

MENTORING OUTCOMES FOR PEOPLE OF COLOR IN THE WORKPLACE

by

KEVIN LEE WESTRAY

(Under the Direction of JUANITA JOHNSON-BAILEY)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to understand the outcomes of mentoring with a special emphasis on how it affects people of color in corporate America. There is little empirical evidence that mentoring has increased the numbers of people of color into key organizational positions. My research was a quantitative study to address the outcomes of mentoring for minority status groups. The research questions were:

- 1) What is the relationship between perceived quality of mentoring and perceived promotability?
- 2) What is the relationship between mentoring access, protégé race and the perceived opportunity for development?
- 3) What is the relationship among protégé race, mentoring functions received and perceived value?

The survey instrument was used to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: People of Color will have less experience than Whites with mentoring.

Hypothesis 2a: When mentored, People of Color will receive more psychosocial support than Whites.

Hypothesis 2b: When mentored, People of Color will receive less instrumental support than Whites.

Hypothesis 3: The perceived benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for Whites will be higher than the benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for People of Color.

Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Of the 240 respondents who said they had a mentor, 49% were Black, and 51% were White. Hypothesis 2a had mixed support. At the construct level of psychosocial mentoring, hypothesis 2a was not supported. However, at the sub-construct level, there was statistical significance in role modeling, friendship and parenting. Hypothesis 2b also had mixed support. At the construct level of instrumental mentoring, hypothesis 2b was not supported. However, at the sub-construct level, there was statistical significance in sponsoring. Examining race interactions of protégé and mentor also yielded significance in the overall instrumental function, promotability, and in five of the instrumental roles; sponsor, coach, protect, challenging assignments, and exposure. Hypothesis 3 had mixed support. At the construct level of promotability, there was no statistical significance. However, when looking at the interaction between protégé race and mentor race, White protégés with a Black mentor felt their mentor had advanced their career more than any other dyad race combination.

INDEX WORDS: Adult Education, Blacks, Career Advancement, Cross-Cultural Mentoring, HRD Intervention, Mentoring, People of Color

MENTORING OUTCOMES FOR PEOPLE OF COLOR IN THE WORKPLACE

by

KEVIN LEE WESTRAY

B.S., University of Hartford, 1985

M.B.A., University of New Haven, 1988

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2010

© 2010

KEVIN LEE WESTRAY

All Rights Reserved

MENTORING OUTCOMES FOR PEOPLE OF COLOR IN THE WORKPLACE

by

KEVIN LEE WESTRAY

Major Professor: Juanita Johnson-Bailey

Committee: Laura Bierema
Rosemary Phelps
Kecia M. Thomas

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
Cwi wuv2010

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family, who has always been there with love, support, and the belief in my success when I so often did not. And especially to my son: believe that all things are possible with the love and support of your family.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank, acknowledge, and praise, Juanita Johnson-Bailey for her continued guidance in my academic pursuits. She has been invaluable to me. I would like to thank Kecia M. Thomas for stepping in and up to the task of being my methodologist. You certainly calmed the panic that was quickly rising and for that, I will be forever grateful. Thank you to Rosemary Phelps for stepping as a replacement committee member. Your kindness, patience and insight were deeply appreciated. And to Laura Bierema, thank you for the comments, the guidance and the sharing of your knowledge as I pursued my course of study.

To Talmadge Guy, I can only say thank you thank you thank you for everything. Your guidance, understanding and talks were not only welcomed but valued. To Bryan, the world's best statistician and patient tutor, my sincerest gratitude. I would like to thank all those students that became friends along this journey and always encouraged me, Letha, Dionne, Yvetta, Nicole, Donna, Deretta, Tricia and Kenya. Finally, to all my family friends, who have been there to lend a hand with Vonty, encourage me along the way, and never let me give up, thank you to Bryant, Ian, Laura, Amy, Don, Donn, Jerry, Joseph, and last but certainly not least, Luc. I love you all.

I thank the Lord of All, who allowed me to travel this journey and through whom all things are possible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	kx
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	10
Research Focus	10
Significance	11
Definition of Terms	11
2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	13
Definitions, Benefits, and Aspects of Mentoring	14
Critical Race Theory	40
Chapter Summary	46
3 METHOD	47
Study Population	47
Study Variables	50
Data Collection	55
Data Analysis	56
4 RESULTS	57

Hypothesis 1.....	58
Hypothesis 2a.....	59
Hypothesis 2b.....	67
Hypothesis 3.....	73
5 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	76
Overview of Study	76
Discussion of Findings.....	77
Implications for Practice	80
Recommendations for Future Studies.....	82
Limitations	84
Summary	85
REFERENCES	88
APPENDICES	
A IRB Approval Letter	93
B Solicitation Letter	94
C Survey Instrument	96
D Demographics	101

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Race of Protégés' and the Race of their Mentors	50
Table 2: Coefficient Alphas	51
Table 3: Roles, Mentor Role Items, Survey α , Ragins & McFarlin α	53
Table 4: Chi-Squared test for Mentoring by Race	58
Table 5: Means and Standard Deviations for Mentored Protégés	59
Table 6: MANOVA	61
Table 7: Means and Standard Deviations for All Responses.....	62
Table 8: Means and Standard Deviations for Race of Protégé and Race of Mentor Dyads	65
Table 9: MANOVA for Race of Protégé and Race of Mentor	67
Table 10: Means and Standard Deviations for Same/Different Race Dyads.....	69
Table 11: MANOVA for Same/Different Race Dyads.....	70
Table 12: Chi-Squared Test for Obtaining a Mentor	74
Table 13: Barriers to Obtaining a Mentor.....	75
Table 14: Chi-Squared Test for Barriers to Obtaining a Mentor	75

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Race of Respondents	4
Figure 2: Race of Respondents	48
Figure 3: Education Level of Respondents	49
Figure 4: Income Level of Respondents	49
Figure 5: Response to Having a Mentor	59
Figure 6: Means of Parent and Friendship Roles.....	62
Figure 7: Means of Dyad Combinations for Role Model Role.....	63
Figure 8: Means of Dyad Combinations for Friendship Role.....	64
Figure 9: Means of Dyad Combinations for Parent Role	65
Figure 10: Means of Sponsor Role	68
Figure 11: Means for Same Race and Different Race Dyads	69
Figure 12: Means of Dyad Combinations for Instrumental Mentoring	71
Figure 13: Means of Dyad Combinations for Sponsor Role.....	72
Figure 14: Means of Dyad Combinations for Challenging Assignments Role	72
Figure 15: Means of Dyad Combinations for Promotability	73
Figure 16: How Mentors are Obtained	74

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring is a very popular subject. A search in the book section of Amazon.com will return over 39,000 books with the topic of mentoring buried somewhere within its pages. Mentoring contributes to employee job satisfaction, retention, and performance. Mentoring is used by corporations to develop their employees. Wilson and Elman (1990) believe that organizations should consider mentoring as “a structured system for strengthening and assuring the continuity or organizational culture” (p. 89). Formal mentoring programs are also used by companies as a means of attracting new talent (Allen & O'Brien, 2006).

Studies have shown that mentored employees have more job satisfaction, higher compensation, and are happier with their career advancement than their non-mentored colleagues (Blake-Beard, 1999; Dreher & Cox, 1996; O'Neill & Blake-Beard, 2002; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Mentoring can serve both instrumental and psychosocial roles for the protégé. Exposure, sponsorship, coaching, challenging assignments, and protection, are some of the instrumental roles mentors can play (Kram, 1985). The psychosocial function of mentoring include counseling, emotional support, and role modeling (Kram, 1985).

Companies have implemented formal mentoring programs in order to increase the number of females and persons of color into management ranks (O'Neill, 2005; Ragins, 1993; Ragins, 1999; Schein, 1992). Even though the literature shows that informal mentoring is far more beneficial to the protégé in the long run in terms of psychosocial support, companies implement formal mentoring programs because if they do not do it formally, executives won't

often take the time to work with or get to know others who do not look like themselves. A review of the literature shows that women and People of Color benefit by having a mentor (Allen, 2006; Baugh, 2005; Blake-Beard, 2001). Mentors can open doors of access for the protégé that would otherwise remain closed. A protégé of color or female protégé may have the opportunity to work with executives that are primarily male and White. This exposure to upper management can be crucial to career progression. Mentors not only give advice about the protégé's current position, but unwritten knowledge about the inner-workings of an organization is also shared. Access to executives and working knowledge of an organization is key to females and persons of color, both female and male, in breaking through the glass ceilings of oppression that have kept them out of key decision making positions and positions with profit and loss responsibility (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Bierema, 1996; Brown, Zablah, & Bellenger, 2008; Chrobot-Mason & Thomas, 2002; Jandeska, 2005).

Mentoring can be defined as an experienced person (mentor) in an organization lending their advice, counsel and support to a newer person (protégé) in the same organization. This relationship, whether arrived at formally (company structured) or informally (found common areas of interest) has been found to be beneficial to both the mentor and the protégé (Mathews, 2006). There is substantial literature on the benefits to the protégé as a result of a mentoring relationship: career advancement, higher salary, and greater job satisfaction, to name a few. There are benefits to the mentor as well, although they may be less enumerated in studies and literature. Benefits to the mentor include: satisfaction in seeing their protégé succeed, renewed interest in the goals of the organization, and the ability to impart their wisdom to someone else. Baugh and Sullivan (2005) stated, "when mentoring relationships are good, they can produce

beneficial career outcomes to mentors and protégés as well as to the organization(s) in which they take place” (p. 425).

Allen and O’Brien (2006) found that organizations that offer formal mentoring may profit in the form of attracting a larger and more attractive applicant pool. When pay and benefits are equal, individuals were more attracted to companies with a formal mentoring program than those companies without a formal mentoring program. Organizations are not only using formal mentoring to develop their current workforce, but to attract new talent as well.

As organizations have become more diverse, the management and executive ranks have remained primarily the same, White and male. Minorities make up only 15 of the Fortune 500 CEO’s. In its charting of the U.S. Labor Market for 2006, the U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Statistics (2007) had some key findings regarding Blacks and Hispanics in the workforce:

- 1) In 2006, Blacks and Hispanics were less likely to be employed in management, professional and related occupations than their White or Asian counterparts.
- 2) Blacks and Hispanics were more likely than Whites or Asians to work in service organizations.
- 3) In 2006, median weekly earnings of White workers were \$690, compared with \$554 for Blacks and \$486 for Hispanic workers. Asians earned \$784 per week.
- 4) In 2006, Black women earned 88 percent of what Black men did; among Hispanics, the earnings ratio was 87 percent. In contrast, White women’s earnings were 80 percent of White men’s and Asian women women’s earnings were 79 percent of Asian men’s.

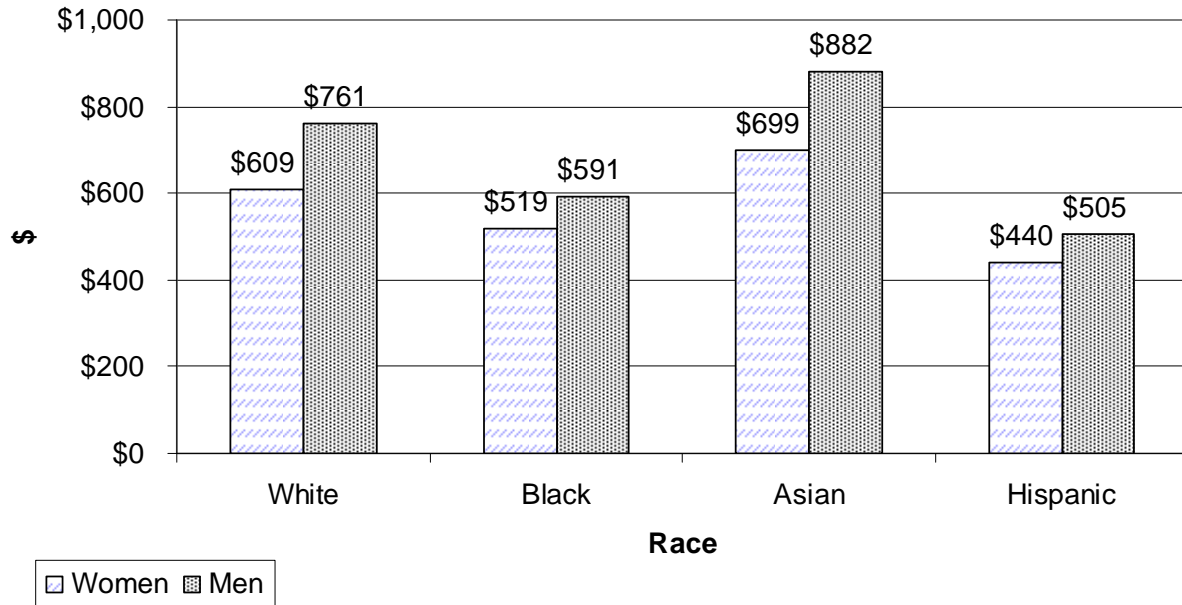


Figure 1

2006 Median Weekly Earnings by Race and Gender

All of these facts indicate the need for advancing qualified women and People of Color into management and executive ranks. Mentoring is frequently used as a tool to develop and bring People of Color and women into management ranks. In addition to the technical knowledge of the current job the protégé is doing, plus the technical knowledge they will need for future positions, mentors must also begin to do a better job of imparting the knowledge of the culture of the organization. Protégés need to be taught what is acceptable and or desired regarding the values of an organization. The subtle and not-so-subtle nuances of dress, communication, work hours, and extracurricular activities, to name a few, need to be made known by mentors to their protégés in an effort to better prepare their protégés for the upward career climb. These nuances are even more of an imperative to be known to women and People of Color who 1) may never have been exposed to an unwritten value or 2) may not occur to the

protégé because it is outside their realm of thinking. Each of these cases will be considered in more detail.

Mentors aid protégés through instrumental support and through psychosocial support. Mentors possess the knowledge of how an organization operates. As important as career guidance is to a protégé, some may consider even more important, the knowledge of the culture of the organization or, work culture, which the mentor possesses. Work culture can be defined as what an organization values, and what said organization considers to be untouchable or sacrosanct. This knowledge can be difficult for females, and People of Color, both male and female to grasp, understand and assimilate into their own basis of being.

