Sample

Data were collected from a diverse population of men and women in different position levels in for-profit industries in the United States. Of the 292 respondents, 175

completed the study, and they were from different regions of the United States. The sample was representative of the population because respondents represented different position levels within various for-profit industries in the United States. Also, women, who comprise 50.8% of the U.S. population, had a comparable representation in the sample (51%). The descriptive statistics of the demographic variables for participants (*N* = 175) are presented in Table 2. Of the 175 respondents, there were 85 men (49%) and 90 women (51%). A great majority of the respondents identified themselves as White men s (36.6%) and White women (36.6%). African-American women comprised 8.6% of the sample, and African-American men s made up 5.1% of the sample. Other ethnicities were 6.9% men s and 6.3% women. Most respondents had either high school diplomas (23.0%), associate degrees (15.4%), bachelor's degrees (42.3%), master's degrees (12.0%), or doctorate degrees (2.2%). Nine (5.1%) respondents left the educational level question unanswered (no school).

Table 2

*Demographic Characteristics of Participants (*N *=175)*

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Men	85	49
Women	90	51
Total	175	100%
Ethnicity		
African-American	24	13.7
White/Caucasian	128	73.2
Others	23	13.1
Total	175	100%
Educational level		
No School	9	5.1
High School	40	23.0
Associates	27	15.4
Bachelor	74	42.3
Masters	21	12.0
Doctorate	4	2.2
Total	175	100%

Note. *N* = 175. Nine participants (5.1%) left the educational level unanswered.

Measurements

The collected data included comparable participation from male and female respondents, and the distribution frequency curve did not demonstrate any visible skew in data (see Figure 4). The Mann-Whitney *U* test, which is a non-parametric test, was not necessary because I deemed the collected data fit for parametric analysis such as the independent samples *t* test to compare the variable scores between the two groups (men and women). Therefore, the independent samples *t* test was appropriate to determine the differences in the mean between the two groups (men and women).

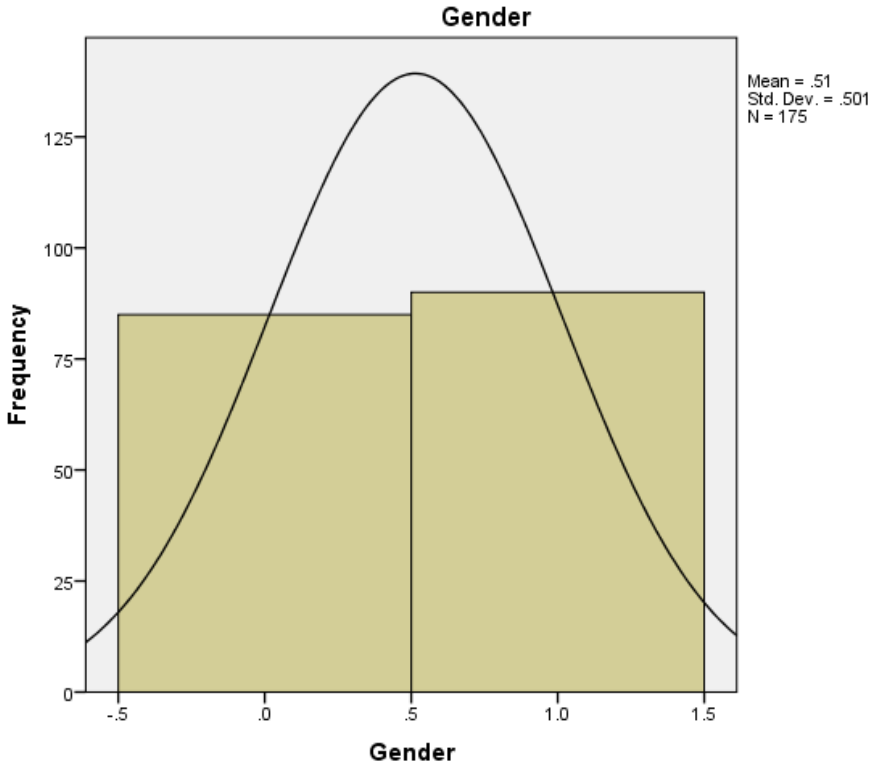

Figure 4. Normal distribution frequency curve between genders.

Reliability Analysis

The Cronbach's alpha is most frequently used by researchers to test internal consistency and reliability of survey instruments (Davenport, Davison, Pey-Yan, & Love, 2015). I measured the internal consistency and reliability of the scale items in this study by calculating Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha shows the internal consistency associated with the scores that can be derived from an instrument. The reliability confirms the validity of an instrument. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 or above is considered acceptable in social sciences (Davenport et al., 2015). The psychometric characteristics of the three aggregated scale scores are presented in Table 3. The Cronbach's alpha values of all three scales were calculated greater than 0.7, and were deemed acceptable for internal consistency and reliability. These results were comparable to the validity of the CCI instrument where the Cronbach's alpha for mentoring and networking subscales were reported as 0.89, and for the role-modeling subscale was reported at 0.86. The difference between the values of the Cronbach's alpha between this study and the original CCI instrument can be assumed stem from variation in grouping of the items of the scale. The reliability index Cronbach's alpha for networking was 0.87, mentoring was 0.73, and role-modeling was 0.75. As shown in Table 3, all three scales, networking ($M = 2.00$, $\alpha = 0.87$), mentoring ($M = 1.96$, $\alpha = 0.73$), and role-modeling ($M = 1.99$, $\alpha = 0.75$) were deemed acceptable for internal reliability.

