Same Sex Versus Opposite Sex Mentor Relationships

Abstract
Male and female leadership styles differ based on their biological traits. Society perceives male leaders to be more effective than female leaders. There are sex inequalities in the workplace and in organizations because of these perceptions. Community organizations have age, sex, and experience requirements, including Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts of America, sororities, and fraternities. Same sex versus opposite sex relationship findings are inconsistent in mentoring programs. Some say homogeneous mentors are preferable, while others say heterogeneous relationships are harder to develop. Quality is what suffers when gender differences are contradictory with perceptions of social norms. Perhaps by combining same-sex mentorship programs earlier in child development, the breach between male and female leaders will then vanish in the workplace.

Keywords: leadership, mentors, gender
Introduction

From childhood, people are divided by sex when being socialized, and are therefore taught gender-specific roles. By doing this, children learn that they are supposed to behave in this way, and are paired with a same-sex mentor. In the most prevalent community mentorship programs, children are separated by sex and continue to be separated all the way through college. This paper examines why children are separated at such a young age and the benefits of having a same-sex or opposite-sex mentor. By examining community mentorship programs, the reasoning for this division becomes clear and the benefits and challenges are brought into the light, specifically when women enter the workplace. Looking at these differences is beneficial for leaders that have male and female employees because it shows the needs for differences in masculine and feminine leadership styles. Male and female employees cannot always be treated the same way and knowing how they are trained to work will help a leader be the most effective they can be. In order to understand these differences, it is necessary to take a look at what exactly a leader and a mentor are and how they function in community programs.

Literature Review

Leadership is a very broad term in the field of communication. There are many definitions that have been discussed throughout the years. Leadership is a process used by an individual to influence group members toward the achievement of group goals. It is a process and pattern of behaviors that is demonstrated consistently over a period of time (Howell & Costley, 2006). Leadership is an aspect of power, but it is also a separate and vital process in itself (Burns, 1978). The influence of leaders should be directed toward group goals (Howell & Costley, 2006). An individual may be appointed to the role by someone outside the group, or may be elected by the group members to hold a position for a certain period of time, such as the
executive board of a sorority or fraternity (Howell & Costley, 2006).

Leadership consists of three main components. The first of these is seeing what needs to be done. A leader needs to have a vision in order to achieve their goals they have set forth and for positive change to occur. The second element is having an understanding of all of the underlying forces at play in a situation. Leaders understand that they cannot visibly see all components that are affected when a change occurs in their organization. They continually strive to broaden their vision because if any underlying force is missed, it could be detrimental to the success of their goals. The third and final element is having the courage to initiate action. Leaders sometimes fear rejection, but in order to make positive changes, leadership requires courage. People who are comfortable with stability will not like leaders suggesting changes. Questions such as “who are you to say?” and “what gives you the right?” can challenge a leader, but if handled correctly a leader is able to lay out their vision accordingly. A strategic approach is important, and explaining how the solution supports the vision will persuade people to accept and respect their way of thinking (Clawson, 2008).

Finding good leaders is no easy task. In some communities and organizations, there are programs to help average individuals become great leaders (Easterling & Millesen, 2012). Good leadership is crucial because if a disaster occurs the leaders must have the ability to take control of the situation and move forward in a positive direction (Chandra, Williams, Plough, Stayton, Wells, Horta & Tang, 2013). Specifically in community education programs, good leaders are important for teaching the young minds of future leaders (Gamez Vargas, 2013). This is an example of using leadership programs in order to promote community well being where people work together in order to better their community.

Followers are necessary for effective leadership. Followers must believe in the leader and
their vision (Mitra & Gupta, 2013). Followers view the leader as legitimate, which means the influence of the leader should be reasonable and justifiable (Howell & Costley, 2006). Without followers, leaders can face huge conflicts. Not only in disasters, but in every day situations there are times when unexpected things happen and a leader must put personal feelings aside in order to manage the conflict in a professional and beneficial way for their followers (Odetunde, 2013).