A mentor can be highly beneficial to a protégé in navigating these troubled waters of learning the work culture (Athey, Avery, & Zemsky, 2000; Chao, Walz and Gardner, 1992). The beliefs, values and norms internalized by employees is the organizational culture that determine which attitudes and behaviors are rewarded (Schein, 1992). Benabou and Benabou (1999) found that “A mentor can help newcomers make contacts for advancement, learn the organization’s culture and enhance work effectiveness” (p. 7).

Mentors can also help protégés with job responsibilities. Mentors may at times need to intervene when protégés are under conflicting expectations from various role senders (Baugh, Lankau, & Scandura, 1996). Mentoring should help the protégé with skills to manage role ambiguity and conflict. Social role theory suggests people are expected to behave within culturally defined gender roles. Mentors must help women navigate the conflict with regard to appropriate work and gender role behavior (Baugh et al., 1996). Their study found that the effects of mentoring were more pronounced for women than men. This was attributed to the disjuncture between gender and work roles creating greater difficulties in socialization. Mentors

were found to help with the socialization process within organizations (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2002). To the extent that the culture is male dominated, women characterize such a culture as exclusionary and claim that upper management is unaware of the impediments to women's advancement and assimilation (Bierema, 2001). Women faced with these challenges may leave an organization, become less satisfied with their careers and commitment to the organization (Jandeska & Kraimer, 2005).

Mentoring can indeed be helpful to females and People of Color (Blancero & DelCampo, 2005). Organizations must remember that not only do mentors need to provide instrumental and psychosocial support as evidenced widely throughout the literature; but mentors must provide the inner knowledge, "the social knowledge" of an organization. Only then will protégés in the minority be on a more level playing field with protégés in the majority.

In their survey of a large accounting firm, (Forret & de Janasz, 2005), found that having a mentor significantly impacted the protégé's favorable perception of how the organization appreciated their work and family demands. It is one thing to aid in the technical knowledge of a protégé's work experience; it is a whole different ballgame to clue that protégé in on the inner workings of how decisions are made and who gets advanced. Brooks and Clunis (2007) found that "White men seem to be the most powerful mentors in terms of organizational rewards, but they are difficult for race/ethnic group members to find" (p.242).

In their study of Black human resource developers in the United States, (Barrett, Cervero, & Johnson-Bailey, 2004) found that race influenced career development in two ways: 1) as a hardship, and 2) influenced the mentoring they received. Participants agreed that being mentored was important. In his qualitative study of cross-race dyads, Thomas (1993) found that when colleagues shared complementary racial perspectives, their relationship could evolve as mentor-

protégé relationships with psychosocial support and instrumental (career) support. Without shared racial perspectives, the senior person could only serve as a sponsor, providing career guidance and no psychosocial support. Although most would say mentoring is beneficial, the benefits of mentoring are not the same for all races.

Brooks and Clunis (2007) found that Whites seem to benefit more than Hispanics or Blacks. And Blake-Beard (1999) found that a protégé's race is a significant predictor of compensation and promotion rate. Other studies have noted that mentors of the same race and gender provide more psychosocial support (Brooks & Clunis, 2007; Dreher & Cox, 1996). In their study of White mentor-Black protégé mentoring dyads, (Brown, Zablah, & Bellenger, 2008) found that "psychosocial interaction is the gateway that leads to a protégé's career benefits and positive role modeling behaviors" (p. 736). They posit that human resource managers should encourage the formation of mentoring dyads based more on attitudinal factors rather than racial factors.

In the examination of the literature, there are many studies regarding cross-gender dyads and cross-race dyads. What most of these studies do is treat the oppressed group, as a monolithic block (Chrobot-Mason & Thomas, 2002). Many of the studies that look at cross-gender dyads, consider gender to be the only relevant variable in the success of that dyad. All females are not the same. (Johnson-Bailey & Tisdell, 1998). Protégés are from different backgrounds, have different religious affiliations, different marital statuses, different socio-economic backgrounds; as do their mentors. But the studies seem to treat each group as a monolithic block; male mentors will do this, female mentors will do that, when their protégé is of a different gender.

I would argue that much of the satisfaction of each partner within the dyad has more to do with similarities shared by members of the dyad than simply acknowledging that they are of

different genders (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2002). Not all White males will respond the same to way to any given White female or female of color. Yes, their history and worldview as men, and the power associated with their gender affects the relationship, but also important is how their worldview of females is shaped. Did their mother work outside of the house? Does their spouse or partner run their own business? Who has responsibility within their relationship for money management? The past and current interactions of White males towards any female will help shape their relationship with a female protégé of any color.

Likewise, in cross-race dyads where the mentor is White and the protégé is of a different race, interactions that both partners have had and continue to have with different races will help shape their mentoring relationship. It is not enough for companies to match simply on varying skin color. Companies must do more to understand the worldview of the protégé as well as that of the mentor in order to foster some common ground within the dyad.

Mentoring provides rewards to both the mentor and the protégé due to the intense interpersonal exchanges during the relationship (Ragins & Scandura, 1994). Allen, Eby, and Lentz (2006a) found that having input into the matching process by mentor and protégé is essential to the perceived program effectiveness. There has however, been a lack of studies that focus on mentoring effectiveness from the perspective of the participants (Allen et al., 2006b). They stated, “The collection of both mentor and protégé data also provides the opportunity to examine how protégé experiences relate to mentor reports of program effectiveness and how mentor formal program experiences relate to protégé reports of program effectiveness” (p. 127).

Protégés benefit more than non-mentored employees with higher compensation, greater opportunities, more satisfaction with their jobs, and greater intent to stay with their companies (Dreher & Cox, 1996; Forret & de Janasz, 2005; Scandura & Viator, 1994). Protégés’

perceptions of their own career progress is higher than those of non-protégés (Kram, 1985). Because of the benefits of a mentoring relationship, protégés may be less likely to look outside of an organization for alternative positions (Scandura & Viator, 1994; Siegel & Reinstein, 2001). Protégés may be more willing to continue with a successful mentoring relationship than look outside of an organization when they feel the need for faster advancement and a greater depth of responsibility. A protégé's social capital is built within an organization by having their mentor introduce them to influential individuals (de Janasz, Sullivan, & Whiting, 2003). Mentors protect protégés from adverse forces (Ragins & Cotton, 1999) and shield protégés from undesirable assignments and internal political struggles (McDowall-Long, 2004). Mentors provide exposure to senior management, introduce the protégé to the mentor's network, and push the protégé to accept challenging assignments (McDowall-Long, 2004).

Although women have achieved parity with men on entering organizations, they lag behind their male counterparts within five to six years (Catalyst, 1998; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Women may perceive less access to mentoring than men (Baugh et al., 1996; Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Women also view mentoring as important to their career success (Ragins & Cotton, 1993) and perceive greater exclusion to company networks that could provide potential mentors (Baugh et al., 1996). They also found that because of these perceptions, once a mentoring relationship was developed, women expressed greater job satisfaction, organization commitment, and greater career expectations than male protégés and non-protégés of either gender. The need for mentoring of women has been shown due to the developmental challenges they face (Jandeska & Kraimer, 2005; Ohlott, Ruderman, and McCauley, 1994). Mentors could certainly help address these issues through their instrumental support of coaching, exposure and

championing (Kram, 1985; O'Neill & Blake-Beard, 2002). In addition, the psychosocial support should help combat the feeling of lack of support.

Statement of the Problem

I am interested in the outcomes of mentoring with a special emphasis on how it affects People of Color in corporate America. Mentoring is an important aspect of corporate retention and advancement (Young, 2000). Organizations benefit from higher productivity and higher employee performance (Noe, 1988; Scandura, 1992; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993). Along with a more effective information exchange (Mullen, 1994), mentoring provides a vehicle for more thorough training and socialization over longer periods of time (Kram, 1983, 1985). Even with these benefits to the individual and the organization, mentoring minority status individuals may or may not affect the outcome on increased numbers.

There is little empirical evidence that mentoring has increased the numbers of People of Color into key organizational positions. Minority status groups as a whole represent only three percent of the Fortune 500 CEO's. Minorities are an increasing share of the workforce, but remain a relatively small percent of managers and key decision makers within companies. My research will be a quantitative study to address the outcomes of mentoring for minority status group. The research will be conducted using the lens of Critical Race Theory. This empirically based study will help companies understand what is effective and relevant in successful mentoring of minority status groups.

Research Focus

The literature review that I have conducted shows a major gap in whether or not mentoring is an effective human resource intervention in moving People of Color into key roles within organizations. The questions that will help shape my research are:

- 1) What is the relationship between perceived quality of mentoring and perceived promotability?
- 2) What is the relationship between mentoring access, protégé race and the perceived opportunity for development?
- 3) What is the relationship among protégé race, mentoring functions received and perceived value?

Significance

I am hoping this study will help companies to understand what is effective and relevant in successful mentoring. I will be using critical theory as my theoretical framework to help guide me in developing questions and analyzing my data.

There are few studies that compare the effects of mentoring between mentored and non-mentored individuals (Allen et al., 2004). Nor do the studies delve into the degree of how the individual was mentored. There is also a lack of knowledge of the characteristics and career outcomes of the people who do not receive mentoring (Underhill, 2006). I hope that my well designed study adds to the literature by addressing this gap. This study should give empirical credence to mentoring used as a means to increase women and People of Color into the executive ranks of organizations.

Definition of Terms

Mentor: This term refers to a person with more experience or authority than the protégé.

Mentoring: This term refers to a developmental relationship between two colleagues where one person has more experience or authority than the other. Mentoring may include helping another person with improving work skills, understanding the organization, providing

information about “getting ahead” in the job or profession, and giving personal or emotional support (Feeney, 2007).

Protégé: This term refers to the recipient of advice or counsel from a more experienced or employee with power.

Promotability: This term refers to advancing into key positions within organizations. Key positions would include executive positions, decision-making positions that are important to the organization, and positions with profit and loss responsibility.

Access to Mentoring: The ability to obtain a mentor, either formally or informally.

Formal Mentoring: Obtaining a mentor through a company sponsored program.

Informal Mentoring: Obtaining a mentor through personal contact with an individual.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study is to describe how mentoring is used as a human resource intervention to increase the numbers of People of Color into key roles within an organization. Mentoring is an important aspect of corporate retention and advancement. Young (2000) observes:

The mentoring relationship is becoming an increasingly important issue to organizations. Advantages of mentoring have been found to accrue for the organization as well as to the individuals in a mentoring relationship. Organizations benefit from a more effective exchange of information among employees (Mullen, 1994), and higher productivity and performance (Noe, 1988; Scandura, 1992; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993). Along with a more effective information exchange, mentoring provides a vehicle for more thorough training and socialization over longer periods of time (Kram, 1983, 1985). (p. 177)

The literature review that I have conducted shows a major gap in whether or not mentoring is an effective human resource intervention in moving People of Color into key roles within organizations. The questions that shaped my research are:

- 1) What is the relationship between perceived quality of mentoring and perceived promotability?
- 2) What is the relationship between mentoring access, protégé race and the perceived opportunity for development?

3) What is the relationship among protégé race, mentoring functions received and perceived value?

This review examines the literature about mentoring, mentoring and People of Color, and how critical race theory will help shape my data analysis. As organizations have become more diverse, the management and executive ranks have remained primarily the same, White and male. Minorities make up only 15 of the Fortune 500 CEO's. In its charting of the U.S. Labor Market for 2006, the U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Statistics (2007) had some key findings regarding Blacks and Hispanics in the workforce:

- 1) In 2006, Blacks and Hispanics were less likely to be employed in management, professional and related occupations than their White or Asian counterparts.
- 2) Blacks and Hispanics were more likely than Whites or Asians to work in service organizations.
- 3) In 2006, median weekly earnings of White workers were \$690, compared with \$554 for Blacks and \$486 for Hispanic workers. Asians earned \$784 per week.
- 4) In 2006, Black women earned 88 percent of what Black men did; among Hispanics, the earnings ratio was 87 percent. In contrast, White women's earnings were 80 percent of White men's and Asian women women's earnings were 79 percent of Asian men's.

All of these facts indicate the need for advancing qualified women and People of Color into management and executive ranks.

Definitions, Benefits, and Aspects of Mentoring

Mentoring can be defined as an experienced person (mentor) in an organization lending their advice, counsel and support to a newer person (protégé) in the same organization. This

relationship, whether arrived at formally (company structured) or informally (found common areas of interest) has been found to be beneficial to both the mentor and the protégé. Mentoring is used to develop staff, socialize employees and to impart the corporate culture. A mentor can help newcomers learn the organization's culture, enhance work effectiveness and make contacts for advancement (Benabou & Benabou, 1999). Mathews (2006) writes:

Mentoring has been widely recognized as a valuable method for staff development, transmission of corporate culture, and socialization. A properly designed mentoring program can be a useful, structured way to communicate, and transfer information related to the expectations of different management approaches to new and existing employees.
(p. 162)

Workplace Mentoring

Since the concept of mentoring in the workplace began to gain popularity, researchers have consistently found support for its importance and potential impact on both the mentor and the protégé. For example, protégés tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction, receive higher salaries, and are promoted more quickly than those who are not in mentoring relationships (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Fagenson, 1989; Scandura & Viator, 1994). In addition, mentors often gain a sense of usefulness and satisfaction from passing on their tacit knowledge and helping less experienced individuals succeed (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). Finally, these benefits extend to the organization as both mentors and protégés report less intention to leave the organization than comparable employees who are not part of mentoring relationships (Scandura & Viator, 1994).

