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A Phenomenological Study of Cross Gender Mentoring Among U.S. Army Officers

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

A Phenomenological Study of Cross-Gender Mentoring Among U.S. Army Officers

by

Scott R. Johnson

MS, Marine Corps University, 2012

BS, Troy University, 1997

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

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Abstract

Leader mentoring in the military has not been well researched, especially that involving cross-gender pairings. A phenomenological study was conducted to gain insight into the perceptions, thoughts, and feelings of military officers regarding their decision to engage in mentoring, to include with members of the opposite gender. Semistructured interviews were conducted with 20 male and 20 female U.S. Army senior commissioned officers to collect information regarding mentoring selection perspectives and decisions and to examine emerging themes, concepts, and patterns, using NVivo 11 Pro Plus. Negative themes that emerged among both male and female participants concerned adverse perceptions of members within the organization, including perceptions of inappropriate relationships, sexual contact, unprofessionalism, rumors, mal-intent, and concern for impact on spouses. Positive themes among both male and female participants included feelings regarding success, career progression, promotions, opportunities, sharing, leadership, developing, and increased potential. Participants also expressed their amenability to mentoring officers of the opposite gender, with varying degrees of expectation for success. Understanding how military officers perceive, think, and feel regarding mentor selection will provide U.S. Army leadership with useful information that can promote positive social change among the officer ranks and will help leaders better understand the mentor and mentee relationship. This will have a positive impact on the U.S. military's efforts to ensure that all female officers receive effective mentoring and socialization.

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to the great men and women who have sacrificed their personal lives to serve in the United States Armed Forces. It is your personal sacrifices that have paid for the freedom that all of America enjoys daily. You all inspire me to serve alongside you through the good and the bad. Success is not born on the back of one; rather, it is shouldered by the many. I would not have made it this far without the help of many exceptional people. We must remember how we arrived professionally to be effective mentors and mentees, and we must continue to self-assess and self-reflect, and seek to improve.

Acknowledgments

I would like to first thank my parents who have encouraged me to do everything, but never pushed me to do anything I did not have passion for. They always had faith in me, and wanted me to be happy in whatever path I chose. I would also like to pay a special thanks to my brother Todd. You have always been there for me, and set the example for me both personally and professionally. You have been a role model for me for as long as my memory serves me. To my wife Nicole, I can't thank you enough for your encouragement, and for your loving toleration for the many hours that I spent working towards this goal. You have been my rock, my ear when I needed one, and my counsel when I needed it the most. I couldn't have made this dream come true without you.

My sincere thanks to the participants of this study, without your help, this research would not have been possible. I truly appreciate, and value your individual feedback…I have learned a great deal from all of you. This process has shed new light on what it means to serve, and to be a leader.

I would be remiss if I did not mention the talented leadership throughout my career starting with SFC Jenkins from many years ago, CSM(R) Benson, MG Poppas, MG Seamands, Mr. Stamilio, and Mr. Wark. The top-notch leadership and vision that each of you provided has helped me arrive at this juncture in my personal and professional life.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Mentoring is a developmental tool used by organizations to promote leadership by retaining and growing talent (Bryant, 2009). Mentoring facilitates human capital management (Doward, 2008), and when applied uniformly, mentoring ensures employee socialization and fosters diverse leadership (Florentino, 2008); however, if the entire workforce does not equally experience mentoring, growing effective and diverse leaders is hindered (Bryant, 2009). Hu, Thomas, and Lance (2008) discussed individual intentions to enter into a mentoring relationship, the selection process when choosing mentors, and preferences to be mentored by people with shared similarities (e.g., race and gender). Research has established that effective mentoring does occur between mentors of the opposite gender when barriers such as gender bias and equality are considered (Kao, Rogers, Spitzmueller, Lin, & Lin, 2014); however, in existing literature, several authors noted a need for additional research regarding gender diversity in mentoring relationships (Hill, 2008; Kimball, 2015; Melanson, 2007). Linehan and Scullion (2008) discussed the impact of mentorship on growing female global leaders and noted the need to explore the effects of gender differences in such mentoring relationships.

Melanson (2009) and Hill (2008) discussed the benefits of mentoring in a military culture to include its impact on growing future leaders and the socialization process. They each discovered that military members who participated in mentoring showed a higher selection for preferable jobs and promotions over those who did not participate in mentoring. Furthermore, it was also pointed out that military members who participated

in mentoring retired at higher ranks and had longer serving careers than their counterparts who did not participate in mentoring opportunities. Johnson and Anderson (2010) discussed differences in formal and informal mentoring and their impact in a military culture, noting the impact of diversity on the long-term mentoring outcomes. Despite positive evidence regarding employee socialization and job success with mentoring, it has been found that female U.S. Army officers do not engage in mentoring to the same extent as male officers, and may consequently not experience the level of socialization and success (Army Mentorship, 2007).

With the integration of women into all military career fields, the U.S. Army needs to address how to effectively mentor female officers (Kimball, 2015). This study addressed a phenomenon in the military in that women do not take part in mentoring equally, and I explored the perceptions, thoughts, and feelings associated with the decision to select a mentor (or mentee) of the opposite gender. Understanding the reasons associated with mentor and mentee selection is a needed addition to existing literature. This study deviated from the traditional focus on the effectiveness of cross-gender mentoring and focused on the reason that male and female officers chose to engage in mentoring with members of the opposite gender. Understanding this phenomenon can help to promote equal socialization and mentoring experiences of all U.S. Army officers, regardless of gender.

The importance of having diverse, well-rounded, and effective leaders has never been greater. The United States has been at war for well over a decade and yet has downsized the force that it uses to fight these wars. Having effective leaders is paramount

to the nation's success. By ensuring that all leaders receive the same opportunities in mentoring, the U.S. Army will further diversify their bench of available leaders across the spectrum of rank and career fields. By diversifying the effective leadership, the U.S. Army will enhance their capability of projecting effective leaders across the continuum of conflict throughout the globe, and increase the nation's ability to effectively perform its tasks.

Background

Scandura and Pellegrini (2007) noted research about mentoring in the workplace has gained significant attention over the past 25 years. Most literature regarding mentoring has focused on studies in corporate, educational, law enforcement, and other settings, but few discussed mentoring in the military. Further, while some researchers have focused on military settings, none addressed cross-gender mentoring.

Kimball (2015) explored the experiences of senior U.S. Army officers and found their experiences in practice differed from established policy. He found participants' practices and experiences with mentoring within their chain of command and cross-gender mentoring were significantly impacted by military culture and that professional forums were supportive of mentoring practices. The participants credited these professional forums with helping them identify viable mentoring partners and refining their own mentoring practices and positively impacted their careers (Kimball, 2015). These findings suggested best practices for informal U.S. Army mentoring while identifying new directions for research in cross-gender mentoring (Kimball, 2015).

Further, relatively recent changes in U.S. Army doctrine have reaffirmed the importance of mentoring (Kimball, 2015).

Barratt, Bergman, and Thompson (2014) analyzed the relationships among gender role orientations, sexual orientation, and mentoring for female federal law enforcement officers. Their focus was to understand male and female work experiences and the barriers that female law enforcement officers face, which is critical in the retention and promotion of women in this field. Within their sample, the authors found that masculinity positively related to career mentoring and role modeling, whereas sexual orientation negatively related to career mentoring, and also significantly related to career mentoring and role modeling.

Sosik, Lee, and Bouquillon (2005) noted mentoring has proven to be a productive tool in the promotion of employees who show potential for greater responsibility and that mentoring relationships have been increasingly utilized as a method of leader development. They examined the effects of formal versus informal mentoring relationship types in high-tech corporate firms versus educational organizations on protégés' perceptions of mentoring functions and outcomes. Protégés who participated in informal mentoring relationships reported higher levels of psychosocial support received than protégés who participated in formal relationships (Sosik et al., 2005).

Thomas, Willis, and Davis (2007) identified challenges associated with minority graduate students in establishing healthy mentoring relationships and the negative results when minority graduate students lack productive mentoring relationships. They used a multifaceted approach to highlight useful strategies for improving the opportunities of

minority students in acquiring mentors and accomplished this by directing attention to common institutional practices, faculty development, and the individual student behaviors. Thomas et al. found that mentoring relationships provided critical opportunities in personal and professional development. Furthermore, these relationships were especially important for minorities who often have not built or have access to informal networks, or the information needed to be successful in academic and professional environments (Thomas et al., 2007). They noted that the lack of mentors for minority graduate students is important to consider given the potential impact that mentoring can have on minority graduate students' retention and overall success.

Van Emmerik (2004), in a study focusing on the benefits of mentoring and mentorship, discussed the relationship between mentoring arrangements and intrinsic career success. The study involving 416 female and 594 male participants from Utrecht University in Netherlands showed that mentoring was positively associated with intrinsic career success, such as more promotions, higher incomes, and higher levels of work satisfaction. She noted that several characteristics of developmental networking were associated with intrinsic career success, such as advice, range, emotional intensity, frequency, and years of acquaintance. Van Emmerik also discovered some moderating effects of gender on the relationship between mentoring arrangements and intrinsic career success, to include the size of the network, emotional intensity, and stability of the relationship.

Harvey, McIntyre, Thompson Heames, and Moeller (2009) focused a study on traditional mentoring of senior female managers with junior members in a domestic

organizational setting. As mentioned in this study, women are increasing in number in the organizational setting, but may receive less mentoring than their male counterparts, and expatriates may receive less mentoring than domestic employees. The authors also discussed the concept of reverse mentoring where junior members who have more technology-based knowledge mentor more senior members; they proposed a third type of mentoring called *reciprocal mentoring* where the mentoring relationship is mutually beneficial from senior to junior, and junior to senior. Harvey et al. further indicated that mentoring is a strategic tool in the organizational knowledge creation and transfer process, and must be equally applied in order to provide an equal competitive advantage in creating effective support systems for female global managers and junior female professionals.

In a study focusing on mentoring relationships in the workplace, Dougherty, Turban, and Haggard (2007) examined mentoring relationships as a social process or social exchange. This social exchange could be viewed as a perception by the mentor, mentee, or both, that the benefits of engaging in a mentoring relationship outweighed any potential costs. The authors viewed this research through the social exchange lens and discovered that protégé perceptions of benefit directly correlated to high emotional stability, high self-monitoring, and internal control of the situation. From the mentor perspective, the perception of benefits in protégés were directly related to protégés who were people-oriented, honest, confident, and dependable (Dougherty et al., 2007). Dougherty et al. also noted that organizational environments that encouraged mentoring

included access to the organization's leadership, an intrinsic reward system regarding the mentoring relationship, and norms that were supportive of mentoring.

The U.S. Army's (2006) field manual discussed the importance of diversity and the challenges that U.S. Army leaders face from increasing diversity; however, few studies have investigated the ways gender affects mentoring relationships in the U.S. Army. Through a training manual, the U.S. Army lends success in mentoring to clear and effective collaboration (U.S. Army, 2015). Leaders who establish personal connections with their subordinates create a greater shared understanding. Leaders should emphasize continual learning, creative thought, and testing ideas. Effective collaboration and dialogue are not possible unless leaders ensure dialogue occurs either formally or informally (U.S. Army, 2015). They do this by demonstrating the confidence necessary to admit that they do not know everything, can be wrong, and have something to learn (U.S. Army, 2015). Finally, leaders must establish a climate where collaboration and dialogue occur throughout the organization through personal example, coaching, and mentorship (U.S. Army, 2015).

Gersick and Kram (2002) conducted a study of adult development narrowly focused on women ages 45 to 55 from the finance profession. With this qualitative study, the researchers sought to expose the key developmental tasks that high-achieving senior female professionals have been faced with as they balance personal and professional goals and obstacles. The authors conducted in-depth interviews with 10 female senior executives and combined the interview data with data collected from group follow-ups with 30 women in a conference forum. This allowed Gersick and Kram to capture the

innovative paths associated with women as they mature and reevaluate their goals and aspirations through their developmental lives coupled with the individual stages of their personal and professional lives as they navigate the successive obstacles of their professions. The authors explored this over time throughout the participants' adult lives and discussed the delicate balance and expectations of perceived women's roles in personal and professional settings and what choices participants made with regards to marriage, children, and work. More importantly, Gersick and Kram sought to discover the reasons or drive behind the desire to succeed in a professional setting such as financial independence, or control over one's life. They particularly noted the absence of mentoring available to the participants in their later years from the age range of 30 and beyond, and the need for this supportive professional relationship.

Problem Statement

Mentoring is a developmental tool organizations use to promote leadership by retaining and growing talent (Bryant, 2009). It facilitates human capital management, and when applied uniformly, mentoring ensures employee socialization and fosters diverse leadership (Florentino, 2008). However, when the entire workforce does not equally experience mentoring, growing effective and diverse leaders is hindered (Bryant, 2009). Hu et al. (2008) discussed intentions to enter into mentoring relationships, the selection process that occurs when choosing mentors, and preferences to be mentored by people with shared similarities (e.g., race and gender). Linehan and Scullion (2008) discussed the impact of mentorship on growing female leaders and expressed the need to explore the effects of gender differences in such mentoring relationships. Effective mentoring

does occur between mentors of the opposite gender despite barriers such as gender (Kao et al., 2014). However, there is consensus among researchers that supported the requirement for this study regarding gender diversity in mentoring relationships (Florentino, 2008; Hill, 2008; Kimball, 2015; Melanson, 2007).

Melanson (2009) and Hill (2008) discussed the benefits of mentoring in a military culture to include its impact on growing future leaders and the socialization process. Johnson and Anderson (2010) discussed differences in formal and informal mentoring and their impact in a military culture, noting the impact of diversity on the long-term mentoring outcomes. Despite positive evidence regarding employee socialization and job success with mentoring in the military, female officers did not engage in mentoring to the same extent as their male counterparts, and consequently do not experience the same depths of socialization and success (Army Mentorship, 2007).

With the integration of women into all military career fields, the military needs to address how to effectively mentor female officers and avoid inequality in mentorship that may further perpetuate gender separation and gender bias. There is a need to understand this phenomenon in depth to promote equal socialization and mentoring experiences of all officers, regardless of gender. The findings of this research, located in Chapter 4, provide an in-depth understanding of this phenomenon. This study addressed the phenomenon of women not equally taking part in mentoring and explored the thoughts and feelings associated with the decision to select a mentor (or mentee) of the opposite gender. Exploring the reasons associated with mentor and mentee selection covered an existing gap in current literature. This study deviated from the traditional focus on the

effectiveness of cross-gender mentoring, which had been on the effectiveness of mentoring as experienced by men compared with similar experiences by their female peers, and shifted focus to explore the reason that male and female officers chose to engage in mentoring with members of the opposite gender.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand the thoughts and feelings of military officers regarding the decision to enter into mentoring with members of the opposite gender. The objective was to better understand why officers chose to be mentored by members of the opposite gender. The impact of this study is to further integrate female officers into senior ranks by affording equal mentoring opportunities.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study and address an associated gap in the existing literature are as follows:

1. What are the feelings associated with the selection of cross-gender mentors and mentees for U.S. Army officers?

   A. What factors do mentors consider when selecting male as compared to female mentees?

   B. What criteria do female officers consider when selecting mentors as compared to men?

2. How does gender bias effect the selection of cross-gender mentors or mentees in the U.S. Army?

A. How does gender bias effect male mentor's selection of female mentees as compared to female mentors selecting male mentees?

B. How does gender bias effect the selection in more male-dominated job fields in the U.S. Army as compared to job fields where there are more women?

Conceptual Framework

This study is based on Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis theory, and Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social identity theory. Allport expanded on a previously developed contact hypothesis by Williams from 1947. The basis of Allport's theory was on specific groups and their lack of knowledge of members of other groups. This theory applies to a study of cross-gender mentoring as members of the male population of military officers may feel that they lack the requisite knowledge to effectively mentor women, or vice versa. This lack of information can promote unequal opportunities to members of the other group, in this case, female officers. Social identity theory examines how socialization effects an individual's development and identity within a group or organizational setting (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Furthermore, in social identity theory, individuals form their identities based on their membership to their specific group (Tajfel, 1982). This is accomplished by comparing oneself to members of other groups and experiencing negative feelings associated with these other groups and members of these groups (Tajfel, 1982). Social identity theory resulted from an examination of the effect of social forces on individual identity development. According to social identity theory, individuals base their identity on membership in groups (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). People

determine their personal value through comparisons with individuals in other groups and feel compelled to view other groups negatively to maintain a positive view of their own group (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 2001).