Table 3

Psychometric Characteristics for the Aggregated Scale Scores

Scale	Number of Items	M	SD	Low	High	α
Networking	7	2.00	1.22	0.57	3.00	0.87
Mentoring	7	1.96	1.23	0.14	3.57	0.73
Role-Modeling	7	1.99	1.21	0.57	3.86	0.75

Note. N = 175. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1= *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree.*

Correlation Matrix of the Variables

A Pearson's correlation is used to evaluate the statistical relationship between variables. I conducted a Pearson's correlation test in this study to investigate if there was any correlation among gender, education, ethnicity, and the dependent variables. To run the Pearson's correlation analysis, I coded the *gender* and *education* variables as numeric codes. For *gender*, men were assigned a value of 0, and women were assigned a 1. For *education,* no school, high school, associates, bachelor, masters, and doctorate were assigned values 1 through 6 respectively. Results from the Pearson's correlational matrix is presented in Table 4. There was a negative correlation between gender and mentoring (r = -.176, n = 175, p <.05), and a negative correlation between gender and role modeling (r = -.189, n = 175, p <.05). Role modeling and networking were significantly correlated (r = .369, n = 175, p < .05), and role modeling and mentoring were significantly correlated (r = .723, n = 175, p < .01). There was no significant correlation found between gender and networking, which supported retaining the null hypothesis ($H_0$1).

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Among Gender, Education, Ethnicity, and Dependent Variables

	M	*SD*	Netw	Mento	RoleM	Gender	Educ	Ethn
Networking	2.00	0.44	1	.715*				
Mentoring	1.96	0.73		1				
Role Modeling	1.99	0.63	.369*	.723**	1			
Gender	0.51	0.50	-.031	-.176*	-.189*	1		
Education	3.35	1.30	-.116	-.058	-.087	-.092	1	
Ethnicity	1.98	0.15	.045	.111	.115	.016	-.046	1

N = 175.

Note. * indicates significant at p<.05; **p<.01; for gender, men is coded as 0; women as 1.

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables

The descriptive statistics for the seven available networking opportunities are presented in Table 5. Networking was defined as the relationship with individuals to provide support, influence, information, and guidance for career advancement. The items were based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*. The highest mean was Item 4, "*I do not belong to any professional network that would help me in my career"* (*M* = 2.35), and the lowest mean was Item 2, "*There is a lack of the same gender in professional networks in my organization"* (*M* = 1.52).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Networking Opportunities

Survey Items	*M*	*SD*
1. Professional networking opportunities are available in my organization.	2.18	1.28
2. There is a lack of the same gender in professional networks in my organization.	1.52	1.19
3. I do not have the time to be part of a networking group in my organization.	1.96	1.09
4. I do not belong to any professional network that would help me in my career advancement in corporate America.	2.35	1.20
5. My organization does not have a networking program.	1.66	1.43
6. My organization does not provide networking opportunities during working hours.	2.27	1.26
7. Managers do not participate in networking programs in my organization.	2.05	1.12

Note. $N = 175$. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1= *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree.*

The descriptive statistics for the seven available mentoring opportunities are presented in Table 6. Mentoring was described as individuals usually in top positions and are experienced and knowledgeable who provide support and coaching to the individual in their career advancement. The items were based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*. The highest mean was Item 2, "*Advancing in corporate America is attributed to having a good mentor*" ($M = 2.57$), and the lowest mean was Item 4, "*Having a mentor has helped me to achieve to a management position*" ($M = 1.55$).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Mentoring Opportunities

Survey Items	*M*	*SD*
1. Professional mentoring opportunities are available to me in my organization	1.90	1.33
2. Advancing in corporate America is attributed to having a good mentor	2.57	1.05
3. Balancing work and family prohibits me from spending time with a mentor	2.01	1.27
4. Having a mentor has helped me to achieve a management position	1.55	1.08
5. I do not have a mentor to help me in my career advancement in corporate America	1.66	1.43
6. My organization encourages employees to be mentors.	2.06	1.37
7. Having a mentor of the same gender is helpful to me in my career advancement	1.93	1.11

Note. $N = 175$. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1= *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*

The descriptive statistics for the seven-available role-modeling opportunities are presented in Table 7. Role-modeling opportunities was explained as having role models who are exemplary of imitation in certain elite positions. Role models are different from mentors in that role models focuses on matching specific actions and attitudes between individual whereas mentors provide active interest in advancing the individual's career. The items were based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree.* The highest mean was Item 2, "*My organization have role models that I can emulate*" ($M = 2.13$), and the lowest mean was Item 7, "*It is difficult to find a role model to work within my organization*" ($M = 1.78$).

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Role-modeling Opportunities

Survey Items	*M*	*SD*
1. Professional role modeling opportunities are available in my organization	2.00	1.21
2. My organization have role models that I can emulate	2.13	1.22
3. I take advantage of the role modeling opportunities in my organization	1.99	1.12
4. I do not have the time to spend with a role model in my organization	1.97	1.09
5. I have a role model that has helped me advanced in my career	1.99	1.35
6. There is a lack of female role models in my organization that are available to me	2.09	1.20
7. It is difficult to find a role model to work within my organization	1.78	1.33

Note: N = 175. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1= *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*

Results

The results of the hypotheses testing to answer the three research questions are presented below.

Research Question 1

Is there a difference in the availability of professional networking opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$1: Networking opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a1: Networking opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

I used a Pearson's correlation test to examine if there was any correlation in networking between men and women, and the analysis revealed there was no significant correlation found between gender and networking. I used an independent samples *t* test to examine the difference in the availability of professional networking opportunities between men and women in management positions. The independent samples *t*-test revealed a statistically significant difference in the networking scores for females (M = 2.10, SD = 0.56) and males (M = 2.04, SD = 0.68), as shown in Table 8. The *t* test revealed that females scored higher than males in the availability of networking opportunities in management positions in corporate America. I conducted a Levene's test for equality of variances to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance. The Levene's test for equality of variances yielded a significance of p = 0.16 which is > .05 which indicated the assumption that the variances were equal. The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was found to be not statistically significant with t (173) = -0.71, p = 0.48), as shown in Table 8. The null hypothesis ($H_0$1) was retained.

Table 8

Independent Samples t-test for the Difference in Networking Variable Between Gender

	Males		Females			
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*(173)	*p*
Networking	2.04	0.68	2.10	0.56	-0.71	0.48

Note. n = 175 (Males = 85/Females = 90).