Another aspect of leadership is the ethics of the leader. When in charge of a large group, ethical leadership is necessary to ensure the safety and satisfaction of followers (Ruggieri & Abbate, 2013). Communities are based around ethics for this very reason in order to avoid corruption of the current and future leadership (Sarwar, 2013). Volunteers in communities can learn a great deal about ethics and leadership by observing and helping within the organization. This builds social and leadership skills, which is beneficial in understanding both sides of community engagement. This understanding is pertinent to know how their choices will impact their followers (Selvaratnam, 2013). Choices then stem from the leadership style used. The style is crucial to the environment of the community or organization that he or she is leading. By having conflicting views with followers, it could lead to dissatisfaction of followers or even termination of the community or organization. Good leadership is essential to communities and the training of future leaders (Stan, 2013).

**Mentors**

A mentor is a type of leader who acts as a guide and advisor to another person, especially one who is younger and less experienced. More generally, it is a person who provides someone with advice and sponsorship as an experienced and trusted counselor or friend. The relationship of a mentor and mentee provides the mentee with the opportunity to pass his or her knowledge on to future generations as a mentor themselves (Kalbfleisch, 2000). Mentoring is the activity of
the mentor, and the mentee can be anyone from a colleague, member of a sports team, or a little brother/little sister in a fraternity or sorority. Mentoring is most beneficial for people who lack hands on experience, crave mutually beneficial relationships, and are able to grow and develop based on immediate feedback. This generally includes, but is not limited to, high school students, college students, and recent college graduates. These groups all experience many new, drastic life changes, which at times can be hard to face alone. Both high schools and colleges offer tour guides, tutors, resident hall supervisors, counselors, and more, which help transition students into their new environment (Pham & Keenan, 2011).

Many employees who are first starting off in their career are often required to go through training sessions, which help transition them into their new position. Giving a new employee the opportunity to learn what is expected and required of them allows them to gain confidence and independence in the workplace, and it gives upper level management the assurance they need that the employee is competent in their position (Stein, 2013). Anyone can benefit from mentorship, even employees who have been with a company for years may be required to participate in training sessions. Companies often have annual training sessions for all employees, which allow companies to ensure that employees are remaining educated and continuing to improve the quality of their work. In addition, it helps regulate concerns about employee qualifications (Schniepp, 2013). Such training sessions are also essential ways of increasing safety in the workplace and enforcing the precautions that should be taken during emergency situations (Huller, 2013).

Having training sessions is one way that allows for and enhances positive benefits to occur in the workplace. However, there are specific benefits for mentors and mentees alike. Benefits gained by the mentor include renewed enthusiasm in the role as the expert, allowing them to gain
a better understanding of the lower levels of the organization. This improves their skills in coaching, listening, and modeling (Rosato, 2013). Additional benefits include developing their personal style of leadership, demonstrating expertise and knowledge they have acquired, and developing communication and personal skills. The benefits for the mentee include having a smoother transition to the organization, complimenting ongoing formal study or training, and gaining career development opportunities. Mentees also gain assistance and direction with ideas while increasing their networks (Rosato, 2013). In order for these benefits to be successfully achieved, boundaries for the relationship must first be established. Establishing these boundaries allow for the mentee to avoid unhealthy dependence on their mentor. This means the mentee must understand that their mentor might not have every answer, every time. Based on this, the mentee gains an understanding that the mentor is not their only resource for growth and development, and must decide how to best use their mentor’s time and experience (Buhari, 2013). It is also important for both parties to know that boundaries should be seen as guidelines to follow, rather than formal rules that cannot, in any circumstance, be broken. The importance of this is so boundaries are not viewed as something to be afraid of. Boundaries foster successful mentor-mentee relationships, but crossing them is not detrimental to the success of the individual (Shepherd, 2013).

A mentor’s skill set is dependent upon the aspirations of the mentee. However, at the most basic level, mentors must offer advice, lend moral support, observe the actions and behaviors of the mentee, provide feedback on mentee progress, and work as a catalyst for advancement of their mentee (Guttmann, 2011). In addition to these skills, it is important for mentors to remain judgment free (Bell, 2013). They must understand that the mentee will make mistakes and it is their responsibility to help them learn from those mistakes. By learning to do this, trust can be
developed in the organization (Guttman, 2011). Trust is necessary because the communication
skills that are important in friendships are also important in mentor-mentee relationships. Having
these traits leads to higher satisfaction (Frymier & Houser, 2000). In general, it is the
combination of both psychosocial and career functions that make up the most fulfilling and
beneficial mentoring relationships (Gaskill, 1991).