This phenomenon is a part of in-group and out-group theory, positing individuals favor people in their own group over people outside their own group. Brewer (1999) stated, "Ultimately, many forms of discrimination and bias may develop not because out-groups are hated, but because positive emotions such as admiration, sympathy, and trust are reserved for the in-group and withheld from the out-group" (p. 438). Social identity theorists assert that people believe in-group members are more similar to themselves than out-group members (Tajfel & Forgas, 2000). Social identity theory provides a framework for understanding human self-perception. An implication of social identity theory might be that people who are of the same gender identify themselves as more similar to each other than to people of the opposite gender.

Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis provided a potential resolution of contradictions inherent in the original social identity theory. Williams developed the contact hypothesis in 1947, and later Allport expanded on this theory in 1954. Contact hypothesis posits that conflicts among different groups of people arise from lack of knowledge and information regarding the other group. Allport's contact hypothesis has been "the prevailing framework for understanding when contact between members of unequal status groups will lead to a reduction of prejudice since it was first articulated in the early 1950s" (Chavous, 2005, p. 241).

The best way to reduce the potential for conflict is to encourage contact between different groups, leading to attitudes that are more positive between groups (Hayes, McAllister, & Dowds, 2007). Allport (1954) noted that, when the following necessary conditions are met, interactions for successful integration and reduction of prejudice occur: (a) meaningful associations between members of different groups, (b) groups of people working toward a common goal, (c) group members having similar social status, and (d) institutions encouraging positive intergroup interactions. Social identity theory and contact hypothesis are the two theories I used to support this study. The results from studying senior officers' cross-gender mentoring experiences may help to resolve this phenomenon, as Allport's theory is a part of resolution to social identity theory.

Nature of the Study

For this study, I used a qualitative phenomenological approach to explore the feelings associated with the participants' decisions to select or not select members of the opposite gender for mentorship. For this approach, an empirical phenomenology design was used to capture the feelings that drive these decisions regarding cross-gender mentoring. For this study, the empirical phenomenology design was appropriate because it explores lived experiences in the form of narratives, stories, anecdotes, and existing accounts, and it offers the researcher ways to learn about phenomena that are usually difficult to observe or measure (Wilding & Whiteford, 2005).

To obtain an accurate and thorough understanding of this phenomenon, semistructured interviews were conducted. Semistructured interviews were the most appropriate for this study, as most participants may only have been available for a single

interview (Bernard, 1988). The use of open-ended interview questions afforded the participants the flexibility to give responses that provide depth and breadth, and are informed by their feelings and beliefs (Moustakas, 1994). Using purposive sampling, a total of 20 male and 20 female senior U.S. Army commissioned officers were selected from various U.S. Army bases. This sample size was determined by factoring in the available career fields in the Army competitive category (ACC) that include combat arms and support jobs. By doing this, I was able to ensure a range of career experiences in both combat arms and support jobs. This sample size also factored the breadth and range of commissioning sources and rank. Doing so ensured the participant population covered all available commissioning sources and a range of rank. All participants were screened to insure they had a minimum of 10 years of service. This ensured participants had mentorship experiences they had mastered over many years of service. Participants were solicited through previously established points of contact in the U.S. Army across the United States, and other U.S. Army bases around the world.

Once the interviews were completed, NVivo 11 Pro Plus software was utilized to analyze the data collected from the interviews. I manually coded the collected data for analysis. Giorgi (2010) described this process of data reduction and data analysis as taking raw data from the participants which are descriptive in nature, and interpreting these data as described to the researcher. During this process, the researcher sets aside his or her own preconceptions, and theoretical, cultural, and experiential beliefs (phenomenological attitude), and views this data as the participant describes them (natural attitude; Broomé, n.d., p. 166). I then compared and combined these data with

the data from NVivo. The data enabled me to identify similarities and differences in the feelings associated with the selection of mentors and mentees and provided insight into positive mentoring experiences across the U.S. Army.

Definitions

The following terms are defined for purpose of this study:

Army leader: An individual who occupies a leadership role with the U.S. Army (U.S. Army, 2006).

Army competitive category (ACC): A competitive category that establishes a separate promotion category for specific groups of officers whose specialized education and training makes separate career management desirable (U.S. Army, 2006, p. 3-1).

Commissioned officer: These are U.S. Army officers who hold their "grade and office under a commission issued under the authority of the President of the United States with a rank of second lieutenant or higher, or promoted to the rank of Chief Warrant Officer 2 or higher" (U.S. Army, 2006, p. 3-1).

Mentoring: This is a process where a leader with greater experience acts as a guide and advisor for an individual with little experience. "Mentoring is a future-oriented developmental activity focused on growing in the profession" (U.S. Army, 2006, p. 8-14).

Noncommissioned officer: These officers are responsible for operating the U.S. Army on a day-to-day basis. They are required to execute complex tactical operations, make decisions, and operate in "joint, interagency, and multinational scenarios. They must take the information provided by their leaders and pass it on to their subordinates.

The Army expects them to be the buffer for filtering information from the commissioned officers" (U.S. Army, 2006, p. 3-3).

Racial minority (race): The racial term for individuals who identify as Hispanic or Latino, Black or African American, Asian, Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander, and American Indian and Alaska Native population (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.).

Senior commissioned officer: These are individuals who have been selected to be promoted to lieutenant colonel. Grades from lieutenant colonel up are termed *senior field grade officers*. A promotion is seen by officers as a reward for a successful military career. "Officers in the grade of lieutenant colonel serve as senior leaders and managers throughout the Army providing wisdom, experience, vision and mentorship mastered over many years in uniform" (U.S. Army, 2010, p. 18).

Warrant officer: A U.S. Army grade that means the individual has highly specialized information in a specialized field. "Warrant officers are competent and confident warriors, innovative integrators of emerging technologies, dynamic teachers, and developers of specialized teams of soldiers" (U.S. Army, 2006, p. 3-2).

Assumptions

Creswell (2013) noted qualitative research design begins with philosophical assumptions by the researchers who bring their own beliefs and worldviews. Three assumptions were considered during the conduct of this research: that all participants would answer the interview questions honestly, that the participants had a basic knowledge of mentoring relationships, and that they understood the importance of mentoring. Senior commissioned officers were chosen for this study due to their level of

experience as leaders. Participation in this study was voluntary, and it was assumed participants understood the basic concept and meaning of mentoring relationships.

Limitations

The findings of this study focused on exploring the factors that influence the selection of cross-gender mentoring relationships; however, there can be no claim regarding the generalizability of the findings of this study to all senior commissioned officers in the U.S. Army. The number of participants of this research cannot represent the entire group. The experiences of leaders across the rest of the U.S. Army might differ from what was captured in this research. Another limitation of this study is the honesty of answers, and the participants' ability to recollect these feelings and beliefs regarding cross-gender mentoring. Depending on how long ago participants experienced cross-gender mentoring, some participants might have had difficulty recalling their feelings and thoughts during their mentoring experiences. It is also possible that perspectives and beliefs changed over time. The final limitation of this study is regarding sexual orientation and/or transgender status of the participants. Information obtained in this study cannot be generalized or applied to mentoring of officers with regards to sexual orientation or transgender status.

Delimitations

This study is limited to male and female senior commissioned officers in the U.S. Army who have experience with cross-gender mentoring. Delimitations narrow the scope of a study by identifying what is not included in this study (Creswell, 2013. Only male and female U.S. Army senior commissioned officers with at least 10 years of service and

with cross-gender mentoring experience were chosen for this study because including officers without experience would render this research too broad.

Significance of the Study

Workplace mentoring is a relatively new area of study and has significant gaps in existing literature, especially regarding its use in the military. The intent of this study was to gain insight into the decisions and feelings of military officers regarding their decision to engage in mentoring. Understanding this can have a positive impact on the U.S. Army's efforts to develop effective leaders and promote positive social change for both male and female officers. To insure female U.S. Army officers receive effective socialization and mentoring, this study was conducted to understand this gap as identified in previous research. By examining the lived experiences regarding U.S. Army officers and their feelings during the selection of mentors and mentees of the opposite gender, the results of this study can help address factors that contribute to the challenges associated with cross-gender mentoring. With these challenges addressed, future mentors and mentees may utilize this information as a tool to develop effective cross-gender mentoring, which might help increase valuable leaders and decrease gender bias and gender separation and promote positive social change for U.S. Army officers.

Summary and Transition

Research has shown mentoring to be an effective tool for career progression (Sosik et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2007; van Emmerik, 2004), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Sosik et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2007; van Emmerik, 2004). With an increasingly diverse population and workforce (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008), the

dynamics of mentoring relationships will be affected. Some studies have shown people prefer mentoring relationships with other people of the same race and/or gender (Hu et al., 2008; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Stanley & Lincoln, 2005).

Mentoring is also related to the grooming of future leaders (Fulmer, Stumpf, & Bleak, 2009), especially in the U.S. Army (Bryant, 2009; Doward, 2008; Florentino, 2008; Hill, 2008; Hu et al., 2008; Jahnke, 2008; Lawrence, 2009; Melanson, 2007, 2009; Nieberding, 2007). Although there has been some discussion about the correlations among diversity, leadership, and mentoring (U.S. Army, 2006), there have been limited studies regarding mentoring that focus on gender in the U.S. Army (Johnson & Anderson, 2010).

Chapter 2 provides an introduction and overview of mentoring, and how and why organizations have used it in human capital management. In that chapter, I have outlined the strategy utilized during the search for existing literature, taken an in-depth look at the theoretical framework for this research, and outlined existing literature in separate sections. These sections include discussion of mentoring in various settings both past and present and comparison of mentoring in civilian organizations and career fields that are male-dominated similar to the military.

Chapter 3 includes the research design and methodology for this research. The research design and rationale are provided and outlined to support this topic. The phenomenological approach is discussed regarding appropriateness for this research. The data collection, role of the researcher, and research questions are outlined. Finally, data

analysis is outlined while capturing concerns for trustworthiness, ethical procedures, and protection of participants.

Chapter 4 has the description of the results of this study regarding the lived experience of cross-gender mentoring among U.S. Army officers. It begins with a restatement of the research questions and description of the participant selection process, the limitations of the participant pool, and data gathering for this study. The chapter concludes with a summary of the themes that emerged during the data analysis process.

Chapter 5 begins with a restatement of the purpose of this phenomenological study. In this chapter, I discuss the themes that were uncovered during data analysis and share the feelings that were explored through the participants. Chapter 5 is concluded with a summary and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Mentoring is a developmental tool organizations use to promote leadership by retaining and growing talent (Bryant, 2009). It facilitates human capital management (Doward, 2008), and when applied uniformly, mentoring ensures employee socialization and fosters diverse leadership (Florentino, 2008). However, when the entire workforce does not equally experience mentoring, growing effective and diverse leaders is hindered (Bryant, 2009). Hu et al. (2008) discussed intentions to enter into a mentoring relationship, the selection process that occurs when choosing mentors, and preferences to be mentored by people with shared similarities (e.g., race and gender). Linehan and Scullion (2008) discussed the impact of mentorship on growing female leaders and noted the need to explore the effects of gender differences in such mentoring relationships. It is known that effective mentoring does occur between mentors of the opposite gender despite barriers such as gender (Kao et al., 2014). However, there seems to be a consensus among researchers that there is a need for more research regarding gender diversity in mentoring relationships and its effects (Florentino, 2008; Hill, 2008; Kimball, 2015; Melanson, 2007).

Literature Research Strategy

Developing the logic for this qualitative study required an extensive effort to find a comprehensive base of literature to pinpoint the knowledge gap regarding cross-gender mentoring in the U.S. Army. For this search, databases such as ProQuest Central, PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, and SAGE Premier were used. Other sites utilized include

EBSCOhost, Walden University Research Library, and government and military websites. Key search words such as *mentoring, cross-gender, gender, counseling, female mentoring, male mentoring,* and *employee socialization* were used to find relevant articles. A combination of words such as *military, Army, U.S. Army,* and *male dominant occupations* were used to narrow down the number of articles relevant to the current study.

The sparse research knowledge concerning cross-gender mentoring in the military, to include the U.S. Army, increased the difficulty for compiling a base of literature for this research. Through consultation with the Walden Library staff, an alternate means of search was recommended to generate more articles regarding this research topic. Utilizing the linkage between Google Scholar and the Walden Library provided opportunity to explore literature using natural language for search criteria.

This three-pronged research strategy initially focused on cross-gender mentoring of any type. The results returned some literature regarding cross-gender mentoring among the fields of academia and the medical profession. As further combinations of terms were utilized, results provided more literature that closely resembled that of cross-gender mentoring in the U.S. Army, such as law enforcement and the military in general. As more of the above terms were utilized to narrow the focus of the literature search, more granular detail was discovered, providing sufficient literature to explore the topic of cross-gender mentoring among military officers.

Theoretical Framework

Despite previous research regarding mentoring in civilian organizations, only a few recent studies of mentoring in military organizations exist (Bryant, 2009; Doward, 2008; Florentino, 2008; Fulmer et al., 2009; Hill, 2008; Hu et al., 2008; Jahnke, 2008; Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Lawrence, 2009; Melanson, 2007, 2009; Nieberding, 2007). Understanding why U.S. Army officers make the conscious decision to select a mentor or mentee, and the impact that gender has on the selection process, can provide insight into the feelings of potential mentors and mentees in a manner that can dissuade any negative associations as mentioned in Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis and Tajfel's (1982) social identity theory, as women and men can be viewed as members of separate groups, especially in the U.S. Army culture. As Johnson (2007) discussed, people are attracted to other people with whom they share similarities; however, individuals can have successful mentoring experiences with people who are different, such as people of the opposite gender. By having more contact between people of different genders, gender bias and gender separation can be reduced, especially if both share common goals (Allport, 1954).

This study is based on Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis theory, and Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social identity theory. Allport expanded on a previously developed contact hypothesis by Williams. The basis of Allport's theory on specific groups and their lack of knowledge of members of other groups. This theory applies to this study of cross-gender mentoring as members of the male population of U.S. Army officers may feel that they lack the requisite knowledge to effectively mentor women, or vice versa. This lack of information can promote unequal opportunities to members of the other group, in this

case, female U.S. Army officers. Social identity theory examines how socialization effects an individual's development and identity within a group or organizational setting (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Further, according to social identity theory, individuals form their identities based on their membership to their specific group (Tajfel, 1982). This is accomplished by comparing oneself to members of other groups, and experiencing negative feelings associated with these other groups and members of these groups (Tajfel, 1982).

Contact Hypothesis Theory

Williams (1947) developed the contact hypothesis in 1947, and Allport (1954) expanded on this theory in 1954. According to the contact hypothesis, conflicts among different groups of people arise from lack of knowledge and information regarding the other group. Allport's contact hypothesis has been "the prevailing framework for understanding when contact between members of unequal status groups will lead to a reduction of prejudice since it was first articulated in the early 1950s" (Chavous, 2005, p. 241).

The best way to reduce the potential for conflict is to encourage contact between different groups, leading to attitudes that are more positive between groups (Hayes et al., 2007). Allport (1954) observed when the following necessary conditions are met, interactions for successful integration and reduction of prejudice occur: (a) meaningful associations between members of different groups, (b) groups of people working toward a common goal, (c) group members having similar social status, and (d) institutions encouraging positive intergroup interactions.

Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory examines how socialization effects an individual's development and identity within a group or organizational setting (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Further, social identity theory posits individuals form their identities based on their membership to their specific group (Tajfel, 1982). This is accomplished by comparing oneself to members of other groups and experiencing negative feelings associated with these other groups and members of these groups (Tajfel, 1982). Social identity theory resulted from an examination of the effect of social forces on individual identity development. Per social identity theory, individuals base their identity on membership in groups. People determine their personal value through comparisons with individuals in other groups and feel compelled to view other groups to maintain a positive view of their own group (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 2001).

The phenomenon is a part of in-group and out-group theory positing individuals favor people in their own group over people outside their group. Brewer (1999) stated, "Ultimately, many forms of discrimination and bias may develop not because out-groups are hated, but because positive emotions such as admiration, sympathy and trust are reserved for the in-group and withheld from the out-group" (p. 438). Social identity theorists have asserted that people believe in-group members are more like themselves than out-group members (Tajfel & Forgas, 2000). Social identity theory provides a framework for understanding human self-perception. An implication of social identity theory might be that people who are of the same gender identify themselves as more like each other than to people of different genders.