Research Question 2

Is there a difference in the availability of professional mentoring opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$2: Mentoring opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a2: Mentoring opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

A Pearson's correlation analysis revealed gender to be negatively correlated with mentoring (r = -.176, p <.05). I used an independent sample *t* test to examine the difference in the availability of professional mentoring opportunities between men and women in management positions. Again, I used a Levene's test for equality of variances to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance. The independent samples *t* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the mentoring scores for males (M = 2.09, SD = 0.71) and females (M = 1.83, SD = 0.72), as shown in Table 9. The *t* test revealed that men scored higher than women in the availability of professional mentoring opportunities in management positions in corporate America. The Levene's test for equality of variances revealed a significance of p = 0.91 which is greater than 0.05 which also indicated the assumption that the variances were equal. The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test revealed a statistically significant difference with t (173) = 2.36, p = 0.02, as shown in Table 9. This result revealed that the null hypothesis indicated that the difference between the two mean scores were statistically significant, and there was a

significant negative correlation between the two variables; therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0$2) was rejected.

Table 9

Independent Samples t-test for the Differences in Mentoring Variable between Gender

	Males		Females			
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*(173)	*p*
Mentoring	2.09	0.71	1.83	0.72	2.36	0.02

Note. n = 175 (Males = 85/Females = 90).

Research Question 3

Is there a difference in the availability of professional role-modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America?

$H_0$3: Role-modeling opportunities are equally or less available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

H_a3: Role-modeling opportunities are more available for men than women in management positions in corporate America.

A Pearson's correlation analysis revealed gender to be negatively correlated with role modeling (r = -.189, p <.05). I performed an independent samples t test to examine the difference in the availability of professional role-modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America. Again, I used the Levene's test for equality of variances to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance. The

independent *t* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the role-modeling scores for males (M = 2.11, SD = 0.64) and females (M = 1.88, SD = 0.60), as shown in Table 10. Males scored significantly higher than females in having available role-modeling opportunities for career success in management positions. The Levene's test for equality of variance indicated a significant value of p = 0.85 which is greater than 0.05; thus, indicated the assumption that the variances were equal. The two-tailed independent samples *t* test revealed a statistically significant difference with $t(173) = 2.53$, p = 0.01, as shown in Table 10. This result revealed that the null hypothesis indicated that the difference between the two mean scores were statistically significant, and there was a significant negative correlation between gender and role modeling; therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0 3$) was rejected.

Table 10

Independent Samples t-test for the Difference in Role-Modeling Variable between Gender

	Males		Females			
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*(173)	*p*
Role-Modeling	2.11	0.64	1.88	0.60	2.53	0.01

Note. n = 175 (Males = 85/Females = 90).

I conducted an independent samples *t* test to compare the difference between the mean scores between gender through the Competencies Indicator Instrument (CCI). The independent sample *t* test revealed there was a statistically significant difference between male and female scores. The Competencies Indicator Instrument mean score for males

were (*M* = 2.07, *SD* = 0.47) and females were (*M* = 1.90, *SD* = 0.42), as shown in Table 11. The *t* test revealed that males scored higher than females on the CCI survey instrument. The Levene's test for equality of variances to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance was found not to be violated which was $p = 0.44$. An independent samples *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference with $t(173) = 2.58$, $p = 0.01$, as shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Independent samples t-test for differences in Career Competencies Indicator between Gender

	Males		Females			
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*(173)	*p*
Career Competencies Indicator (CCI)	2.07	0.47	1.90	0.42	2.58	0.01

Note. *n* = 175 (Males = 85/Females = 90).

Additional Findings

The demographical data descriptive statistics were used to observe if there were differences between male and female mean scores in the Career Competencies Indicator by educational levels. The mean scores of no education for male respondents was (*M*=2.06) and females (*M* = 1.86); mean scores for high school education for males was (*M* = 2.38) and females (*M* = 1.86); means scores for associate degree for males was (*M* = 2.40) and females was (*M* = 1.94); mean scores for bachelor degrees for males was (*M* = 1.86) and females was (*M* = 1.93); mean scores for masters degrees for males was (*M* = 1.87) and females was (*M* = 1.84); mean scores for doctorate degrees for males was (*M* = 2.54) and females was (*M* = 1.81), as shown in Table 12. The significance of these

observations will be discussed in Chapter 5. Figure 5 showed a fluctuation in mean scores for males by the level of educational achievement, and the female respondents did not reflect any major impact of educational achievement on Career Competencies Indicator. As shown in Table 13, breaking the responses into education sub categories resulted in low frequency measurement; therefore, conducting a meaningful *t* test to examine for significant difference in the mean scores is not feasible. However, this approach can be attempted to test for significance in the difference between male and female mean scores if the data were collected from a larger sample.

Table 12

Female and male mean scores by educational achievement

Education	Male Mean Score (n =85)	Females Mean Score (n = 90)
No School	2.06 (3)	1.86 (6)
High School	2.38 (19)	1.86 (21)
Associates	2.40 (10)	1.94 (17)
Bachelor	1.86 (41)	1.93 (33)
Masters	1.87 (9)	1.84 (12)
Doctorate	2.54 (3)	1.81 (1)

Note. *n* = 175 (Males = 85/Females = 90. Nine participants (3 males/6 females) left the educational level unanswered.

