

Mentoring global female managers in the global marketplace: traditional, reverse, and reciprocal mentoring

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A stream of research exists that focuses on traditional mentoring (senior female managers mentoring junior members in a domestic organization). The literature further indicates that females are increasing in number but may receive less mentoring than males and expatriates may receive less mentoring than domestic employees. A new paradigm, reverse mentoring, has emerged (e.g., a junior person, knowledgeable of the rapid technological change and globalization of business, acts as the mentor for a senior person). This paper proposes a third type of mentoring, 'reciprocal', as essential for competition in global markets. It is argued that mentoring can become a strategic tool in the organizational knowledge creation and transfer process. Moreover, mentoring could serve as a competitive advantage in creating an effective support system for female global female managers.

Keywords: global markets; hyper-competition; mentoring; reciprocal mentoring; reverse mentoring

Mentor was an Ithacan noble in Homer's *Odyssey*, a wise counselor to his friend, Ulysses. Mentor was entrusted with the care, education, and protection of Ulysses' son, Telemachus. (Johnson 2002)

Introduction

The globalization of business has occurred at such a phenomenal pace that many organizations' ability to keep-up has been severely challenged. The capability to compete in increasingly hypercompetitive global markets necessitates having to gain knowledge and then share that knowledge effectively throughout the organization (Pfeffer 1994; Bartlett and Ghoshal 1995, 1997). A successful global organization will have to possess a complex amalgamation of technical, political, social, organizational, and cultural competencies beyond those found in many of the domestic organizations of the past (Bartlett 1986; Bartlett and Ghoshal 1995, 1997). How to gain a competitive advantage in the global hypercompetitive marketplace is a complex ongoing conundrum for global managers, but may actually be more difficult for global female managers who frequently have not been provided the opportunity to gain the experience needed to make effective decisions in a global context (Noe 1988a; Ragins and Scandura 1994; Linehan and Scullion 2002; Collings, Scullion and Morley 2007; Scullion and Collings 2006; Altman and Shortland 2008). It is anticipated that the number of female global managers will

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increase substantially in from Western countries in the next decade (Harzing 2001; Linehan, Scullion and Walsh 2001; Varma, Toh and Budhwar 2006)

Female global managers will also have to learn to compete in hypercompetitive markets where there is little in the way of historical precedent to aid their decision-making choices (Murrell, Blake-Beard, Porter and Perkins-Williamson 2008; Insch, Leonard and Napier 2008). Hypercompetitive global markets are characterized by: 1) Time-sensitive competitive advantages which erode very quickly, requiring that core competencies of global organizations be rejuvenated constantly; 2) Standard operating procedures (SOPs) with shorter life-cycles that require modification of conventional wisdom relative to a time perspective (i.e., product, technology, organizational, relationship, and the like); 3) Strategies that must be continuously developed to seize competitive initiative, and which therefore only provide a temporary competitive advantage; 4) Industry boundaries that require basic redefinition due to deregulation and the intrusion of non-traditional competitors as well as new consumer groups who are brought into the competitive mix due to the global scope of the strategies of organizations in the industry; and 5) Dynamic competition that is forever increasing or quickening, requiring management to address constant change and time as the common basis of global strategy (Brown and Eisenhardt 1998; Fine 1998; Hitt, Keats and DeMarie 1998; Ireland and Hitt 1999). Each of these issues makes decision-making difficult for female global managers.

Mentoring (i.e., the personal relationship in which a more experienced (usually older) group/organizational member acts as a guide, teacher, role model, or sponsor of a less experienced (usually younger) member of the organization) has long been viewed as a means for improving individual learning and career development (Burke and McKeen 1997; Chandler and Kram 2005). It is also considered instrumental in the initiation and maintenance of employee socialization in organizations (Heimann and Pittenger 1996; Clark, Harden and Johnson 2000; Johnson 2002; Payne and Huff 2005). To that end, a multitude of companies in a myriad of industries have established both formal and informal programs designed to help newly-hired employees 'learn the ropes'.

Although a rich stream of research on mentoring now exists, it has largely focused on traditional mentoring relationships between senior members and junior members in domestic organizations that are created to help the junior employee develop his/her career within the organization (Chao, Walz and Gardner 1992; Higgins and Kram 2001; Kram 1985; Lankau and Scandura 2002; Payne and Huff 2005). While this type of mentoring has historically been the predominant form in organizations, other kinds of mentoring programs, such as 'reverse' mentoring, are now being implemented in organizations to capture the nuances of a more technologically driven global market. Moreover, as the world's expatriate workforce becomes increasingly younger and with an increased number of female global managers, it is vital to re-examine traditional mentoring programs and other forms of social support provided by organizations competing in hypercompetitive global marketplaces (Murrell, Blake-Beard, Porter and Perkins-Williamson 2008).