Two recent books on mentoring, both in 2007, have further described the need for mentoring and its benefit to both mentor and protégé. The first book, edited by Allen & Eby is

titled *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring: A Multiple Perspective Approach*. The book has seven parts: introduction, theoretical approaches and methodological issues, naturally occurring mentoring relationships, benefits of mentoring, diversity and mentoring, best practices for formal mentoring programs, and integrating multiple mentoring perspectives. Each part of the book is made up of different chapters written by leaders in the areas of that part of the book. This book distinguishes between the term mentoring and its components such as coaching role modeling and counseling. This allows the reader to understand how the editors use the concept of mentoring and how the handbook defines and discusses mentoring. This book showcases well how vast the topic of mentoring can be, but gives practical descriptions of the various types of mentoring and how it is implemented and practiced.

The second book, *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work: Theory, Research and Practice*, is edited by Ragins and Kram. The book is organized into five parts: overview, mentoring research, mentoring theory, effectively implementing mentoring programs, and future research. This book presents a summary of 30 years of mentoring with some consistent findings; mentoring works, not all employees have access to mentors, having someone help you navigate the organization is a good thing and the traditional relationship model doesn't work well with employees who do not match the dominant group.

Mentor Functions

Although mentoring relationships may take on multiple forms, they are generally defined as intense, interpersonal relationships in which a more experienced individual (i.e., the mentor) provides guidance and support to a less experienced individual (i.e., the protégé). More specifically, the support provided by the mentor can be broken down into two main categories or functions: instrumental and psychosocial support (Kram, 1985). Because the mentor has more

experience, influence, and clout throughout the organization, he or she is in the position to facilitate the protégé's professional progress (Kram, 1985). More specifically, instrumental mentor functions help the protégé learn what is necessary for future career advancement. Instrumental support generally includes sponsorship, exposure, coaching, protection, and the provision of challenging assignments for the protégé.

Mentor functions have been differentially related to a number of outcome variables, most of which vary with regards to the type of mentoring relationships under investigation. Mentoring relationships may be formally designated by the organization, or they may evolve naturally through informal interactions. In an effort to capitalize on the many benefits of mentoring relationships, many organizations have implemented mentoring programs. Essentially, these programs serve to match mentors with protégés and to provide them with guidelines and/or responsibilities. Informal mentoring relationships, on the other hand, may develop either inside or outside of the workplace. Like most interpersonal relationships, the mentor and the protégé meet, and through a mutual liking, begin to form a relationship with one another. As such, those involved in informal mentoring relationships may not identify themselves as "mentor" and "protégé" per se, although the same mentor functions characterize their relationship.

In general, protégés in informal mentoring relationships report the highest levels of both career-related and psychosocial support when compared to protégés in formal relationships, as well as to their non-mentored counterparts (Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1991, 1999). However, some of these findings have been inconsistent. For example, Chao et al. (1992) found the expected differences in reported levels of career-related support, but failed to find the same differences in psychosocial support. In contrast, a study by Fagenson-Eland, Marks, and Amendola (1997) yielded opposite results; the only differences found in their study were in the

levels of psychosocial support reported by protégés. Finally, multiple studies have concluded that protégés in informal relationships yield the greatest benefits with regards to compensation and promotion (Chao et al., 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

The process by which instrumental and psychosocial mentoring functions differentially influence organizational outcomes is not well understood. In fact, Ragins and Cotton (1999) conclude that "...the relationship between mentoring functions and career outcomes is relatively weak and varies by the type of function" (p. 547). Furthermore, the effect of mentor function on protégés' expectations of the organization is yet to be examined.

Benefits to the Protégé

There is substantial literature on the benefits to the protégé as a result of a mentoring relationship: career advancement, higher salary, and greater job satisfaction, to name a few. Protégés benefit more than non-mentored employees with higher compensation, greater opportunities, more satisfaction with their jobs, and greater intent to stay with their companies (Dreher & Cox, 1996; Forret & de Janasz, 2005; Scandura & Viator, 1994). Protégés' perceptions of their own career progress is higher than those of non-protégés (Kram, 1985). Because of the benefits of a mentoring relationship, protégés may be less likely to look outside of an organization for alternative positions (Scandura & Viator, 1994; Siegel & Reinstein, 2001). Protégés may be more willing to continue with a successful mentoring relationship than look outside of an organization when they feel the need for faster advancement and a greater depth of responsibility. A protégé's social capital is built within an organization by having their mentor introduce them to influential individuals (de Janasz, Sullivan, & Whiting, 2003). Mentors protect protégés from adverse forces (Ragins and Cotton, 1999) and shield protégés from undesirable assignments and internal political struggles (McDowall-Long, 2004). Mentors provide exposure

to senior management, introduce the protégé to the mentor's network, and push the protégé to accept challenging assignments (McDowall-Long, 2004).

Benefits to the Mentor

There are benefits to the mentor as well, although they may be less enumerated in studies and literature. Mentors can benefit from information and feedback on the operational activities of the organization and on new technical competencies brought by new protégés (Benabou & Benabou, 1999). Mentors also benefit through self-satisfaction, visibility and career rejuvenation (Allen, Russell, & Maetzke, 1997; Hegstad & Wentling, 2004; Kram, 1985). Ragins and Scandura (1999) suggest that mentors may gain recognition and status for mentoring, their job performance may also be aided by the protégé's assistance on tasks and loyalty. Ragins (1997) stated: "Protégés who are perceived as performing effectively may enhance the mentor's reputation in the organization, which may indirectly facilitate the mentor's own advancement" (p. 509). Mentors benefit from the protégé's loyalty which in turn can improve the mentor's job performance (Kram, 1985; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Benefits to the mentor also include: satisfaction in seeing their protégé succeed, renewed interest in the goals of the organization, and the ability to impart their wisdom to someone else. Baugh and Sullivan (2005) stated, "when mentoring relationships are good, they can produce beneficial career outcomes to mentors and protégés as well as to the organization(s) in which they take place" (p. 425).

Mentoring in Companies

Companies have implemented formal mentoring programs in order to increase the number of females and persons of color into management ranks. Even though the literature shows that informal mentoring is far more beneficial to the protégé in the long run in terms of psychosocial support, companies implement formal mentoring programs because if they do not

do it formally, executives won't often take the time to work with or get to know others who do not look like themselves. A review of the literature shows that women and People of Color benefit by having a mentor.

Mentors can open doors of access for the protégé that would otherwise remain closed. A protégé of color or female protégé may have the opportunity to work with executives that are primarily male and White. This exposure to upper management can be crucial to career progression. Mentors not only give advice about the protégé's current position, but unwritten knowledge about the inner-workings of an organization is also shared. Access to executives and working knowledge of an organization is key to females and persons of color, both female and male, in breaking through the glass ceilings of oppression that have kept them out of key decision making positions and positions with profit and loss responsibility.

Allen and O'Brien (2006) found that organizations that offer formal mentoring may profit in the form of attracting a larger and more attractive applicant pool. When pay and benefits are equal, individuals were more attracted to companies with a formal mentoring program than those companies without a formal mentoring program. Organizations are not only using formal mentoring to develop their current workforce, but to attract new talent as well.

Mentoring Studies

In the examination of the literature, there are many studies regarding cross-gender dyads and cross-race dyads. What most of these studies do, is treat the oppressed group, as a monolithic block. Chrobot-Mason and Thomas (2002) state:

We believe, and the literature suggests, that not all minority individuals are alike. Clearly, ethnic minorities come from different places of origin and are of different genders, classes, and educational backgrounds. In addition, ethnic minorities hold varying

attitudes with respect to how they feel about their own racial membership and those of others. (p. 324)

Many of the studies that look at cross-gender dyads, consider gender to be the only relevant variable in the success of that dyad. All females are not the same. Johnson-Bailey and Tisdell (2008) state:

Women are not a monolithic group, yet most of the literature on women's career development presents middle-class, heterosexual, able-bodied White women as representative of all women, and ignores the experiences of women who represent different classes, races, ethnicities and so forth. (p. 88)

Protégés are from different backgrounds, have different religious affiliations, different marital statuses, different socio-economic backgrounds; as do their mentors. But the studies seem to treat each group as a monolithic block; male mentors will do this, female mentors will do that, when their protégé is of a different gender. I would argue that much of the satisfaction of each partner within the dyad has more to do with similarities shared by members of the dyad than simply acknowledging that they are of different genders (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2002). Not all White males will respond the same to way to any given White female or female of color. Yes, their history and worldview as men, and the power associated with their gender affects the relationship, but also important is how their worldview of females is shaped. Did their mother work outside of the house? Does their spouse or partner run their own business? Who has responsibility within their relationship for money management? The past and current interactions of White males towards any female will help shape their relationship with a female protégé of any color.

Likewise, in cross-race dyads where the mentor is White and the protégé is of a different race, interactions that both partners have had and continue to have with different races will help shape their mentoring relationship. It is not enough for companies to match simply on varying skin color. Companies must do more to understand the worldview of the protégé as well as that of the mentor in order to foster some common ground within the dyad.

Although cross-race and same race mentoring dyads both provide instrumental support, Kogler-Hill and Gant (2000) found:

However, for minorities same-race relationships provide more psychosocial support in terms of trust and attachment. Same-race relationships also have shorter and easier initiation periods, provide a greater sense of identification, increase levels of intimacy, enhance the balance in work life and social development, aid in grappling with the issues of inclusion and professional identity in early career phases, and help to frame and navigate the bicultural minority experience. (p. 53)

Mentoring provides rewards to both the mentor and the protégé due to the intense interpersonal exchanges during the relationship (Ragins & Scandura, 1994). Allen, Eby, and Lentz (2006a) found that having input into the matching process by mentor and protégé is essential to the perceived program effectiveness. There has however, been a lack of studies that focus on mentoring effectiveness from the perspective of the participants (Allen et al., 2006b). They stated, “The collection of both mentor and protégé data also provides the opportunity to examine how protégé experiences relate to mentor reports of program effectiveness and how mentor formal program experiences relate to protégé reports of program effectiveness” (p. 127).

Continuing Challenges for Mentoring Relationships

Although women have achieved parity with men on entering organizations, they lag behind their male counterparts within five to six years (Catalyst, 1998; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Women may perceive less access to mentoring than men (Baugh, Lankau, & Scandura, 1996; Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Women also view mentoring as important to their career success (Ragins & Cotton, 1993) and perceive greater exclusion to company networks that could provide potential mentors (Baugh et al., 1996). They also found that because of these perceptions, once a mentoring relationship was developed, women expressed greater job satisfaction, organization commitment, and greater career expectations than male protégés and non-protégés of either gender. Jandeska and Kraimer (2005) found:

Women feel more compelled to provide career mentoring to other colleagues (especially women) in a male-dominated culture where they feel excluded or marginalized. We speculate that, in an inhospitable culture, women may engage in mentoring almost as a defense mechanism, to build their comfort levels and create solidarity with others like them. In fact, mentoring may be the “glue” that gives some women “staying power” in a hostile environment. (p. 472)

The need for mentoring of women has been shown due to the developmental challenges they face. Ohlott et al., (1994) found in their study of managers’ developmental job experiences that women reported a greater degree of influencing without authority and women faced greater challenges deriving from lack of personal support. They wrote, “To a much greater degree than men, women continue to feel left out of important networks, have difficulty finding supportive people to talk to, and feel they must continually fight to be recognized for the work they do” (p. 62). Mentors could certainly help address these issues through their instrumental support of

coaching, exposure and championing (Kram, 1985; O'Neill & Blake-Beard, 2002). In addition, the psychosocial support should help combat the feeling of lack of support.

In their survey of 103 Latina women, Gonzalez-Figueroa and Young (2005), found that Latina women received more psychosocial support than instrumental support. Literature suggests that instrumental mentoring is more related to career success (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Scandura & Viator, 1994). While Latina women may have the willingness to be mentored, it may be difficult for them to find mentors or they may be unaware of the importance of mentoring relationships (Gonzalez-Figueroa & Young, 2005). In their study of Hispanics in the workplace, Blancero and DelCampo (2005) found that Hispanics that were mentored were less likely to leave their organizations, had higher salaries and were more satisfied with their jobs. Less discrimination was also reported by those who were mentored.

Lyon, Farrington, and Westbrook (2004) conducted a study of scientists and engineers to see if cross-gender dyad studies of other populations would apply in their field. They found that indeed the “homogeneity of the mentor-protégé dyad does make a difference in both career development and psychosocial mentoring. The overall effectiveness is found to be lower for diverse dyads” (p. 22). Interestingly, female and male protégés both feel the most important function a mentor serves is to increase the protégé’s contact with people in the organization that can advance their career. And the most desired factor in a mentor by both male and female protégés is the mentor suggesting specific strategies for reaching career goals. Both female and male protégés scored “interacting socially outside of work with the mentor” as the least important factor of a mentor. Lyon, et al. (2004) concluded:

Clearly, the protégé working in high technology is focused on career advancement and is looking to the mentor not so much to teach and instruct as to open the necessary doors

and make available opportunities for the protégé to demonstrate higher talents. Providing those open doors to higher echelons of the organization is seen by the protégés as critical to their career. (p. 24)

Ragins and Cotton (1999) study of men and women in formal and informal mentoring programs had some findings consistent with previous studies but also some unexpected findings regarding female protégés. Similarly, Dreher and Cox (1996) found a significant relationship between compensation and having a White male mentor. According to Ragins and Cotton (1999):

both male and female protégés with a history of male mentors reported more compensation than protégés with a history of female mentors. Moreover, female protégés with a history of male mentors, earned significantly more than female protégés with a history of female mentors, suggesting that these findings reflect more than simple genders differences in protégé salary Although female protégés with a history of male mentors received more promotions than their male counterparts, they received less compensation One important implication of this finding is that although male mentors may help female protégés advance in the organization, they may not be able to buffer their female protégés from biased compensation decisions. (p. 545)

Allen et al. (2006a) studied the perceived design features of formal mentoring programs from both mentor and protégé perspectives. They found that protégés and mentors who perceived they had more input into their matching, reported greater mentorship quality and role modeling than did protégés and mentors who perceived they had less input. They write, “By perceiving that they have a voice in the matching process, mentors and protégés may start to invest in the relationship prior to its official beginning. Accordingly, both parties are likely to feel greater

motivation to maximize the relationship” (p. 575). (Mullen, 1998) also suggested that organizations should incorporate into their formal mentoring programs the opportunity for mentors to choose protégés and initiate contact.