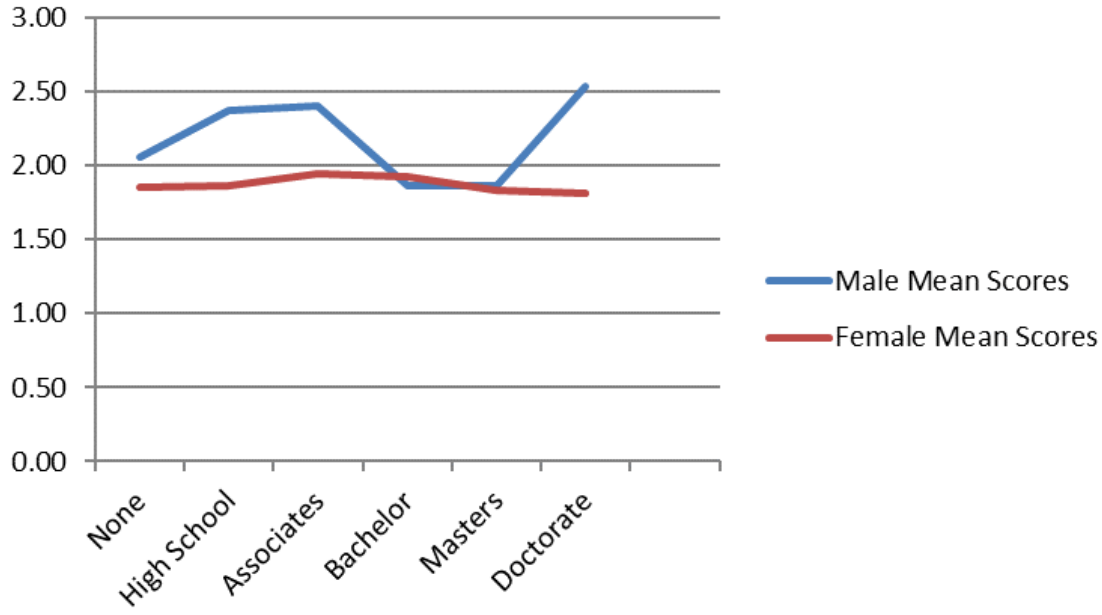

Figure 5. Descriptive statistics on educational levels between gender.

Summary

In chapter 4, I have included an examination and summarization of the results of the statistical analyses from the data collected by SurveyMonkey Audience of the web survey. The quantitative survey study examined the difference in the availability of professional networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions. Respondents from various for-profit organizations located in the United States completed the online survey administered by SurveyMonkey Audience. The data collection included a total of 292 responses from participants; however, only 175 respondents completed the entire survey (85 men, 90 women). The response rate (completion rate) was 60%.

I conducted a Pearson's correlation test to examine the relationship among the variables. I used an independent samples *t* test to test the hypotheses and answer the three research questions using the SPSS software. The independent samples *t* test revealed a statistically significant difference in networking scores for females ($M = 2.10$, $SD = 0.56$) as compared to males ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 0.68$). The two-tailed independent *t*-test was found not to be statistically significant with $t(173) = -0.71$, $p = 0.48$. The null hypothesis ($H_0 1$) was retained. For research question two, an independent samples *t* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the mentoring scores for males ($M = 2.09$, $SD = 0.71$), and females ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 0.72$). The *t* test indicated that males scored higher than females in the mentoring scores than females with $t\ (173) = 2.36$, $p = 0.02$. There was a statistically significant difference between the two mean mentoring scores; therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0 2$) was rejected. Research question 3, the independent samples *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference in the role-modeling scores for males ($M = 2.11$, $SD = 0.64$) and females ($M = 1.88$, $SD = 0.60$). The two-tailed independent samples *t* test revealed a significant difference with $t\ (173) = 2.53$, $p = 0.01$. Males scored significantly higher than females in role-modeling scores; therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0 3$) was rejected. An independent samples *t* test compared the difference in the mean scores between gender on the CCI instrument. Again, males scored higher ($M = 2.07$, $SD = 0.47$) than their female counterpart ($M = 1.90$, $SD = 0.42$). A two-tailed independent *t* test revealed a statistically significant difference with $t\ (173) = 2.58$, $p = 0.01$). This quantitative survey-based study revealed that males scored higher

in mentoring and role-modeling opportunities to career success in corporate America than females; however, females scored significantly higher in networking scores than males.

The findings of this study require further interpretation and discussion which are presented in Chapter 5. In Chapter 5, I will provide the limitations of the study, recommendations for further research, potential impact for social change (methodology, theory, research design), and conclusion of the study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusion, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative survey-based study was to examine the differences in the availability of professional networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions. I tested three hypotheses to compare the differences in the availability of opportunities for the three variables between men and women in corporate America. Based on the data analysis presented in this chapter, the first null hypothesis ($H_0$1) was retained; however, the second null hypothesis ($H_0$2) and third null hypothesis ($H_0$3) were rejected.

The results of this study are beneficial to companies and organizations. Companies and organizations might use these findings to develop and implement networking, mentoring, and role modeling programs in which women can gain access to achieve career development and advancement. Also, the findings from this study contribute to the literature regarding diversity initiatives in senior management and executive positions in corporate America. In this chapter, I interpret the research findings that I presented in Chapter 4. I also discuss the limitations of this study and provide recommendations for future research. Finally, this chapter concludes with a discussion of positive social change implications and recommendations for corporations and organizations to implement programs for women who aspire to become senior managers and executives.

Interpretation of the Findings

Findings Compared to the Literature

Women represent more than half of the population in the United States; however, women are under-represented in senior management and executive positions in corporate America. In 2015, women held only 23 top executive positions of S&P 500 companies (Catalyst, 2015). The general business problem is a lack of mentoring and role-modeling opportunities in organization needed for women to advance to senior management and executive positions. Researchers have claimed that financial performance, diversity, creativity, and innovation increase with women in management positions (Cook & Glass, 2015; Peni, 2014; Krome, 2014; Ng, & Wyrick, 2011). Researchers have claimed the women lack networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities that prevent them from being elevated to senior management and executive positions in corporate America (Catalyst, 2014c, Michailidis et al., 2012). Having access to networking opportunities within organizations is essential for career succession and increased visibility (Chichester, 2014; Gibson, Hardy, & Buckley, 2014).

I designed Research Question 1 to determine if there was a difference in the availability of professional networking opportunities between men and women in corporate America. I conducted an independent samples *t* test to examine the difference between the calculated mean score of the dependent variable (availability of networking opportunities) and gender. I retained the null hypothesis ($H_0$1) because the difference between the two mean scores was not statistically significant. The results of this study indicated that women reported to having equal available networking opportunities as men

within their organizations. The reason the null hypothesis ($H_0$1) was retained may be explained by the theory that women network differently from men. Some researchers have claimed that women have networking opportunities available to them because women tend to network with people who have similar interests or value systems (Bevelander & Page, 2011; Durbin, 2011l; van den Brink & Benschop, 2014). Also, gender homophily may explain the failure of the hypothesis. Men dominate management and executive positions in corporate America; therefore, women may network more with women. A fundamental goal of future research should be to examine other factors that could prevent women from advancing to senior management and executive positions.