In this paper we will explore traditional and reverse mentoring, in addition to proposing a third type – reciprocal mentoring. Furthermore, we will examine the value of expanding the definition of mentoring from the individual to the organizational level of analysis, and propose the need for additional research in the area of female expatriates. It is argued that from an organizational perspective, mentoring can become a strategic tool to be used in the organizational knowledge creation and knowledge transfer processes. Specifically, we will explore mentoring as a mechanism to improve the organizational learning necessary to gain competitive advantage in today's complex dynamic markets. We begin with a discussion

of the emergence of hypercompetitive global markets, followed by a brief overview of the dynamic capabilities theory of strategic management as a critical element of successful competition in complex competitive global marketplaces.

Global dynamic capabilities theory

The level of competition in the global marketplace has stimulated substantial interest in the development of effective learning scenarios among female managers in global organizations. The resource-based view of the firm provides a starting point for academics in the extension of a literature based on the theory of global dynamic capabilities. This approach to gaining and maintaining competitive advantage attempts to assess the sources and methods of learning in organizations operating in global markets characterized by high levels of dynamic change (Teece, Pisano and Shuen 1997; Eisenhardt and Martin 2000; Madhok and Osegowitsch 2000). The resource-based view of the firm theorizes that the accumulation of valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, and non-substitutable resources can create resource position barriers to deter competition and above-normal returns, which result in gaining competitive advantage (Wernerfelt 1984; Barney 1991; Peteraf 1993). However, global dynamic capabilities theory is based on the notion that the firm should focus on firm-level resources such as explicit, codified knowledge, tacit knowledge, and the configuration of knowledge through the experiences of the female managers in the global organization. This knowledge is semi-permanently linked to the organization and provides the firm with a unique competitive posture (Wernerfelt 1984; Dierickx and Cool 1989; Barney 1991).

The concept of global dynamic capabilities is concerned with the creation of difficult-to-imitate combinations of resources, including effective coordination of knowledge/learning throughout a global organization, resulting in a global competitive advantage for a firm (Teece, Pisano and Shuen 1997; Dyer and Singh 1998). Global dynamic capabilities theory has two primary components: 1) developing strategic global consistency through learning while at the same time recognizing the unique features of each country's environment to facilitate customization of individual country strategies; and 2) adaptation, integration, and reconfiguring of internal and external knowledge assets to match opportunities in the global marketplace (Teece, Pisano and Shuen 1997; Eisenhardt and Martin 2000). Global dynamic capabilities are derived from a firm leveraging its internal and external assets, which in turn enhance its power in its' global knowledge base, thereby enabling it to coordinate activities and respond rapidly, in a flexible manner, to global competitors' strategies (Teece, Pisano and Shuen 1997; Eisenhardt and Martin 2000).

The global dynamic capabilities perspective further argues that a firm's capabilities are more substitutable across different contexts due to the continuous learning taking place in the organization, as well as the equifinality of female managers' ability to configure resources, thus rendering inimitability and immobility irrelevant to gaining a sustained competitive advantage (Eisenhardt and Martin 2000). As such, the global dynamic capabilities perspective is derived from the implementation of key learning resources, as opposed to the ownership of the resources themselves. In today's highly competitive global business environment, successfully transferring knowledge from one operating unit/manager to another is viewed as a key strategic resource upon which a firm can develop global dynamic capabilities.

It is thought that the dynamic capabilities of an organization are enhanced by stimulating learning throughout the organization. Mentoring is viewed as a means to accelerate learning by institutionalizing the 'passing-on' of tacit knowledge that is

invaluable in developing effective contextual global strategies. It is argued in this paper, that one of the most effective ways to transfer tacit knowledge among female managers is through various types of learning which can be facilitated through mentoring (e.g., traditional, reverse, and reciprocal).