Minorities as Mentors

Females are an increasing number within the workforce. Three-quarters of women were employed in management, professional, sales, and office occupations in 2006 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007). However, they still account for an infinitesimal portion of CEO’s within the Fortune 500 -- two, to be exact. Minority status groups as a whole represent only 15 of the Fortune 500 CEO’s. Minorities are an increasing share of the workforce, but remain a relatively small percent of managers and key decision makers within companies. Ragins and Scandura (1994) stated, “Female mentors are especially important for women as they can serve as role models. Moreover, a same-sex mentoring relationship will not have the detrimental sexual connotations cross-sex relationships reportedly elicit (Ragins & Cotton, 1991)” (p. 957).

There is a not a lot of literature regarding female mentors and male protégés. Because men are generally seen as more powerful than women, male mentors may be believed to offer greater access to valued resources and opportunities (Ragins, 1997). She writes:

Even if individual minority mentors have equivalent power as majority mentors, they may not be perceived as such by their protégés Power attributions are influenced by group membership, and may lead to underestimation of minority mentors' power by the protégé, others in the organization, or even by the mentor. Inaccurate perceptions may not only deplete a mentor's power in the relationship, but it may also dissipate the mentor's power in the organization. For example, a mentor may not reap the power benefits

associated with training a protégé if peers discount the mentor's role by attributing the protégé's performance to factors other than the mentor's grooming. (p. 488)

Another area that is lacking in terms of studies is the experience of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered employees in the workplace. In fact, there is a significant lack of any mention of mentoring in a qualitative study regarding lesbians learning to negotiate the heterosexism of corporate America (Gedro, Cervero, & Johnson-Bailey, 2004). They posit:

Because lesbians face the double bind of gender and sexual orientation discrimination, they are a unique category of professionals. Although they must learn to negotiate the power of their organizational settings in order to survive, there are no formal mechanisms, such as educational programs, to provide such information to them. (p. 182)

Even smaller still is literature regarding dyads of differing religious affiliations. How are Muslims mentored in corporate America? Are they given the same opportunities as Christians within organizations to be mentored? How are the handicapped mentored? McDowall-Long (2004) calls for HRD practitioners to better address neglected populations. She writes:

Individuals with disabilities can benefit from mentoring relationships. Mentors with disabilities can help protégés gain a greater understanding of the work environment, coping strategies and encourage protégés to self-actualise with a degree of authenticity that able-bodied mentors cannot. Moreover, mentors with disabilities can engage in mutual disclosure regarding the challenges and opportunities that both confront and confound individuals with disabilities...If a mentor with similar challenges is not available for a prospective protégé with disabilities, able-bodied mentors can still serve to help the protégé gain organizational exposure and challenging work assignments as well as provide friendship, confirmation and acceptance. (p. 526)

Future Mentoring

Because of downsizing and delayering, there are fewer mid- and upper-level managers to mentor. Those that have survived a restructuring may not have the time or desire to devote quality time in a mentoring relationship (Allen et al., 2006a, 2006b; de Janasz et al., 2003). Bierema and Merriam (2002) propose “that e-mentoring holds promise for redefining mentoring relationships and changing the conditions under which mentoring is sought and offered” (p. 211). Under conditions where there may not be the opportunity to be mentored by others in their organization, employees are seeking external sources; through mentoring networks, e-mentoring, and other online communities. Headlam-Wells, Gosland, and Craig (2005) found, “Our first research project showed that e-mentoring was able to transcend organisational and geographical boundaries, thereby increasing access for people living in isolated areas, or with caring responsibilities, or who are restricted by disability (Headlam-Wells, 2004)” (p. 445).

Mentoring is frequently used as a tool to develop and bring People of Color and women into management ranks. In addition to the technical knowledge of the current job the protégé is doing, plus the technical knowledge they will need for future positions, mentors must also begin to do a better job of imparting the knowledge of the culture of the organization. Protégés need to be taught what is acceptable and or desired regarding the values of an organization. The subtle and not-so-subtle nuances of dress, communication, work hours, and extracurricular activities, to name a few, need to be made known by mentors to their protégés in an effort to better prepare their protégés for the upward career climb. These nuances are even more of an imperative to women and People of Color who 1) may never have been exposed to an unwritten value or 2) may not occur to the protégé because it is outside their realm of thinking. Each of these cases will be considered in more detail.

Mentors aid protégés through instrumental support and through psychosocial support. Mentors possess the knowledge of how an organization operates. As important as career guidance is to a protégé, some may consider even more important, the knowledge of the culture of the organization or, work culture, which the mentor possesses. Work culture can be defined as what an organization values, and what said organization considers to be untouchable or sacrosanct. This knowledge can be difficult for females, and People of Color, both male and female to grasp, understand and assimilate into their own basis of being. Chao et al. (1992) write:

Thus, a mentor could be expected to facilitate the socialization process of the protégé. During the process of providing career-related and psychosocial functions, the mentor guides and protects the protégé's interests, and is thus likely to convey the necessary knowledge, and information concerning the organizational history, goals, language, politics, people and performance. (p. 622)

A mentor can be highly beneficial to a protégé in navigating these troubled waters of learning the work culture (Athey et al., 2000). The beliefs, values and norms internalized by employees is the organizational culture that determine which attitudes and behaviors are rewarded (Schein, 1992). Benabou and Benabou (1999) found that "A mentor can help newcomers make contacts for advancement, learn the organization's culture and enhance work effectiveness" (p. 7). They stated:

Official channels of communication are slow and cumbersome, but high-level mentors close to strategic decisions can quickly communicate the meaning of these decisions to their protégés, facilitating the adoption of company values.

(p. 9)

Exposure

People, of all colors, will tend to gravitate towards others that look and sound like themselves (Dreher & Cox, 1996). Especially when skin color is similar and socio-economic levels are similar. *Brown vs. Board of Education* and Affirmative Action may have opened educational doors for People of Color, but the economics of living have still remained a wide gap from the majority (Dudziak, 2000). Because the majority of the management ranks are White and male, it is almost inevitable that any mentor of any person of color or female will be a cross-race and or cross-gender dyad. Educational doors that have opened to People of Color and females, have not opened others doors in terms of employment, housing, private clubs, or equal status in every day life.

The economics of not being paid the same for the same job performed as their White counterparts leaves less money for vacations, cultural or art exposures, and leisure time. People of Color may not be able to have the same exposure to things on a worldwide basis. Therefore, in social settings on the job, minorities may not participate in conversations, or they may be excluded from conversations that do not include popular cultural references such as sports or the latest television programs. This exclusion further widens the chasm between those “in the know” White males and the excluded, females and People of Color. Deals are made and key assignments are brokered in these social circles from the lunch tables in the cafeteria to the break rooms across corporate America. If the mentor does not make a conscious effort to include the protégé in these “spontaneous” discussions, the protégé will continue to be excluded and bypassed for high-profile assignments within the company.

Realm of Thinking

While Blacks are required to reproduce “White consciousness” as a condition of participation in society, and continuously find their own consciousness contested in day-to-day interactions, no such requirement exists for Whites who can assume the naturalness of their reality without consequences or repercussions. (Kersten, 2000, p. 239)

People of Color are taught from an early age, you have to be “better than”. That “better than” credo is in reference to any White person you may encounter doing anything a person of color is attempting. This credo builds a false sense of meritocracy in a person of color. Because it is not all about what you know, and frequently about whom you know. A person of color may have earned the right to attend a prestigious university, graduated with honors, and gotten an entry level job at a prestigious firm of choice. But the education at that point has just started. That person of color has yet to discover what they don’t know. Education is only one of the stepping stones. Key projects within a company are another. Pet projects for a rising Vice-President are yet another. Yet how does the new employee of color learn these elements if a mentor does not go above and beyond the strictly career advancement protocol? Social networking opportunities may be few and far between when the new employee is the *only* person of color in a department. There are no others persons who look like themselves to gravitate towards. And even though the minority may be on the same economic level as their White peers, the White peers may not extend the hand of comradeship because the person of color does not look like them.

Once a person of color or female is in an organization dominated by White males at the management level, it may not occur to them that there is anything more to advancement than meritocracy. It is not in their realm of thinking. After all, good grades have brought them this far.

Up to this point, it has been achievement. The socio-economic status of the female or person of color may also add to the knowledge gap of the work culture. It may be inconceivable to a woman to come in an hour early or stay an hour late each day when they have primary responsibility for their family unit. By the same token, a White married male with a stay at home wife may not even think to consider why a female is not pulling the same hours he has engrained in his schedule. The female, not working the extra hours can be construed as not being a team player, or not being able to handle the pressures of the job, which is far from reality. Protégés that are in a minority status, frequently have different demands on their time than the White males that may be their mentors or in the majority of management.

A single parent for example who must pick their kids up from daycare or face significant financial penalties (late fees), on top of the already high cost of daycare, has a much different perspective on staying late at the office than those who don't. It would not occur to the new single parent employee to even think that staying late may be one of the nuanced values of an organization, because it is not a reality for that employee. Mentors must be able to bring to light nuances of an organization in addition to the career advancement that they typically provide. This is so important when the mentor and protégé are cross-race or cross gender dyad. In their survey of a large accounting firm, Forret and de Janasz (2005), found that having a mentor significantly impacted the protégé's favorable perception of how the organization appreciated their work and family demands. They stated:

By providing historical background, mentors can illustrate how far their organization has come in terms of providing a supportive work environment for employees to cope with their work-family balance issues. This socialization for the protégés can convey an organization's attitudes towards achieving work-family balance. (p. 480)

Cross-Race

Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2004) state, “Mentoring across cultural boundaries is an especially delicate dance that juxtaposes group norms and societal pressures and expectations with individual personality traits” (p. 15). Because the majority of managers are White, the chances are great that a protégé of a color will be in a cross-race dyad. Companies tout this reason when implementing formal mentoring programs. Their view is that if they did not make mentoring formal, it would not happen with People of Color and females because managers in the majority are typically more attracted to employees who look like themselves. Mentors that take on a protégé of a different race need to be made aware that there are differences other than skin color. People of Color, African-American, Asian-American, and Hispanic-American are more oriented toward the good of the group and have a more collectivist approach to tasks than are European-Americans (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991).

Corporations need to train mentors in cross-race dyads that minorities are not a monolithic block. That just like them, not every minority has the same worldview, life experiences, or same economic status. People of Color are dealing with their own social identity. Social identity can help the protégé have a more rewarding mentoring experience. Depending on the social identity of the person of color, having a mentor that is a White male may be viewed as oppressive, and not necessarily as an opportunity. Therefore, depending on where a protégé is in that spectrum could depend on how the not-so-subtle messages of work culture are received and incorporated by the protégé of color. Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2004) write:

In cross-cultural mentoring, what should be a simple matter of negotiations between two persons becomes arbitration between historical legacies, contemporary racial tensions and societal protocols. Cross-cultural mentoring relationships are affiliations that exist

between unequals who are conducting their relationship on a hostile American stage with a societal script contrived to undermine the success of the partnership. (p. 11)

Cross-race dyads have an impact on both mentor and protégé. In terms of the mentor, they may face a backlash from their peers. Mentoring someone of a different race could be construed as giving away the company secrets. The peer group of the mentor may not have embraced the need for diversity into their ranks. The sharing of power that the majority group holds may not be willingly shared among members who are not of the same race as themselves. Enveloping a different viewpoint in future decisions as a result of mentoring a person of color, may be an unwelcomed long-term effect by the majority. It is one thing to aid in the technical knowledge of a protégé's work experience; it is a whole different ballgame to clue that protégé in on the inner workings of how decisions are made and who gets advanced. Brooks and Clunis (2007) found that "White men seem to be the most powerful mentors in terms of organizational rewards, but they are difficult for race/ethnic group members to find" (p.242). Blancero and DelCampo (2005) state:

With the underrepresentation of women, Blacks, Asians, Native Americans and Hispanics in the leadership of Fortune 500 companies, these individuals have difficulty finding people with whom they identify and could conceivably create a mentor-mentee relationship. The perception of inequality among women and Blacks can be traced through years of popular press, litigation, and scholarly research, but the "new power brokers" in terms of U.S. minority groups are Hispanic Americans. (p. 31)

The protégé may also face backlash from members of their same race and those of the majority: Why is that person being selected? What right does that one have to the inner workings? We have always had the power in this organization. The protégé must deal with negotiating the

relationship with their mentor as well as negotiating the relationship with work peers while simultaneously learning the workings of the organization that aren't in the employee handbook. The same can hold for cross-gender dyads in mentoring relationships.

In their study of Black human resource developers in the United States, Barrett et al. (2004) found that race influenced career development in two ways: 1) as a hardship, and 2) influenced the mentoring they received. Participants agreed that being mentored was important. In his qualitative study of cross-race dyads, Thomas (1993) found that when colleagues shared complementary racial perspectives, their relationship could evolve as mentor-protégé relationships with psychosocial support and instrumental (career) support. Without shared racial perspectives, the senior person could only serve as a sponsor, providing career guidance and no psychosocial support. Although most would say mentoring is beneficial, the benefits of mentoring are not the same for all races.

Brooks and Clunis (2007) found that Whites seem to benefit more than Hispanics or Blacks. And Blake-Beard (1999) found that a protégé's race is a significant predictor of compensation and promotion rate. Other studies have noted that mentors of the same race and gender provide more psychosocial support (Brooks & Clunis, 2007; Dreher & Cox, 1996). In their study of White mentor-Black protégé mentoring dyads, Brown et al. (2008) found that "psychosocial interaction is the gateway that leads to a protégé's career benefits and positive role modeling behaviors" (p. 736). They posit that human resource managers should encourage the formation of mentoring dyads based more on attitudinal factors rather than racial factors.