Mentoring in Civilian Organizations

Mentoring Past and Present

Tracing back to Greek mythology reflecting the relationship between Odysseus's friend and his son, Telemachus, mentoring has played a vital role in the development of individuals and organizations (Marquardt & Loan, 2006). Since Levinson et al. published work on mentoring in 1978 and numerous researchers have studied mentoring in the workplace, the concept of mentoring has evolved (Marquardt & Loan, 2006). Mentoring research has also evolved to keep pace with changing factors such as technology, growing diversity, globalization, innovation, and the restructuring of companies (Marquardt & Loan, 2006). The concept of mentoring has been, and will be influenced continuously by those changes (de Janasz & Godshalk, 2013). Kimball (2015) discussed modern mentoring in the digital age and studied mentoring in online communities and effects of mentoring via computer versus face-to-face mentoring. The digital age has expanded the opportunities for mentoring, and has globalized the capability of such.

Organizational Changes

Organizational trends have shaped management practices through different phases in the United States. In the early 1900s, much work was being performed on assembly lines; scientific management theory was effective as tasks were standardized and employees received rewards for their productivity (Weber, 1947). Taylor's main belief involved the responsibilities of management in adhering to scientifically determined procedures and stated that workers could be refitted, updated, or recalibrated such as machines were during that time to complete new tasks (Weber).

Weber (1947) adapted previous theories regarding large-scale organizations and introduced systematization to find the most logical way to operate. Although Weber believed that practicing bureaucracy might negatively affect personal liberties, he agreed that bureaucracy is the most possible systematic way to organize. Practicing rules and standard procedures enhanced the performance, and hierarchy of authority helped with command and control. Since the development of Weber's theory of bureaucracy, management scholars have incorporated the current study of behaviors in their theories (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). With the advent of the Hawthorne's research, the emphasis shifted from production to people and the human needs, and with the emergence of advanced technology, international markets, and a better-educated workforce, the world of management became complex (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). Modern management approaches combined past developments with current developments, and leaders continued to search for a better understanding of human capital management, to include its purpose, scope, and functions (Lankau & Scandura, 2007).

Several behavioral scientists began research regarding the influence of management, and how it relates to employee productivity and advancement. From this research, better organizational performance and understanding of people in the organizational structure was sought. This was driven by the need to balance the needs of the individual and of the organization, as each seeks its own objectives; however, each are related to each other. To improve employees' productivity and better meet organizational goals, organizational theorists amended their theories in phases.

Concurrently, organizational leaders had to modify their thinking to address increasing challenges emerging from the complexity of organizations and changes in the workforce.

Advanced technology, education, increasing workforce diversity, competition, and restructuring and downsizing are challenges requiring organizational leaders to rely extensively on the ability of employees to adapt quickly (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). Van Horn (2006) interviewed over 16,000 American workers, and found them uncertain and stressed about the security of their jobs. After bad previous experiences, employees did not trust their employers and feared layoffs. Workers understand they need more education, training, and skills, but they rarely know what they should learn or how to obtain the best education and training (Van Horn, 2006). Employers have difficulty finding well-prepared workers, but they are unwilling to pay for training because they are uncertain about the longevity of new hires (Van Horn, 2006).

Workers from the current generation hold different perspectives and beliefs about careers than baby boomers (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). Current workers do not place as much value on loyalty to an organization and do not hesitate to change careers several times in their lifetime after acquiring new skills and experience (Heffes, 2005). To work with the new generation of workers and stay competitive, organizational leaders must offer various programs to increase job satisfaction and organizational commitment from employees. Mentoring seems to be the answer to the problem (Heffes, 2005). Researchers have shown that by having a mentor, employees are happier with their jobs and more committed to the organization (Sosik et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2007; van Emmerik, 2004).

Mentoring Research

Although the concept of mentoring goes back to Greek mythology, the study of mentoring in the workplace has only gained significant attention in the past 25 years (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). Baugh and Fagenson-Eland (2007) reported using the PsycInfo database with the essential word *mentor* and obtaining over 1,000 publications for the past years, with over 250 published since 2005. Baugh and Fagenson-Eland attributed the renewed interest in mentoring to major structural changes in organizations, access to advanced technology, and an increasing number of businesses worldwide competing in the global market.

Researchers have discussed the benefits of mentoring in numerous studies. Previous research findings supported the perception that mentoring added value to employees and organizations (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005), especially in terms of career outcomes (Fagenson, 2010; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Scandura & Williams, 2004; Tharenou, 2005; van Emmerik, 2004; Wasserstein, Quistberg, & Shea, 2007). When mentees are in satisfying mentoring relationships, they tend to hold positive attitudes toward their work and career. Mentoring can reduce negative career outcomes when mentees face adverse working conditions (van Emmerik, 2004) and produces positive psychosocial benefits. Psychosocial mentoring can help mentees develop a healthy self-image (Simon, Perry, & Roff, 2008). Mentors demonstrate beneficial behaviors through role modeling, counseling, and confirmation (Chao, 2007; Murrell, Blake-Beard, Porter, & Williamson, 2006).

Changes in workforce dynamics and demographics have required changes in management philosophies (Marquardt & Loan, 2006). For over 20 years, scholars have studied mentoring from different perspectives on organizational change (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). Numerous researchers have explored the benefits of mentoring relationships and have begun to study mentoring practices from the perspectives of organizational environments, informal as opposed to formal mentoring, mentoring across gender, peer mentoring, mentoring programs, and the stages of mentoring relationships (Fagenson, 2010; Hezlett & Gibson, 2005; Kimball, 2015; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Scandura & Williams, 2004; Tharenou, 2005; van Emmerik, 2004; Wasserstein et al., 2007)..

With the increased changes in workforce diversity, gender has become a factor in mentoring studies. Researchers have begun to investigate problems within organizations regarding diversity, and mentoring relationships (Barker, 2007; Hill, Del Favero, & Ropers-Huilman, 2005; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Murrell et al., 2006). In their efforts to promote diversity through mentoring programs, organizational leaders face the question of whether gender is a factor in mentoring relationships (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004). To date, few studies about gender and mentoring in the U.S. Army have been conducted, leaving much room for more focused research (Kimball, 2015).

Gender, Diversity, and Mentoring

Scholars have focused interest on studying mentoring in the context of gender (Johnson, 2007; Kao et al., 2014). With continued changes in organizational dynamics, it is imperative that gender and mentoring be researched to provide equal opportunity for

growth and promotion through the organizational structure to produce diverse leadership (Kao et al., 2014). The study of mentoring and gender is important for various reasons (Kao et al., 2014). As organizational landscapes evolve with time, organizations must learn how to support and lead people from different cultures and backgrounds (e.g. different groups; Johnson-Bailey & Cuervo, 2004). With increasing diversity, even if the workforce adapts to and assimilates more cross-gender relationships, some may still face the glass-ceiling effect (Blake-Beard, Murrell, & Thomas, 2006). Studying and understanding mentoring and gender may help people of different groups attain senior-level positions (Blake-Beard et al., 2006). How an organization develops its employees directly affects the company's growth (Marquardt & Loan, 2006).

Despite corporate America's efforts with an estimated $8 billion spent annually on training, recruitment, and career development to promote diversity, the "twenty-five year diversity crusade" (Klein, 2008, p. 2) has led to much wasted money and many disillusioned observers. Researchers at the Level Playing Field Institute conducted a study in January 2007 and found more than 2 million professionals and managers left their jobs every year in the United States because of the cumulative effect of small comments, jokes, and e-mails perceived as offensive (McKeen & Bujaki, 2007). The employee loss costs employers an estimated $64 billion a year. Other results of the study showed that women were three times more likely to leave their jobs than men (Level Playing Field Institute, 2007).

According to University of California, Harvard University, and University of Minnesota researchers, diversity training can increase managerial bias and often ends

with more damaging results and unsatisfied employees (Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006). Corporate leaders hire diversity consultants who make assumptions about what works and what does not. Klein (2008) believed some of the faulty assumptions include (a) most managers are not biased, (b) people who are hired are responsible for succeeding in the organization where everyone has an equal opportunity, and (c) the most qualified person for a job can be clearly determined. However, organizational leaders are continuously making efforts to enhance diversity programs. Firms without such programs have significantly fewer diverse management teams, and 79% of senior managers at firms with diversity programs believed that embracing diversity is a part of organization's success strategy (Hartman, 2005). As a part of their internal diversity initiatives, organizational leaders have developed mentoring programs to help employees learn ways to advance their careers. Karacay-Aydin (2009) suggested building formal mentoring programs if organizations want to attract and retain more diverse talent.

For women, hidden biases potentially become barriers to career advancement because of a lack of commitment by leaders; lack of mentoring, career development, and feedback; and an unwelcoming environment (Klein, 2008). Klein (2008) stated such biases were observable when distinguishing between those employees who received direct performance feedback in a timely fashion for the sake of career advancement and those who were invited to have a drink after work. A pertinent question to examine is whether senior leaders understand the experiences of those who are different from them.

Goldberg (2005) examined the interviewing behaviors of applicant recruiters. Applicants who were the same gender as the recruiters received more favorable interview

assessments than applicants who were not the same. Kilian et al. (2005) determined such finding points to a potentially negative effect on women and other minorities as they are members of another group, or members of the out-group as opposed to their male counterparts. Although the number of women continuously grows in management and other positions, their mentoring experiences are much less than their male counterparts (McKeen & Bujaki, 2007).

Gender can become a barrier in mentoring since gender influences access to any type of mentoring relationship (Hyun, 2005). Several researchers have demonstrated that women have difficulty getting access to mentors (Blancero & DelCampo, 2005; Hyun, 2005; Kilian et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2005). The phenomenon may be due to women preferring mentors of their own gender (Gonzalez-Figueroa & Young, 2005; Guiffrida, 2005; Holmes, Land, & Hinton-Hudson, 2007), but the number of mentors of the same gender within an organization is small (Holmes et al., 2007; Murrell et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2007). Access to male mentors also can be limited because of interpersonal barriers and differences in background (Murrell et al., 2006). Furthermore, most mentors are reluctant to mentor women have access to mentors, differences in job level, job field, and gender bias represent barriers to a mentoring relationship (Klein, 2008; Murrell et al., 2006).

Cross-gender Mentoring

Even though organizations are attempting to promote diversity through a tool like mentoring programs, the issues of gender differences and gender bias still act as inhibitors to effective cross-gender mentoring (Marquardt & Loan, 2006). Several

researchers studied cross-gender mentoring and discussed factors that might enhance the mentoring relationship (Hu et al., 2008; Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Kao et al., 2014; Kimball, 2015). Findings from recent studies on the formation of mentoring relationships indicate that people are usually more attracted to, and feel comfortable with individuals they perceive to be like them (Thomas et al., 2005). First impressions are based on initial observations such as gender, and people tend to associate with people that are perceived to be in their same group (Turban, Dougherty, & Lee, 2002, p. 242).

Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2004) are two researchers who utilized their experience with cross-gender mentoring. Johnson-Bailey, an associate professor and African American woman, and Cervero, a full professor and Caucasian man, had 13 years in a successful mentoring relationship that began when they were teacher and student. They found the following issues academicians face when entering in cross-gender mentoring relationships: (a) trust between mentor and mentee, (b) acknowledged and unacknowledged bias, (c) visibility and risks pertinent to minority faculty, (d) power and paternalism, (e) benefits to mentor and mentee, and (f) the double-edged sword of otherness in academia. Johnson-Bailey and Cervero understood the role that gender and race play in society, for both are social constructs that affect the lives of American people every day. Johnson-Bailey and Cervero learned to be aware of these factors, and to exclude them from their mentoring relationship. For a successful mentoring relationship, mentors and mentees must accept social realities and not pretend the barriers and boundaries do not exist (Johnson-Bailey, & Cervero, 2004).

Mentoring in the Military

In July 2008, Lieutenant General Michael D. Rochelle, the U.S. Army's Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, stated diversity was a national security issue everyone should be concerned about because it is a "force multiplier for our soldiers" (Baker, 2008, para. 40). It took 6 years to recruit nearly 1,000 Arabic linguists in the U.S. Army. Rochelle stated the U.S. Army needed to be prepared for the next point of conflict. Diversity is a strengthening factor for the military, and the rate of racial-minority recruitment is increasing, but no specific quotas or programs targeting racial minorities exist because the U.S. Army is an all-volunteer force (Baker, 2008).

During a July 28, 2008 interview on the Pentagon channel, the first African American Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, retired U.S. Army General Colin L. Powell, discussed the promise of the Declaration of Independence that "all men are equal" (Garamone, 2008). Powell stated, "We are not where we need to be. We need to keep working to open up avenues of opportunity in this country" (Garamone, 2008, para. 10). He talked about the importance of mentoring, stating all service members have the responsibility to mentor their subordinates. Some of leaders' mentoring responsibilities are helping to prepare subordinates to access higher ranks through pointing out strengths, and areas in need of improvement with examples (Garamone, 2008).

Mentoring Policy

The concept of leadership and mentoring in the U.S. Army has also been affected by advances in technology (Army Mentorship, 2007). Like many other organizations, the U.S. Army has attempted to increase awareness of the importance of mentoring and

diversity by creating a formal mentoring program accessible via the U.S. Army Deputy Chief of Staff website (Army Mentorship, 2007). U.S. Army regulations, manuals, and pamphlets are also constantly being updated as leaders see the need for changes.

In The U.S. Army's (2006) field manual, the term *mentoring* occurs 67 times with the following definition: "A person of greater experience and a person of lesser experience that is characterized by mutual trust and respect" (p. 3-16). Mentoring is a future-oriented developmental activity focused on growing as a leader in the profession (Army Mentorship, 2007). Mentoring is more personalized and individualized than teaching and coaching (Army Mentorship, 2007). It is an optional, subjective process between a person more senior, and a person that is junior (Army Mentorship, 2007). It involves candid dialogue, career advice, caring and support, commitment and assistance in providing information to help grow future leaders (Army Mentorship, 2007).

Leadership and Mentoring

While mentoring correlates with positive career outcomes and job satisfaction, in the U.S. Army, mentoring is also tied to winning in combat. Bass (1990) stated, "Leadership has been considered a critical factor in military successes since records have been kept; that is, better-led forces repeatedly have been victorious over poorly led forces" (p. 9). In 2005, the U.S. Army launched the Army Mentorship Program as an effort to leave a legacy through mentorship (Army Mentorship, 2007). By recognizing those who made the ultimate sacrifice in war, the Secretary of the Army, the U.S. Army Chief of Staff, and the Sergeant Major of the Army asked soldiers and civilians to begin

mentoring someone of less experience as one way to leave a personal legacy (Army Mentorship, 2007).

Numerous researchers have studied the connection between mentoring and leadership (Barratt et al., 2014; Bernard, 1988; Bryant, 2009; Dougherty et al., 2007; Florentino, 2008; Fulmer et al., 2009; Gersick & Kram, 2002; Harvey et al., 2009; Hill, 2008; Hu et al., 2008; Johnson, 2007; Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Kao et al., 2014; Kimball, 2015; Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Melanson, 2007, 2009; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007; Sosik et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2007; van Emmerik, 2004). Johnson-Bailey and Cervero's (2004) findings from their experience as mentor and mentee contributed greatly to leadership studies. It is critical to understand the relationship between mentoring and leadership development to comprehend the practice of mentoring and its benefits in the 21st century work environment. More importantly, it is imperative to understand the thoughts and feelings associated with the decision to enter a mentoring relationship with members of the opposite gender.

Summary and Transition

With unknown outcomes for the war on terrorism, U.S. Army leaders must continuously focus on strong leadership development. With a growing diversity in the U.S. Army Officer corps, gender cannot be a limiting factor when entering into a mentoring relationship. Research has shown that gender remains a factor in effective mentoring in many organizations (Barratt et al., 2014; Bernard, 1988; Bryant, 2009; Dougherty et al., 2007; Florentino, 2008; Fulmer et al., 2009; Gersick & Kram, 2002; Harvey et al., 2009; Hill, 2008; Hu et al., 2008; Johnson, 2007; Johnson & Anderson,

2010; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Kao et al., 2014; Kimball, 2015; Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Melanson, 2007, 2009; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007; Sosik et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2007; van Emmerik, 2004).

Mentoring and leadership development are closely linked, and U.S. Army leaders must emphasize both (Kimball, 2015). Emphasis on mentoring studies has increased considerably with changes in organizations and management philosophies (Kimball, 2015). Gender has also become a factor in mentoring relationships as diversity continuously grows in organizations (Kao et al., 2014). While numerous researchers have shown a correlation between mentoring relationships and positive career outcomes, many researchers have become more interested in mentoring relationships from the context of gender (Barratt et al., 2014; Bernard, 1988; Bryant, 2009; Dougherty et al., 2007; Florentino, 2008; Fulmer et al., 2009; Gersick & Kram, 2002; Harvey et al., 2009; Hill, 2008; Hu et al., 2008; Johnson, 2007; Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Kao et al., 2014; Kimball, 2015; Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Melanson, 2007, 2009; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007; Sosik et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2007; van Emmerik, 2004).