The role of mentoring in organizations

1. Traditional mentoring

Mentors are defined as individuals with advanced experience and knowledge who are committed to providing upward support and mobility to their protégé's careers (Hunt and Michael 1983; Kram 1985). Traditionally, mentors provide help in two general areas, career development which facilitates the protégé's advancement in the organization, and psychosocial support which contributes to the protégé's personal growth and professional development (Kram 1985). In terms of career development functions, mentors assist protégé's by: 1) *sponsoring* promotions; 2) *coaching* in social or corporate norms; 3) *protecting* from adverse forces; 4) *providing* challenging assignments; and 5) *increasing* exposure and visibility. Mentors also provide psychosocial support which address interpersonal aspects of work and enhance the protégé's sense of competence, self-efficacy, and development (both professional and personal). The specific functions include: 1) helping the protégé develop a sense of professional *self-acceptance* and *confirmation*; 2) offering *counseling* in problem-solving; 3) giving respect, support, *friendship*; and 4) providing *identification* and *role modeling*. According to Kram's (1985) mentor role theory, a mentor may provide some or all of these functions; moreover, these functions depend on the mentor's power and position in the organization as well as the quality of the interpersonal relationships and the emotional bond that underlies the mentor-protégé relationship. The role that mentors play in the learning process of protégés is shown in Table 1.

Research on those who initiate and receive mentoring has been mixed and has largely focused on demographic dimensions such as gender, race, and age. While some researchers claim that men and women as well as minorities and Caucasians initiate mentoring at similar rates (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley 1990; Thomas 1990; Scandura and Ragins 1993; Turban and Dougherty 1994; Viator 2001) others have suggested that women and minorities are at a disadvantage in terms of both initiating and receiving mentoring (Ragins and Cotton 1991; McGuire 1999). Research indicates that age does not impact whether an individual will initiate a mentoring relationship (Burke and McKeen 1997; Ragins and Cotton 1999), though studies do suggest that as individuals get older, they receive less career mentoring (Whitely, Dougherty and Dreher 1991).

Several other aspects of mentoring relationships have been examined including that of career success. Dreher and Cox (1996) suggest that in organizations dominated by White males, career success is more easily obtained if mentoring relationships with White males are established. Their research, however, does not conclude that developing relationships with women or member of other racial groups are unimportant. On a similar note, Nemanick (2000) examined the effects of formal versus informal mentoring programs on mentor and protégé relationships. He states that because women typically have more difficulties establishing informal mentoring relationships than men, many formal programs are specifically designed for women. However, there is little empirical evidence to suggest that formal programs for women duplicate the benefits of informal mentoring relationships.

For the protégé, having a mentor is associated with a number of positive career outcomes, including increased promotions (Scandura 1992), greater career satisfaction (Fagenson 1989), higher incomes (Chao et al. 1992; Whitely et al. 1991), and more

Table 1. Role of mentors in protégé learning.

<i>Level of mentor's involvement</i>	<i>Cognitive/informational</i>	<i>Network/contacts</i>	<i>Social/emotional/political</i>
Personal	• Educational requirements for successful career • Importance of balance of IQ's need in personal/professional life • Value of experience in personal development	• Introduction to key professionals (lawyers, doctors, et al.) • Introduction to financial advisors • Introduction to other 'influentials'	• Assistance with personal 'crisis' • Assistance with development of political skill • Assistance with repairing important personal relationships
Relational	• Introduction to key female managers • Assistance with 'bridge' building in the organization • Assistance with 'damage control' with key female managers	• Gain visibility for protégé with key organizational members • Support protégé for key assignments	• Form coalition to defend protégé when in trouble • Develop network within organization to assist protégé • Develop professionals who can assistance with personal problems
Profession	• Sponsor protégé for professional development opportunities • Assist protégé in gaining professional certification • Advice on how to develop professional career path	• Support protégé for membership in professional organizations • Help support protégé for advancement in professional groups	• Support key professional organization positions • Recommend for positions outside the present organization • Consul protégé on career path

mobility (Scandura 1992). The personalized, extended socialization of junior members of the organization can be instrumental in building a psychological bond with other individuals and the mission/goals of the organization. The mentor may provide the protégé with support at the personal, relational, and/or professional levels and that support may be cognitive or informational, the creation or linking to networks/social contacts, and/or social, emotional, political support. This relational and/or emotional tie becomes the underlying foundation for organizational and career commitment which is necessary to increasing the tenure of the individual.

Finally, the global organization as a whole can also benefit from mentoring through increased organizational socialization (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1993), increased organizational commitment (Aryee and Chay 1994; Viator and Scandura 1991; Payne and Huff 2005), increased job satisfaction (Koberg, Boss, Chappell and Ringer 1994; Scandura 1997) and reduced turnover intentions (Viator and Scandura 1991; Lankau and Scandura 2002; Payne and Huff 2005). The relationship between mentoring and organizational outcomes was the focus of a recent study by Payne and Huff (2005). In their study of over 1,000 US Army officers, it was discovered that mentoring was positively related to affective commitment and continuance commitment and negatively related to turnover behavior. The relationship with affective commitment was moderated by the conditions of mentorship (supervisory versus non-supervisory), however not by the type of mentoring support provided (career-related versus psychosocial).

