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The Roots and Meaning of Mentoring

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You must do the things you think you cannot do.
—Eleanor Roosevelt

We don’t accomplish anything in this world alone . . . and whatever happens is the result of the whole tapestry of one’s life and all the weavings of individual threads from one to another that creates something.
—Justice Sandra Day O’Connor

When asked to contemplate relationships that have made a difference in our lives—relationships that have given us the courage to do the things we think we cannot do, relationships that have guided our professional development or even changed the course of our lives—many of us think of mentoring relationships. At its best, mentoring can be a life-altering relationship that inspires mutual growth, learning, and development. Its effects can be remarkable, profound, and enduring; mentoring relationships have the capacity to transform individuals, groups, organizations, and communities.

While our interest in mentoring is relatively young, mentoring is an ancient archetype originating in Greek mythology. A figure in Homer’s Odyssey, Mentor was a wise and faithful advisor entrusted to protect Odysseus’s son, Telemachus, while Odysseus sailed against Troy. It is interesting to note that the original mentoring
archetype embodied both male and female attributes. Mentor was a man, but Athena, the female goddess of wisdom, assumed his form in order to guide, teach, and protect young Telemachus. This archetype offers provocative insights into the meaning of mentoring as a relationship that transcends time, gender, and culture. Moreover, while the roots of mentoring can be traced to mythology, mentoring is no myth; it is a very real relationship that has been an integral part of social life and the world of work for thousands of years.

Intrigued by this enduring and timeless relationship, Daniel Levinson (1978) explored the impact of mentoring on men’s development in his seminal book *The Seasons of a Man’s Life*. Shortly thereafter, Kathy Kram (1985) published *Mentoring at Work*, which offered a theoretical foundation for understanding developmental relationships at work for both men and women. This book captured and defined the construct of mentoring, planted a theoretical foundation for the field, and ignited a program of research that moved the concept of mentoring from an abstract academic construct to a household word.

Scholars then spent the next 20 years grappling with the myths and meaning of mentoring. The result is a literal explosion of research that crosses disciplines, professions, and continents (see reviews by Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Clutterbuck & Ragins, 2002; Noe, Greenberger, & Wang, 2002; Ragins, 1999; Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). Interest in mentoring continues to gain momentum, and this groundswell of attention can be traced to the practical application of mentoring in organizational settings, as well as to the general appeal of mentoring as a personal, tangible, and transformational relationship. However, even as mentoring is accessible when framed within our own experience, scholars continue to struggle with understanding the complexity of this pivotal, life-altering relationship. In a nutshell, we know it works; we are still grappling with why, when, and how.

After 20 years of research, it is time for us to step back and assess where we have been, where we are, and where we need to go in the field of mentoring. So much has changed since *Mentoring at Work* was published over 20 years ago. In the 1980s, organizations were stable and hierarchical; workforces were homogeneous and primarily male; employees looked forward to their “30-year gold watches”; and “web” referred to spiders rather than the Internet. Seismic changes in technology, globalization, organizational structures, career paths, and diversity require a critical analysis and reassessment of the field. In addition to these massive structural changes, new hybrid forms of mentoring were being offered by organizations without guidance or connection to empirical research. Clearly, the time is right for a volume that allows us to reflect on our past and plan our future. Accordingly, the purpose of the *Handbook of Mentoring at Work* is to consolidate what we have learned, bring new theoretical lenses to the discourse on mentoring, and forge important new bridges between the research and practice of mentoring.

In this introductory chapter, we first give the reader a brief overview of the roots and evolution of mentoring relationships. Next, we offer an introduction to the new perspectives on mentoring that will be addressed in this book. Following this, we provide the reader with the purpose, vision, and objectives of the handbook. We conclude with an overview of how the volume is organized.
Understanding the Lay of the Land: The Roots and Evolution of Mentoring

Early Perspectives of Mentoring

Traditionally, mentoring has been defined as a relationship between an older, more experienced mentor and a younger, less experienced protégé for the purpose of helping and developing the protégé’s career (Kram, 1985; Levinson, 1978; see also reviews by Noe et al., 2002; Ragins, 1999; Wanberg et al., 2003). The mentor may or may not be employed in the same organization as the protégé or be in the protégé’s chain of command or profession.

Although the definition of mentoring has been refined over the years, a core feature that defines mentoring relationships and distinguishes it from other types of personal relationships is that mentoring is a developmental relationship that is embedded within the career context. While learning, growth, and development may occur in many different types of work and close personal relationships, mentoring relationships are unique in that the primary focus of the relationship is on career development and growth. Let us now turn to a brief overview of the types of behaviors or functions offered in mentoring relationships.