The study of gender and mentoring has become imperative as organizational leaders are faced with growing diversity and must learn how to support employees of other backgrounds (Johnson & Anderson, 2010). Research has shown that gender remains a factor in effective mentoring in many organizations (Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Linehan & Scullion, 2008). Numerous researchers have effectively shown through research that a correlation exists between mentoring relationships and positive career

outcomes (Harvey et al., 2009; Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Kimball, 2015; Linehan & Scullion, 2008). This has drawn more interest from researchers, and additional emphasis regarding this topic of mentoring relationships from the context of gender has been explored. Mentoring is a significant part of leadership, and a significant body of research has examined the relationship between mentoring and leadership (Harvey et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2008; Johnson, 2007; Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Kimball, 2015; Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Melanson, 2009).

The main characteristic of the current organizational environment is continuous change, which requires strong, resilient, and adaptable leadership (Florentino, 2008). Mentoring is a part of leadership and a significant body of research has examined the relationship between mentoring and leadership (Barratt et al., 2014; Bernard, 1988; Bryant, 2009; Dougherty et al., 2007; Florentino, 2008; Fulmer et al., 2009; Gersick & Kram, 2002; Harvey et al., 2009; Hill, 2008; Hu et al., 2008; Johnson, 2007; Johnson & Anderson, 2010; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Kao et al., 2014; Kimball, 2015; Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Melanson, 2007, 2009; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007; Sosik et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 2007; van Emmerik, 2004). Despite numerous studies of mentoring in civilian organizations, no studies about cross-gender mentoring relationships in the U.S. Army exist. This qualitative study is an exploration of the thoughts and feelings associated with U.S. Army Officers deciding to mentor members of the opposite gender.

Chapter 3 presents the research design and methodology for this research. The research design and rationale are provided and outlined to support this topic. The

phenomenological approach is discussed regarding appropriateness for this research. The data collection, role of the researcher, and research questions are outlined. Finally, data analysis is outlined while capturing concerns for trustworthiness, ethical procedures, and protection of participants.

Chapter 4 describes the results of this study regarding the lived experience of cross-gender mentoring among U.S. Army Officers. It begins with a restatement of the research questions, description of the participant selection process, and the limitations of the participant pool. It concludes with a summary of the themes that emerged during the data analysis process. Chapter 5 begins with a restatement of the purpose of this phenomenological study. It discusses the themes that were uncovered during data analysis, and shares the feelings that were explored through the participants, and shows variations between male and female participants. The chapter concludes with a summary, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

A study was conducted to explore the feelings associated with the decisions to select or not select members of the opposite gender for mentorship within the U.S. Army. Forty participants from the U.S. Army Officer Corps, 20 men and 20 women, were recruited using purposive sampling from various U.S. Army bases using the officer personnel system. Once the interviews were complete, I conducted manual data reduction and axial coding to identify themes. Broomé (n.d.) described this process as taking the naïve data as described by the participants (p. 165) and transforming the empirical evidence into "psychologically sensitive descriptive expressions" (p. 166). These data were then sorted and compartmentalized into meaningful units and separated into themes (Broomé, n.d.). Then the raw data were loaded into NVivo 11 Pro Plus software for analysis. The themes from both manual coding and what was provided through NVivo were compared and combined. These collective data made it possible to gain a holistic and comprehensive view of similarities and differences regarding the feelings associated with the selection of mentors and mentees, which may provide insight into positive mentoring experiences across the U.S. Army.

Research Design and Rationale

Moustakas (1994) described qualitative research as the naturalistic means to explore and understand the richness of the human or social phenomenon from the perspective of individuals or groups without attempting to control uncontrollable social variables. Broomé (n.d.) described qualitative research as the process of taking the

"naïve" data as provided by the participants (p. 165) and describing the structure of the psychological phenomena through data analysis so that it can be understood in a deeper, more holistic, and comprehensive way (p. 164). Giorgi (2010) described the qualitative approach as taking the descriptive data as provided by the participants, and turning them into interpretive data that are used to illustrate the actual experiences as experienced by the participants, but in a manner that others can visualize, and further described phenomenology as "the study of the experiential world of an individual" (p. 5). Qualitative research is a scientific approach to a natural inclination to investigate unresolved social phenomena followed by an academically rigorous examination of the reported phenomena to produce themes, concepts, and patterns to reveal the nature of reality from the participants' perspectives (Moustakas, 1994). The five methods of inquiry for qualitative research consist of narrative research, phenomenology, ethnographies, grounded theory, and case study (Creswell, 2008. The phenomenological method was the selected because of its appropriateness for the study. Phenomenology is defined as a method of inquiry allowing the researcher to learn about a phenomenon by identifying the core of the experience as lived by the participants (Moustakas, 1994).

This qualitative study utilized a phenomenological approach to explore the perceptions, thoughts, and feelings associated with the decisions to select or not select members of the opposite gender for mentorship. More specifically, an empirical phenomenology design was used to capture the feelings that drive these decisions regarding cross-gender mentoring. For this study, the empirical phenomenology design was appropriate because it explores lived experiences in the form of narratives, stories,

anecdotes, and existing accounts, and it offers the researcher ways to learn about phenomena that are usually difficult to observe or measure (Wilding & Whiteford, 2005).

To obtain an accurate and thorough understanding of this phenomenon, semistructured interviews were conducted. Semistructured interviews were most appropriate for this study, as most participants may have only been available for a single interview (Bernard, 1988). The use of open-ended interview questions afforded the participants the flexibility to give responses that provide depth and breadth and are informed by their feelings and beliefs (Moustakas, 1994). Using purposive sampling, 20 male and 20 female officers were selected using the U.S. Army officer personnel system. Once all of the e-mail interviews were received, and the follow-up phone calls were completed with all participants, I began the data reduction, coding, and theme analysis process. Initially, the coding process began with open coding. This process concentrated primarily on text to discover and capture distinct concepts and categories from the collected data. This process required separating the raw data into individual concepts, then further breaking them down into major and minor concepts, then categorized. These concepts were then separated by those that support the study, do not support the study, or introduce new ideas. It was apparent that after reviewing and coding the data, due to the focused nature of the research (cross-gender mentoring as it applies only to U.S. Army officers), almost every concept had the revolving concept of mentoring, gender, or both. In order to accurately code and capture the true concepts, themes, and patterns from the collected data, I chose to use axial coding. This differs from open coding, as researchers utilizes their own concepts while reviewing the data, and confirms that these concepts,

themes, and patterns accurately reflect the participant responses. Once these concepts were confirmed, I explored these concepts, themes, and patterns, categorized them, then compartmentalized by men and women, then recorded based on gender. Once the manual data analysis was completed, the original data were uploaded to NVivo 11 Pro Plus software for analysis. The themes and concepts from NVivo were compared and combined with the manual data analysis product. These data made it possible to identify similarities and differences in the feelings associated with the selection of mentors and mentees, and may provide insight into positive mentoring experiences across the U.S. Army.

Research Questions

The following research questions and subquestions were constructed to address the current gap in existing literature:

Research Question 1: What are the feelings associated with the selection of cross-gender mentors and mentees for U.S. Army officers?

A. What factors do mentors consider when selecting male as compared to female mentees?

B. What criteria do female officers consider when selecting mentors as compared to men?

Research Question 2: How does gender bias effect the selection of cross-gender mentors or mentees in the U.S. Army?

A. How does gender bias effect male mentor's selection of female mentees as compared to female mentors selecting male mentees?

B. How does gender bias effect the selection in more male-dominated job fields in the U.S. Army as compared to job fields where there are more women?

Role of the Researcher

Moustakas (1994) described the role of a qualitative researcher is to approach the study like a stranger approaching a new culture where no detail is too small, and everything is richly described to elucidate a novel phenomenon. Furthermore, qualitative researchers must also scrutinize and account for how their personal experiences and principles may impact the interpretation of the study (Moustakas, 1994). Other role responsibilities include providing information for readers to understand the topic, gaining access to participants, developing an ethical participant and researcher relationship, ensuring the protection of participant rights, providing checks and balances against ethical issues, and analyzing the research materials to conclude the study (Moustakas, 1994).

The role of a qualitative researcher is to collect data from each of the participants, followed by an analysis of the data to generate themes, concepts, and patterns concerning the burnout phenomenon from the providers' perspectives (Moustakas, 1994). Furthermore, the researcher's role also precludes injecting personal bias into the study by preventing the reporting of participant perspectives. Being aware of personal life experiences and beliefs would reduce the likelihood of asserting personal bias and unduly influencing participants or the reporting of study results (Moustakas, 1994).

All participants were chosen utilizing the U.S. Army's personnel management system based on their gender, years of service, and ensuring a wide variety of job fields.

Only officers who did not work under my supervision and senior officers with whom I do not or have not worked for in at least 5 years were recruited for this research. This helped avoid personal relationships, or conflict with work roles that could impact the data collection and accuracy.

As a researcher, my personal experiences may lead to bias, and can ultimately influence the study outcome. My military service and ongoing intimate relationship with the military community is a potential for personal and ideological bias. I am an active duty U.S. Army officer with over 23 years of service. Most of my friends are active duty U.S. Army officers, or have retired. No officers who work within the same major command or higher headquarters were selected to participate to alleviate concerns with ethical issues or thoughts of internal incentives for their participation. This allowed me to avoid any situations or thoughts of quid pro quo. I addressed the potential for bias by allowing the participants to express their experiences through open-ended, semistructured questions, followed by a detailed and rich description of interview content (Moustakas, 1994).

Methodology

Participant Pool

All participants selected for this research were active duty U.S. Army officers from various bases across the continental United States, and some officers stationed abroad. These bases represent a cross section of officers serving in combat arms (e.g., infantry), combat support (e.g., intelligence), and combat service support (e.g., human resources) in operations united and garrison facilities. None of the participants selected

worked with each other in the same unit; however, all participants were employed by the same organization as I am. This study did not include U.S. Army officers from the special branch category (medical and legal), which also precluded any officers who were direct commissioned. Officers were screened for participation by querying the U.S. Army personnel system for officers who were in the ACC, and with a minimum of 10 years of service.

Participant Selection

A well-designed phenomenological study is based on systematically organized methods to fulfill the requirements of the inquiry approach (Moustakas, 1994). For the purposes of participant selection, only U.S. Army officers who were in the ACC were selected for this study. This included officers who were commissioned through the United States Military Academy (USMA), the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC), and the Army Officers' Candidate School (OCS). This study did not include officers who were in the special branch category (medical and legal), which also precluded any officers who were direct commissioned. Officers were screened for participation by querying the U.S. Army personnel system for officers that are in the ACC, and with a minimum of 10 years of service. The following procedures guided recruitment and data collection.

1. Build a list of U.S. Army officers who meet the criteria for participation utilizing the U.S. Army personnel system.

2. Recruit enough members to fulfill the requirements of 20 male and 20 female U.S. Army officers. Additional officers were reserved as alternates in the event of participants withdrawing from the study.
3. Send e-mails to all potential participants containing a project description letter and request for participation.
4. Individuals interested in the study were added to a list for participation based on the previously determined selection criteria.
5. The selected participants were personally contacted and scheduled to complete the interview questions. Telephone calls were scheduled to follow up regarding any questions from the outcome of the interview questions.
6. Participants were given a consent form and a detailed description of the study and participant rights.
7. Data gained from the semistructured questions were collected digitally via e-mail and stored in a secure location on an encrypted external hard drive that contains only information pertinent to this research.
8. Follow-up contact was made with all participants via telephone and was recorded for potential data collection.

Instrumentation

For this research, open-ended, semistructured interview questions were e-mailed to the participants. Utilizing e-mail dissuaded participants from providing answers that were inaccurate or untruthful for the purposes of providing an answer the participant believed I as the researcher was looking for. By utilizing e-mail for the initial research

questions, the participants were able to answer the research questions in the privacy of their own homes without face-to-face interaction. I followed up with all of the participants via telephone in order to provide clarification for either the participant or me. The complete responses to interview questions are stored digitally on an external hard drive that is utilized for this research only, password protected, and stored in a locked fire box. Utilizing semistructured questions allowed participants the latitude to answer the questions in their own voice, rather than trying to fit their answer within the parameters of a structured research question.

Data Collection

For this research, 40 participants were selected from the ACC. This category is made up of 13 job fields. The reason 40 participants were selected was to sample from across as many of the different job fields as possible in order to determine if the phenomenon exists across all job fields, and to avoid narrow application. The 40 participants that were selected yielded nine different job fields which covered career fields from combat arms, support, and service support, covering most of the ACC. Of the 40 participants, 20 were male, and 20 were female. Each participant provided their consent to participate, then were provided with 10 interview questions that included three subquestions, for a total of 13 interview questions.

Because it was not financially feasible for me to personally visit each participant due to geographic separation, I used open-ended interview questions that I first e-mailed to all 40 male and female participants to record their responses in the setting of their choice, then follow-up phone calls were made with all 40 participants. This allowed the

participants ample time to reflect upon their feelings and experiences with regards to cross-gender mentoring. The participants were all asked to answer in as much detail as they felt was necessary to tell their story. The lack of face-to-face interviews enhanced the participant's ability to openly answer the interview questions without the interviewer present, providing further feelings of anonymity. This method of collecting data has grown in popularity, and has proven to be very effective (Ratislavová, & Ratislav, 2014). Given the possible constraints of the researcher, and their ability to effectively travel to conduct face-to-face interviews, and the advances in technology, e-mail interviews have gained traction in the social science community (Ratislavová, & Ratislav, 2014). E-mail interviews are often preferred by some participants due to concerns for anonymity, who often prefer the intimacy of the environment of their choice (Ratislavová, & Ratislav, 2014, p. 452). Another benefit of e-mail interviews is the research cost, and the significant reduction in time to complete the interviews, to include the time to transcribe and reduce the raw data (Ratislavová, & Ratislav, 2014, p. 453).

Once the interview responses were received, I thoroughly reviewed the naïve data collected from the participant responses, and recorded any notes regarding the responses, or questions that arose from the feedback (Broomé, n.d., p. 165). Miscommunication, misunderstanding, and errors in recording were mitigated by contacting all participants for follow-up telephone conversations to review and discuss each interview question, and discuss any questions from either party, which further validated and solidified the responses provided by the participants (Giorgi, 2010, p. 13). During each phone conversation, each interview question was discussed, and their response was reviewed. I

then asked the participants if they had any questions regarding the interview question before moving on to each subsequent question.

Telephonic interviews were recorded using Vonage online and transcribed using Dragon Speaking Naturally software. Each recording was saved in a Microsoft Word format for data editing and later data reduction and analysis. I transcribed and coded the responses and telephonic calls personally to enhance data accuracy. Completing manual data reduction, combined with automated data reduction via NVivo 11 Pro Plus software also further insured validity and reliability of the data. Both interview instruments were tested utilizing test data prior to moving forward with the participants and actual interview question responses and recorded data to insure validity and reliability of the instrumentation. This was accomplished over 36 calendar days. No variations from the original data collection plans were made. No unusual circumstances were encountered during the process of data collection.

Data Analysis

Data analysis began manually by thoroughly reviewing the responses of each participant, to include the recorded telephonic follow-up calls. The telephonic recordings were then transcribed to a Microsoft Word format. Utilizing the responses, notes, and transcribed data, data reduction was completed manually. This was accomplished by first transforming the rich text from voluminous data into meaningful data by placing the data into a shortened, logical, ordered, and simplified form. Once data reduction was complete, I reviewed the reduced data for themes, concepts, patterns, and sentiment. These themes, concepts, patterns, and sentiment were compared with the data from

NVivo 11 Pro Plus to be utilized to create a word cloud and a word tree in order to pictorially represent the themes, concepts, in a way that allows the viewer to visualize the patterns in the data, and envision the sentiment associated with it. These data were then nested to the research questions listed in chapter 1, then analyzed and recorded to show the findings.

With the manual process, I began with a technique called open coding. This type of coding concentrates primarily on text to discover and capture distinct concepts and categories from the collected data. This process begins with separating the data by taking the raw data and breaking it down into individual concepts, which can be further broken down into major and minor concepts. This is done by capturing or highlighting these concepts and categorizing them, then further separating the concepts that support the study, and concepts that either do not support the study, or introduce new ideas. After thoroughly reviewing and coding the data, it was apparent, due to the nature of the research with regards to the very specific nature of the study (cross-gender mentoring as it applies only to U.S. Army officers), that almost every concept had the revolving concept of mentoring, gender, or both.