Alternative types or conditions of mentoring have been examined, including formal versus informal mentoring programs (Heimann and Pittenger 1996; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch and Rhoades 2001), being mentored by a supervisor versus being mentored by someone who is not your supervisor (Dreher and Ash 1990; Ragins and McFarlin 1990; Burke and McKeen 1997; Fagenson-Eland, Marks and Amendola 1997), and more recently, the concept of developmental networks. Results indicate that protégés report more favorable outcomes from informal relationships and that both mentors and protégés prefer the informal process of mentoring over making the process 'too formal' (Noe 1988a; Chao et al. 1992). Results also indicate that there are both benefits and drawbacks of being mentored by a supervisor versus a non-supervisor. While leader-member exchange (LMX) suggests that vocational mentoring by a boss may enhance protégé career outcomes (Scandura and Schriesheim 1994), there is also a danger of developing relational conflicts in the workplace (Tepper 1995).

As the study of mentoring developed, it was noted that individuals typically had more than one mentor and that not all of the individual's mentors resided within the context of his/her job. This led to the exploration of mentoring through the combination of communal association analysis and individual learning and the advancement of the concept of developmental networks. Developmental networks were first described by Kram (1985) as 'relationship constellations' and further defined by Higgins and Kram (2001) as 'social networks' and were comprised of senior colleagues, peers, family, and community members who provided career development assistance. These authors suggest that these social networks can be defined in terms of the diversity of individuals within one's developmental networks and the strength of the developmental relationships that make up the linkages. Networks with strong, diverse relationships appear to provide the most support for the protégé.

In global organizations, traditional mentoring can be used to advise protégés on personal, organizational and professional levels. It is often used to provide protégés with global information and help in establishing contacts and building global networks. Given the complexity of managing in a global organization, new female managers will

be very likely to have multiple mentoring relationships (Noe 1988b; Ragins and Scandura 1994). What has not been explored in the traditional mentoring literature is what these new female managers (protégés) might have to offer to those senior female managers who are traditionally viewed as the mentors. The emerging literature on reverse mentoring addresses this question.

II. Reverse mentoring

Over the past decade a new paradigm of mentoring has emerged in organizations, whereby newer junior employees are partnered with more experienced female managers/employees to help the older worker understand technology or the changing marketplace. This trend is called 'reverse mentoring' (Kram 1996; Kram and Hall 1996; Mirvis 1996; Allen, McManus and Russell 1999). It has been shown that mentors benefit from mentor-protégé relationships by teaching the older or more tenured protégé (Busch 1985). These benefits include information access, social feedback, job performance improvement (Mullen and Noe 1999), personal satisfaction, power development (Kram 1985; Burke and McKeen 1997), and personal fulfillment (Busch 1985). The implicit impact can take the form of reconnecting to the organizational mission, improving their outlook on the future of the organization, feeling a sense of accomplishment and achievement, reducing a tendency toward turnover, and improvement of morale and commitment to the organization.

This inverted type of mentoring has arisen primarily out of the rapid level of technological innovation/change and the globalization of business. Given the lack of experience of many top level female managers with both technology and globalization, it has been recommended that junior female managers be provided with access to the senior female managers to help senior female managers develop their technological skills and stimulate their interest in cultivating a global mindset (Kefalas 1998; Kedia and Mukherji 1999; Paul 2000). In industry, Jack Welch, former CEO of General Electric, is commonly credited with championing this trend when in 1999, he established a reverse mentoring program for himself and other top executives. About once a month, Welch met with the 37-year-old manager of General Electric's corporate website, who helped him learn how to surf the web and conduct basic online research.

Reverse mentoring has also been attempted in academia. In 2001, the Wharton Fellows program at the University of Pennsylvania began a program that matched some of the top executives in the nation with MBA candidates and undergraduates that assisted the executives in gaining knowledge in technology and global business. At present, approximately 100 fellows participate in reverse mentoring and the program has received positive feedback, while continuing to grow. Unfortunately, research on reverse mentoring is fairly limited (see Kram and Isabella 1985; Eby 1997; Allen et al. 1999) even though Lankau and Scandura (2002) suggested that while mentoring research has contributed to our understanding of how newcomers learn their roles and adjust to new jobs, it has not touched on the demands for continuous learning in organizations, regardless of rank or career stage.