Mentoring is an important factor for career advancement and development. Mentors are individuals who are in high-level positions in the organization or company, and who are very knowledgeable and experienced. Mentors provide direction, leadership, and motivation to mentees. Mentees can receive many benefits from mentors such as promotions, self-efficacy, and career satisfaction (Washington, 2010). I designed Research Question 2 to determine whether there was a difference in the availability of professional mentoring opportunities between men and women in management positions. I used an independent samples *t* test to examine the difference between the calculated mean score of the dependent variable (availability of mentoring opportunities) and gender. The null hypothesis ($H_0$2) was rejected. The findings from this study confirmed prior research findings that women continue to lack mentoring opportunities (McDonald & Westphal, 2013). Women's lack of available mentoring opportunities for women may contribute to men's dominance in corporate America. The Career Competencies Indicator

instrument I used in this study indicated that women lacked the availability of mentoring opportunities within their organizations.

Having a role model is essential for an individual's career advancement (Hoyt & Simon, 2011). Role models are different from mentors in that they are attentive to the individuals' specific actions and attitudes, whereas mentors provide direction and guidance to individuals in their career advancement. Having men and women in senior management and executive positions as role models is important to individuals who aspire to excel in senior management positions (Brown & Treviño, 2014). I developed Research Question 3 to determine if there was a difference in the availability of professional role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America. The null hypothesis ($H_0$3) was rejected. The results from testing the hypothesis indicated that women continue to lack role modeling opportunities in management positions because men dominate top leadership positions. These findings were consistent with prior research that showed that women continue to lag behind men in top leadership positions because of the lack of the available role-modeling opportunities in the workplace.

Findings Compared to the Theoretical Framework

I used the Career Competencies Indicator (CCI) survey instrument to evaluate what men and women perceived as contributing factors to career success, based on the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities. Women attributed their successes and failures in management roles to external causes. Attribution

theory provides a framework for understanding the causes assign to events or situations (Weiner, 2010; Weiner et al., 1976). Two hypotheses in this study were consistent with findings in prior research that women attribute the lack of mentoring and role modeling opportunities (external causes) to their limited career advancement within their organization. External attribution occurred when people perceived that the cause was attributed to the environment or other individuals (Harvey et al., 2014; Weiner, 2010b). The findings in this study indicated that women have equal opportunities for networking, but men have greater mentoring and role modeling opportunities.

Women represent more than half of the population in the United States; however, women hold few senior management and executive positions in corporate America (Catalyst, 2015; Dworkin, Maurer, and Shipani, 2012). Parcheta, Kaifi, and Khanfar (2013) argued that although women have advanced in education, training, and skills, women do not share equality with men in senior management and executive positions. Researchers have claimed companies that hire and promote women to top management positions have reported increases in financial performance and stronger corporate governance control (Catalyst, 2014d; Cook & Glass, 2015; Peni, 2014). The findings of this study confirmed Rosette and Washington's (2012) findings that women lack mentoring and role-modeling opportunities in a male-dominated corporate America (Catalyst, 2012), but my findings indicated that women have networking opportunities equal to the men within their organization. Corporations and organizations should find ways to increase mentoring and role-modeling opportunities for women to help them advance to senior management and executive positions.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations to this quantitative study were described in Chapter 1. The sample size was a limitation of the study due to the availability of the target sample from a population. Data were collected from SurveyMonkey Audience members for this study; therefore, participation was limited to enrolled members of the SurveyMonkey Audience. This study involved purchasing responses from SurveyMonkey Audience, which could be a limitation for other researchers. Funding and timing were limitations in the study. Additional funding and timing would provide a larger sample to survey. The survey was limited to participants located in the United States, but it was not confined to specific industries or geographical location. Participants responses thus may have varied based on geographical location and the types of industries. Finally, participants' responses may have varied based on age and experience.

Recommendations

The findings of this study may benefit companies and organizations seeking to develop appropriate mentoring, networking, and role modeling programs to improve career advancement and increase the hiring and promotion of the best individuals for the position regardless of gender. Participants in this study worked in various industries including automotive, manufacturing, insurance, healthcare, transportation, and information technology. Prior researchers have claimed that women are underrepresented in leadership positions in certain industries because of the challenges they face in male-dominated leadership roles (Hewlett & Green, 2015; O'Neil et al., 2011; Washington, 2010). Thus, I recommend that future researchers should examine the difference across

organizations and industries to determine the difference in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in the workplace.

The study was confined to the United States, and the survey participants were from various regions within the United States. Twenty-two percent of the survey participants were from the South Atlantic regions, and 15% of the survey participants were from the Middle Atlantic and East North Central regions in the United States. Future researchers could explore the difference in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions and the causes of those differences in different regions in the United States, and around the globe.

I also recommend that future research is conducted to examine the differences in the availability of mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities between ethnic groups. There is little research comparing ethnic groups in their career aspirations, successes, and challenges. O'Neill, Shapiro, Ingols, and Blake-Beard (2013) claimed that research on women's careers was generalized, but did not include ethnicity and race. Future researchers should examine the differences, if any, in the availability of professional networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for career success between women and different ethnic groups and the same for men in various ethnic groups. Differences and causal perceptions may vary by ethnicity, age groups, and cultures (Oghojafor et al., 2012).