To more accurately code and capture the true concepts and themes from the collected data, another form of coding called axial coding was utilized. With axial coding, the researcher utilizes their own concepts while reviewing the data. While reviewing the data, the researcher confirms that these previously identified concepts accurately reflect the interview responses that were collected from the participants. Once these concepts are confirmed, the researcher then explores these concepts and categorizes

or compartmentalizes them. Qualitative codes help capture the essence and essential elements of the research story. When these elements are placed together or clustered, it begins to show trends, and reveal similarities and patterns, and facilitates compartmentalization for further analysis. This helps the researcher see below the surface of common terms as mentioned above, such as mentoring and gender, and uncover the themes associated with the data. This technique allows the researcher to more thoroughly understand the meaning of the common terms, and allows them to uncover the underlying concepts and themes of the interview responses. In other words, what feelings and/or emotions drove or influenced the responses are the themes that are captured for analysis.

After all e-mail interview questions were received, and follow-up phone calls were completed with all participants, the data analysis process was completed. The data analysis process used is similar in nature to the five-step process of Giorgi, as described by Broomé (n.d., p. 165). It began with me setting aside my preconceptions, assumptions, and personal, cultural, and experiential beliefs (Broomé, n.d.). Then I concentrated on analyzing the lived experiences as described each participant. The third step focused on breaking the data, and transforming the rich text from voluminous data into meaningful data by placing it into a shortened, logical, ordered, and simplified form. The fourth step is described by Broomé (n.d.) as the transformation from meaningful data into "psychologically sensitive descriptive expressions" (p. 166). This required me to review the reduced data for themes, concepts, and patterns. These themes, concepts, and patterns were then nested to each of the research questions listed in Chapter 1. The final step in the data analysis process required the "synthesis of the general psychological structure"

from each participant (Broomé, n.d., p. 166). This required me to record not only the contextual meaning of the data, but the elements that make up the data (Broomé, n.d., p. 166). Utilizing my own concepts while reviewing the data, I confirmed that these concepts accurately reflected the naïve data. Once confirmed, I explored these concepts and categorized them. The codes discovered during this process included feelings, concern, differences, beliefs, preferences, bias, and profession. These codes were compartmentalized by male and female participants, and themes were recorded based on these codes by gender. The themes were then nested to the research questions, and the theoretical framework. There were no variations encountered from the planned data analysis process.

Once manual data reduction and analysis was complete, the raw data was uploaded to NVivo 11 Pro Plus for data reduction to identify themes, concepts, patterns, and sentiment identification, and analysis. This data was used to create a word cloud and a word tree that graphically depict the themes, concepts, patterns, and sentiment in a manner that the viewer can visualize the themes and concepts in an orderly manner, and allows the viewer to connect these themes and concepts to the visual patterns and underlying sentiment. I then compared the manual data analysis with the analysis produced via NVivo. From this data, I recorded the findings.

For software based data analysis, the software NVivo 11 Pro Plus was utilized to identify themes, concepts, and patterns pertaining to the thoughts and feelings associated with the decision to select, or not select mentors or mentees of the opposite gender.

NVivo is the appropriate data analysis tool for this study, as it allows the researcher to analyze the rich-text data collected from open-ended semistructured research questions.

NVivo is a qualitative data analysis software tool that was designed for qualitative researchers working with very rich text-based and/or multimedia data where analysis of small or large volumes of data is required (Creswell, 2013). NVivo is widely utilized in academic settings, and across the social sciences. NVivo is intended to help researchers to organize and analyze nonnumerical or unstructured data. The software allows researchers to classify, sort, and arrange information. The software allows the researcher to examine relationships found in the data; and combines analysis with linking, shaping, searching, and modeling. With this software, the researcher can test theories, identify trends, and cross-examine information utilizing search engine and query functions. The researcher can make observations in the software, and allows the researcher to build a body of evidence to support their project.

Trustworthiness Concerns

With concerns regarding the trustworthiness of data collected during qualitative studies, data is typically checked for consistency or reliability, which is contrary to the validation requirements of quantitative research (Moustakas, 1994). This study employed the following checks and balances to ensure this qualitative research can stand under the scrutiny of the rigors of standards. A qualitative researcher maintains reliability of data by checking for obvious transcription mistakes, following strict coding definitions, providing the opportunity to participants for confirming the accuracy of interpretation of results and elaboration during telephone follow-up interviews, in-depth and rich

description of data, reporting of study results which are conflicting to expected outcome, input from oversight committee (i.e., dissertation chair, committee member and other university appointed members), and the declaration of personal bias (Quinn, 2002).

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Validity and reliability are most often associated with quantitative research; however, this study utilized measures that are consistent with existing literature to insure the greatest possible instrument validity and reliability. I further insured validity and reliability by grounding himself in the edifices of his participants, further avoiding personal bias. As a member of the same organization, I built rapport with the participants, which increased the participant's trust in me as the researcher. This also coupled with open-ended questions, provided the participants to expand on their feelings as they related to the research topic. As a further guarantor of validity and reliability, the notes from the telephonic recordings were triangulated with my notes, and the interview responses received via e-mail. This enabled me to confirm consistency of the responses and characterizations provided by each participant. Also, during the phone conversations, I described my overall impression to the participant, affording them the opportunity to adjust or correct what they said.

Ethical Procedures

The protection of participant rights is a crucial component of ensuring research is conducted in an ethical manner and can produce results consistent with the American Psychological Association , Walden University's Institutional Review Board (Approval No. 10-04-16-0377819), and other relevant governing agencies. Researchers should

ethically protect and inform participants of the potential harm that may result from study participation. Because this study focused on the thoughts and feelings associated with the decision to select or not select a mentor or mentee based on gender, the semistructured interview questions served to recall previous feelings that may potentially have exposed participants to psychological stress. Participants were allowed to terminate participation at any time during the process, and were provided with appropriate informational resources for counseling. The protection of participants also excluded any and all personally identifiable information to ensure confidentiality and psychological safety of participants and the gathering of personal data that may be sensitive. Additionally, all data gathered during the research process is stored on an encrypted external hard drive in a personal safe and will be retained for a minimum of 5 years.

Data entered into and generated by computers and programs throughout the entire research process are also stored on the encrypted external hard drive containing only information pertaining to this research, located in a personal safe, and is only accessible to me. Nonrelevant data were erased or properly disposed of following the conclusion of the study to safeguard participant confidentiality. This includes data that may have been inadvertently collected regarding sexual orientation and/or transgender status. During the conduct of this research no questions arose from participants regarding Department of Defense or U.S. Army policy regarding sexual orientation or transgender status. If this had occurred, I would have provided the participant(s) with an appropriate point of contact for their personal inquiry.

Summary and Transition

This chapter outlines the rationale and purpose for utilizing a phenomenological qualitative approach to exploring the perceptions, thoughts, and feelings associated with the decisions to select or not select members of the opposite gender for mentorship in the military. This chapter also outlines the research design and methodology, and includes the influence and role of the researcher during data collection. Included in this chapter is the criterion for participant selection, including recruitment and sample size, and includes a table that depicts the participant demographics. Also discussed are the semistructured interviews that were utilized to collect the data, and the software NVivo 11 Pro Plus, that was utilized to analyze the data. Finally, this chapter outlines concerns for the trustworthiness of the data, ethical procedures, and the protection of the participants.

Chapter 4 describes the results of this study regarding the lived experience of cross-gender mentoring among U.S. Army Officers. It begins with a restatement of the research questions, and description of the participant selection process, the limitations of the participant pool, and data gathering for this study. Two figures are introduced to show emerging themes as found in NVivo 11. The chapter concludes with a summary of the themes that emerged during the data analysis process. Chapter 5 begins with a restatement of the purpose of this phenomenological study. This chapter discusses the themes that were uncovered during data analysis, and shares the feelings that were explored through the participants. It concludes with a summary, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This chapter includes description of the results of this study regarding the lived experiences of cross-gender mentoring among U.S. Army officers. It begins with a restatement of the research questions, and description of the participant demographics and selection process, and a review of the data analysis and coding processes. Samples of the participant responses are shared, then emerging and identified themes are provided, followed by theme analysis. This chapter concludes with a summary of the themes that emerged during the data analysis process.

Restatement of the Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study address the associated gap that exists in current literature are the following:

1. What are the feelings associated with the selection of cross-gender mentors and mentees for U.S. Army officers?
   A. What factors do mentors consider when selecting male as compared to female mentees?
   B. What criteria do female officers consider when selecting mentors as compared to men?
2. How does gender bias effect the selection of cross-gender mentors or mentees in the U.S. Army?
   A. How does gender bias effect male mentor's selection of female mentees as compared to female mentors selecting male mentees?

B. How does gender bias effect the selection in more male-dominated job fields in the U.S. Army as compared to job fields where there are more women?

Participant Demographics

For this study, 20 male and 20 female U.S. Army officers were selected. Out of the 40 participants selected, the over half were the rank of colonel (55%) and the average years of military service was 24 years (see Table 1).The reason for utilizing a senior population of officers is that most senior mentors are at the rank of colonel or above. The selected population allowed for coverage of age diversity and insured inclusion of officers who had previously participated in cross-gender mentoring as mentees. The 40 participants came from nine different career fields (branches), and five were in the combat arms and four were in support. Of the male participants, 55% came from combat arms backgrounds, whereas 30% of the female participants came from combat arms backgrounds. Of the male participants, 25% were USMA graduates, 70% were ROTC graduates, and 5% were Officer Candidate School (OCS) graduates, whereas 5% of the female participants were USMA graduates, 80% were ROTC graduates, and 10% were OCS graduates. When combined, 15% were USMA graduates, 77.5% ROTC graduates, and 7.5% OCS graduates. Other demographic statistics include 5% of the participants being Hispanic, 75% Caucasian, 10% African American, and 10% Asian. Of the male population, 5% were Hispanic, 80% Caucasian, 10% African American, and 5% Asian, whereas the female population was 5% Hispanic, 70% Caucasian, 10% African American, and 20% Asian (see Table 1).

Table 1

Participant Demographic Breakout

DATA POINT	#	%
RANK		
Major General	3	7.5%
Brigadier General	1	2.5%
Colonel	22	55.0%
Lieutenant Colonel	7	17.5%
Major	5	12.5%
Captain	2	5.0%
BRANCH		
Infantry	7	17.5%
Armor	2	5.0%
Engineer	4	10.0%
Field Artillery	2	5.0%
Aviation	1	2.5%
Military Police	1	2.5%
Logistics	1	2.5%
Adjutant General	21	52.5%
Signal Corps	1	2.5%
COMMISSIONING SOURCE		
USMA	6	15%
ROTC	31	77.5%
OCS	3	7.5%
GENDER		
Men	20	50%
Women	20	50%
RACE/ETHNICITY		
Caucasian	30	75%
African American	4	10%
Hispanic	2	5%
Asian	4	10%

The sample is comparative to the demographic data of the U.S. Army active duty officer population from general to second-lieutenant. The active duty population is made up of 73% Caucasian, 12% African American, 7% Hispanic, 6% Asian, and 2% other. Of this population, women make up 16%. The demographics of the female officer population are 53% Caucasian, 27% African American, 9% Hispanic, 8% Asian, and 3% other. When compared with the college graduation rates of USMA and ROTC, female cadets graduate at a 2% higher rate than their male counterparts, yet 96% of female officers retire from the U.S. Army by their 20th year of service, whereas 39% of male officers continue past their 20th year of service.

Review of the Data Analysis Process

After all e-mail interview questions were received, and follow-up phone calls were completed with all participants, the data analysis process was completed. Data analysis followed the process outlined in Chapter 3, and was similar in nature to the five-step process of Giorgi, as described by Broomé (n.d., p. 165). It began with me setting aside my preconceptions, assumptions, and personal, cultural, and experiential beliefs (Broomé, n.d.). The second step concentrated on analyzing the "naïve description" of the lived experiences, as experienced by each participant (Broomé, n.d., p. 166). The third step focused on breaking down the naïve data, and transforming the rich text from voluminous data into meaningful data by placing the data into a shortened, logical, ordered, and simplified form. Broomé (n.d.) described the fourth step as the transformation from meaningful data into "psychologically sensitive descriptive expressions" (p. 166). This required me to review the reduced data for themes, concepts,

patterns, and sentiment. These themes, concepts, patterns, and sentiment were then nested to each of the research questions listed in Chapter 1. The final step in the data analysis process required the "synthesis of the general psychological structure" from each participant (Broomé, n.d., p. 166). This requires the researcher to record not only the contextual meaning of the data, but the elements that make up the data (Broomé, n.d., p. 166). There were no variations encountered from the planned data analysis process.

Coding

Initially, the coding process began with open coding. This process concentrated primarily on text to discover and capture distinct concepts and categories from the collected naïve data. This process required separating the raw data into individual concepts, then further breaking it down into major and minor concepts, then categorized. These concepts were then separated by those that support the study, do not support the study, or introduce new ideas. It was apparent that after reviewing and coding the data, due to the focused nature of the research (cross-gender mentoring as it applies only to U.S. Army officers), that almost every concept had the revolving concept of mentoring, gender, or both. In order to accurately code and capture the true concepts and themes from the collected data, I deviated from the original plan and chose to use axial coding. This differs from open coding, as the researcher utilizes his or her own concepts while reviewing the data, and confirms that these concepts accurately reflect the naïve data, participant responses. Once these concepts were confirmed, I explored these concepts and categorized them. The axial codes that were discovered included feelings, concern, differences, beliefs, preferences, bias, and profession. These codes were

compartmentalized by male and female participants, and themes were recorded based on these codes by gender. The themes were then nested to the research questions and the theoretical framework (see Figures 1 and 2).

Participant Responses

Male Participants

Of the 40 participants, 20 were male officers from seven different career fields, both combat arms and support jobs. All male participants had previously participated in cross-gender mentoring during their careers. Some of the thoughts and feelings the male participants shared were positive in nature, but also included negative feelings. Participant 1 (P1) said, "I am perfectly willing to mentor anyone regardless of gender." P3 shared similar feelings with regards to mentoring women, although he shared "I don't know what help I could be since I come from a strictly combat arms background." P3 also shared that "females are physically capable of handling combat arms jobs…it's science." P2 shared feelings that "all officers, regardless of gender, race, or background, deserve to participate in mentoring…we all benefit." Although P9 expressed that he had no problem mentoring female officers, he said "females don't belong in combat arms." P18 shared that his "most effective mentoring relationship was with a senior female mentor." P17 shared that he had participated in mentoring as a mentor and mentee with female officers, and all had been positive. He did express concern for his "wife's perception of the relationship." Out of the 20 male participants, 18 of them shared concern for their spouses. P15 said, "I would have to clear it with my wife first, whereas P4 said, "out of respect, I would talk to my wife first." P7 said, "I have no problem

mentoring females…I can't believe this is an issue in this day and age." Out of the 20 male participants, 12 expressed positive feelings with better understanding female officers after participating in cross-gender mentoring. P19 said, "I understand females better once we got past the gender barrier."

Female Participants

Similar to the male participants, there were 20 female officers from five different career fields, both combat arms and support. All female participants had previous experience with cross-gender mentoring during their careers. There were some similarities in feelings that were shared, including positive and negative feelings. All of the female participants expressed no concern for mentoring or being mentored by men. The only concern regarding mentoring and gender was towards women. P34 said, "I much prefer mentoring men over women, we tend to be very territorial." P38 said that "women are too competitive with one another…we like to be the only one in the group." P22 said that "women are too cattie…I avoid mentoring females." P28 said that she felt that being physically fit was more important than being attractive for being accepted by men. P24 said, "Attractive females have it easier than less attractive females." P21 said, "It takes time to be accepted in a male dominated job…you have to prove that you can hang with the boys." All female participants expressed feelings with regards to fitting in, and that it often takes time. No female participants discussed their spouse with regards to mentoring, or being mentored by a man. Out of the 20 female participants, 17 expressed positive feelings with career progression and promotions due to cross-gender mentoring. P34 said, "Much of my success is attributable to being associated with some of my senior

male mentors." P26 associated her success as "first proving myself, and being a good team member."

Emerging Themes

Word Cloud

Figure 1 is an NVivo 11 Pro Plus generated word cloud of auto-coded themes. Word clouds are ways of visually depicting data in a manner that shows the occurrence of themes (see Figure 1). The larger the word, the more often that word was discovered in the responses from the participants, and the smaller the word, the less that word was found in the responses. Themes that emerged were color coded to show the differentiation between male and female themes. In Figure 1, the male themes are listed in dark blue, whereas female themes are listed in tan. Any themes that were shared between the male and female participants are displayed as light blue. This color differentiation allows the viewer to easily depict the emerging themes, and their association to the participants from this study.