Mentoring Functions

Mentors are generally viewed as providing two types of functions to their protégés (Kram, 1985). First, mentors may offer career functions. Career functions involve a range of behaviors that help protégés “learn the ropes” and prepare them for hierarchical advancement within their organizations. These behaviors include coaching protégés, sponsoring their advancement, increasing their positive exposure and visibility, and offering them protection and challenging assignments. Second, mentors may provide psychosocial functions. Psychosocial functions build on trust, intimacy, and interpersonal bonds in the relationship and include behaviors that enhance the protégé’s professional and personal growth, identity, self-worth, and self-efficacy. They include mentoring behaviors such as offering acceptance and confirmation and providing counseling, friendship, and role-modeling.

As research in the field has progressed, four key insights about mentoring functions have emerged. First, career and psychosocial functions have different roots and outcomes. In her early work, Kram (1985) observed that career functions depend on the mentor’s position and influence in the organization, while psychosocial functions rely on the quality of emotional bonds and psychological attachments in the relationship. Subsequent research has indeed found that career and psychosocial functions constitute two relatively independent dimensions of mentoring behaviors (Noe, 1988; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990), although some studies have found that role-modeling may represent a third dimension of mentoring (Scandura, 1992; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). Mentoring scholars have also discovered that different mentoring functions predict different protégé outcomes: Career functions are a stronger predictor of protégés’ compensation and advancement, while psychosocial functions
have a stronger relationship with protégés' satisfaction with the relationship (Allen et al., 2004; Wanberg et al., 2003). However, both career and psychosocial functions predict protégés’ job and career satisfaction (Allen et al., 2004).

Second, there is significant variation in the range and degree of mentoring functions within and across relationships. Like other relationships, no two mentoring relationships are alike. Some relationships provide either career or psychosocial functions, while other relationships offer a broad range of behaviors that incorporate both types of mentoring functions (Noe, 1988; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Scandura, 1992). In addition, mentoring relationships vary in the degree to which a given mentoring function is provided. For example, mentors may offer high, medium, or low levels of a specific function in a given relationship. The range and degree of functions provided by a mentor may be driven by the needs of the protégé, the mentor’s ability to meet those needs (i.e., their interpersonal skills, resources, and power), the mentor’s needs, the “chemistry” in the relationship, and the organizational context (Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1997). Finally, because mentoring relationships may represent a “fit” between the needs of the protégé and the mentor’s ability and interest in meeting those needs, the same mentor may offer different functions and degrees of functions to different protégés.

Third, mentoring functions may vary across the phases of the relationship (Kram, 1983, 1985). Mentoring relationships are not static, but evolve through phases that reflect different functions, experiences, and patterns of interactions. Kram’s (1983) study of 18 mentoring relationships revealed that functions vary across four distinct phases in the relationship: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. Some career functions may be offered in the initiation phase, but career and psychosocial functions usually peak during the cultivation phase. The cultivation phase is marked by strengthened interpersonal bonds and a shift from a one-way, helping relationship to a relationship entailing more mutual exchange and reciprocity (Kram, 1985). The cultivation phase ends when changes in individual needs or the organizational environment disrupt the equilibrium of the relationship. The relationship may shift into this separation phase because of psychological or physical reasons. For example, the protégé may psychologically outgrow the relationship, or the relationship may terminate because one or both members physically leave the organization. Although mentoring relationships may terminate for functional or dysfunctional psychological reasons, existing research indicates that most relationships terminate because of physical separation (Ragins & Scandura, 1997). Some mentoring relationships disband at the separation phase, but relationships that offer strong psychosocial functions may continue to a redefinition phase. In this phase, the relationship becomes redefined as a peer relationship or friendship. Career functions are less evident in this phase, but friendship, some counseling, and occasional coaching may continue in the redefinition phase.

The final insight about mentoring functions is that individuals may provide these functions without necessarily being mentors. There are a number of examples that illustrate this point. A manager may offer career functions to his or her employee without either individual viewing the relationship as a mentoring relationship. Similarly, psychosocial functions of friendship and counseling often occur in many work relationships that are not perceived as mentoring relationships by either member of the relationship. Individuals may serve as role models without being mentors. The
distinction between mentoring behaviors and mentoring relationships is important from both a methodological and practical perspective (see Dougherty & Dreher, Chapter 3, this volume; Ragins, 1999). As we will see later in this volume, the idea of *mentoring episodes*, which are short-term developmental interactions, offers a useful lens for distinguishing between mentoring behaviors and mentoring relationships (see Fletcher & Ragins, Chapter 15, this volume).