**Gender and Mentor Styles**

Researchers found that a feminine leadership role focuses more on creating and
maintaining relationships, while masculine leadership roles focus more on creating a relationship
with someone who may benefit them in the future (Howell & Costley, 2006). A feminine
mentoring style and masculine mentoring style are both beneficial if they are used in the proper
context, but both male and female prefer more emotional based feminine management styles
(Ladegaard, 2011). Although mentoring has traditionally been associated with men, women
leaders also mentor. This indicates that feminine strategies are well represented and appear to be
very effective (Holmes, 2005). Many studies have found no gender differences in the quantity of
mentoring received, but the quality of the mentor-mentee relationship tends to suffer when
gender differences are inconsistent with social norms (Pompper & Adams, 2006).

Findings of same-gender dyadic outcomes are conflicting and inconsistent. Some say
homogeneous mentors are preferable, and some say cross-gender mentoring relationships are
harder to develop. A study found that the same-gender mentor and mentee enjoyed more
rewarding mentoring relationships. In this study, male mentors were more influential and
helpful, but female mentees evaluated male mentors less favorably. Additionally, females used
the benefits of having a mentor for their professional development more often than males
(Pompper & Adams, 2006). Some researchers have hypothesized that men do not perceive
women to be influential for careers, so will avoid female mentors (Busch, 1985). Several female respondents said they actively seek male mentors because they perceive males as having the ability to help them climb management ranks. Several of these female respondents also noted on the emotional connections that made mentoring worthwhile. Conversely, some of the female respondents said that mentors can contradict traditional social norms regarding gender. One female mentor said she threw her mentee into the water and told her to swim, rewarding her later with a promotion with greater responsibility. On the contrary, most of the male respondents reported that they seek only male mentors due to their demanding personality that helps develop long-range skills (Pompper & Adams, 2006).

A conflicting study concluded homogeneous male relationships offer less psychosocial support than female mentors in heterogeneous relationships with males. The results further indicated that mentoring relationships involving female mentors, in either homogeneous or heterogeneous, provided more role modeling and less career development than relationships involving male mentors. Conflicting to Pompper & Adams study, Sosik & Godshalk found that male mentors in diverse mentoring relationships with women were associated with more career development than any other sex combination (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). According to 40 public relations practitioners who were interviewed, mentoring reflects gender social roles, and overall, female respondents think of mentoring as an anxiety reducing strategy and coping mechanism. Mentoring to males means career advancement by receiving and giving other males greater levels of career support (Pompper & Adams, 2006).

**Gender vs. Sex**

Gender and sex have two different meanings, and need to be viewed and defined separately. Sex is strictly the biological makeup of a male or female (Carl, 2012). Gender is
defined as the personal traits and position in society that is attached to an individual with being a male or female. The main component of sex differences comes from sex hormones. The same sex hormones that cause sexual differentiation of the body cause sexual differentiation of the brain. Starting at seven weeks after conception, hormones start to affect the body physically. Soon after in the second trimester, hormones start causing critical effects on the brain. This hormonal process of the brain is known as organizing effects (Browne, 2013).

Data suggests that masculinity is more narrowly defined than femininity (Smiler & Gelman, 2008). Due to rapid social, economic, and political change, many aspects of the traditional male sex role have been rendered. This has led to a period of destabilization in traditional gender roles and relationships prompting sex role strain and a contemporary crisis of masculinity (Lemon, 1992). The symbolic attachment of masculinity is important to men (Hochstetler, Copes & Forsyth, 2013). The *American Sociological Review* stated, “It is clear that labor market discrimination against women does not extend to the status of the work open to them nor to the qualifications demanded. Women work at jobs which are about as prestigious as those held by men and, like men, secure good jobs mainly on the basis of superior education” (Baron & Bielby, 1985, p. 233). It is hard to imagine a reviewer allowing this paragraph to pass today because society’s way of conceptualizing and analyzing gender and sex inequalities has changed drastically (Baron & Bielby, 1985).

**Feminine vs. Masculine Leadership Traits**

Men and women feel cultural and societal pressure to adapt to feminine and masculine behavioral patterns that is expected from society (Chapman, 1975). Some women who have attained leadership positions change their leadership style to match male leaders because a traditional perception is that women simply do not have characteristics of good leadership
Sex and Mentoring

(Brown, 1979). There is a negative stereotype that women lack the commitment to attain a leadership position (Heller, 1982). Females tend to be accommodating when in regards to influencing their subordinates to reach goals, compared to male leaders who are typically more exploitive and use coalitions to gain individual advantages for themselves (Chapman, 1975). Women are structured to be caring and have concern for others, whereas men are structured to be rigid and competitive in nature (Howell & Costley, 2006). Males are found to be more direct such as ‘I don’t agree with you,’ and females are more indirect such as ‘I don’t think it is the best idea, but if you want to change it, you’re the leader.’ In order to be taken seriously, females sometimes change their leadership style to be more direct like their male counterparts (Chit Cheung Matthew, 2013).