As seen in Figure 1 below, the words (themes) that appeared most in the male participant responses included mentoring, bias, effect, relationship, and understand. In contrast, the themes that resonated the most from the female participant responses included gender, opposite, female, associated, separation, compared, and successful. When the male and female responses are combined, the occurrence of themes is a conglomerate of the previous male and female themes, and include feelings, individual, different, selection, background, challenging, and perception.

Figure 1. NVivo word cloud: Auto-coded themes.

Word Tree

Figure 2 is the NVivo 11 Pro Plus generated word tree of auto-coded themes. A word tree shows auto-generated words that occur in the participant responses, and shows the correlation of these concepts and how they connect to other words that are found in the raw data by depicting them in a visual branching structure from left to right, listing the more prominent concepts on the left side, and shows their connection to smaller linked concepts on the right side of the spectrum. So concepts that occur more often in

combination the auto-generated words are displayed in a larger font, whereas concepts that occur less frequent are displayed in smaller font. These auto-generated words are linked to the themes displayed.

Themes that are associated with the male participants begin in the top left, and show associative links to other themes moving to the right and down the figure. The opposite is true for the themes that emerged from female participants whose themes begin on the bottom left, and show their associative link going right and up. Themes that are located further to the middle, and to the right are more closely related to both male and female participants, whereas themes that are further to the left have limited association to both male and female participants.

Some common themes and occurrences associated with male participant responses include mentoring (319), effect (197), bias (189), Army (164), understand (143), important (135), and opportunities (112). Other less frequent themes include profound, factors, relate, need, often, professional, and relationship. These are all common themes that exist after data reduction to remove common terms that are used in other context. Themes and occurrences directly associated with female participants include gender (273), opposite (179), female (171), associated (154), and potential (126). Other less frequent themes include separation, compared, successful, lessons, impact, and thoughts.

When the data is combined to include male and female participant data, the common themes can be run for frequency. Some common combined themes and occurrences discovered from this data include feelings (163), mentee (151), experiences

(127), perceptions (121), selection (117), leadership (112), and background (109). Other less frequently occurring themes for the combined data include challenging, believe, leaders, women, man, beliefs, and different.

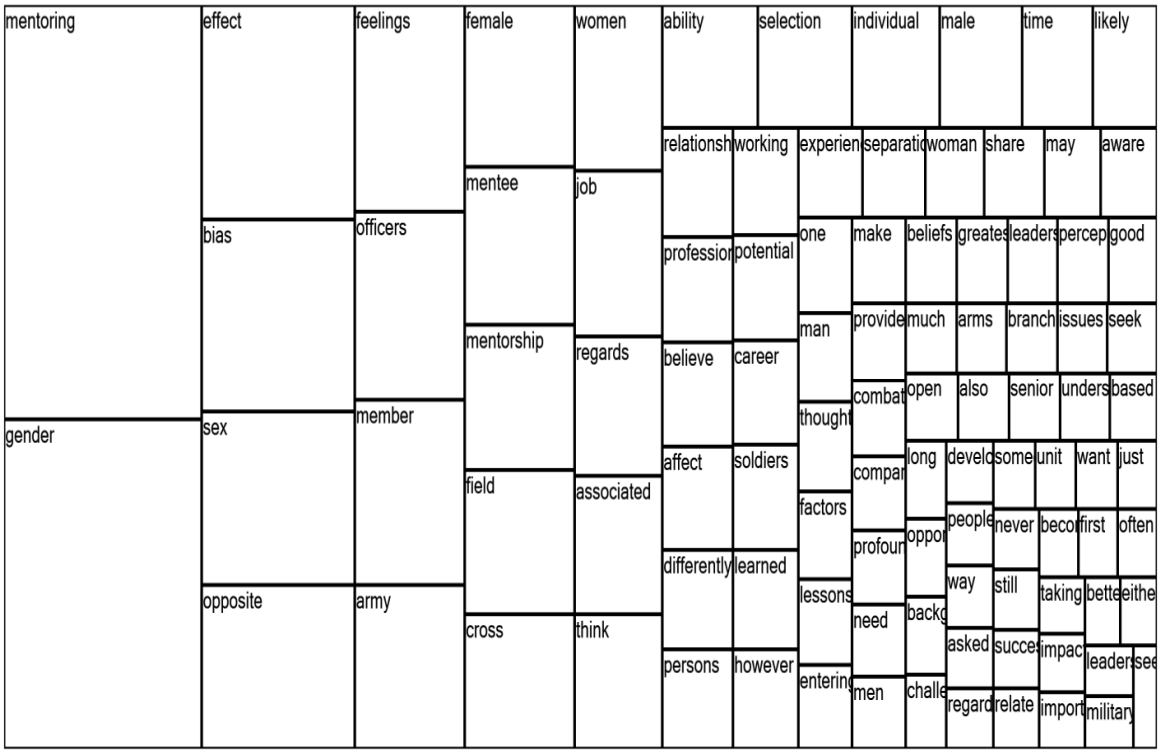

Figure 2. NVivo word tree: Auto-coded concepts.

Identified Themes

Out of the collected data there were two major concepts regarding feelings that cross-gender mentoring of U.S. Army officers is either positive or negative. For example, Participant (P) 3 shared that he did not believe women belong in combat arms jobs. P11 said “females cannot keep up with men physically.” P22 shared her experience in mentoring men and women, and said “women are too cattie” and went on to say that she avoids mentoring female officers. Whereas P2 eluded to his willingness to mentor anyone

who shows interest in the Army, and being a successful leader. P14 said "I see no difference in female or males, I see only those that want to succeed, and those that sit idly by." P23 said "I have mentored numerous men and women with great success…we all deserve to learn." Prior to data reduction, the data showed 949 occurrences of negative sentiment which was equal to 63% of the overall captured sentiment. Once the data was reduced, this decreased the negative sentiment to 183 occurrences of very negative sentiment, or 12%, and 232 partially negative sentiment occurrences, or 19.5%, which set the overall negative association at one-third, or 31.5% of the responses regarding cross-gender mentoring, and two-thirds positive sentiment, 68.5%. This divided the participants by one third negative association with mentoring members of the opposite gender, and two thirds positive towards mentoring members of the opposite gender. This equated to 12 of the participants, or 30% (seven men, or 35% of the male participants, and five women, or 25% of the female participants) expressing some degree of negative feelings with regards to cross-gender mentoring. This left 26 participants, or 65% (11 men, or 55% of male participants, and 15 women, or 75% of female participants) who expressed some degree of positive feelings towards cross-gender mentoring. For example, P10 said "I prefer to mentor men because I relate to them better, but I am perfectly willing to mentor females." It left two participants, or 5% (both men, 10% of the male participants) who expressed neither positive nor negative sentiment towards cross-gender mentoring; although both expressed positive sentiment towards giving an open and honest attempt at cross-gender mentoring. P37 said "I have no preference either way…I mentor officers who show interest." P7 said "I can't believe this is an issue in this day and age." Each of

these concepts was further broken down by analyzing the sentiment behind the feelings that were expressed.

Other themes that emerged were concerns for perceptions. P17 said "I would talk to my wife first, I don't want her to think I am hiding something." P11 said "I make sure and leave the door open, or meet in a public place so my peers don't perceive anything bad." Out of the male participants, 16 (80%) expressed deep concerns for negative perceptions in the workplace regarding cross-gender mentoring, whereas only five (25%) female participants expressed only mild concern that should be addressed when mentoring a member of the opposite gender. Out of all participants, 21 (53%) expressed concern for negative perceptions. Subthemes from this included inappropriate relationships, sexual contact, unprofessionalism, rumors, mal-intent, and spouses. The term inappropriate relationship was mentioned in the participant responses 207 times, 147 (71%) times by male participants, and 60 (29%) times by female participants. P34 said "I always meet somewhere open to avoid anyone starting rumors…never meet over drinks, that's where negative perceptions are born." The word *sex* was mentioned 1,231 times in the participant responses; however, after data reduction to separate references to gender from sexual activity, this was reduced to 13 occurrences: 11 from male participants, and two from female participants. P3 shared that he avoided mentoring women because he did not want his peers to think he was in a sexual relationship with a younger female." P36 said "I avoid meeting behind closed doors or at a bar…I try to avoid setting the impression that we are having sex." Of the male participants, 90% expressed concern for

their spouses, whereas no female participants mentioned concern for negative (or positive) perceptions regarding their spouse.

Positive themes included success, career progression, opportunities, sharing, leadership, developing, and increased potential. P27 said "I select mentors based on the idea that they can offer advice on career progression that can lead to successful career opportunities." P18 said "I select mentors that I think can help shape and develop my leadership ability in a way that will help my career progression." The term success was expressed 1,009 times in participant responses; none of which were associated with negative connotation. This was shared equally by both male and female participants. Out of both male and female participants, 89% associated mentoring with career progression and broadened opportunities. Career progression and promotion were positively associated with mentoring by 31 (12 male, 19 female) participants.

Theme Analysis

A common theme that emerged from both men and women was that they had no problem mentoring or being mentored by members of the opposite gender (37, or 92.5% of all participants; 18 men, or 90% of male participants, and 19 women, or 95% of female participants); however, while analyzing sentiment and repetition, as compared between men and women, women seemed to be more open to being mentored by men (19; 95%), then did men being mentored by women (eight; 40%). Furthermore, men showed a much lower instance of being mentored by women (nine; 45%), as did women that had been mentored by men (13; 65%). Another discovery during this analysis was that even fewer women showed previous experience being mentored by women (six; 30%), this

confirming that women tend to take part in mentoring less than their male counterparts, and that women tend to have an average of two to three mentors over the span of their career as compared to men who averaged between five and seven mentors over their career.

Interestingly, it was discovered during analysis that women participated in more formal and structured mentoring (81%) than their male counterparts who participated in more informal mentoring (86%). The reasons for mentor selection also differed between men and women. Men tended to select based on background, and social gain, whereas women selected mentors based on trust and genuineness of the mentor. This shows that female officers, as mentioned in Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis, they prefer structured mentoring that provides gain by association with senior male officers. Conversely, male officers prefer informal mentoring which aligns with Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social identity theory that more interaction between groups creates acceptance of nonmembers, such as women being accepted by men due to exposure.

Another interesting detail that emerged from data analysis, as described by several women, and no men, was the fact that women (39%) compete against each other when faced with working in the same organization, especially in smaller organizational settings. One female participant (P34) said "we feel threatened when other females are added to the equation…we like being the only female." Another female participant (P38) shared that women often resent other women who succeed, and "dislike other females that are more successful." Several senior women (11, or 55% of female participants)

remarked that they would rather mentor men than women, and P22 said “women can be cattie when there are too many working together in close proximity.”

Another common theme that emerged regarding men and women was the feeling that mentors and mentees should discuss the purpose and expected outcome of the mentoring prior to engaging in mentoring (88%). P2 said “in the first meeting, I always discuss the purpose for the mentoring, and what their desired outcome is.” P23 said “you should always discuss the purpose and expected outcome to insure you are both on the same sheet.” Both mentor and mentee should consider their intentions, and their ability to honestly provide positive feedback and career advice that will help the mentee achieve their goals. Both men (13; 65%) and women (eight; 40%) also discussed conducting mentoring in a common place without the door closed. Both men (11; 55%) and women (nine; 45%) discussed not meeting away from work over meals or drinks. P34 said “never meet over drinks, that’s where negative perceptions are born.” P5 said “you should never meet at a bar over a beer, you will set the wrong impression.” Most interesting about this discovery was that neither men nor women discussed this with reference to mentoring member of the same gender.

A common theme that was discovered among only men (17; 85%) was the introduction of their spouse to the equation. P12 said “I would talk to my wife about it first out of respect.” Most men (85%) mentioned that they would insure their spouse was aware of the mentorship with a woman. P6 said, “I would first check with my wife to see if she had any concerns.” Some men (six; 30%) even insisted that the mentee meet their spouse before moving forward with mentoring. P10 said “it’s a good idea to introduce

them to your spouse first before being agreeing to be their mentor." No women introduced their spouses to the mentoring dynamic.

Thirty seven participants (92.5%), both men (19; 95%) and women (18; 90%) discussed perceptions, and avoiding giving others in the organization the reason or opportunity to perceive anything unprofessional. With this, several women (11, or 55% of female participants) recalled hearing rumors about other women and their mal-intent when engaging in mentoring with men. Similarly, several men (nine, or 45% of male participants) mentioned hearing rumors regarding women being mentored by men and mentioned that it was often considered that these women were "sleeping their way to the top." Surprisingly, no men or women mentioned any mal-intent regarding men who mentor women; however, a few women (three; 15%) did discuss mal-intentions of senior women mentoring younger men, and junior women who pursue senior male mentors.

There was very little occasion (seven comments from four men, 20% of male participants) of gender bias with regards to female officers or job fields. Only one male participant responded that women do not belong in combat job fields. Two thirds (13; 65%) of the female participants responded with feelings regarding being accepted in combat arms job fields, and recalled that they had to earn the acceptance of their male counterparts. Being physically fit was also introduced only by seven (35%) female participants, and associated being physically fit with being accepted.

Summary and Transition

In this chapter, the results of this study regarding the lived experiences of cross-gender mentoring among U.S. Army officers are provided and analyzed. It begins with a

restatement of the research questions. The participant selection process is outlined, and the limitations of the participant pool are discussed. Further, the data gathering is discussed, and the findings are directly associated to the relative theoretical framework of this study. The emerging themes are provided in detail, and are broken down by themes and subthemes, and tied to the participant population. This chapter concludes with a summary of the themes that emerged and data analysis.

In Chapter 5, interpretation of the findings is provided in detail. The research questions are tied to the findings, and how the findings address each of the research questions. The participant pool is outlined, and the expressed feelings regarding cross-gender mentoring are discussed. The limitations and delimitations of the data and this research are detailed, and recommendations for future research are discussed. Recommendations are shared for how the findings from this study can be used by the military services, and specifically the U.S. Army. The application of the results from this study to promote positive social change are then presented.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This phenomenological study was conducted to explore the motivation behind U.S. Army officers entering into mentoring with members of the opposite gender to better understand why officers chose to mentor or be mentored by members of the opposite gender. The findings of this research exposed an array of feelings with regards to mentorship and the opposite gender: male to female, or female to male. Some of these feelings were positive in nature, which equated to just over two thirds of the responses, such as the willingness in general as expressed by both male and female officers to engage in mentoring with the opposite gender, as seen by P3's response that "I don't see male or female, I only see green, and am more than willing to mentor an officer that wants to be mentored." P21 shared similar sentiment that "gender shouldn't be a factor in the mentoring equation…I could care less if you are a man or women." Some negative feelings were discovered regarding same gender mentoring, but only with regard to women mentoring women (55% of the female participants), and attitudes towards other women in the same work environment. Similar feelings were not expressed regarding male to male mentoring. Other feelings of concern associated with the feelings of the mentor's spouse, but only with regards to senior male mentors (85% of the male participants), and junior female mentees. No female participants expressed concern for their spouses with regards to mentoring men. There were associated feelings with regards to junior women seeking senior male mentors, and the precept of mal-intent or rumor of using sexual relationships for professional advantage was perceived (45% of male

participants, 15% of female participants). P3 said, “I don’t need to set the impression that I am sleeping with some girl…otherwise I would have no other reason to hang out with them.” I discovered instances of bias towards women (20% of male participants), but found most occurrences came from female officers (65%) when described with regards to fitting in, or being accepted in specific career fields such as combat arms settings. Two interesting discoveries came out of data analysis: one as introduced by female participants (35%) regarding their level of physical fitness associated with acceptance, and the second discovery of negative feelings expressed by four male officers with regards to women being accepted in combat arms career fields, and one male officer who commented that women do not belong in combat arms jobs.

Interpretation of the Findings

The findings of this research confirmed that women do not participate in mentoring as often as their male counterparts. These findings tied directly to similar findings by Barratt et al. (2014) and their study of women law enforcement, and the role of gender in a male-dominated field. This also tied to Kao et al. (2014) and their study of mentoring selection and the role of gender in mentoring relationships. This was confirmed by directly addressing the research questions, which were developed and nested under the current theoretical framework of Allport’s (1954) contact hypothesis theory and Tajfel and Turner’s (2001) social identity theory and driven by the current literature in Chapter 2.