Now that we have reviewed some of the complexities involved with understanding the behaviors in mentoring relationships, let us turn to a brief review of the outcomes of these relationships.

### Outcomes for Protégés

Most mentoring research has focused on career outcomes for protégés and has found a positive relationship between the presence of a mentor and career outcomes (see qualitative reviews by Noe et al., 2002; Ragins, 1999; Wanberg et al., 2003). Concurring with qualitative reviews, a meta-analysis conducted by Allen and her colleagues (Allen et al., 2004) found that mentored individuals receive more promotions and earn higher salaries than their nonmentored counterparts. In addition to these instrumental outcomes, protégés report more career satisfaction, career commitment, and job satisfaction and greater expectations for advancement than those without mentors.

While these results have led mentoring scholars to conclude that mentoring relationships offer a significant career advantage for protégés, recent critiques point out that because most mentoring research is cross-sectional, we are unable to draw clear causal links between mentoring and protégé career outcomes (see Wanberg et al., 2003). The relationship between the presence of a mentor and protégé career outcomes may be a function of the “rising-star effect” (Ragins, 1999; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). This refers to the potential scenario in which high-performing, “rising-star” employees may be more likely than other employees to enter mentoring relationships. This selection artifact obscures whether the outcomes associated with mentoring are due to the relationship, the protégé’s independent abilities, or some combination of these two factors. A recent longitudinal test of the rising-star effect revealed that rising stars are more likely than other employees to obtain mentors (Singh, Tharenou, & Ragins, 2007). These results complement other research that has found that mentors select protégés on the basis of their competency and potential (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Olian, Carroll, & Giannantonio, 1993). However, while rising stars are more likely to obtain mentors, Singh and her colleagues (Singh et al., 2007) found that they also experience a sharp increase in salary, career satisfaction, and advancement expectations after entering the mentoring relationship. These results suggest that the significant relationship typically found between mentoring and protégé outcomes may be due to both preexisting protégé attributes as well as the independent effects of mentoring relationships. In addition, the organization may also play a significant role in protégé outcomes. Although there has been a lack of research on this topic, high-performing protégés may seek organizations that offer developmental cultures and stretch assignments that support their career trajectories. This represents a provocative area for new research.
Outcomes for Mentors

Although quite a bit of research has explored the effects of mentoring on protégé outcomes, relatively little attention has been paid to the benefits received by mentors (see Allen, Chapter 5, this volume). The research that has been done indicates that mentors report that their relationships offer them benefits such as improved job performance, career success and revitalization, recognition by others, a loyal base of support from their protégés, and a sense of personal fulfillment and satisfaction (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Kram, 1985; Mullen & Noe, 1999; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Other cross-sectional research has found that these benefits are associated with increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Eby, Durley, Carr, & Ragins, 2006) and that mentors report greater career success and have faster promotion rates than nonmentors (Bozionelos, 2004). This research offers needed insight into the potential benefits and outcomes associated with being a mentor.

However, similar to the rising-star effect, the outcomes associated with being a mentor may be a function of preexisting differences between individuals who choose to be mentors and those who choose not to enter such relationships. In particular, individuals who choose to become mentors may be high-performing “established stars” who already experience high levels of career success, as well as positive job and career attitudes. In addition, high-performing mentors may be drawn to organizations that offer climates and assignments that lead to positive career outcomes. A positive relationship between mentoring and these outcomes could therefore reflect existing differences in characteristics of those who choose to be mentors, rather than the effects of the relationship. Future research could use longitudinal designs to untangle this potential selection artifact.

In sum, a review of the evolution of mentoring illustrates that we have focused much of our attention on a relatively narrow aspect of mentoring relationships. Using the “garden metaphor,” we have thoroughly cultivated one aspect of the garden of mentoring but have neglected other areas of the garden. As described in a recent critique of the field (Ragins & Verbos, 2007), historically, we have viewed mentoring as a one-sided, hierarchical relationship in which mentors provide career outcomes to their protégés. Relatively little attention has been placed on the mentor’s side of the relationship; in fact, we are not even clear on the functions or behaviors that protégés provide in the relationship. In addition, we have used a narrow lens to assess the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship. Historically, most research has focused on instrumental outcomes relating to career advancement and work attitudes but has not examined relational outcomes that are central to effective relationships, learning, and growth. In essence, the relationship has become valued for “what it can do” rather than for “what it can be” (Ragins & Verbos, 2007). Finally, while we have focused on mentoring behaviors and protégé outcomes, we have not explored the dynamic and interactive processes underlying mentoring relationships.