Typically, men downplay their emotions in order to come across as more masculine, but internalize that emotional feeling. Women display emotions, which makes them come off as more feminine. Research shows that in some situations men avoid conflicts in order to remain calm, and in other conflict situations females are thought to be more direct than males. This demonstrates that males can use feminine leadership traits, and females can use masculine traits (Odetunde, 2013). This introduces a third sex, acknowledging that females can take on masculine qualities just as males can take on feminine qualities (Gurian & Annis, 2008).

**Transformational Leadership**

A transformational leader is most effective in today’s society and represents the leadership qualities of a strong leader. It can be defined as someone who gains the trust of others while having a vision of positive change for their organization (Wan Ismail & Al-Taee, 2012). Such leadership occurs when one or more people engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation. Transforming leadership is more
complex, but also more powerful. The leader seeks to satisfy their needs while motivating and engaging their followers (Burns, 1978). This type of leadership values emotion as a way to emphasize rewards or concerns that encourage a follower to improve their performance. Personality traits in this style include energy levels, self-confidence, and emotional maturity and integrity (Yulk & Heaton, 2002). The feminine leadership style falls under a transformational leader because of interpersonal communication needed within that relationship, as well as the emotional needs of the followers to help them transform (Lopez, Zafra, Garcia-Retamero & Martos, 2012). This does not mean that only female leaders can utilize the transformational leadership style. Transformational leadership is related to positive outcomes within organizations, and it does not matter if it is utilized by a female or male with masculine or feminine traits (Welty & Burton, 2011). The result of this leadership style is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders themselves, which is commonly seen in mentoring relationships (Burns, 1978).

**Community Organizations**

Starting at a young age, mentor relationships have been separated by sex. Women are characterized as using their communication skills to connect with, support, and achieve closeness with others. In contrast, men are characterized as communicating in order to accomplish tasks and assert their individuality (Woodward & Rosenfeld, 1996). Having a positive relationship with a mentor is an important factor in the lives of youth (Leyton-Armakan, Lawrence, Deutsch, Lee-Williams & Henneberger, 2012). By taking a look at community programs, the growth and development paths of future leaders can be clearly seen and broken down (Pitulac, 2013).

Despite the name “Boy Scouts of America,” the earliest roots of this organization came from Britain. Robert Baden Powell was a British military officer who used a military scout as his
model. Boys were becoming less masculine because of threats to the British Empire, so he felt they needed a new training program to promote toughness. He developed a program of outdoor activities that required boys to be in uniform, and was given the name scouting (Arneil, 2010). The activities in the program were built using nature for recreation as well as emphasizing its preservation (Macleod, 1983). The Boy Scouts of America has long seen itself as a value driven organization. Even today, they still consider their values to be character, citizenship, and personal fitness. The main goal is to train the boys to become the leaders of tomorrow (Campbell & Yeung, 1991). By grooming these young men for leadership roles, they are actually grooming them to be more dominant in their male attributes. This program was developed around the motives to keep boys task-oriented and push aside personal problems. When boys have emotional issues they are encouraged to push them aside in order to promote the common good (Weiberg, 1977). The boys do not get the emotional support they may need, and this instills a belief that having emotions is not important. The Boy Scouts have even gone so far as to not be welcoming of homosexual members (Mitchell, Pollock, Schumacher & Zutter, 2006). The Boy Scouts was a means to counteract feminization of young boys during a time when the expression of masculinity was being restricted (Hantover, 1978). Even with all of these individualistic and narrow characteristics of the program, it is still considered to be one of the best leadership programs in the world (Griggs, 2009).