Research Question 1

1. What are the feelings associated with the selection of cross-gender mentors and mentees for U.S. Army officers? Each of the participants discussed their feelings with regards to this research question. Some feelings (themes) were positive such as important, willingness, advancement, and opportunities. Some were negative in nature such as bias, sex, differences, and perceptions. Other concepts discovered include success, need, potential, awareness, and important. Some feelings that were discovered during data analysis showed that mentors had a better understanding for officers of the opposite gender, and their differences. This was also shared with having and understanding different perspectives and diverse capabilities on the same team. This directly aligned to Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis theory: the more exposure, the more gender separation can be reduced. This was also supported by Bryant's (2009) study, which indicated that better understanding other genders, races, and cultures, and exposure to them, the level of understanding of what that brings to the team as a whole.

A. What factors do mentors consider when selecting male as compared to female mentees? Some factors that the participants shared with regards to mentorship selection included perceptions, background, bias, professionalism, and ability. Male participants (35%) expressed concern that they could effectively mentor a female officer due to different career fields and different career advancement criteria. Some participants expressed concern for their spouse, and some insisted that their spouse meet the mentee before entering into mentoring. This was only discovered among male participants. As discovered during data analysis, many of the male participants expressed feelings for

preference of mentoring men over women, but after exposure to more women, their views changed. This directly aligned with Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis. In direct contradiction, many female participants expressed their preference for mentoring men over women. This was directly associated with negative sentiment towards other women in the workplace. This is tied to the findings as shared in Barratt et al.'s (2014) study of women in the federal law enforcement field. Similar sentiment was discovered by female law enforcement towards other female law enforcement officers.

B. What criteria do female officers consider when selecting mentors as compared to men? Criteria that participants shared included background, education, physical fitness, desired outcome, career goals, and ability. Some male participants (40%) shared concern for their level of understanding of women, but all expressed their willingness to try. No female participants expressed concern for their ability to effectively mentor a man. Some female participants (55%) expressed that they preferred to mentor men over women. Many of the female participants expressed positive feelings regarding mentoring or being mentored by male officers. In fact, there was a higher preference for men rather than women in mentoring relationships. These criteria are similar to the findings from Blake-Beard et al.'s (2006) study where race played the same role as gender in this study. This also ties directly to Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social identity theory, where there is a preference to associate with people or a group of people who are or appear to be successful and possibly present that ability to help someone to succeed through association.

Research Question 2

2. How does gender bias effect the selection of cross-gender mentors or mentees in the U.S. Army? Concerns for gender bias were most often discussed by male participants (20%), and in all cases, directly related to their job field and combat arms jobs. Feelings regarding female physical fitness and women's ability to physically keep up with their male counterparts were expressed. Many female participants expressed feelings that supported this sentiment from the male participants that women were more accepted if they were physically fit. Many female participants prefaced this with placing fitness above beauty as being accepted by their male counterparts. This was further associated with regards to their ability to mentor someone who had not served in those kinds of jobs, suggesting that different backgrounds have different career progression requirements (35%). Some male participants expressed concern for their ability to effectively mentor women because they did not ascend the ranks in the same type of combat arms jobs. Most female participants (65%) described gender bias with being accepted in combat arms jobs, and in several instances (35%), shared their belief that they were accepted amongst the men once they proved themselves through physical fitness, and ranked that as more important than beauty in the acceptance process. This is also directly related to female participants' (65%) feelings that women must first prove themselves to their male counterparts prior to gaining acceptance. This also tied to Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis that once exposure occurs, acceptance follows due to new understanding of differences. This also tied to findings shared by Gersick and Kram (2002) regarding high-achieving women in the workplace, which showed that, given the

same exposure to career enhancing programs such as mentoring, women can succeed at the same rate as men.

A. How does gender bias effect male mentor's selection of female mentees as compared to female mentors selecting male mentees? Male participants (35%) from combat arms job fields shared concerns for their ability to mentor women due to their background and job field, and in some instances (25% of male participants) expressed personal bias such as women not belonging in combat arms jobs. One participant shared that science dictates that women do not have the same structure that can withstand the "tough" jobs like in the infantry. These feelings were expressed only by 5% of male participants. In most cases (55%), male participants were willing to try mentoring women regardless of their concerns regarding their background. Women expressed no gender bias towards men, and only associated gender bias with regards to women (55%), and often linked feelings of being accepted to physical fitness, and being able to "hang" with the men. Some female participants (15%) shared feelings regarding attractiveness of women with respect to men and willingness to mentor, where other women (55%) put a higher priority on fitness than beauty. Gender bias as expressed by male participants was supported by Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social identity theory that separation of groups is exacerbated if out-group interaction does not occur. Conversely, the lack of gender bias by women towards men supported Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis that once exposure occurs, separation is minimized, and bias between groups is mitigated. This was further supported by Gersick and Kram's (2002) study of successful women in the workplace,

and how they successfully navigate through the ranks given equal professional growth opportunities and minimized gender barriers.

B. How does gender bias effect the selection in more male-dominated job fields in the U.S. Army as compared to job fields where there are more women? Amongst the participants, the male participants shared both negative and positive feelings with regards to women in male-dominated job fields such as infantry, armor, and field artillery. Some (10%) expressed that women were not cut out for physically demanding jobs, and associated that to science. When associated with mentoring, many male participants expressed concern for their ability to effectively mentor women due to different career progression and career paths. One male participant expressed concern for why a female officer would want to be mentored by him because his background was very different. This participant also expressed concern for his peers assuming the relationship was inappropriate. In fact, some (85%) expressed concerns for their peers, and the perceptions associated with them mentoring women. On the other hand, women participants had no negative biases towards men in male-dominated job fields; rather, they associated it with themselves, and their ability to fit in and be accepted amongst the men. Some female participants (55%) shared feelings that they preferred to mentor men more than women. This was associated with negative sentiment such as competition and the concept that women in the workplace are "cattie." Hu et al. (2008) discussed similar findings with respect to race, and its association to mentor selection, or non-selection, and intentions to initiate or deprive other members based on differences and bias. This was also supported by the findings of Linehan and Scullion (2008), who showed similar

interaction with senior female global leaders and their preference for male mentees over female ones.

Discussion

The 40 participants selected for this study described their feelings with regards to their decision to enter into cross-gender mentoring. In general, both male and female mentors displayed positive feelings and emotions of willingness to enter into mentoring with the opposite gender, and had previously participated in cross-gender mentoring either as a mentor or mentee. Similar findings were shared in Barratt et al.'s (2014) study which was conducted in a similar setting where female law enforcement officers faced similar struggles in being accepted, and sharing in equal mentoring opportunities. This also directly ties to Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social identity theory that people associate themselves with other groups in search of potential gain. This is also supported by the percentage of women that sought male mentors as compared to women who sought female mentors. During data collection, it was discovered that there were more instances of men mentoring women, then women mentoring women. Women expressed negative feelings for other women that pursued mentoring with men, whereas men did not express similar feelings for men who pursued mentoring with women. There were occurrences of male participants who had not participated in cross-gender mentoring as a mentee, but did not express negative sentiment, rather associated with their job field, and the lack of female presence.

Among the factors that mentors consider regarding their participation in cross-gender mentoring, only male mentors expressed concern for their spouse's feelings about

the mentoring dynamic. No female participants discussed their spouse in any manner. Both male and female participants expressed consideration of the potential mentees goals and desired outcome, and only considered their background, or the background of the mentee as a tertiary consideration.

As Allport (1954) explained in his contact hypothesis theory, when people from different groups are encouraged to associate with members of other groups, attitudes and exchange between groups can be positive. This can be seen in the data discovery that the majority (over 92%) of male and female U.S. Army officers are willing to mentor, or be mentored by the opposite gender. There were no distinctive differences as described by male or female participants with regards to selection criteria; however, 85% of female participants mentioned that they preferred to mentor men. No male participants expressed similar feelings with regards to either mentoring men or women. The background of the potential mentee was not mentioned in association with selection criteria, however, background was discussed with regards to expectancy of success for mentoring someone from a different career field.

There were few negative emotions expressed by male participants in association with bias and job field and mentoring. In one instance, one male participant expressed that women did not belong in combat arms job fields, but also expressed that they would have no problem mentoring a woman. According to Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis, members who are from the same group who associate more with another group can create a pronounced divide within their own group. This can be seen by some of the female participant responses that showed more occurrences of gender bias between the female

participants, and were all associated with fitting in, or being accepted in combat arms job fields. All of the female participants expressed that they had to prove themselves before being accepted by their male counterparts, and described being physically fit as being the largest factor in being accepted. This is also supported by Barratt et al. (2014), who discussed similar struggles associated with female law enforcement officers fitting in, in a male-dominated job field, and the lack of mentorship associated with out-group members within their organizations. Gender bias was not expressed as a deterrent to cross-gender mentoring; however, female to female bias was introduced as a factor in selection of mentorship. In several instances, female participants expressed negative feelings associated with mentoring other women, and in several instances, female participants had not previously participated in mentoring other women. This is similar to the findings shared by Gersick and Kram (2002) who discussed women that successfully navigated the rank structure in a male-dominated work force through mentorship opportunities with male mentors in their organizations.

When gender bias was discussed, some of the female participants' expression of feelings directly associated to Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social identity theory that by associating with people from other groups (men) who have been successful, will help them to succeed over their female counterparts. In many instances (40%), women expressed feelings of being accepted due to their association with a person or group of people as described by both Allport's (1954) contact hypothesis theory, and Tajfel and Turner's social identity theory. This is also supported by Gersick and Kram's (2002) of high-achieving women who successfully managed to work through the challenges of

male-dominated organizations through effective mentoring. There were no instances of male mentees being mentored by senior female officers from combat arms job fields. When compared to other job fields, there were less feelings of acceptance due to their association with the mentor then feelings for success driven by career advice and guidance.

Limitations

The findings of this study are focused on exploring the factors that influence the selection of cross-gender mentoring relationships; however, there can be no claim regarding the generalizability of the findings of this study to all senior commissioned officers in the U.S. Army, nor can the number of participants of this research be assumed to represent the entire group. The experiences of leaders across the rest of the U.S. Army might differ from what is captured in this research. Another limitation of this study is the honesty of answers, and the ability to recollect these feelings and beliefs regarding cross-gender mentoring. Depending on how long ago participants have experienced cross-gender mentoring, some participants may experience difficulty recalling their feelings and thoughts during their mentoring experiences. It is also possible that perspectives and beliefs have changed over time. The final limitation of this study is regarding sexual orientation and/or transgender status of the participants. Information obtained in this study cannot be generalized or applied to mentoring officers with regards to sexual orientation or transgender status.

Delimitations

The current study was limited to male and female senior commissioned officers in the U.S. Army who have experience with cross-gender mentoring. Delimitations are used in order to narrow the scope of this study by identifying what is not included in this study (Creswell, 2006). Only male and female U.S. Army officers from the ACC with at least 10 years of service were chosen for this study since including all officers regardless of job field or years of service would render this research too broad.

During the conduct of this study, there were no obvious signs of untruthfulness, and in all cases, participants expressed positive emotions with regards to their participation in this research. In some instances, with both men and women, participants expressed the need to do better at mentoring female officers, so sincerity and truthfulness was not a concern to me as the researcher.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future research that are nested with both the strengths and limitations listed in the limitations section of this study, and parallel the literature in Chapter 2, is cross-gender mentoring among officers from the sister services—Air Force, Navy, and the Marine Corps. Further recommendations introduce a new theme that has recently emerged in the Department of Defense, but not mentioned during data collection: mentoring transgender members from each of the sister services. Another potential research topic to further explore is regarding the effects of cross-gender mentoring among spouses of service-members.

Implications for Social Change

With current efforts to better integrate women into all military career fields, the military needs to address how to effectively mentor female officers and avoid inequality in mentorship that may further perpetuate gender separation and gender bias. The need to better understand this phenomenon is what drove this research. By using the findings of this research, U.S. Army leadership can implement change and better educate leaders regarding cross-gender mentoring, and promote equal socialization and mentoring experiences for all officers, regardless of gender or background. This study thoroughly addresses this phenomenon where women do not equally take part in mentoring, and explored the thoughts, feelings, and emotions associated with the decision to participate in cross-gender mentoring. Exploring these feelings and reasons associated with cross-gender mentoring successfully addressed a gap that existed in current literature. This study deviated from the traditional focus on the effectiveness of cross-gender mentoring which focuses on the effectiveness of mentoring as experienced by men as compared with similar experiences by their female peers, and shifted focus to explore the feelings and emotions associated with the reasons that male and female officers chose to engage in mentoring with members of the opposite gender.

Conclusion

The findings of this study should be utilized to educate U.S. Army leaders regarding mentoring, which can increase the occurrences of mentoring for junior and senior female U.S. Army officers. With more equal occurrences of mentorship for male and female U.S. Army officers, this can help to decrease the disparity in mentoring

between male and female officers, better prepare female officers, and bolster efforts to further integrate female officers into senior ranks by affording equal mentoring opportunities.

By addressing these findings regarding cross-gender mentoring among U.S. Army officers, U.S. Army leadership can better educate U.S. Army leaders, and insure equal mentorship experiences for men and women officers, regardless of background or job field. By insuring equal experiences of mentoring regardless of gender, U.S. Army leadership can better prepare all Army leaders for success, and increase the effectiveness of U.S. Army leadership by increasing the diversity of U.S. Army leadership.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Interview Questions

1. What are your feelings or beliefs associated with mentoring a member of the opposite sex?
2. How does gender effect your selection of a potential mentee?
    A. How does individual job field and gender bias effect your selection?
3. How do you feel about the effectiveness of mentoring members of the opposite sex?
    A. How does gender bias effect your ability to mentor a woman as compared to a man?
    B. How does the individual job field of the mentee effect gender bias in mentoring?
4. What are your feelings regarding mentoring, or being mentored by a member of the opposite sex?
5. What are your most profound thoughts regarding gender bias and its effect on women officers in the Army?
6. Does gender bias affect your ability to mentor, or be mentored by a member of the opposite sex?
7. What are your feelings associated with gender separation in the Army, and does that effect mentorship?
8. What are your greatest lessons learned with regards to cross-gender mentoring?
9. What are some factors that Army officers should be aware of before entering into cross-gender mentorship?
10. Are there any other feelings associated with cross-gender mentoring that you would like to share?

Appendix B: Recruitment Letter

Dear _____:

My name is Scott Johnson, and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am conducting research in partial fulfillment of my doctorate degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology. The purpose of my proposed research is to explore and understand the thoughts and feelings regarding the decision to enter into mentoring with members of the opposite sex. The objective is to better understand why U.S. Army officers chose to enter into mentoring with members of the opposite sex. The impact of this study will help to further integrate female U.S. Army officers into senior ranks by affording equal mentoring opportunities. Currently, there is insufficient knowledge regarding this research topic.

I know your time is important and would appreciate your participation in this study. To fully understand your thoughts and feelings regarding this topic, it will take approximately 1 to 1.5-hours of your time to complete the interview questions. If there are any further questions regarding your input, I will schedule a time to conduct a telephonic conversation for any clarifying factors. You are not required to do or answer anything associated to the interview questions that causes you discomfort. The questions of the interview are intended to explore the thoughts and feelings associated your experiences with previous or current mentoring with members of the opposite gender; to include thoughts and feelings not to enter into mentoring with a member of the opposite gender. All information gathered during the interview will be held strictly confidential and you are free to discontinue participation at any time with no adverse repercussions.

Your name will not be included in the final product, or be associated with the end result of this research in any way.

Please contact me at your earliest convenience to schedule a date and time to complete the interview questions. My telephone number is (703) XXX-XXX. My e-mail address is scott.johnson3@waldenu.edu

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Scott Johnson
Doctoral Candidate
Walden University

Appendix C: Consent Form

Walden University Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a research study titled *A Phenomenological Study of Cross-Gender Mentoring among U.S. Army Officers* that will examine the thoughts and feelings regarding the decision to enter into mentoring with members of the opposite sex. You have been selected as a potential participant based on your experience as a U.S. Army Officer. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before acting upon this invitation to participate in the study. The research will be conducted by Scott Johnson, Doctoral Candidate at Walden University.

Background Information:

The purpose of this phenomenological study is to understand the thoughts and feelings regarding the decision to enter into mentoring with members of the opposite sex. The objective is to better understand why Army officers chose to enter into mentoring with members of the opposite sex. The impact of this study will help to further integrate female Army officers into senior ranks by affording equal mentoring opportunities.