Cross-Gender

Women comprise 57% of the workforce. As they move up the corporate ladder, mentoring is still in large part done by males, as they comprise the greater share of the executive

ranks. Until more women reach the management ranks, there will be an abundance of cross-gender mentoring dyads, male mentor, female protégé (Blake-Beard, 1999). There are challenges to cross-gender dyads that are not evident with same sex dyads. Females are considered to have primary responsibility for their family unit, however that is comprised. As such, male mentors need to be made aware of the demands on a female protégé's time outside of the workplace. Females are known to be more nurturing and considering of all individuals, which can lead to greater inclusiveness in decision-making within organizations. Male mentors, in terms of their realm of thinking, may not understand how females arrive at their decisions or why they don't see things the way the majority males see them. In terms of the female's positionality, they need to be aware that they do see things differently, and this strength can be viewed as an attribute or an obstacle depending on the organization. Females will need to rely on their mentors to aid them in having their voices heard in organizations where diversity may be preached but not embraced.

In addition, cross-gender dyads still have to deal with the idea of sexual tension. This can be as much of a hindrance to the mentor, in terms of his willingness to have a female protégé because of the flack or ribbing he may receive from his male colleagues. Of course the hindrance to the female is much more pronounced. Males may not want to mentor females, and females may face a backlash from her peers that she is being mentored because the male mentor wants to have sex with them. For the most part, I would like to think that this is less of an issue than the misunderstandings that results from a male mentor not understanding the demands on females or how typically male dominated organizations view females in the workplace. Blake-Beard (2001) writes:

Women involved in formal cross-gender mentoring relationships have to manage the perception that the boundaries of the relationships have not transgressed appropriate levels of intimacy. Whether or not the relationship has actually crossed that line is almost irrelevant. The potential ramifications that may occur as a result of sexual innuendo and rumors range from mean-spirited gossip to career-ending decisions. Because of the power differential between women and men, as well as a double standard about appropriate behavior, the ramifications may be more deleterious for the female protégé involved in the relationship than the male mentor. (p. 341)

Mentors can also help protégés with job responsibilities. Mentors may at times need to intervene when protégés are under conflicting expectations from various role senders (Baugh et al., 1996). Mentoring should help the protégé with skills to manage role ambiguity and conflict. Social role theory suggests people are expected to behave within culturally defined gender roles. Mentors must help women navigate the conflict with regard to appropriate work and gender role behavior (Baugh et al., 1996). Their study found that the effects of mentoring were more pronounced for women than men. This was attributed to the disjuncture between gender and work roles creating greater difficulties in socialization. Mentors were found to help with the socialization process within organizations (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2002). To the extent that the culture is male dominated, women characterize such a culture as exclusionary and claim that upper management is unaware of the impediments to women's advancement and assimilation (Bierema, 2001). Women faced with these challenges may leave an organization, become less satisfied with their careers and commitment to the organization (Jandeska & Kraimer, 2005). They suggest:

That senior management encourage organizational norms and values that reflect collectivistic cultures. Women had more positive attitudes and were more likely to engage in mentoring and citizenship behaviors if they perceived the organization to value cooperation, participation, and other collectivistic traits. Collectivism seemed to have a stronger relationship to women's attitudes than did the masculine cultural values. (p. 473)

Mentoring can indeed be helpful to People of Color. Organizations must remember that not only do mentors need to provide instrumental and psychosocial support as evidenced widely throughout the literature; but mentors must provide the inner knowledge, "the social knowledge" of an organization. Only then will protégés in the minority be on a more level playing field with protégés in the majority.

Obstacles for People of Color in the Workplace

People of Color face several obstacles in the workplace which are not always in place for people in the majority. They may face negative stereotypes from co-workers, under constant observation as if a fish in a bowl, or experience feelings of isolation from being the only person of color in their work environment. People of Color may also experience a lack of mentors, having their credentials questioned, and self-identity crises over where they fit within their work organization and their home life. Each of these will be discussed in greater detail.

People of Color are often stereotyped within organizations. They are not only stereotyped in terms of what behaviors are expected from them, but often stereotyped by what positions the majority think they are capable of holding (Barrett, et al., 2004). Stereotyping can lead to increased stress, decreased job satisfaction, and an unwilling to commit to an organization. Negative stereotypes can add to the frustration for People of Color in obtaining mentors (Bell & Nkomo, 2001).

In some situations, being the only person of color can cause that individual to constantly be put in the spotlight. They are examined, as if under a microscope, to see what they are capable of, how they handle situations, can they “cut it”. They are like the proverbial fish in a bowl. Constantly being watched and observed. Often being the only, causes stress and feelings of isolation (Bell & Nkomo, 2001; King & Ferguson, 2001; Richie et al., 1997). Many People of Color have noted that isolation is particularly felt in meetings with the majority, where their ideas are not listened to, or often “stolen” by majority members (Barrett et al., 2004).

For many of People of Color, they have the gift/burden/experience of being the first in a specific workplace or organization. For instance, manufacturing facilities may have several members of colors out on the factory floor, but there may never have been a person of color managing those workers. Or they may be the first in the Finance or Marketing departments of this company. As such, these individuals frequently find themselves the beneficiaries of being the only person of color in that environment. Because co-workers may think they do not know how to interact with someone other than themselves, they may shy away from social pleasantries, thus leaving the new worker alone.

People of Color are subjected to challenges to their credibility and authority. Affirmative action has done as much to help as it has to hinder. Some in the majority feel that People of Color only attained their positions because of affirmative action (Barrett et al., 2004). This constant barrage can lead the worker of color to self-doubt, questioning their capabilities. The irony is that in a lot of cases, they have more education and or experience than their counterparts, which was required to get them in the door. The co-workers may have certain expectations about what the person of color is capable of doing. There may also be certain expectations placed on the individual to “prove” themselves worthy of having the position (Ferguson & King, 1996).

Persons of color face multiple allegiances. They have allegiances to their family, neighborhood, culture and workplace. These can sometimes be in alignment but may also be at odds with one another. When a person of color is “the only” in their workplace, they may begin to question their own identity and how much of their Blackness, Brownness or Yellowness must they exhibit and/or should they exhibit (Cox et al., 1991; Forret & de Janasz, 2005). There are many obstacles that People of Color face in the workplace in regards to being mentored. As a result, critical race theory will be used to help shape the analysis of data gathered in this research.

Critical Race Theory

Critical Race Theory (CRT) has its beginnings in critical legal studies at Harvard Law School (HLS) and a struggle with the Dean of HLS over the curriculum’s marginalization of race. I will discuss the beginnings of critical race theory, the basic tenets of critical race theory, and how critical race theory applies to corporate settings.

Beginnings

Some would claim the pivotal point in kicking the Civil Rights Movement into gear was Rosa Parks not surrendering her seat on a public bus. Similarly, by almost all accounts, the beginnings of Critical Race Theory can be traced to the departure of Professor Derrick Bell from Harvard Law School and the reluctance of the school’s dean to have Professor Bell’s courses taught when he departed. Kimberle Crenshaw (2002), one of the founders of CRT remembered,

Not only did our dean question the value of that a course such as “Constitutional Law and Minority Issues” would add to our curriculum, but he also made the rather startling claim that there were few if any People of Color in the country “qualified” to be hired at HLS.

(p. 11)

This struggle was a galvanizing force to students, critical legal scholars and practitioners. The Black Student Law Association generated a list of more than thirty minority professors to teach the course. By year end, the course still remained unstaffed and the school had hired ten White male professors. A coalition of all the student-of-color groups was formed and they organized an “Alternative Course.” This course invited academics of color to come to HLS to teach chapters out of Bell’s book. This course, along with the struggle that made it happen, brought together a critical mass of academics that were intellectually connected. Proficiencies in nurturing cross-race coalitions, as well as negotiating the institutional politics of race were gained. CRT was forged in an attempt to understand the inquiry focused on the relationship between law and race (Crenshaw, 2002). Persons of color had always been present in varying degrees with Critical Legal Studies (CLS).

A pivotal event in CLS helped in the further development of critical race theory. At the 1985 CLS conference, which was organized by the feminist wing of CLS, women of color began discussing race. The question that spearheaded the workshop on racism was “what is it about the Whiteness of CLS that keeps People of Color at bay?” (Crenshaw, 2002). Two years later, the 1987 CLS conference became the first formal meeting of the minority caucus within CLS. Founders of CRT, Denise Carty-Bennia, Kimberle Crenshaw, Harlon Dalton, Richard Delgado, Mari Matsuda, Gerald Torres and Patricia Williams all spoke about the racial politics of the CLS. This led to a subsequent development of critical race theory which sought to address. Critical race theory looks at race as central to the laws and policies of the United States. It goes beyond trying to have everyone “get along” and eschews the thought that ridding people of ignorance will get rid of racism (Harris, 2000, 2001). Valdes, Culp and Harris (2002) stated:

From the beginning, CRT has been dedicated to antiracist social transformation through an antisubordination analysis that would be “intersectional” or “multidimensional,” taking into account the complex layers of individual and group identity that help to construct social and legal positions. (p. 2)

The beginnings of the CRT movement have been traced from Derrick Bell leaving Harvard law School to the development of the theory by student activities. Critical race theory has grown to include critical White studies, Latina/o issues, gay and lesbian issues, and critical race feminists, all seeking to challenge the subordination and oppression permitted by legal discourse. CRT is grounded in certain tenets which will now be discussed.

Tenets of Critical Race Theory

The critical race theory movement is a collection of scholars and activist seeking to understand and transform the relationship among power, race and racism. CRT looks at the broader perspective of economics, context, and history, and questions the foundations of the neutral principles of constitutional law and equality theory (Crenshaw, 2002; Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Harris, 2001). The first tenet of critical race theory is that racism is normal. That is, racism is the usual way society does business. Racism is not a matter of individuals behaving badly, but it is systemic. A “blindness” to race will eliminate racism.

A second tenet of critical race theory deals with the idea of interest convergence. Simply stated, White people will tolerate the activities of People of Color in obtaining racial justice if and only if these activities promote and converge with the interests of White people. The example most cited here is *Brown v. Board of Education* (Bell, 1992a, 2004). Although heralded as a triumph of civil rights litigation, CRT posits that this decision would have been defined differently had the United States not been so concerned with its foreign policies of the time. The

convergence between the United States image in the world as a beacon of democracy for all and the interests of Black people to end segregation led to the ruling.

A third tenet of critical race theory is that of social construction. That is, race does not correspond to any genetic or biological reality. Delgado and Stefancic (2001) state, “Races are categories that society invents, manipulates, or retires when convenient (p. 7).” In addition, the dominant society racializes different minorities at different times. Related to this racialization, is the fact that each race has an evolving history and its own origins. In addition, no person has a singular identity. A Black female may be a Republican. A White male may be working class, a gay male or Jewish. People have different allegiances and identities.

A fourth tenet holds that minority status brings with it a presumed competence to speak about racism and race (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Through legal storytelling and narrative analysis, writers of color are urged to tell of their experiences with racism and the legal system. Storytelling is used by CRT scholars to challenge White hegemony and racial oppression that render minorities “less than” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Counter-stories are used to “shatter complacency, challenge the dominant discourse on race, and further the struggle for racial reform” and focus on telling the tales of people who are marginalized by White society (Solorzano & Yosso, 2001). Bell’s “The Space Traders” (1992b) is one best known examples of a counter-story. In this scenario aliens offer the U.S. government solutions to all its ills in exchange for all American Blacks to return to the alien’s planet. Americans vote to accept the accept the aliens’ proposal and American Blacks are rounded up, chained and forced to leave the United States in the same manner their African ancestors arrived. Bell (2000) asked audiences how they think Americans would vote today and the majority thinks that Blacks would be forced to leave with the aliens.

This section of the literature review focused on the history and the tenets of critical race theory. The basic tenets are (1) racism is a normal part of American society, (2) literary narratives are used to challenge the experience of White European Americans as the normative standard, (3) as long as there is “interest convergence” White people will tolerate the activities of minorities in obtaining racial justice, and (4) the social context of racial oppression is key to understanding racism. Racism can not be fought in a vacuum. It must be fought alongside all other oppression or injustice such as sexism, homophobia, and economic exploitation. In the next section, the application of CRT to organizational settings will be discussed.

Application of CRT

Critical Race Theory is about advocating for people at the margins, those who hold minority status. Trevino, Harris, and Wallace (2008) state: It spotlights the form and function of dispossession, disenfranchisement, and discrimination across a range of social institutions, and then seeks to give voice to those who are victimized and displaced (p. 8).

The lens of critical race theory will be used to help explain these inequities in corporations. Valdes et al. (2002) discussed: “Thus CRT’s challenge to historic arrangements, liberal curatives, and backlash politics has addressed not only the practices of far-away courts and mighty corporations but also the very make-up of our own profession (p. 4)”. I will be looking at how well mentoring actually helps those of color advance. Does mentoring actually achieve its goals of helping protégés of color learn the work culture, make connections and advance within organizations? Critical race theory will help me view my data through its tenets to decide if mentoring is helping those of color. Are the policies and procedures corporations put in place addressing the issues of minorities or systematically reinforcing the narrative of the majority?

Critical race theorists do not believe there is objective truth. Much like merit, it is a social construct created to suit the dominant group (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Critical race theorists believe that a globalizing economy has removed manufacturing jobs from inner cities and created information technology jobs that minorities are ill-equipped to get (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). One example of CRT's interest convergence is that of the White dominated environmental justice movement and minority communities. Corporations typically like to locate socially undesirable facilities, wastewater treatment plants, landfills, prisons in minority neighborhoods. Part of their reasoning is that it brings jobs to blighted areas. Neighborhood activists claim that companies are taking advantage of a community's financial vulnerability and is actually predatory behavior (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). The convergence of conservationists with the activists could ensure that the interests of both are met.

Under the "interest convergence" tenet of CRT, it could be argued that mentoring only works when the interest of minorities trying to get ahead, converges with a corporate interest such as selling to a specific market. For example, a marketing arm of a corporation may promote a person of color to head a marketing group when they are trying to market to that person's racial/color group. In this instance, the tenet of "interest convergence" would be clearly evident. Valdes et al. (2002) stated: As the practitioners of CRT increase in number, in ethnic, gender, and sexual diversity, and as they continue to speak their perceived heresies in a "voice of color," they-we-increasingly are likely to be regarded as a threat by the traditional guardians of economic and social power, both within and beyond the legal professions. (p. 4)

Chapter Summary

This literature review focused on the definition of mentoring, benefits of mentoring, obstacles for People of Color in the workplace and how critical race theory will be used to analyze the collected data. The benefits of mentoring are clearly related in the literature for those in the majority. But for People of Color, it is not as clear as to how they obtain mentors, the functions of mentoring they receive, or if mentoring has increased their chances of promotion.