Increasingly, mentoring scholars have recognized and begun to address these limitations. Let us now turn to a brief overview of some of the exciting new developments in the garden of mentoring.
New Growth in the Garden: Emerging Perspectives on the Meaning of Mentoring

The chapters in this handbook illustrate exciting new perspectives that explore, examine, and uncover the meaning of mentoring. For example, mentoring scholars now recognize that mentoring relationships exist on a continuum of quality that reflects a full range of positive and negative experiences, processes, and outcomes (see Eby, Chapter 13; Fletcher & Ragins, Chapter 15). We are now examining both sides of the relationship (see Allen, Chapter 5) and are taking a broader perspective that incorporates the affective, cognitive, and behavioral aspects of the relationship (see Dougherty & Dreher, Chapter 3; Fletcher & Ragins, Chapter 15). Increasingly, we recognize the significance of learning in mentoring relationships (see Lankau & Scandura, Chapter 4) and the role mentoring plays in career learning cycles (see Hall & Chandler, Chapter 19). We now strive to understand how individual attributes, such as personality (see Turban & Lee, Chapter 2), developmental stage (see McGowan, Stone, & Kegan, Chapter 16), and emotional intelligence (see Cherniss, Chapter 17) affect and are affected by mentoring relationships. We recognize the significance of mentoring as an important form of socialization (see Chao, Chapter 7) that changes mentors and protégés in physiological, mental, emotional, and perhaps even spiritual ways (see Boyatzis, Chapter 18). Finally, mentoring scholars are discovering the importance of context, and they are offering critical new insight into the effects of diversity (see Blake-Beard, Murrell, & Thomas, Chapter 9; Giscombe, Chapter 22; McKeen & Bujaki, Chapter 8), work-life balance (see Greenhaus & Singh, Chapter 21), technology (see Ensher & Murphy, Chapter 12), and global perspectives (see Clutterbuck, Chapter 26) on mentoring relationships.

In addition to new insight into the antecedents, processes, outcomes, and context of mentoring relationships, we witness the emergence of new perspectives on the very form of the relationship. We now recognize that mentoring relationships exist within the context of developmental networks (Higgins & Kram, 2001) and that these constellations of relationships have important ramifications for the types of functions and processes offered in a given relationship (see Chao, Chapter 7; Higgins, Chandler, & Kram, Chapter 14). In addition to contextualizing mentoring, we are delving into differences inherent in peer mentoring relationships (see McManus & Russell, Chapter 11), and we are trying to uncover the complexities underlying the leadership-mentoring interface (see Godshalk & Sosik, Chapter 6; McCauley & Guthrie, Chapter 23). Formal mentoring has become a core area of investigation for mentoring research, and mentoring scholars and practitioners struggle in their quest to understand the unique offerings of formal relationships and the conditions under which they thrive (see Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, Chapter 10; Blake-Beard, O’Neill, & McGowan, Chapter 25; P-Sontag, Vappie, & Wanberg, Chapter 24). Finally, with communication becoming increasingly electronic, virtual or e-mentoring (see Ensher & Murphy, Chapter 12) has become a new area of research that illuminates the full range of mentoring relationships.
These emerging perspectives offer exciting and needed insight into the new meaning of mentoring. While mentoring relationships are as old as the hills, the terrain in which they reside has certainly changed since Odysseus set sail for Troy thousands of years ago. A contextualized perspective on mentoring allows us to grasp the subtle and stark changes in the evolution of mentoring relationships. As described in the next section, this handbook was designed to showcase, chronicle, and extend these new perspectives so that scholars and practitioners alike can understand the roots, evolution, and meaning of mentoring.

Why the Time Is Right for This Handbook

There are three compelling reasons why the time is right for the Handbook of Mentoring at Work.

We Need to Chronicle the Current State of the Field and Chart New Directions for Future Research

Mentoring researchers have studied a wide array of mentoring topics over the past 20 years. For example, they have examined the predictors, processes, and outcomes of mentoring from both protégés’ and mentors’ perspectives. They have examined the role and influence of personality, race, gender, and other forms of diversity on mentoring relationships. They have explored how learning emerges as a function and process of the relationship, why and how mentoring relationships become dysfunctional, and how mentoring maps onto leadership and socialization processes in organizations. New research examines the differences between formal and informal mentoring, the role of peers in developmental relationships, and the benefits and drawbacks of virtual or electronic mentoring relationships.