Procedures:

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to engage with the researcher through email to answer specific questions regarding cross-gender mentoring in the U.S. Army. Once your responses to the questions have been received and reviewed, the researcher will schedule a time that works with your schedule to review your responses, and discuss any questions you or the researcher may have. These telephonic conversations will be recorded in order to capture any additional information that is discussed. The researcher will be available for any questions you may have via email or telephone during your participation. Upon completion, the researcher may contact you if further questions arise. Typical time to complete the research questions is approximately 1 to 1.5 hours.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary, and you can change your mind and withdrawal at any time without any punitive damages. Your decision to participate will not affect your current or future relationships with the U.S. Army. You may also refuse to answer any interview questions you consider invasive or stressful.

Risks and Benefits of Participation:

The risks associated with your participation include (a) You may experience mental discomforts associated with answering potentially uncomfortable questions related to your experiences while serving as a U.S. Army Officer; (b) You may also experience minor issues related to the required time to participate in the study; (c) If you should experience distress from the interview, you are encouraged to contact counseling services and or counseling hotlines. The potential benefits of participating in the study are knowing that you are contributing to understanding why U.S. Army Officers decide to enter into mentoring with members of the opposite sex. From this, your participation may help to provide equal opportunities for mentoring to both male and female U.S. Army Officers.

Compensation:

There is no monetary compensation for your participation in this study.

Confidentiality:

All records maintained for this study will be kept private in a safe accessible only to the researcher. The researcher will exclude all identifiable information of any participant from published documents. Research records will be maintained within a locked file accessible solely by the researcher and faculty supervisor. Digital files will be maintained on a password protected external drive that contains only information regarding this research, which will be located with all documents in a locked file. The data will be kept for a period of 5 years after the study is complete as required by the university, then erased after the required time to ensure confidentiality.

Contacts and Questions:

You may ask any questions directly to Scott Johnson, the researcher conducting this study at (703) 879-4643 or scott.johnson3@waldenu.edu, or his advisor, Dr. John Schmidt at john.schmidt@waldenu.edu. The research-participant advocate at Walden University can be reached at 1-800-925-3368, Extension 1210 or by emailing irb@waldenu.edu, should you have any questions with regard to your participation in this study. Also for your convenience, you may contact the Military Health Hotline at 800-273-8255, option 1. The researcher will provide you a copy of this form to keep. Walden University's approval number for this study is 10-04-16-0377819 and it expires October 3, 2017.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have asked any existing questions and received answers. For e-mail consent, please reply to the e-mail with the words, "I consent." For face-to-face interviews, I am consenting with my name and signature below.

Printed Name of Participant:

Signature: Date:

Signature of Investigator: Date:

Appendix D: Confidentiality Agreement

Confidentiality Agreement

During the course of my activity in transcribing interviews for this study, "A Phenomenological Study of Cross-Gender Mentoring among U.S. Army Officers," I will have access to information that is confidential and should not be disclosed. I acknowledge that the information must remain confidential, and that improper disclosure of confidential information can be damaging to the participant.

By signing this Confidentiality Agreement I acknowledge and agree that:

1. I will not disclose or discuss any confidential information with others, including friends or family.
2. I will not in any way divulge, copy, release, sell, loan, alter destroy any confidential information except as properly authorized.
3. I will not discuss confidential information where others can overhear the conversation. I understand that it is not acceptable to discuss confidential information even if the participant's name is not used.
4. I will not make unauthorized transmissions, inquires, modification or purging of confidential information.
5. I will keep research data in a manner that protects the privacy of participants and ensures that individual participants are identifiable by outside parties.
6. I agree that my obligations under this agreement will continue after termination of the job that I will perform.
7. I understand that violation of this agreement will have legal implications.

In signing this document, I acknowledge that I have read the agreement and I agree to comply with all the terms and conditions stated above. For e-mail agreement, please reply to the e-mail with the words, "I acknowledge that I have read the agreement and I agree to comply with all the terms and conditions."

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Appendix E: Project Description Letter

The purpose of my study is to explore the thoughts and feelings associated with the decision to select, or not select members of the opposite sex for mentorship. The qualitative research study is chiefly guided by two central questions; what are the feelings associated with the selection of cross-gender mentors and mentees for U.S. Army officers, and how does gender bias effect the selection of cross-gender mentors or mentees in the U.S. Army? The data generated from 10 semistructured interview questions based on the conceptual framework will be examined for themes, concepts, and patterns using the procedures of the phenomenological research method to answer the research questions. Twenty U.S. Army Officers will be interviewed in order to gather the needed data for this qualitative study. The interview questions are estimated to take approximately 1 to 1.5 hours to complete.

For the purpose of this study, mentorship is defined as the cumulative social exchange between two people with the expectation that there is sharing or gain of information or knowledge pertaining to one's own career path, progression, and/or promotion track. A consent form will be provided to ensure each participant understands the details of the study, to include background information, procedures, nature of the study, risks, and benefits of participation, compensation, confidentiality, and contact information. The resulting data will be examined for emerging themes, concepts, and patterns.

This study holds potential for positive social impact implications by increasing awareness regarding why U.S. Army Officers chose to enter into mentoring with

members of the opposite sex. Since workplace mentoring is a relatively new area of study, and has significant gaps in the existing literature, especially regarding it use in the military. The intent of this study is to gain insight into the decisions and feelings of military officers regarding their decision to engage in mentoring. Understanding this will have a positive impact on the U.S. Army's efforts to develop effective leaders, both male and female. To insure female U.S. Army officers, receive effective socialization and mentoring, this study must be conducted to understand this gap as identified in previous research. By examining the lived experiences regarding U.S. Army officers and their feelings during the selection of mentors and mentees of the opposite sex, the results of this study can help address and discover factors that contribute to the challenges associated with cross-gender mentoring. With these challenges addressed, future mentors and mentees may utilize this information as a tool to develop effective cross-gender mentoring, which might aid in increasing valuable leaders and decrease gender bias and gender separation in the Army.

Appendix F: U.S. Army ARI Coordination and Memorandum for Record

From: Hedberg, Kurt E CIV USARMY HQDA RMDA (US)
Sent: Wednesday, August 03, 2016 2:36 PM
To: Johnson, Scott R MAJ USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Subject: RE: Survey for Dissertation Proposal - Scott Johnson (UNCLASSIFIED)

You do not need any permission from the Army, in that your dissertation (as it currently stands) is not an official Army study and not anyway connected to the DoA or DoD. /r

Kurt E. Hedberg
Department of the Army
Information Management Control Officer

From: Johnson, Scott R MAJ USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Sent: Wednesday, August 03, 2016 4:21 AM
To: Hedberg, Kurt E CIV USARMY HQDA RMDA (US)
Subject: RE: Survey for Dissertation Proposal - Scott Johnson (UNCLASSIFIED)

Sir, I appreciate your response and feedback. So does this mean that I do not need Army IRB approval/concurrence, or do I still need to do this? My dissertation chair specifically said to get Army IRB approval. Thank you for your assistance.

LTC Scott R. Johnson
Branch Chief, Contingency Operations
AFRICOM J133

From: Hedberg, Kurt E CIV USARMY HQDA RMDA (US)
Sent: Wednesday, July 27, 2016 5:14 PM
To: Johnson, Scott R MAJ USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Subject: RE: Survey for Dissertation Proposal - Scott Johnson (UNCLASSIFIED)

Major, while I empathize with you, I don't make the regulations or requirements; also there is no "Army approval" of the data collected by LTC K (I reviewed the attachment). That being said, most of the data on LTC K's paper are from open sources, his actual data collection (from less than 10 subjects?) seems to be volunteers from professional organizations and/or subjects having experience as mentors using as a baseline earlier mentoring studies. The LTC did contact Dr Simmons (ARI) regarding the survey vehicle itself and while he has the authority to exempt a survey itself (per DoDI 3216.02), ARI doesn't have the authority to exempt the overall collection of data (that would be the Army IMCO with concurrence from DoD (WHS)). Dr. M has no authority to approve/disapprove data collections for/on any military or government employees. BLUF - LTC K was not sanctioned to conduct this study using government employees he selected from an official Army dBase; but (and this is somewhat ironic), had this been an official Army collection, it would have been exempted due to having less than ten study participants (DoDI 8910.01, Vol I and II). Sorry I can't be of more assistance. /r

Kurt E. Hedberg
Department of the Army
Information Management Control Officer

From: Johnson, Scott R MAJ USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Sent: Wednesday, July 27, 2016 3:00 AM
To: Hedberg, Kurt E CIV USARMY HQDA RMDA (US)
Subject: RE: Survey for Dissertation Proposal - Scott Johnson (UNCLASSIFIED)

Sir, I understand that it is a private study, but I am unsure how this differs from many of the other dissertations that have been completed utilizing Army officers in their participant samples...such as the one I attached. It has your approval letter in it, please see attached.

MAJ(P) Scott R. Johnson
Branch Chief, Contingency Operations
AFRICOM J133

From: Hedberg, Kurt E CIV USARMY HQDA RMDA (US)
Sent: Tuesday, July 26, 2016 2:22 PM
To: Johnson, Scott R MAJ USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Subject: RE: Survey for Dissertation Proposal - Scott Johnson (UNCLASSIFIED)

Maj. Johnson, Unfortunately, your study (dissertation) is for a private study vice an "official" one; thus the Army cannot officially sponsor such a survey of its members. That being said - you can (on your own) seek out volunteers that would fit your survey/study requirements to obtain the data your desire. Just remember that any volunteers you find are giving you there opinions/data as private citizens verses military members. If you've any additional questions, pls don't hesitate to contact me. Thanks, /r

Kurt E. Hedberg
Department of the Army
Information Management Control Officer

From: Stroud, Sandra D CIV (US)
Sent: Monday, July 25, 2016 1:43 PM
To: Johnson, Scott R MAJ USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Cc: Hedberg, Kurt E CIV USARMY HQDA RMDA (US)
Subject: FW: Survey for Dissertation Proposal - Scott Johnson (UNCLASSIFIED)

Major Johnson, I'm forwarding your email to a Department of the Army Information Management Control Officer (IMCO), Mr. Kurt Hedberg. Mr. Hedberg, cc'd on this email, will assist you with your request. v/R,

Sandra D. Stroud

Information Management Specialist
Army Records Management and Declassification Agency

From: Johnson, Scott R MAJ USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Sent: Monday, July 25, 2016 7:28 AM
To: Stroud, Sandra D CIV (US)
Subject: Survey for Dissertation Proposal - Scott Johnson

Ma'am, I am emailing in regards to a survey request. I am currently an Army officer and a doctoral student with Walden University, Studying Industrial and Organizational Psychology. I have completed my dissertation proposal and proposal oral defense, and gained approval to submit to the Walden IRB for approval. Before I can do so, I need approval from the Army to conduct interviews with Army officers. My study is titled "A Phenomenological Study of Cross-Gender Mentoring Among U.S. Army Officers." I have read through the Army Survey Request paper dated 6 March 2016, as well as the info paper regarding the Army survey approval process. This study is qualitative in nature, and will utilize 10 semi-structured open-ended interview questions (listed in the attached proposal under Appendix A: Interview Protocol). The sample population is 20 Female and 20 Male Army officers...40 total. I believe that based on your Army Survey Request paper, I shouldn't need a license for this study. Please see the attached dissertation proposal, and please let me know if you have any questions, or need anything else from me.

MAJ(P) Scott R. Johnson
Branch Chief, Contingency Operations
AFRICOM J133

3 August 2016

Memorandum for Record

Subject: U.S. Army IRB Review Request for Walden University Dissertation Proposal

Enclosure: (1) ARI eMail Exchanges on the Need for IRB Dissertation Proposal Approval

1. A request was sent on 25 July 2016 to the U.S. Army Institutional Review Board (IRB) to review my proposed dissertation entitled: *A Phenomenological Study of Cross-Gender Mentoring Among US Army Officers*. The cognizant POC a Dr. Stroud of the U.S. Army Research Institute (ARI) forwarded my request to Mr. Hedberg in the Information Management Control Office, a division of ARI. He responded on 26 July 2016 that my submitted dissertation proposal did not require U.S. Army IRB approval due to it being a private study versus an official U.S. Army one. Mr. Hedberg further explained that due to the sample size and that any responses from participants are opinions as private citizens, the U.S. Army does not consider this as research per se.

2. A third party dissertation that contained approval from Mr. Hedberg's office was forwarded on 27 July 2016 to Mr. Hedberg with a request for further clarification on the need for U.S. Army IRB approval. On 3 August 2016, He responded that my dissertation proposal did not require Army IRB approval for it did not meet their definition of research.

3. This memorandum, and a copy of the email exchanges with ARI, will be provided to the Walden IRB and will be presented in the final dissertation as an appendix section.

Scott R. Johnson
Doctoral Candidate, I/O Psychology
Walden University

Appendix G: Approval to Contact U.S. Army Officers

From: Davis, Delores Johnson SES USARMY HQDA ASA MRA (US)
To: Johnson, Scott R LTC USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Subject: RE: Approval to Conduct Interviews
Date: Wednesday, September 14, 2016 6:31:00 PM

LTC Johnson,
I have reviewed your request to conduct interviews of 40 Army Officers. This email confirms that you are approved to invite Army Officers to interview for the purposes of fulfilling the requirements for your PhD dissertation with Walden University.

Best, Delores

Delores Johnson-Davis, SES
Senior Professional for Integration
(Human Dimension)
ASA (M&RA)

_____
From: Johnson, Scott R LTC USARMY AFRICOM ACJ13 (US)
Sent: Wednesday, September 14, 2016 1:28 AM
To: Davis, Delores Johnson SES USARMY HQDA ASA MRA (US)
Subject: Approval to Conduct Interviews

Ma'am,
I am following up regarding my request to conduct interviews with 40 Army Officers for the purposes of completing my dissertation with Walden University regarding cross-gender mentoring among Army officers. With your approval to contact these officers, I can move forward with my request for approval to conduct this study from the Walden University IRB.

I appreciate your assistance,

Scott

LTC Scott R. Johnson
Branch Chief, Contingency Operations
AFRICOM J133
DSN: 314-421-3488

Appendix H: List of Participants

PARTICIPANT #		RANK	JOB FIELD (BRANCH)	COMMISSIONING SOURCE	GENDER	RACE CATEGORY
MALE OFFICERS	01	MAJOR GENERAL	INFANTRY	USMA	M	CAUCASIAN
	02	MAJOR GENERAL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	03	BRIGADIER GENERAL	INFANTRY	USMA	M	CAUCASIAN
	04	MAJOR GENERAL	MILITARY POLICE	USMA	M	CAUCASIAN
	05	COLONEL	INFANTRY	USMA	M	CAUCASIAN
	06	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	OCS	M	CAUCASIAN
	07	COLONEL	INFANTRY	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	08	MAJOR	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	M	AFRICAN AMERICAN
	09	COLONEL	ARMOR	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	10	COLONEL	ARMOR	ROTC	M	HISPANIC
	11	COLONEL	INFANTRY	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	12	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	13	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	14	COLONEL	FIELD ARTILLERY	ROTC	M	ASIAN
	15	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	16	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	SIGNAL CORPS	ROTC	M	AFRICAN AMERICAN
	17	MAJOR	INFANTRY	USMA	M	CAUCASIAN
	18	COLONEL	LOGISTICS	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	19	COLONEL	INFANTRY	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
	20	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	M	CAUCASIAN
FEMALE OFFICERS	21	COLONEL	ENGINEER	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	22	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	23	MAJOR	FIELD ARTILLERY	ROTC	F	ASIAN
	24	MAJOR	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	25	CAPTAIN	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	26	CAPTAIN	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	27	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	28	MAJOR	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	AFRICAN AMERICAN
	29	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	ASIAN
	30	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	AVIATION	OCS	F	CAUCASIAN
	31	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN

	32	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	USMA	F	CAUCASIAN
	33	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	OCS	F	CAUCASIAN
	34	COLONEL	ENGINEER	ROTC	F	ASIAN
	35	COLONEL	ENGINEER	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	36	COLONEL	ENGINEER	ROTC	F	AFRICAN AMERICAN
	37	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	38	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	39	COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	CAUCASIAN
	40	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	ADJUTANT GENERAL	ROTC	F	HISPANIC

Appendix I: Code Book

AXIAL CODES

MALE	feelings	willingness understand relate	FEMALE	feelings	willingness understand relate
	concern	relationship perception spouse inappropriate association sex		concern	relationship perception gossip inappropriate association sex
	profession	mentoring opportunities professionalism background career field impact		profession	mentoring opportunities professionalism background career field impact progression
	differences	opposite fitness background gender		differences	opposite fitness background gender beauty
	beliefs	bias need supportive ability potential		beliefs	bias need supportive acceptance fitness potential
	preferences	men gender background		preferences	men women gender
	bias	positive negative don't belong towards females gender		bias	positive negative towards females