Traditionally, mentoring has been viewed as an avenue through which individual knowledge in an organization (often held by those who are older and have long standing tenure with the firm) is transferred to newer, often younger workers during the organizational socialization process (Kram 1985; Whitely et al. 1991; Feldman, Folks and Turnley 1999; Finkelstein, Allen and Rhoton 2003). By contrast, reverse mentoring occurs when the energy, enthusiasm, and current cutting-edge content knowledge of a junior

member in the organization is paired with a more senior member in the organization. In traditional mentoring situations, the mentor is charged with transferring existing organizational knowledge to the protégé. In reverse mentoring cases, the knowledge that is transferred is often knowledge from outside the organization (Ragins and McFarlin 1990; Finkelstein et al. 2003). This 'importing' of information is critical when the context of the business (e.g., globalization) changes radically, rendering some if not most of the operating knowledge of the older manager redundant if not obsolete.

Reverse mentoring is a type of mentoring relationship that has come into play with the emergence of formal programs at General Motors, General Electric, and Proctor and Gamble. In 1999, General Motors launched a reverse mentoring program that paired top executives with technologically-savvy, usually younger partners, to teach the executives the ins and outs of basic computer use, e-mail, and Palm Pilot technology. While Jack Welch used reverse mentoring at General Electric to help high-level executive learn about technology and the Internet, the goal at General Motors was to improve online collaboration and productivity. Proctor and Gamble, on the other hand, was not focused on technology when they implemented reverse mentoring. Their goal was to reduce turnover. In the mid 1990s, CIO, Steve David learned that the advertising division was losing twice as many women as men. To address this problem, he established a program that paired junior female employees with a senior manager to help the mostly male higher-ups understand the issues women face (*Fortune* 2005).

While reverse mentoring can work well throughout an organization, it most often occurs in areas of high technology or industries that are dynamic and fluid, such as those that are globalizing or competing in hypercompetitive markets. Reverse mentoring is beneficial for developing workers who lack technology and computer skills and may be hesitant to learn these new skills. Today's college graduates have grown-up using computers, e-mail, the Internet, and other web-based technologies and are usually eager to share those skills. Reverse mentoring is also an excellent tool for finding out what is going on with other generations and/or culture groups. Successful marketing depends on fresh perspectives, whether from younger or older workers, male or female, national or global.

One of the problems that exist in the sparse research that has been published on reverse mentoring is the assumption that it is a case of young employees teaching 'old dogs' new tricks (Hall 1996; Kram 1996; Mirvis 1996; Allen et al. 1999; Finkelstein et al. 2003). It must be stressed that while reverse mentoring is often cross-generational, it is not necessarily age-dependent. It works when it is recognized that junior and/or outside members who join the organization have knowledge to share and are willing to do so with more senior female managers. Given the fact that reverse mentoring may be cross-generational and/or cross-functional, senior female managers may need to be encouraged to accept being mentored by younger and/or newer members of the organization (Ragins and Scandura 1994; Harvey, Buckley, Novicevic and Wiese 1999). Just as in the case of traditional mentoring, there are those individuals who are more willing to enter into mentoring relationships than others. This line of reasoning supports the following propositions for the further study of reverse mentoring.

Proposition 1: Reverse mentoring in global organizations can be used to provide more tenured female protégés with technical and cultural information from outside the organization.

Proposition 2: Reverse mentoring may be generational in nature, but frequently the female mentor will be at a different level and/or functional department of the global organization.

Proposition 3:: Barriers to reverse mentoring may be substantial due to the resistance of older, more tenured female managers to acknowledge that they lack the knowledge to be effective in a hypercompetitive global marketplace.

III. Reciprocal mentoring

In hypercompetitive global markets, given the rapid rate of change, both traditional and reverse mentoring may be beneficial. This dyadic exchange of information is what we are terming 'reciprocal mentoring', whereby information is exchanged dynamically on a regular basis between the mentor and protégé (Gonzales and Thompson 1998). This consensual information exchange agreement serves not only to facilitate organizational learning, but could potentially contribute to creating a sustained competitive advantage given that we are finding ourselves in an increasingly knowledge oriented marketplace. Specifically, the concept of 'reciprocal mentoring' arises from the current mentoring literature that suggests that mentoring may have potentially mutual positive effects for both the mentor and the protégé and that in terms of learning these individuals may be 'co-learners' (Chandler and Kram 2005). Networks appear to be important structures for the exchange of information and it can be argued that the focus of mentoring should turn from career advice to strategic information relative to the organization and its strategic thrust. This is of particular importance given the mobility and lack of stability in hypercompetitive global markets where these networks could be rich sources of strategic information.