With over 20 years of research behind us, it is clear that the time is right for a book that chronicles the current state of knowledge in the field of mentoring. In particular, there is a need for a comprehensive volume that offers an in-depth assessment of what is known in the topic areas of mentoring, what needs to be explored in these areas, and the best way to approach and conduct this research.

We Need to Extend the Theoretical Horizons of Mentoring

Most research conducted over the past 20 years is based on Kram’s (1985) early theoretical work. Although this work continues to offer a solid theoretical foundation for mentoring scholarship, significant changes have occurred over time that necessitate the extension, broadening, and development of new theoretical perspectives on mentoring relationships. To start, societal and organizational changes have radically transformed the constructed meaning and contextualized experience of careers. We witness new technology, organizational transformations, and strategic
directions that have massively altered employee-employer relationships. These factors have also had a profound effect on the meaning of work and careers, as well as the form, function, and context of work relationships in organizational life. Changing workforce demographics, increased diversity, and shifting work-life balance demands have forever altered employees’ needs, expectations, and work relationships. Since mentoring relationships are embedded within these contexts, an accurate vision of the meaning of mentoring requires the development and use of new theoretical lenses.

Fortunately, the past 20 years have given us new theoretical paradigms from related fields and disciplines that offer great promise for the field of mentoring. Theoretical advancements in related disciplines of adult development, networks, communication, careers, work-life balance, and psychology (clinical, social, cognitive, and vocational) offer important new insight into the meaning of mentoring. The field of mentoring needs fresh new theoretical directions to guide our growing garden of research, and these new perspectives offer an abundant cross-fertilization of ideas that can deepen, broaden, and enrich our garden.

In sum, we need a volume that integrates and incorporates new theoretical perspectives in order to offer new frameworks, models, and theories of mentoring that are aligned within the changing landscape of careers and organizations.

**We Need to Build Bridges Between the Research and Practice of Mentoring**

Mentoring research needs to both inform and be informed by mentoring practice. However, there is a serious gap in the bridge between research and practice; even as mentoring scholars analyze the determinants of effective mentoring relationships, mentoring practitioners are often unaware of the results of this research. Given the sustained surge of interest in formal mentoring programs and the use of mentoring in diversity, leadership development, and international programs, the bridge between research and practice has become absolutely critical. Yet practitioners often develop these programs without the benefit or guidance of empirical research.

On the other side of the synergy bridge, mentoring theorists and scholars need to be connected to practice in order to provide relevant research on new and emerging forms of developmental relationships. For example, traditional forms of mentoring relationships have been joined, or even replaced by, nontraditional relationships involving group mentoring, peer mentoring, and formally assigned relationships. These relationships are designed to achieve ambitious short- and long-term objectives, but practitioners need a better understanding of their unique processes and outcomes. Mentoring scholars can offer these needed insights by conducting empirical research and building new theoretical models that explain the underlying processes that distinguish different types of developmental relationships.

In short, the field needs a volume that bridges research and practice (a) by offering a forum for discussing current issues and challenges in the practice of mentoring and (b) by identifying the research and theory that need to be developed to address the changing practice of mentoring.
The Handbook of Mentoring at Work was explicitly designed to address these pressing needs.

The Handbook’s Vision, Mission, and Structure

The Vision and Mission of the Handbook

The Handbook of Mentoring at Work brings together a select group of scholars and practitioners for the purpose of developing the definitive reference book on mentoring relationships. Our vision is to offer a comprehensive volume that defines the current state of the field, offers fresh new theoretical perspectives, identifies the key debates and issues facing mentoring scholars and practitioners, and provides a theory-driven road map that guides future research and practice in the field of mentoring.

With this ambitious vision in mind, this handbook was designed to achieve the following four objectives:

1. To bring together leading scholars for the dual purpose of chronicling the current state of research in the field of mentoring and identifying important new areas of research
2. To stimulate new theoretical perspectives on mentoring by integrating and applying related theoretical perspectives and disciplines to the mentoring arena
3. To encourage a mutual synergy between research and practice by providing a forum for the discussion of current issues and challenges in the practice of mentoring
4. To examine the above objectives within the broader perspective of changes in technology, organizational structure, and diversity—factors that have radically altered the general landscape of careers in organizations

The Structure of the Handbook

Based on these objectives, the handbook is divided into three sections: research, theory, and practice. To provide coherence across chapters, contributors were asked to address a specific set of objectives for their sections. As described below, the set of objectives varies for each of the three sections of the handbook.