Implications

Implication for Social Change

The results of this study presented several implications for social change. This study raises awareness of the lack of mentoring and role-modeling opportunities for women who want to advance in corporate America. The findings of this study confirm with prior research that women attribute the lack of mentoring and role-modeling opportunities as reasons that prevent them from advancing in management positions. The implications included permitting men and women to seek out mentoring, networking, and role modeling opportunities within their organization and companies. This research also provided implications for companies and organizations to make decisions on gender diversity in senior management and executive positions. The finding of this study could also encourage companies and organizations to create programs for men and women who aspire to become senior management or executives in businesses. Also, this study could provide organizations and companies a platform to design programs in which women will have opportunities and the flexibility to have mentors in senior management and executive positions. As corporations and organizations take an active role in promoting women's career advancement by making sure women have the same equal access to mentoring and role modeling opportunities, training, and career development will result in positive social change. The findings of this study contribute to social impact by providing practical acumens for companies to encourage men in senior management and executive positions to become role-models and mentors to women who aspire to advance within their organization and close the gender gap in corporate America.

Theoretical Implications

There were few theoretical implications developed from the results of this study. The attribution theory which refers to the perceived causes for success and failures of outcomes (Harvey et al., 2014; Oghojafor et al., 2012; Weiner, 2010) was used in this study. The findings revealed the factors that men and women attributed to their success or failure to advance to senior management or executive positions in corporate America. Prior research showed that women attributed their succession in the workplace to having mentors and professional networks. Women also attributed their failure to succeed in leadership positions in their organizations to the lack of professional mentors, networks, and role models. This study contributed to the perception that men have more opportunities as compared to women to professional mentoring and role-modeling opportunities for career success in corporate America, but the null hypothesis ($H_0$1) revealed that women have equal available networking opportunities as men within their organization. Due to the male-dominated culture in corporate America, the availability of networking opportunities for women may be contingent on their interactions with other women or type of the individual (as cited in Durbin, 2011). Women network differently from men, and researchers claimed that women might network with people that share similar interests, commonalities, or value systems (Bevelander & Page, 2011; Durbin, 201l van den Brink & Benschop, 2014). Women are networking within their organization, but they are not advancing to top management positions. Corporations and organizations should do more to address gender inequality in senior management and executive positions.

Recommendations for Practice

Several recommendations for practice evolved from the findings of this quantitative survey-based study. Companies could adapt models in which women would have equal opportunities to excel to senior management and executive positions. The findings of this study were consistent with other research that management and diversity practices should empower women to advance in senior management and executive positions. Diversity in leadership positions increases women's possibility of advancement to senior-level and executive positions (Cook & Glass, 2014). Gender diversity increases ethical and societal values of companies and organizations (Perrault, 2015). The Catalyst (2014d) reported that diversity in companies improved corporate sustainability, better financial performance, increased productivity, profitability, and better social performance. This study contributes to social change by serving as a model for companies to implement networking and mentoring programs available to women who aspire to advance to the middle, senior-level, and executive positions in corporate America. It should be the mission of companies and organizations to increase diversity and the number of women in corporate leadership. Also, men and women in senior management and executive positions should make themselves available as role models to women in their companies.

Conclusions

This quantitative survey-based study examined the differences in the availability of professional networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities for career success between men and women in management positions in corporate America and

those inspired to become managers. This study involved testing the Career Competencies Indicator survey instrument to answer three research questions, and responses from 175 participants were analyzed.

The results revealed that there were statistically significant differences between men and women in their availability of professional mentoring and role-modeling opportunities for career success in management positions in corporate America; consequently, the hypotheses ($H_0$2 and $H_0$3) were rejected. There were no statistically significant differences between women and men in the availability of networking opportunities for career success in corporate America. The Career Competencies Indicator score was significantly higher for men as compared to women.

The data suggested that women may have equal or comparable networking opportunities as to men, yet women appear to be at a disadvantage when it comes to having opportunities to mentors or a role models for career advancement. These findings warrant future research to explore the reasons why women in corporate America may experience equal opportunity in networking opportunities but not mentoring and role modeling opportunities. Companies and organizations can use the results from this study to develop strategies to implement mentoring and role-modeling opportunities for women within the workplace.

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Appendix A: Publisher's Permission to use Theoretical Instrument

Annette Ohens
Walden University

Chris Tutill
Emerald Group Publishing
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21/03/2016

Dear Annette Ohens,

I write in response to your email dated 21/03/2016 regarding a permission request to reprint the theoretical model of the antecedents, mechanisms, and outcome of networking that appeared in the article:

Gibson, C., Hardy, J. H., & Buckley, R. 2014. 'Understanding the role of networking in organizations'. *International Journal of Career Management*, *19*(2), 146-161. doi:10.1108/cdi-09-2013-011

With regards to your request, providing that the content is fully referenced and gives credit to the original publication, Emerald is happy for you to include it in your dissertation (i.e. for non-commercial purposes).

I trust that the above is in order but do please let me know if you require any further assistance.

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Appendix B: Permission to Conduct Research Using SurveyMonkey

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For questions, visit our Help Center
help.surveymonkey.com

Re: Permission to Conduct Research Using SurveyMonkey

To whom it may concern:

This letter is being produced in response to a request by a student at your institution who wishes to conduct a survey using SurveyMonkey in order to support their research. The student has indicated that they require a letter from SurveyMonkey granting them permission to do this. Please accept this letter as evidence of such permission. Students are permitted to conduct research via the SurveyMonkey platform provided that they abide by our Terms of Use, a copy of which is available on our website.

SurveyMonkey is a self-serve survey platform on which our users can, by themselves, create, deploy and analyze surveys through an online interface. We have users in many different industries who use surveys for many different purposes. One of our most common use cases is students and other types of researchers using our online tools to conduct academic research.

If you have any questions about this letter, please contact us through our Help Center at help.surveymonkey.com.

Sincerely,

SurveyMonkey Inc.

Appendix C: Permission to use SurveyMonkey Audience for Academic and Research Purposes

Use of SurveyMonkey Audience for Academic and Research Purposes is Permitted

SurveyMonkey Audience is a service provided by SurveyMonkey which helps customers reach a targeted audience for their surveys. We recruit survey takers from the millions of people who answer SurveyMonkey surveys each month to help customers target the people they need for their survey projects. Recruitment of potential survey takers occurs through our member site, SurveyMonkey Contribute (https://contribute.surveymonkey.com).