Given the fact that Boy Scouts are socialized to be tough, Girl Scouts have a very different view on how to groom the girls that choose to be a part of the program. The mission statement of this female organization states that the program is to help girls build confidence, character, and courage (Salipante & Golden-Biddle, 1995). The program has a strong foundation in building these characteristics in young girls. In 2010, the Girl Scouts were asked by Dove to partner with
them in a campaign for “Real Beauty.” The campaign was focused on building the self-esteem of girls, helping them realize that beauty comes from within (Clinch, Dorso & Osland, 2010). The program has also reached out to migrant families living along the Mexican border of the United States in some of the worst conditions of the country in order to help these girls form a positive outlook and stay out of trouble. This program is called the Border Programme, and has enrolled over 10,000 members. Two-thirds of America’s professional women have been a part of the Girl Scouts program because of these strong values (United States: Girls Scouts and girl power, 1999).

When comparing the two programs side by side, the Girl Scouts program is more likely to promote creativity and group work, whereas the Boy Scouts program promotes masculinity and individualism. The Girl Scouts are offered more group activities that support critical thinking, creativity, and an up to date view of womanhood. On the opposite hand, Boy Scouts encourage more activities with scientific content that do not support intellectual processes. The Boy Scouts have an out of date interpretation of what it means to be manly and are still teaching young boys the values that were set forth when the program was first founded. In a changing world, the Girl Scouts are moving forward and encouraging young women to do the same (Denny, 2011). The program feels that young girls thrive when learning alongside each other and do worse in mixed groups so the development of a mixed-gender mentor program for young children is not in either of the organizations near future (Denny, 2011).

**Sororities and Fraternities**

Moving forward to college age, men and women have the opportunity to join Greek social organizations. These social organizations are also separated by sex: females can join sororities, and males can join fraternities (Baird, 1920). Fraternity members have a history of
negative attitudes and hostile behavior toward women and homosexuals (Hall & La France, 2007). This can be explained by Social Adjustment Function, which predicts that members of a group will adopt attitudes in accordance with identities and goals of the entire group. By adopting the strict group values, males in these organizations open themselves up for a certain lifestyle that often draws a strong boundary between members and non-members. This boundary explains why fraternity members report less satisfaction with emotional support received from brothers than do sorority members from their sisters. Fraternity members have difficulty obtaining listening support from their brothers. Therefore, there is no room for error when conforming to the values of the organization (Woodward & Rosenfeld, 1996).

**Women in the Workplace**

After college, organizations must accommodate to male and female employees. After being separated in mentorship relationships their whole lives, graduates must now learn how to work with opposite-sex mentors. This is especially a problem for women, because there are a significantly lower number of high-ranking female positions in organizations (Ragins & Cotton, 1993). Traditionally, women have been encouraged to take a more passive role in relationships, and men a more aggressive role. This is supported by Ragin’s study confirming women have a significantly more difficult time acquiring a mentor than men. This lack of mentorship in organizations leads to the problem of fewer females in leadership positions (Ragins & Cotton, 1993).

Different generational perspectives of professional women intersect in the current workforce to explain work and life conflict (Favero & Heath, 2012). At one point in time, women were expected to stay at home devoting all of their time to taking care of their family. This perception of female life has led to a gender bias in the workplace allowing females to
receive more promotions, but not be compensated accordingly (Nemanick, 2000).

A discrepancy between the commitment made to diversity in the workplace at corporations is clearly noted, along with the policies aimed at promoting career development of women employees. These both attribute to the small percentage of women who have become senior executives, chief executive officers, and directors of corporations. There is a need for leadership from senior executives to effectively address the status of women executives (Barsh & Yee, 2011). Over 400 work organizations were studied between 1959 and 1979. Among those, over 59% were perfectly segregated by sex, meaning workers of one sex were either excluded entirely or were concentrated in job titles filled exclusively by the same sex (Baron & Bielby, 1985). In the United States, the majority of teachers are female, but only 22% are superintendents. Furthermore, women occupy only 40% of faculty and senior staff positions and 21% of college and university presidencies. The females who aspire to attain a higher administrative position would benefit from a mentor in helping them succeed in their career. It has been indicated by female administrators that having a mentor was important to their success (Dunbar & Kinnersley, 2011). The shortage of women at upper levels of organizations is the reason behind the shortage in potential female mentors. The few women in management who are available to form mentoring relationships are overburdened with requests from the much larger group of women at lower levels, causing this to be a continuous cycle (Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Research by Richard Nemanick has shown that females with mentors perform significantly better than those without mentors (2000).