Mentoring networks are the base structure for reciprocal mentoring (i.e., two-way dyadic pairings for the sharing and creation of knowledge in the organization). The relationships may be cross-organizational or intra-organizational, because in hypercompetitive markets, people change positions and jobs at an increased rate and the knowledge that flows through these reciprocal networks, especially in turbulent, aggressive global markets, may be essential to the development of competitive advantage.

Since to date, no 'industry cognitive map' has evolved in hypercompetitive global markets, organizations do not know how to effectively respond to each other. Nevertheless, as female managers move around in the 'boundaryless' organizational setting of these organizations, the knowledge and information from one organization moves with them. Moreover, as new female managers come in, they are a rich source of information about competitors and may actually be the catalyst for creating the knowledge that keeps a company on the 'edge of chaos', by developing a dynamic capability in the organization. A comparison of the three types of mentoring is shown in Table 2.

In today's hypercompetitive global arena, where an individual's career context is likely to change frequently, careers are assumed to cross formal organizational boundaries more than in the traditional career context. Researchers have referred to this type of concept as the 'post-corporate' career (Peiperl and Baruch 1997), the 'boundaryless' career (Arthur and Rousseau 1996) and the 'protean' career (Hall 1996). In this emerging career framework, the traditional mentoring model of a stable, long-term master-apprentice relationship may no longer be viable. The turbulence and complexity of the new career model underscores the importance of relationships as a source of learning, social support, and other resources afforded by all three types of mentoring that can take place in a global organization (Chandler and Kram 2005). Individuals in today's career context (e.g., hypercompetitive settings) must learn more quickly and often will need to engage in more mini-learning cycles throughout their lives than would individuals in past decades (Hall 1996). Therefore, it could be concluded that mentoring, in whatever format, is essential to both the success of female managers as well as the organization as a whole.

Table 2. Comparison of three types of mentoring.

<i>Type of learning</i>	<i>Traditional mentoring</i>	<i>Reverse mentoring</i>	<i>Reciprocal mentoring</i>
Definition	• A relationship between a senior member and a junior member of an organization that is created to help the junior member develop in the organization (Kram 1985). • Individuals with advanced experience and knowledge who are committed to providing support and upward mobility to their protégés' careers (Ragins 1999).	• A relationship between a senior female member and a junior female member of an organization ... created to help the senior member learn from the junior member.	• Networks of relationship specifically designed for the dyadic exchange of information.
Emphasis on	• Career advancement for young employees. • Organizational socialization for new employees. • Introduction to professional organizations. • Addressing stress and family problems	• Technical knowledge and current trends for senior executives.	• Knowledge exchange between both partners in the relationship.
Role of mentor(s)	• Coaching • Supplying protection • Providing • Challenging assignments • Increasing employee exposure and visibility • Direct forms of sponsorship • Serving as a role model • Friendship • Counseling	• Internet/e-commerce-assistance. • Development of web pages. • Web casting assistance. • Providing updated analysis tools.	• Continued exchange. • Psychological support. • Facilitate organizational learning.
Best for acquiring	• Existing organizational knowledge and career advice • Visibility in the organization • Support for advancement • Recommendations for professional associations • Career insights • Access to network	• Technical knowledge, current trends, and cross-cultural global perspectives.	• Knowledge from within the organization as well as knowledge across organizations.

The need for further study around this concept of reciprocal mentoring evolving in the global market leads to the following propositions.

- Proposition 4:* Reciprocal mentoring in global organizations can be used to share information needed by global female managers to make strategic decisions and establish dynamic capabilities that are necessary to compete in global markets.
- Proposition 5:* ‘Boundaryless’ careers for global female managers may allow mentoring to take place across traditional, functional, and hierarchical divides in a global organization.
- Proposition 6:* Hypercompetition will increase the need for reciprocal mentoring programs for female global managers due to the excessive level of change and lack of an adequate operating frame-of-reference of global female managers.

Traditional, reverse, and reciprocal mentoring all imply the transfer of knowledge through organizational learning that is taking place along with the creation of new knowledge. This transfer of knowledge can be at the personal level (e.g., how to deal with problems or stress associated with the individual and their career), organizational (e.g., how to be successful in a given organization) and professional (e.g., how to be successful in a profession). Table 3 illustrates the transfer of knowledge from a mentor to a protégé across the three domains of knowledge that the protégé may need in order to increase their success. This cross-level type of mentoring envisions mentors both older and younger being willing and able to exchange their knowledge for the betterment of the organization and denotes the support of organizational learning.