This note is to confirm that SurveyMonkey Audience is commonly used by students, researchers and academics to collect data for their research.

SurveyMonkey Audience will run a customer's survey so long as it meets our survey length and other compliance requirements, and we are able to fulfill the customer's targeting requirements at the time of launch. Please refer to http://help.surveymonkey.com/app/answers/detail/a_id/5809 for more information about these requirements.

Appendix D: Career Competencies Indicator Survey Instrument

Career Competencies Indicator
CCI

Items

Area of knowing	Concept	Item
Whom	Self-presentation	I make others aware of my accomplishments.
Whom	Self-presentation	I make others aware of my aspirations and career objectives.
Whom	Self-presentation	I make others aware of the assignments I want.
Whom	Self-presentation	I make my work become visible to other people.
Whom	Feedback seeking	I ask for feedback on my job performance from individuals other than my supervisor.
Whom	Feedback seeking	I seek feedback on my career progress to date.
Whom	Feedback seeking	I ask for feedback on my job performance from my immediate supervisor.
Whom	Feedback seeking	I ask for feedback on the service I deliver to customers (which are people I serve either internally or externally by performing my job).
Whom	Feedback seeking	I seek feedback on opportunities I have identified for future career development.
Whom	Feedback seeking	I seek feedback on my training and development needs.
Whom	Networking	I build contacts with people in areas where I would like to work.
Whom	Networking	I keep in contact with people outside the organisation on whom I can rely for information on job opportunities.
Whom	Networking	I introduce myself to people who can influence my career.
Whom	Networking	I establish professional contacts outside the organisation.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I seek career guidance from other experienced people within the organisation.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I seek career guidance from experienced people outside the organisation.
Why	Career resilience	I reward myself when I complete a piece of work.
How	Job-related performance effectiveness	I fulfil the responsibilities specified on my job description.
How	Job-related performance effectiveness	I perform all assigned duties.
How	Job-related performance effectiveness	I fulfill the competencies that are required by my role e.g. as specified in a competency framework.
How	Job-related performance effectiveness	I meet the quality standards required by my job.

Items

Area of knowing	Concept	Item
How	Job-related performance effectiveness	I meet set deadlines.
How	Job-related performance effectiveness	I perform the activities that are expected as part of my job.
How	Job-related performance effectiveness	I engage in activities that are directly linked to my performance appraisal.
Why	Career resilience	I take the time to do the best possible job on a task.
Why	Career resilience	I accept job assignments for which I have little or no experience.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I have a clear idea of what my career goals are.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I have a plan for my career.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I have a strategy for achieving my career goals.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I know what I need to do to reach my career goals.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I have a plan for the next few years of my work future.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I change or revise my career goals based on new information I receive regarding myself or my situation.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I change or revise my career plan based on new information I receive regarding myself or external circumstances.
Why	Goal setting and career planning	I have detailed written career goals.
Why	Self-knowledge	I know what to seek and what to avoid in developing my career path.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I have a formally appointed mentor.
Why	Self-knowledge	I recognize what I can and can't do so well.
Why	Self-knowledge	I am aware of my own strengths.
Why	Self-knowledge	I am aware of my weaknesses.
Why	Self-knowledge	I know what work tasks or projects interest me.
Why	Self-knowledge	I know what job features are personally important to me.
Why	Self-knowledge	I know how my past integrates with my future.
Why	Self-knowledge	I understand the relevance of my past behavior for my future career.

Items

Area of knowing	Concept	Item
Why	Self-knowledge	I know what work tasks or projects I find boring.
Why	Self-knowledge	I understand what I want most from this job.
Why	Career resilience	I adapt to changing circumstance in my work.
Whom	Networking	I keep in touch with people who are at higher levels than I am.
Whom	Networking	I keep in contact with people in my work who hold important positions.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I seek counseling and advice from higher level managers.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I seek to become acquainted with higher level managers.
Whom	Networking	I talk to senior management when I get the opportunity to.
Whom	Networking	I network with people in other departments.
Whom	Networking	I network with co-workers or other people to provide myself with help or advice that will assist my career progression.
Whom	Networking	I network with co-workers or other people to get information about how to do my work or about what is expected from me.
Why	Career resilience	I welcome organisational changes e.g. new structures, processes, etc.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I take the initiative to find mentors.
Whom	Networking	I network with people who are in important positions in other organisations or the community.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I seek career guidance from my supervisor.
Whom	Mentoring relationships	I have an informal self-sought mentor.
Why	Career resilience	I welcome changes to my job e.g. new assignments, responsibilities, etc.
How	Keeping informed	I keep informed on affairs, structures and processes in my profession.
How	Career-related skills	I take job related courses.
How	Career-related skills	I seek out training and development opportunities.

Items

Area of knowing	Concept	Item
How	Career-related skills	I spend free time on activities that will help my job.
How	Keeping informed	I keep myself up to date on the career opportunities provided by my organisation.
How	Keeping informed	I keep informed on personnel policies.
How	Career-related skills	I remain current on the trends and developments in my profession.
How	Career-related skills	I constantly update my job related skills.
How	Keeping informed	I keep up with the developments and changes in my organisation.
How	Career-related skills	I develop skills that may be needed in future positions.
How	Career-related skills	I join professional organisations related to my career goals.
How	Keeping informed	I keep myself up to date on the labour market and general job opportunities.
How	Career-related skills	I gain experience in a variety of work assignments to increase my knowledge and skills.
How	Career-related skills	I develop knowledge and skills that make me distinctive.
How	Career-related skills	I have a diverse set of job-related skills.
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I have a good understanding of the politics in my work.
How	Career-related skills	I develop expertise in areas that are critical to my work unit's operation.
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I know what to do to get the most desirable assignments in my area.
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I have a good understanding of how to use training and development processes.
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I have a good understand of the motives behind the actions of other people at work.
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I know who the most influential people are in my work.