There is a need for research that focuses specifically on how mentoring has affected the promotability for People of Color, and how the receiving of instrumental and or psychosocial support has been of greater benefit to their attaining key positions within their organization. Through this research mentors will hopefully be able to understand what aspects of mentoring People of Color value, and what aspects of mentoring they are predominately receiving.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to understand mentoring as it relates to increasing the numbers of People of Color into executive and key decision-making positions. This study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1) What is the relationship between perceived quality of mentoring and perceived promotability?
- 2) What is the relationship between mentoring access, protégé race and the perceived opportunity for development?
- 3) What is the relationship among protégé race, mentoring functions received and perceived value?

This chapter is organized into six sections describing the study's population, instrumentation, variables, data collection, data preparation, data analysis, and limitations.

Study Population

I sampled a social organization within my church. This particular organization is comprised of self-identified professionals that cover the gamut of professional positions and organizations, private, federal and state. There are over 300 registered members. In addition, participants were asked to forward the survey link to other professionals who they believe may be interested in the research. Through the snowball technique, word of mouth was utilized in hopes of making the sample more representative of the true population.

There were 530 respondents to the survey. Of these, 505 were usable for the analysis of data. The 25 that were discarded were due to numerous missing answers and the omission of demographic data about themselves. Of the respondents, 47% were African American, 46% were Caucasian, and the remaining 7% identified as Asian, Hispanic, Native American, and Other, represented in Figure 2. Females made up 60% of the respondents and males were 40%. The average age of the respondent was 47 with a standard deviation of 11. The population was well educated with 44% possessing graduate degrees and 36% possessing a four-year degree shown in Figure 3. A significant portion of the study population, 28% was well compensated, identifying their salaries at \$100,000 and above as shown in Figure 4. Finally, 51% identified as having mentors within their organization. (See Appendix D for full data)

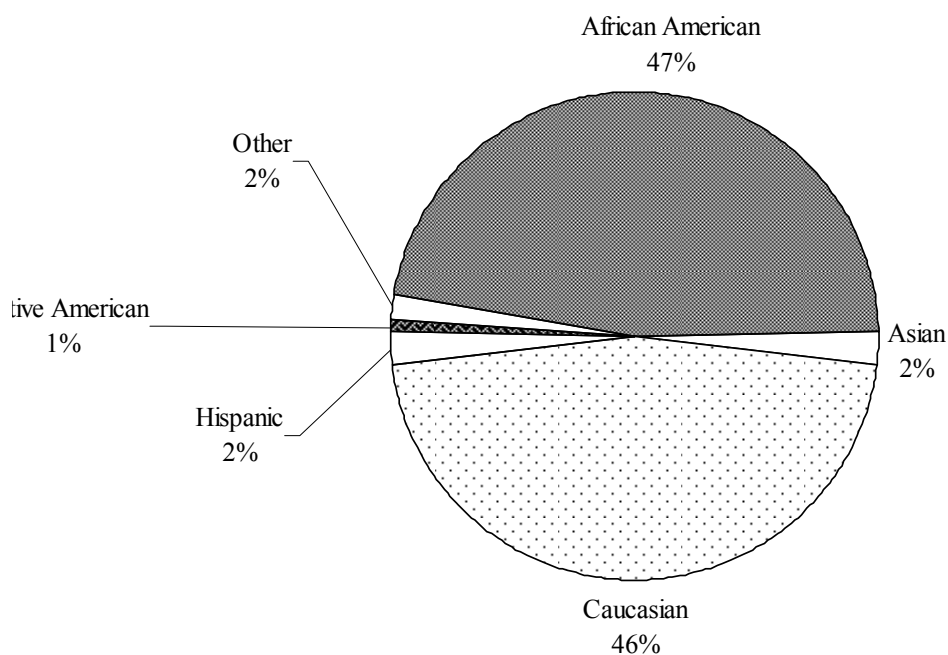


Figure 2

Race of Respondents

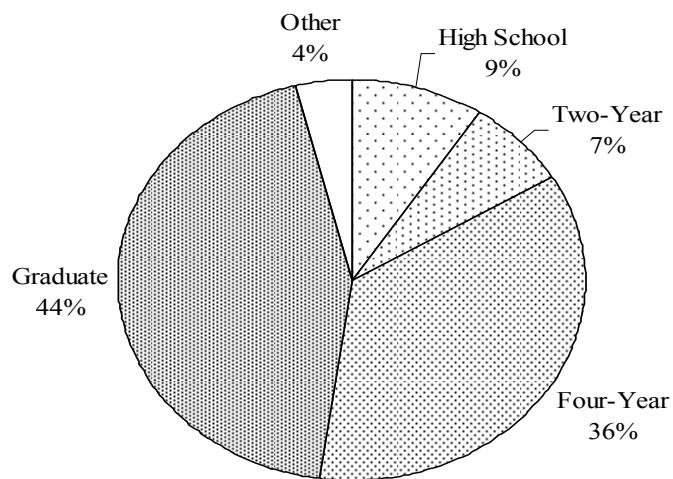


Figure 3

Education Level of Respondents

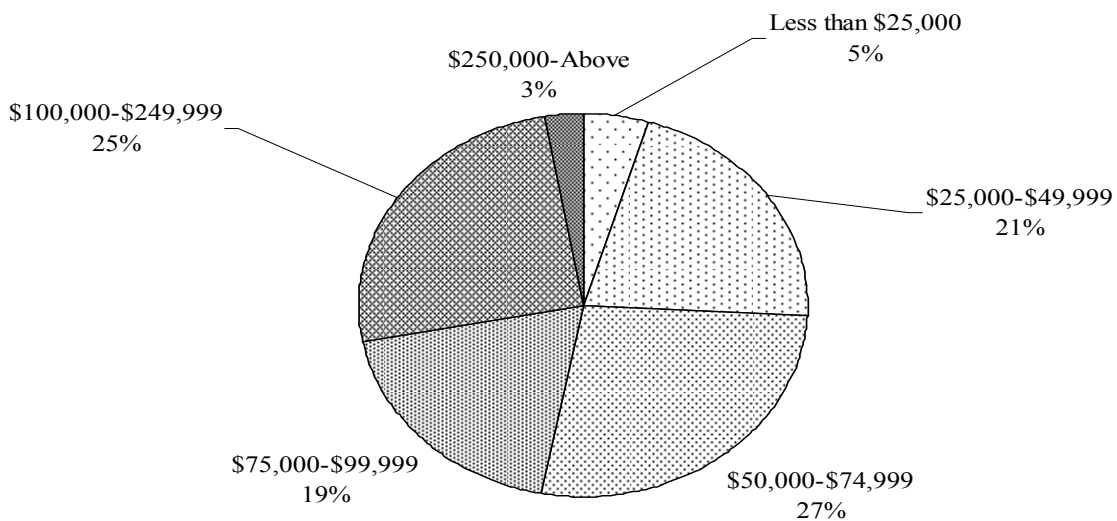


Figure 4

Income Level of Respondents

The protégé's race and the mentor's race are depicted below. (See Table 1)

Table 1

Race of Protégés and the Races of Their Mentors

Protégé's Race	Mentor's Race	<i>n</i>
Black	Black	58
	White	57
White	Black	12
	White	107

Study Variables

According to Rea and Parker (2005) the use of surveys is an acceptable and effective means of data collection. Furthermore, a survey can accommodate a potentially large population (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Survey instruments are used to understand people's interests and concerns. Resulting data should reflect the descriptive, behavioral, or preferential characteristics of the respondents. Self-reporting research is commonly performed by surveys (Hutchinson, 2004). Self-reporting research entails the compilation of information from all members of a population or sample and this information is standardized and quantifiable (Fowler, 2002).

The instrument was used to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: People of Color will have less experience than Whites with mentoring.

Hypothesis 2a: When mentored, People of Color will receive more psychosocial support than Whites.

Hypothesis 2b: When mentored, People of Color will receive less instrumental support than Whites.

Hypothesis 3: The perceived benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for Whites will be higher than the benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for People of Color.

Based upon the work of Ragins and McFarlin (1990), the Mentor Role Instrument (MRI) was utilized to assess mentor functions, both instrumental and psycho-social. Their 33-item instrument has three items for each of their defined mentor roles. Responses for this study were obtained using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The MRI has proven reliability and validity. The coefficient alphas for the eleven mentor roles ranged from .63 to .91 in the Ragins & McFarlin study (1990). In this study, coefficient alphas for all respondents ranged from .68 to .93. For respondents with mentors, coefficient alphas ranged from .74 to .97. (See Table 2)

Table 2

Coefficient Alphas

Mentoring Roles	Cronbach's Alpha All Respondents	Cronbach's Alpha Respondents with Mentors
Sponsor	.78	.92
Coach	.88	.75
Protect	.83	.91
Challenging Assignments	.93	.97
Exposure	.80	.90
Role Model	.76	.85
Friendship	.87	.92
Social	.87	.91
Parent	.90	.88
Counsel	.68	.74
Accept	.89	.96
Instrumental	.87	.93
Psychosocial	.87	.92
Career Advance w Mentor	N/A	.84

In addition to the 33-items used to define mentor roles, two constructs were developed for this survey. The first was defined as Access to Mentoring. If a participant did not have a mentor, they were asked to rate, using a 5-point Likert scale, from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree, what they felt had impacted their access to mentoring. The six items listed below were developed to assess their access.

- 1) Qualifications of people in the organization to be potential mentors

- 2) Comfort of people in the organization to be potential mentors
- 3) The relative costs-benefits of mentoring
- 4) Current job responsibilities of potential mentors
- 5) Time limitations on potential mentors in the organization
- 6) Expectations of my performance that would impact the perceived performance of my potential mentor

The coefficient alpha for this access to mentoring construct was .72. The second construct that was developed for this survey was Career Advancement. Once again, using a 5-point Likert scale, from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree, participants with mentors were asked if having a mentor had advanced their career. The two items listed below were developed to assess their career development.

- 1) Has increased my chances for promotion
- 2) Has led me to my promotion

The coefficient alpha for this construct was .84.

Independent Variables

Based on the literature, the following information was obtained from each participant and used as my independent variables: age, age of mentor, race, race of mentor, gender, and gender of mentor.

Dependent Variables

Based on a review of existing research, there are a number of variables that influence mentoring outcomes. Each of the following variables was assessed as possible covariates in this study: psychosocial or instrumental support (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). The roles include sponsor, coach, protect, challenging assignments, and exposure, which make up the instrumental

function. Friendship, social, parent, role model, counseling and acceptance make up the psychosocial function. The roles, survey α 's, items used to define the roles, and Ragins & McFarlin's α 's are listed below. (See Table 3)

Table 3

Roles, Mentor Role Items, Survey α , Ragins & McFarlin α

Roles	Role Items	Survey α	R&M α
Instrumental Roles			
Sponsor	Help me attain desirable positions	.92	.88
	Use their influence to support my advancement in the organization		
	Use their influence in the organization for my benefit		
Coach	Help me learn about the organization	.75	.75
	Give me advice on how to attain recognition in the organization		
	Suggest specific strategies for achieving career aspirations		
Protect	Protect me from those who may be out to get me	.91	.77
	“Run interference” for me in the organization		
	Shield me from damaging contact with important people in the organization		
Challenging Assignments	Give me tasks that require me to learn new skills	.97	.94
	Provide me with challenging assignments		
	Assign me tasks that push me into developing new skills		
Exposure	Help me be more visible in the organization	.90	.84
	Create opportunities for me to impress important people in the organization		
	Bring my accomplishments to the attention of important people in the organization		
Psycho-social Roles			
Role Model	Serve as a role model for me	.85	.80
	Be someone I identify with		
	Represent who I want to be		
Friendship	Be someone I can confide in	.92	.79
	Provide support and encouragement		

	Be someone I can trust		
Social	Frequently get together informally after work by ourselves Frequently socialize one-on-one outside the work setting Frequently have one-on-one, informal social interactions	.91	.92
Parent	Be like a mother/father to me Remind me of one of my parents Treat me like a daughter/son	.88	.85
Counseling	Serve as a sounding board for me to develop and understand myself Guide my professional development Guide my personal development	.74	.66
Acceptance	Accept me as a competent professional See me as being competent Think highly of me	.96	.84
Instrumental	Sponsor, Coach, Protect, Challenging Assignments, and Exposure	.93	
Psychosocial	Friendship, Social, Parent, Role Model, Counseling and Acceptance	.92	

In addition, if the participant did have a mentor, they were asked what type of mentoring relationship it is, formal (company program) or informal (personal contact). The type of mentoring relationship has been shown to significantly affect the outcome and satisfaction with mentoring (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990).

Data Collection

The data collection plan for the study revolved around the use of an online survey. Data was collected through a confidential, self-administered, web-based survey following online and visual design principles outlined by Scheiderman (1997) and Dillman (2000). According to Dillman, web-based surveys have many advantages including refined appearance, easy access, and dynamic interaction. Survey Monkey was used to develop the survey. The survey itself was

designed such that participants were asked to click on the link provided in the introductory e-mail to access the survey. Participants clicked on radio buttons to indicate their responses to each item. The data was then stored for future analysis. In addition, an implied consent form was integrated as required for an IRB-approved University of Georgia study. The survey took less than 10 minutes to complete.

The use of web-based surveys as an alternative to traditional mailed paper surveys has gained popularity in recent years, and research pertaining to this approach to data collection continues to grow (Hewson, Laurent, & Vogel, 1996; Lazar & Preece, 1999; Schmidt, 1997). In addition to reducing both production and distribution costs, the utilization of web-based surveys enables the researcher to reach a wider population within a shortened timeframe (Kimball, 1998). An e-mail was sent soliciting participant's input. The e-mail contained an explanation of the study, assurance of confidentiality, as well as instructions for accessing, completing, and submitting the survey. Finally, respondents were thanked in advance for their participation.