Implementing a global mentoring program for female global managers

Once the need for a global mentoring program for female global managers that recognizes all three forms of mentoring (i.e., traditional, reverse, and reciprocal) is recognized in an organization, it becomes as difficult a task to develop a process for implementing such a program. But, the implementation must be institutional for such a complex program as a global mentoring program to actually succeed. The six step process outlined here are intended to assist in the development of and implementation process and/or program for global mentoring; each of the sections will be briefly discussed.

Step 1: Recognize the potential benefits of a global female manager mentoring program

The implementation process for a global mentoring program must start with the recognition that the benefits from such a program will significantly enhance the decision-making capabilities of global female managers. The difficulty of instituting such a program centers on gaining the support of top management, as well as the operating female managers in the global organization (Insch et al. 2008). The tangible as well as intangible benefits to be derived from the global mentoring program need to be identified and agreement must be reached on their importance to the management team. Without this consensus, the cost and difficulties that occur in implementation will hamper support for the program.

Step 2: Establish the parameters for a global female mentoring program

The key issue in establishing the parameters (e.g., scope, female managers included as both mentors/protégés, stages of implementation, resources needed by stage, on-going

Table 3. Mentors and knowledge transfer in global organizations.

<i>Focus of mentoring</i> Personal mentoring (Mentoring on personal issues.)	<i>Traditional mentoring</i> • Interface between job and family • Assistance on how to effectively manage time • Assistance with stress management • Support in obtaining additional education	<i>Reverse mentoring</i> • Assistance on how to effectively communicate with younger female managers • Recommendations on how to dress in a trans-generational manner • Assistance on how to learn to learn from younger female managers	<i>Reciprocal mentoring</i> Educational options vs. "updating" personal persona • Stress management vs. means to increase communication skills • Personal advice vs. interpersonal support within younger professionals
Organizational mentoring (Mentoring on how to succeed on the job.)	• Assistance in the development of political skill • Advice on career path/options in the organization • Assistance in increasing visibility in the organization	• Identification of problems on mentoring junior female managers in the organization • Acknowledgement of the level of support needed by junior female managers • Familiarization with evolving technology use by the organization	• Organizational socialization vs. assessment of personal influence with younger female managers • Assistance with getting key assignments vs. coalition formation • Relational skill development vs. career rejuvenation
Professional mentoring (Mentoring on how to succeed in the profession.)	• Recommendation on skill development to improve marketability • Sponsorship for professional organization membership(s) • Introductions to key professional contacts	• Assistance on research tools to be used on global research projects • Assistance in addressing career plateauing • Assistance with application of technology to professional presentations	• Support for membership in professional organizations vs. support for key positions in professional organizations • Recommendations for jobs vs. assistance in bringing about change in profession • 'Safety net' for professional problems vs. assistance with organizational exit

assessment of the program, and the like) needs to be determined prior to implementation. Due to the complexity and capacity of such a program, the foundation concerns have to be addressed prior to implementing the program. The following types of questions should be answered along with a myriad of management/control concerns relative to executing the global mentoring program: 1) How to identify potential mentors in the global organization; 2) How to attract 'qualified' global female managers to participate in the mentoring program; 3) How to train global female managers to provide mentoring to others in the organization; 4) How to 'match' mentors with their most appropriate protégé(s); 5) How to effectively manage a mentoring program where mentor/protégé are geographically separated for long periods of time (if not indefinitely); and 6) How to determine the impact and/or effectiveness of the program? These are a sample of the type of decisions that need to be made relative to the implementation of a global mentoring program.

Step 3: Identify and training global mentors for female global managers

One of the most intricate aspects of any mentoring program is the identification of those female managers who have the background, skills, and willingness to participate in the program. This problem is accentuated in a global mentoring program given the sometimes limited experience base of female managers in the entire complex contextual nature of assignments for the protégé(s). Even if mentors have had overseas experience (which is a less than 25% chance in *Fortune* 500 companies) they will more than likely not have had an assignment in the country to which the protégé is assigned. And if by chance they have prior experience in the host country, the mentor's experience would be 'time locked' and in many cases, given the dynamic nature of the global environment, the mentor's advice could be harmful and/or inappropriate. Therefore, a very well articulated mentor selection and training program must be developed. (The nature of an identification and training program for mentors requires a paper all to itself).