Items

Area of knowing	Concept	Item
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I have a good understanding of the politics in my work.
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I use my interpersonal skills to influence people at work.
How	Knowledge of office politics and opportunity structures	I can identify the people who are most important to getting the work done.
Why	Career resilience	I can handle any work problems that come my way.
Why	Career resilience	I make suggestions to others even though they may disagree.
Why	Career resilience	I am willing to take risks (actions with uncertain outcomes).

Appendix E: Debriefing Form

Purpose of the Study:

The purpose of this study is to examine the differences, if any, of the availability of networking, mentoring, and role modeling opportunities between men and women in management positions in corporate America and to explore the causes of such differences.

Final Report:

Participants have an option to receive a copy of the final report of this study after completion. You may contact the researcher at any time.

Contact Information:

Any questions or comments pertaining to this study, you may contact the researcher by email at annette.ohens@waldenu.edu.

References for Additional Reading:

To learn more about the theoretical model of networking in organizations, Career Competency Indicator

Francis-Smythe, Jan, Haase, Sandra, Thomas, Erica, & Steele, Catherine. (2013). Development and validation of the Career Competencies Indicator (CCI). *Journal of Career Assessment,* Vol 21(2), 227-248. doi: 10.1177/1069072712466724,

Gibson, C., Hardy, J. H., & Buckley, R. 2014. Understanding the role of networking in organizations. *International Journal of Career Management*, *19*(2), 146-161. doi:10.1108/cdi-09-2013-011

You can save or print a copy of this form for future reference.

Thank you for your participation in the study.

Click “Done” to submit and exit the study.

Appendix F: Publisher's Permission to use Survey Instrument

Dear Annette,

Thank you for that information. You can consider this email as permission to use the material as detailed below in your upcoming dissertation. Please note that this permission does not cover any 3rd party material that may be found within the work. You must properly credit the original source, *Journal of Career Assessment*. Please contact us for any further usage of the material.

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Appendix G: Demographics

1. What is your Gender?

   ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. What is your age?

   ☐ 18 - 25 ☐ 26 - 35 ☐ 36 - 45
   ☐ 46 – 55 ☐ 55+

3. Please indicate the highest level of education you have attained:

   ☐ High School ☐ Masters
   ☐ Associates ☐ Doctorate
   ☐ Bachelors ☐ Other____, (please specify)

4. Please select the Ethnic category that most identifies you:

   ☐ African-American/Black ☐ Native American or Alaskan Native
   ☐ White ☐ Middle Eastern
   ☐ Asian ☐ Other _____, please specify
   ☐ Hispanic or Latin American
   ☐ Native American or Pacific Islander

5. Which of the following best describes your role within your industry?

   ☐ Supervisor
   ☐ First-Level Manager
   ☐ Middle-Level Manager
   ☐ Senior-Level Manager
   ☐ Other ___(please specify)

6. What type of industry are you affiliated with in corporate America?

   ☐ Information Technology ☐ Healthcare
   ☐ Utilities ☐ Financials
   ☐ Manufacturing ☐ Energy

- ☐ Telecommunication
- ☐ Hotels, Resorts & Cruise Lines
- ☐ Restaurants
- ☐ Construction
- ☐ Materials
- ☐ Non-profit
- ☐ Other _____

7. How long have you worked in your current position?

- ☐ 2-3 years
- ☐ 3- 5 years
- ☐ 5-10 years
- ☐ 11 + years

8. Please indicate the number of employees you currently manage?

- ☐ 1-10
- ☐ 40 +
- ☐ 11-40
- ☐ None

Appendix H: Dissertation Survey Instrument

Mentors are usually in top positions and are experienced and knowledgeable who provide support and coaching to you in your career advancement.

Directions: After reading each statement, please select a response to rate your level of agreement using a 5-point scale ranging from 1= Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree.

1. Professional mentoring opportunities are available to me in my organization.

Strongly Disagree ○ Disagree ○ Undecided ○ Agree ○ Strongly agree ○

2. Advancing in corporate America is attributed to having a good mentor.

Strongly Disagree ○ Disagree ○ Undecided ○ Agree ○ Strongly Agree ○

3. Balancing work and family prohibits me from spending time with a mentor.

Strongly Disagree ○ Disagree ○ Undecided ○ Agree ○ Strongly Agree ○

4. Having a mentor has helped me to achieve a management position.

Strongly Disagree ○ Disagree ○ Undecided ○ Agree ○ Strongly Agree ○

5. I do not have a mentor to help me in my career advancement in corporate America.

Strongly Disagree ○ Disagree ○ Undecided ○ Agree ○ Strongly Agree ○

6. My organization encourages employees to be mentors.

Strongly Disagree ○ Disagree ○ Undecided ○ Agree ○ Strongly Agree ○

7. Having a mentor of the same gender is helpful to me in my career advancement.

Strongly Disagree ○ Disagree ○ Undecided ○ Agree ○ Strongly Agree ○

Networking refers to the relationship with individuals to provide support, influence, information, and guidance to career advancement.

Directions: After reading each statement, please select a response to rate your level of agreement using a 5-point scale ranging from 1= Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree.

8. Professional networking opportunities are available in my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

9. There is a lack of the same gender in professional networks in my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

10. I do not have the time to be part of a networking group in my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

11. I do not belong to any professional network that would help me in my career advancement in corporate America.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

12. My organization does not have a networking program.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

13. My organization does not provide networking opportunities during working hours.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

14. Managers do not participate in networking programs in my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

Role models are individuals who are exemplary of imitation in certain elite positions. Role models are different from mentors in that role models focuses on matching specific actions and attitudes between an individual whereas mentors provide an active interest in advancing an individual's career.

Directions: After reading each statement, please select a response to rate your level of agreement using a 5-point scale ranging from 1= Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree.

15. Professional role modeling opportunities are available in my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

16. My organization have role models that I can emulate.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

17. I take advantage of the role modeling opportunities in my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

18. I do not have the time to spend with a role model in my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

19. I have a role model that has helped me advanced in my career.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

20. There is a lack of role models in my organization that are available to me

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

21. It is difficult to find a role model to work with in my organization

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○