Data Analysis

The data was downloaded into SPSS16.0 for analysis. In an attempt to more fully understand the likely complicated relationships between mentoring outcomes and members of different race/ethnic and gender subgroups, correlation analyses were performed. Appropriate statistical analyses including means, standard deviations, alphas, chi-squared tests, and MANOVAs were utilized to analyze the data in order to answer the research questions. In addition correlations were run to determine if there were relationships among variables.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to understand mentoring as it relates to increasing the numbers of People of Color into executive and key decision-making positions. This study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1) What is the relationship between perceived quality of mentoring and perceived promotability?
- 2) What is the relationship between mentoring access, protégé race and the perceived opportunity for development?
- 3) What is the relationship among protégé race, mentoring functions received and perceived value?

The instrument was used to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: People of Color will have less experience than Whites with mentoring.

Hypothesis 2a: When mentored, People of Color will receive more psychosocial support than Whites.

Hypothesis 2b: When mentored, People of Color will receive less instrumental support than Whites.

Hypothesis 3: The perceived benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for Whites will be higher than the benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for People of Color.

This chapter presents the results of this study's analysis. This chapter is separated into sections corresponding to the hypotheses related to the questions guiding this study. Because the individual numbers responding to something other than Black or White were so small,

statistically insignificant, their data was omitted in the analysis. (See Table 1) Statistical analyses were completed to test hypotheses. When feasible, post-hoc analyses were conducted to further understand a relationship. T-Tests were used to examine differences in mean values between groups. Coefficient alphas were calculated to assess the validity of constructs. MANOVAs were used when analyzing whether changes in the independent variable had significant effects on the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that People of Color will have less experience than Whites with mentoring. Based on the results of the chi-square test, hypothesis 1 was not supported, $\chi^2(1, N = 470) = .55, p = .05$. (See Table 4) Blacks were just as likely as Whites to have mentors. Of the 240 respondents who said they had a mentor, 117 (49%) were Black, and 123 (51%) were White. Further analysis showed that when all responses, both those that had mentors and those that did not, out of 237 Blacks, 117 (49%) said they had a mentor and 120 (51%) said they did not. Out of 233 Whites, 123 (53%) said they had a mentor and 110 (47%) did not, depicted in Figure 5.

Table 4

Chi-squared Test for Mentoring by Race

Test	χ^2	df	Sig
Pearson Chi-Square	.551	1	.45
N of Valid Cases	470		

Note. $p = .05$.

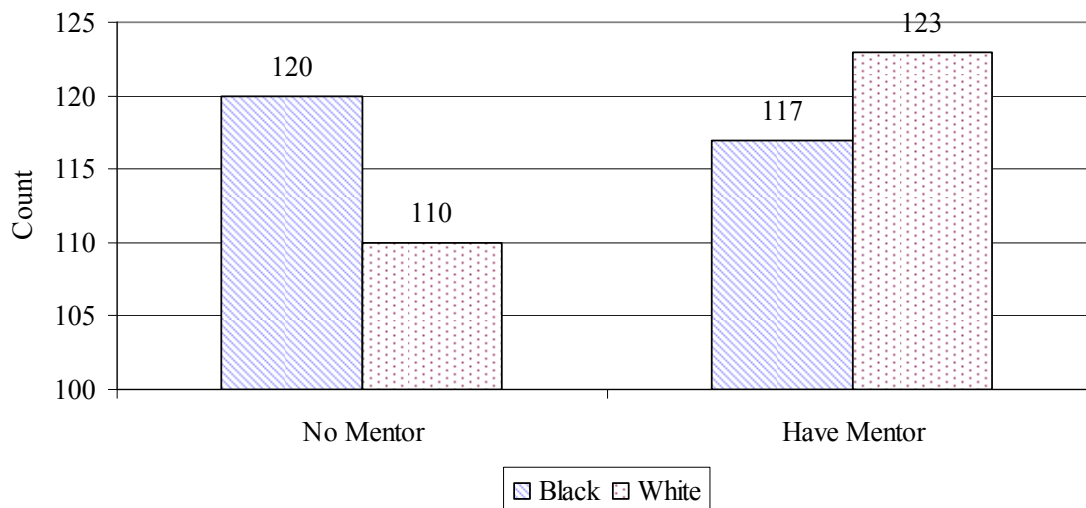


Figure 5

Response to Having a Mentor

Hypothesis 2a

Hypothesis 2a predicted that when mentored, People of Color will receive more psychosocial support than Whites. The psychosocial function of mentoring includes role model, friendship, social, parent, acceptance and counsel. Based on the results of the MANOVA, there is no statistical significance between Blacks ($M = 3.39$, $SD = .68$) and Whites ($M = 3.36$, $SD = .48$), $F(1, 236) = .23$. (See Tables 5 and 6) Hypothesis 2a was not supported. Blacks received psychosocial mentoring to the same degree as Whites.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Mentored Protégés

Mentoring Function/Role	Race	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>
Instrumental	Black	3.53	.75
	White	3.47	.68

Psychosocial	Black	3.39	.68
	White	3.36	.48
Promotability	Black	3.57	1.10
	White	3.33	.88
Sponsor	Black	3.32	.95
	White	3.07	.99
Coach	Black	4.02	.82
	White	4.05	.64
Protect	Black	2.80	.99
	White	2.69	1.03
Challenging Assignments	Black	4.04	1.00
	White	4.18	.88
Exposure	Black	3.46	.99
	White	3.35	.89
Role Model	Black	3.83	.90
	White	4.00	.78
Friendship	Black	4.30	.80
	White	4.47	.46
Social	Black	2.39	.94
	White	2.26	.86
Parent	Black	2.00	.98
	White	1.62	.67
Counsel	Black	3.72	.88
	White	3.69	.80
Acceptance	Black	4.27	.94
	White	4.24	.60

Note. Blacks $n = 115$ Whites $n = 123$

Table 6

MANOVA

Mentoring Functions/Roles	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Mentored Protégés		
Instrumental	.42	.55
Psychosocial	.23	.63
Promotability	3.49	.06
Sponsor	4.26	.04
Coach	.13	.72
Protect	.76	.38
Challenging Assignments	1.29	.26
Exposure	.71	.40
Role Model	2.56	.11
Friendship	4.10	.04
Social	1.37	.24
Parent	12.27	.00
Counsel	.08	.77
Acceptance	.05	.82
All Respondents		
Instrumental	.13	.71
Psychosocial	.34	.56

Note. For Mentored Protégés, $df = 1, N = 236, p = .05$
 For All Respondents, $df = 1, N = 467, p = .05$.

The survey asked all respondents, those with and without a mentor, to answer the 33-items regarding what a mentor should do. The data showed that Whites valued psychosocial mentoring to the same degree as Blacks; Whites ($M = 3.44, SD = .44$), Blacks ($M = 3.53, SD = .60$), $F(1, 467) = .34, p > .05$. (See Tables 6 and 7)

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for All Responses

Mentoring Function/Role	Race	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>
Instrumental	Black	3.61	.61
	White	3.59	.57
Psychosocial	Black	3.51	.54
	White	3.48	.49

Note. Blacks $n = 236$ Whites $n = 233$

Further analysis of respondents who were mentored, showed that Blacks received more of the parent component of psychosocial mentoring than Whites, $F(1, 236) = 12.27, p < .01$.

And Whites felt their mentors provided more friendship, $F(1, 236) = 4.10, p < .05$ as shown in Figure 6. (See Tables 5 and 6)

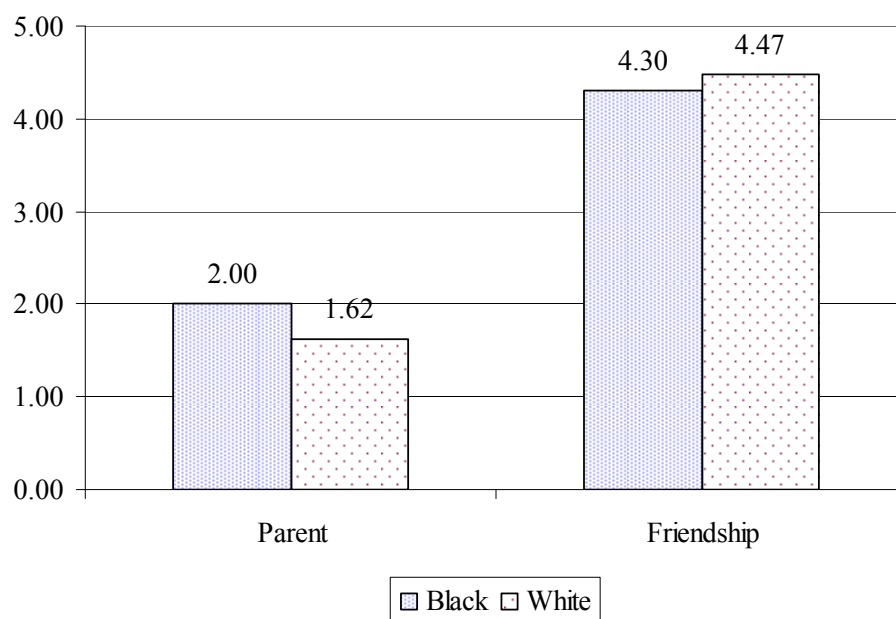


Figure 6

Means of Parent and Friendship Roles

When looking at group interactions, three roles of psychosocial mentoring were statistically significant; role model, friendship, and parent. White protégés with a Black mentor (WB) received more of the role model component than any other dyad combination; WB ($M = 4.53$, $SD = .61$), compared to Black protégés with Black mentors (BB) ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.01$), Black protégés with White mentors (BW) ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .80$), or White protégé with White mentors (WW) ($M = 3.93$, $SD = .61$), $F(1, 228) = 3.01$, $p < .05$ as shown in Figure 7.

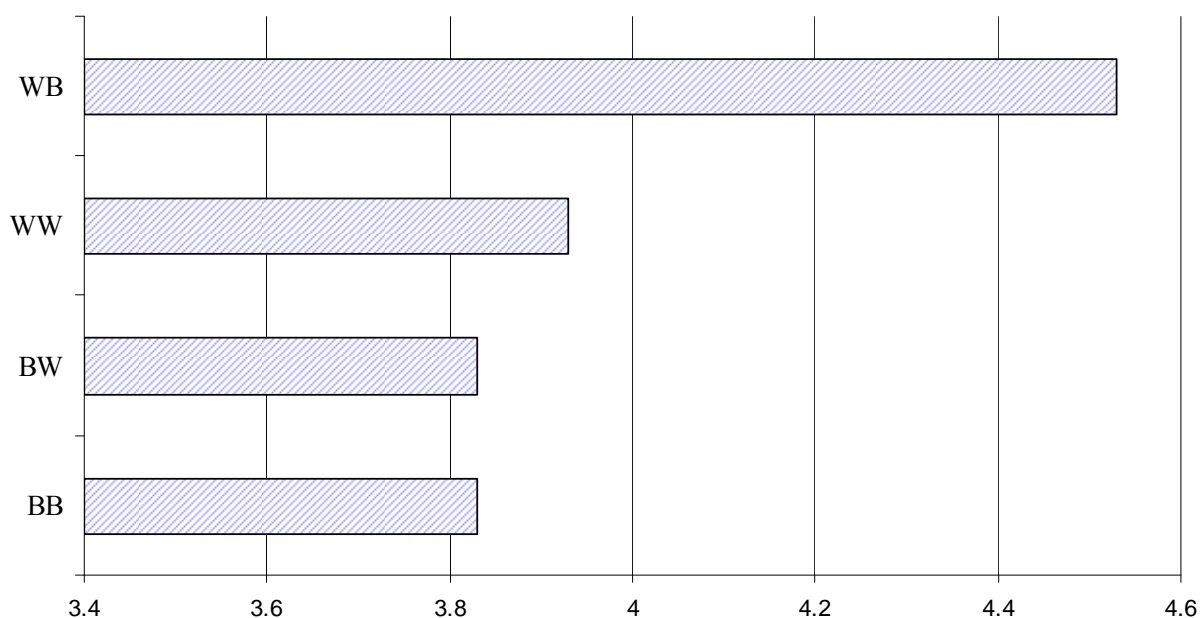


Figure 7

Means of Dyad Combination for Role Model Role

In addition, White protégés with a Black mentor received more of the friendship role than any other dyad combination, $F(1, 228) = 3.22$, $p < .05$ as shown in Figure 8.