Mentoring Research: Past, Present, and Future

The handbook’s research section brings together preeminent scholars in the field of mentoring for the dual purpose of chronicling the current state of research in the field of mentoring and identifying important new areas of scholarship. This section offers an in-depth and cutting-edge review of core topics in mentoring research, such as diversity in mentoring relationships, learning processes in mentoring relationships, formal mentoring, peer mentoring, socialization and mentoring,
leadership and mentoring, dysfunctional mentoring, personality and mentoring, and electronic mentoring.

As experts in their respective topic areas, we asked the contributors of this section to address three specific objectives in their chapters. First, they were asked to provide the reader with a comprehensive review and assessment of the research in their areas. Second, they were asked to identify research gaps, research opportunities, and agendas for future research. Third, they were asked to provide a road map that gives the reader specific guidance on the best methods, approaches, and theories to use in conducting research in their areas of mentoring.

This section therefore offers readers a comprehensive and up-to-date assessment of what is known in a given content area of mentoring, what needs to be explored, and the best way to approach future research in the area.

Mentoring Theory: Applying New Lenses and Perspectives

The goal of the theory section is to integrate and apply related theoretical perspectives and disciplines in order to extend the theoretical horizon of the field. To achieve this objective, we invited a group of stellar scholars from related disciplines to apply their theoretical lenses to the field of mentoring. The chapters in this section draw on a diverse and rich literature of related theories, such as network theory, adult development theory, relational cultural theory, communication theory, personal change theory, work-family theory, and theories of emotional intelligence. Given this broad base, the theoretical advances made in this section extend far beyond mentoring in the workplace. The theoretical foundation developed in these chapters explains generic processes of mentoring relationships that occur across a range of settings, populations, and environments.

The authors in this section were asked to address three objectives that would extend the theoretical horizons of mentoring. First, they were asked to set a foundation for their chapters by introducing the reader to the specific theoretical lenses that they apply to the field of mentoring. Second, they were asked to explain why and how their theoretical lenses could be used for developing and enriching mentoring theory. Next, they were asked to present new theoretical models or frameworks, along with specific research propositions that can be tested in future research. Last, they were asked to identify methodological challenges that may be encountered in empirically testing the new theory, as well as recommendations for meeting these challenges.

By applying and integrating theories from related fields to mentoring, this section offers mentoring scholars important new theoretical perspectives that explain how, why, and under what conditions mentoring relationships are effective within and outside the workplace.

Mentoring in Practice: Programs and Innovations

The practice section of the handbook builds a bridge between the practice and study of mentoring. We invited an internationally acclaimed group of practitioners to share best practices, challenges, dilemmas, and solutions for creating effective
mentoring relationships in organizations. This section includes chapters that address not only formal mentoring programs but also mentoring practices related to leadership development, diversity programs, and international populations and perspectives.

To build the bridge between the study and practice of mentoring, the authors in this section were asked to first provide descriptions of their mentoring programs, practices, or applications. Next, they were asked to discuss the challenges, problems, and constraints they face as well as opportunities and solutions they have discovered in their mentoring applications. The authors examine the contextual factors that have affected their practice (e.g., technology, globalization, diversity, changing nature of organizations, and careers) and the lessons they have learned from their experiences. Third, the authors were asked to specify the types of research and theory that have been useful to their practice and the types of research that would be beneficial to their practice. The authors offer insights into relationships that need to be clarified and outcomes that need to be studied, and they give specific suggestions for research that would have a significant impact on the practice of mentoring.

This section offers a practical perspective for mentoring scholars and practitioners. It offers practitioners’ insights into effective practices, as well as the challenges and solutions involved in fostering effective mentoring in organizations. It offers scholars’ critical insights “from the trenches” on the types of research that can make a difference in organizational practice. Together, this section offers a critical bridge between the research and practice of mentoring.

The handbook concludes with our summary chapter, which builds upon the collective wisdom developed in this volume to offer the reader an integrated array of insights into the meaning of mentoring and the individual and contextual factors that shape a wide range of developmental relationships. In sum, we hope that this volume will offer scholars and practitioners a comprehensive collection of ideas, inspirations, and insights that can be used to enrich, enliven, and grow the garden of mentoring.

References