In addition to corporate jobs, sports are a male dominated work area as well. Men are given greater coaching opportunities in both men’s and women’s sports, creating a double standard. In women’s sports, men hold 57.4% of head coaching positions, and women hold 42.6%. In men’s
sports, women hold only 3% of head coaching jobs. Through semi-structured interviews, this phenomenon was explored further. Results suggest that the perception of gendered opportunities, male-exclusive social networks, and pressures to overcompensate for being female were all strong and prevalent. The assumptions that men are stronger and more athletic also play a large role in this subject (Walker & Bopp, 2010).

Another area where women have yet to reach equality in the workplace is in pay and promotions (Parcheta, Kaifi & Khanfar, 2013). Based on the fact that women do not have the same resources and opportunities as men, they are seen as less experienced and/or qualified, which is often used to justify a lower salary (Evans, Kelley & Peoples, 2010). Gender and human capital variables predicted between 36.5% and 53.9% of the variance in pay (Alkadry & Tower, 2006). Unequal pay affects women no matter their age or position. Gender pay differences affect women returning to work, part-time employees, and even full-time employees (Joshi, Makepeace & Dolton, 2007).

**Summary**

Overall, mentoring is a type of leadership that is used in many youth community organizations, and, more specifically, sex-separated organizations such as Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts. Feminine and masculine roles are taught early in Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts which tunes them to society’s social norms. This type of mentoring continues in the college atmosphere in sororities and fraternities. The gender roles and norms taught to children are ubiquitous in workplace organizations today because society perceives males as better leaders than females based on leadership styles. Female leader relationships are seen as more emotional while males feel as if they do not get the necessary emotional support. Additionally, mentee’s compare their experiences with female and male mentors in organizations and conclude that masculine styles
are preferred in order to move forward in career development and advancement. By starting at a younger age, males and females would potentially benefit from being socialized side by side rather than separated by sex. These results also prove that having a mentor is a key to success in the professional world.

**Conclusion**

This stigma for young boys to have a manly persona in the Boy Scouts program is feeding them a false stereotype of what a male should be and how he should act. Although the Boy Scouts of America try to keep up with a changing world, the values instilled in the program from its start are still very male-oriented in a way that promotes males to act in what is considered to be appropriate. Girl Scouts on the other hand are seen as more girly and feminine, and leaders seem more encouraging when girls are growing up based on the Girl Scout mission statement to build confidence, character, and courage. Taking taught gender roles from a young age into consideration, members of fraternities are then expected to provide technical appreciation and challenge support, whereas members of sororities are expected to provide listening and emotional support. This leads to expectations about what kind of support is appropriate to seek and provide based on sex differences. The impact of these differences is prevalent in the leaders of today’s organizations. There are significantly fewer women given opportunities for leadership roles because of their emotional based leadership approach compared to males who downplay their emotions and use a direct, competitive leadership approach. Due to this, women are often seeking male mentors to help them achieve higher status positions. Perhaps by implementing mixed gender mentorship programs for children and adolescents, the gap between male and female leaders could one day be closed.
Implications for Future Research

More than 50% of women constitute today’s professional workplace and that percentage continues to rise (Carnes & Radojevich-Kelley, 2011). Further research could be conducted by looking at the mentors used and progress women have made throughout history up until now, where women are taking the lead and starting to run for president. An exceptional example would be the case of Hillary Clinton. Based on research, numbers, and history, it is impossible to overlook her achievements in 2008 for women equality (Bailey, 2009).

These findings could also lead to future research in Business Fraternities in college because they are not separated by sex. By looking at same-sex and opposite-sex mentor-mentee relationships in the same organization, it is possible to compare the actual differences. This would be beneficial because it takes students that have been separated by sex for many years and puts them in an environment where sex is not a factor in mentoring relationships.

By examining the values taught in female mentoring programs, the lack of leadership qualities could be understood. Females have made huge strides in the world. With stronger empowerment, the gaps between males and females could be closed. The Girl Scouts program, the largest female mentoring program in the world, prides itself on encouraging young women and teaching them strong leadership skills. However, there is still something missing and without clear research, the missing part is indescribable. By researching how empowerment and encouragement differs from the Boy Scouts vision of task-orientation, it could be possible to see why females still lag behind in the professional world.
References:


Doi:10.2307/256398


Doi:10.2224/sbp.2013.41.7.1171


Doi: 10.1002/nml.4130060103