Step 4: Develop a mechanism for initiating a global mentoring program for female global managers

The question becomes how does one match the mentor to the protégé? What is the mechanism or event to bring mentors in-line with potential protégé(s) and how is the relationship encouraged without making it artificial? The mentor/protégé 'date' is a very difficult 'blind date' to set-up, given the lack of previous interpersonal interaction between the two candidates. This is particularly of interest when mentors and protégés are geographically dispersed throughout the world. Conceiving of an event to bring these individuals together and to effectuate a mentoring match is difficult to imagine. Yet there needs to be a process/event developed that will facilitate and promote the formation of mentoring relational dyads.

Step 5: Determine the 'domain' and temporal issues of global mentoring for female global managers

The domain of global mentoring is related to the level of assistance the mentor provides to the protégé (i.e., personal, relational, or professional). In addition, the means/mechanism for bringing the mentor and protégé together must be addressed given the geographic dimensions of global assignments. It could also be concluded that a mentor as well as a protégé might have more than one counterpart particularly in reciprocal mentoring

relationships. The coordination of multiple relationships over multiple levels makes the entire mentoring program difficult to manage and the complexity makes it difficult to assess the effectiveness of the program. The temporal dimension of a global mentoring program addresses the time when the protégés receive their mentoring (e.g., before, during, or after an overseas assignment).

The timing of mentoring may be determined by the level of mentoring as well as the availability of the mentor to provide the needed assistance/advice. The issues associated with time increase the need to utilize communication technologies to keep the mentor and protégé in touch during a foreign assignment. This will be of particular importance as the duration of overseas assignments increases and the level of interaction between mentor/protégé decreases.

Step 6: Establish the ‘metrics’ to determine tangible/intangible impact of a global mentoring program for female global managers

How is management to assess the effectiveness of a global mentoring program? Prior to implementation, an agreed upon set of metrics should be developed that measure the tangible as well as intangible impact of the global mentoring program. For example, the following measures could be used to assess the direct impact of global mentoring: 1) rate of refusal to undertake a foreign assignment; 2) the ‘success’ rate of expatriate assignments; 3) willingness to accept additional overseas assignments; 4) the willingness to mentor others going overseas; 5) level of satisfaction with support provided by the global organization; and 6) level of success associated with the repatriation process. While there are a myriad of other measures, the ones provided illustrate the nature of tangible metrics to assess a global mentoring program for female global managers.

A more difficult task is to measure the intangible impact of a global mentoring program. The implicit benefits of such a program are more difficult to calibrate with measures that are generally accepted by the management of the organization. These metrics would assess the ‘quality-of-life’ of the protégé being transferred as well as those receiving traditional, reverse, or reciprocal mentoring. Measures of morale, *esprit de corps*, and intention to leave the organization, willingness to participate in training or development, and the like could be used to determine the impact of the global mentoring program (Insch et al. 2008). Having ‘accurate’ measures of the intangible effectiveness of global mentoring will be a difficult task, but one that should not be ignored by the management of the global organization.

Summary and conclusions

In an effort to be a recognizable force in the global hypercompetitive marketplace, management in many global organizations has started to develop means to facilitate learning across their organizations. This is particularly important to the competitive posture of the organization and is imperative to the development of female global managers. With the idea of developing a dynamic capability, which allows for rapid and frequent modification in global organizational strategy, learning has become the cornerstone of the strategic thrust of many organizations. Mentoring is a means to facilitate learning across organizational boundaries and to stimulate learning among female managers.

While traditional mentoring has represented a rational means to assist knowledge exchange, it has been viewed as a one-way street (e.g., single-loop learning). Senior female managers were assumed to be able to provide the tacit knowledge needed by junior

female managers to accelerate their learning and presumably their job performance. Given the rapid rate of change and the new more complex context of decision-making (i.e., global), it has been recognized that junior female managers have technological knowledge and do not suffer under the 'this is the way we did it in the past' syndrome (reverse mentoring). This paper has argued that a two-way mentoring process (e.g., reciprocal mentoring) has significant promise given the double-loop learning that takes place. Reciprocal mentoring also provides a reward to both participants in the process whereas, traditional mentoring was motivated by the need of senior female managers to share and teach their younger counterparts and reverse mentoring was sometimes more singular functionally focused (e.g. technology).

If the ability of global organizations to compete is contingent on their dynamic capabilities and these same capabilities are dependent on learning in the global organization, then it would seem reasonable to conclude that mentoring relationships of all kinds (traditional, reverse, and reciprocal) will play a part in the successful competitive strategy of global organizations. Mentoring provides the learning backdrop between generations of female managers as well as among different organizational units around the globe.

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