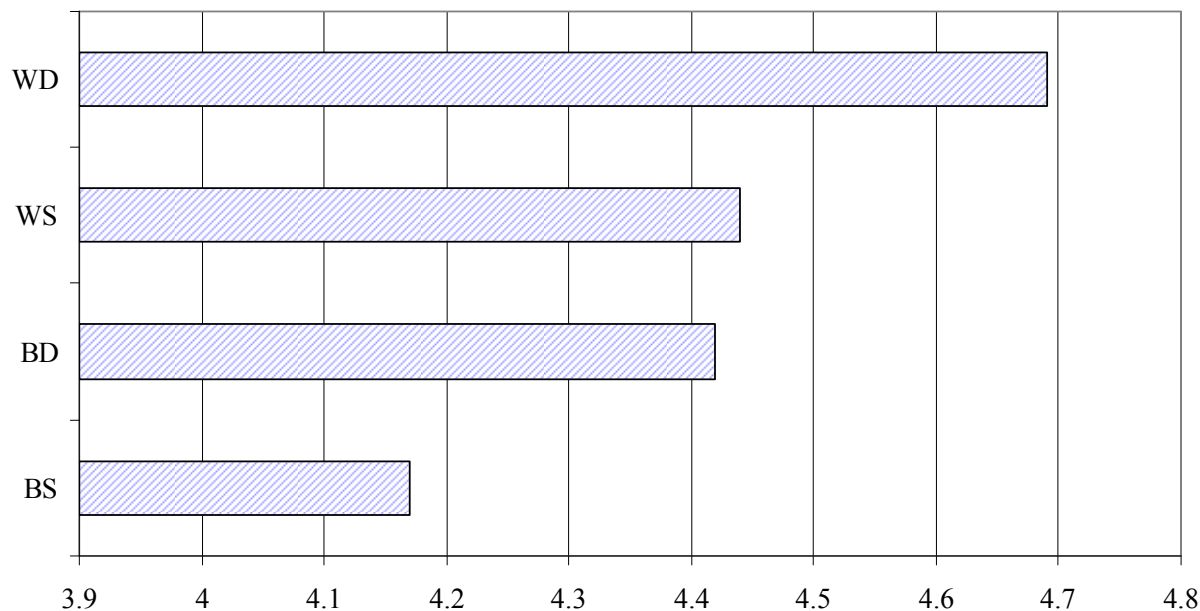


Figure 8

Means of Dyad Combination for Friendship Role

Finally, Black protégés, regardless of the race of their mentors, received more of the parent role when compared to White protégés with mentors of any race, $F(1, 228) = 4.16, p < .05$ as shown in Figure 9.. (See Tables 9 and 10)

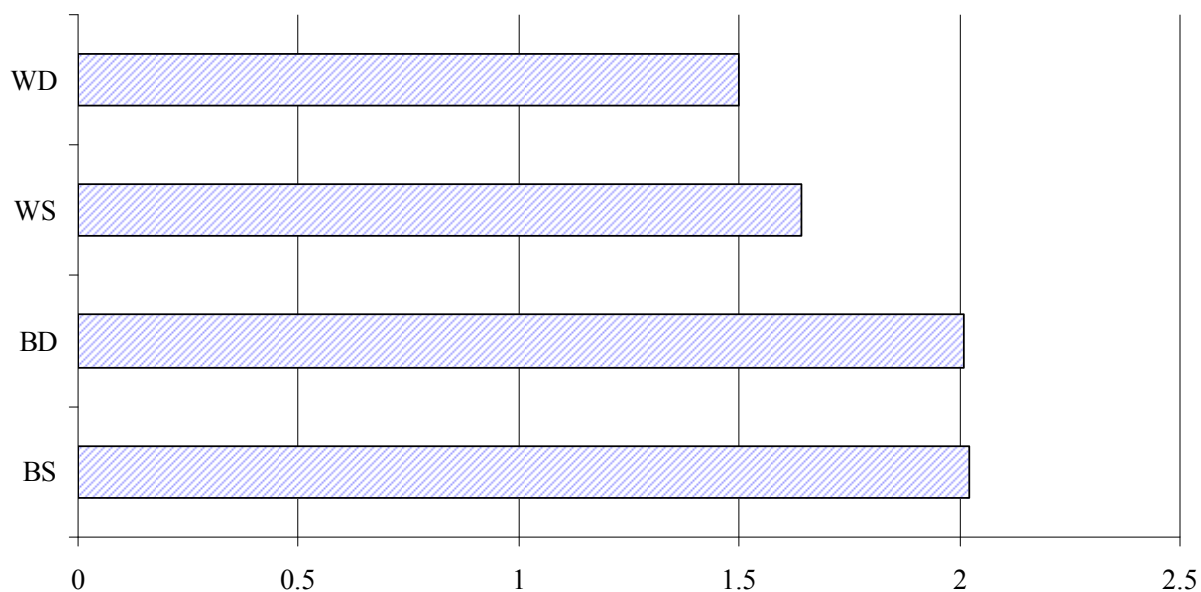


Figure 9

Means of Dyad Combinations for Parent Role

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for Race of Protégé and Race of Mentor Dyads

Mentoring Function/Role	Race	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>
Instrumental	Black same	3.37	.80
	Black different	3.65	.67
	White same	3.40	.63
	White different	3.92	.72
Psychosocial	Black same	3.38	.74
	Black different	3.39	.62
	White same	3.31	.47
	White different	3.66	.46
Promotability	Black same	3.45	1.04
	Black different	3.67	1.15
	White same	3.23	.83
	White different	3.96	1.08

Sponsor	Black same	3.16	.97
	Black different	3.45	.90
	White same	2.96	.92
	White different	3.72	1.23
Coach	Black same	3.84	.94
	Black different	4.18	.64
	White same	4.01	.63
	White different	4.25	.70
Protect	Black same	2.73	.88
	Black different	2.83	1.06
	White same	2.61	.97
	White different	3.36	1.49
Challenging Assignments	Black same	3.79	1.16
	Black different	4.27	.77
	White same	4.14	.66
	White different	4.18	.88
Exposure	Black same	3.36	1.02
	Black different	3.52	.96
	White same	3.27	.86
	White different	3.89	1.14
Role Model	Black same	3.83	1.01
	Black different	3.83	.80
	White same	3.93	.61
	White different	4.53	.61
Friendship	Black same	4.17	.96
	Black different	4.42	.60
	White same	4.44	.46
	White different	4.69	.41
Social	Black same	2.46	.94
	Black different	2.27	.89
	White same	2.20	.81
	White different	2.50	1.13
Parent	Black same	2.02	.93
	Black different	2.01	1.05
	White same	1.64	.66
	White different	1.50	.67

Counsel	Black same	3.73	.94
	Black different	3.69	.82
	White same	3.64	.78
	White different	4.00	.86
Acceptance	Black same	4.21	1.03
	Black different	4.32	.90
	White same	4.18	.59
	White different	4.75	.45

Table 9

MANOVA for Race of Protégé and Race of Mentor

Mentoring Functions/Roles	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Instrumental	3.56	.02
Psychosocial	1.33	.26
Promotability	3.77	.01
Sponsor	4.84	.00
Coach	2.52	.06
Protect	2.28	.08
Challenging Assignments	3.04	.03
Exposure	2.09	.10
Role Model	3.01	.03
Friendship	3.22	.02
Social	1.31	.27
Parent	4.16	.01
Counsel	.70	.55
Acceptance	2.12	.10

Note. $df = 3, N = 228, p = .05$

Hypothesis 2b

Hypothesis 2b predicted that when mentored, People of Color will receive less instrumental mentoring than Whites. The instrumental functions of mentoring are sponsorship, coaching, protecting, challenging assignments, and exposure. Based on MANOVA, there is no statistical significance between Blacks ($M = 3.53, SD = .75$) and Whites ($M = 3.47, SD = .68$),

$F(1, 236) = .42$. (See Tables 5 and 6) Hypothesis 2b was not supported. Blacks received instrumental mentoring to the same degree as Whites. For all respondents, those with and without mentors, Blacks valued instrumental mentoring to the same degree as Whites; Blacks ($M = 3.62, SD = .71$), Whites ($M = 3.62, SD = .55$), $F(1, 236) = .00, p > .05$. (See Tables 5 and 6)

There was statistical significance in Blacks receiving more of the sponsor role than Whites, $F(1, 236) = 4.26, p < .05$ as shown in Figure 10..

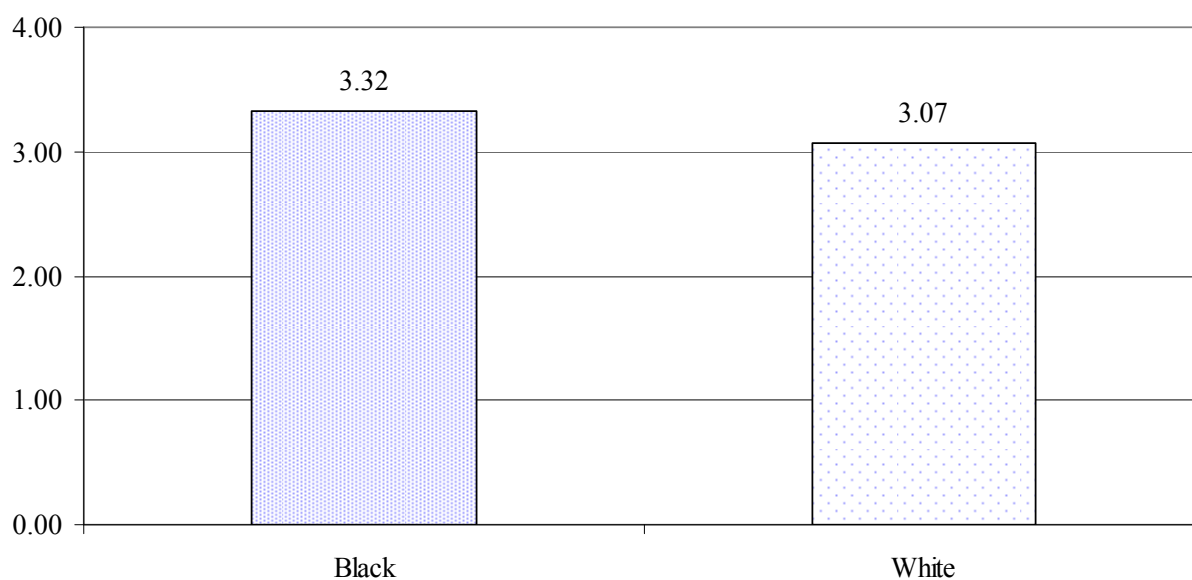


Figure 10

Means of Sponsor Role

When examining the data for protégé-mentor dyads of the same race compared to protégé-mentor dyads of different races, there was statistical significance in the overall instrumental function, promotability and in 5 of the instrumental roles; sponsor, coach, protect, challenging assignments, and exposure. Same race mentors gave less in the following seven areas. For the overall instrumental function, $F(1, 252) = 12.86$, promotability, $F(1, 252) = 9.96$ sponsor role, $F(1, 252) = 12.17$, coaching role, $F(1, 252) = 7.24$, protect role, $F(1, 252) = 5.78$,

challenging assignments role, $F(1, 252) = 4.99$, and finally, the exposure role, $F(1, 252) = 5.23$ as shown in Figure 11. (See Tables 10 and 11)

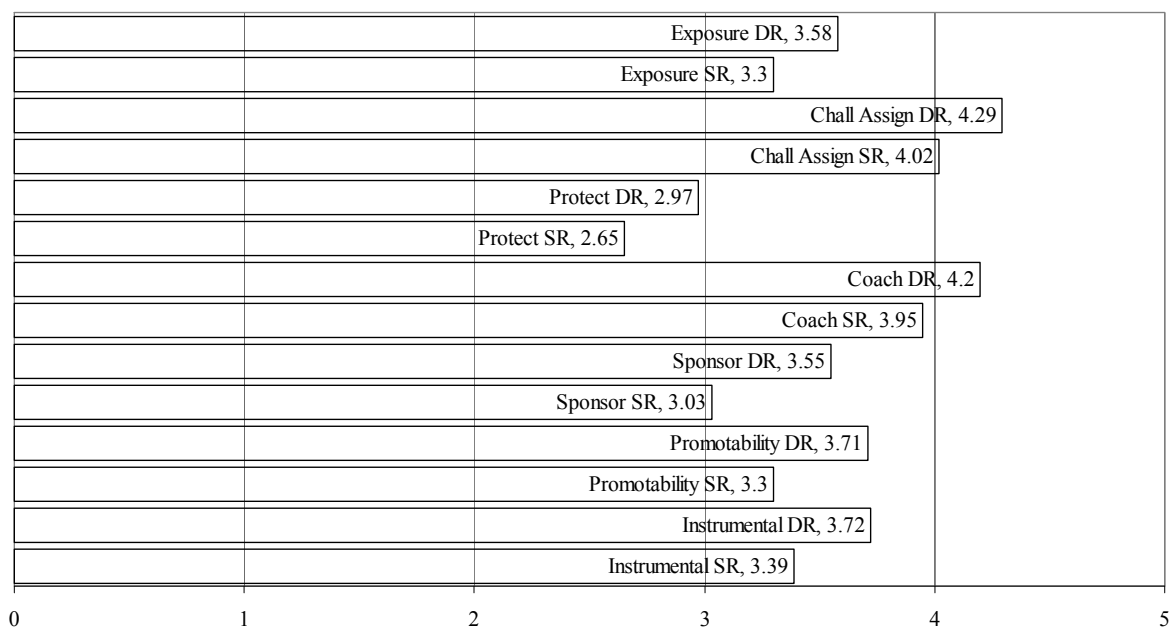


Figure 11

Means for Same Race and Different Race Dyads

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Same/Different Race Dyads

Mentoring Function/Role	Race	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>
Instrumental	Same race	3.39	.68
	Different race	3.72	.71
Psychosocial	Same race	3.33	.57
	Different race	3.48	.60
Promotability	Same race	3.30	.90
	Different race	3.71	1.12
Sponsor	Same race	3.03	.94

	Different race	3.55	.95
Coach	Same race	3.95	.75
	Different race	4.20	.61
Protect	Same race	2.65	.93
	Different race	2.97	1.09
Challenging Assignments	Same race	4.02	1.00
	Different race	4.29	.74
Exposure	Same race	3.30	.90
	Different race	3.58	.99
Role Model	Same race	3.89	.77
	Different race	3.93	.80
Friendship	Same race	4.34	.68
	Different race	4.45	.55
Social	Same race	2.30	.86
	Different race	2.52	1.04
Parent	Same race	1.78	.78
	Different race	1.96	1.02
Counsel	Same race	3.67	.83
	Different race	3.80	.82
Acceptance	Same race	4.18	.76
	Different race	4.36	.77

Table 11

MANOVA for Same/Different Race Dyads

Mentoring Functions/Roles	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Instrumental	12.86	.00
Psychosocial	3.71	.06
Promotability	9.96	.00
Sponsor	17.52	.00
Coach	7.24	.01
Protect	5.78	.02

Challenging Assignments	4.99	.03
Exposure	5.23	.02
Role Model	.20	.65
Friendship	1.70	.20
Social	3.17	.08
Parent	2.54	.11
Counsel	1.35	.25
Acceptance	2.94	.09

Note. $df = 1, N = 252, p = .05$

When looking at group interactions, White protégés viewed their Black mentors as providing more instrumental support, $F(1, 228) = 3.56$, and sponsorship, $F(1, 228) = 4.84$, than any other dyad combination as shown in Figures 12 -13.

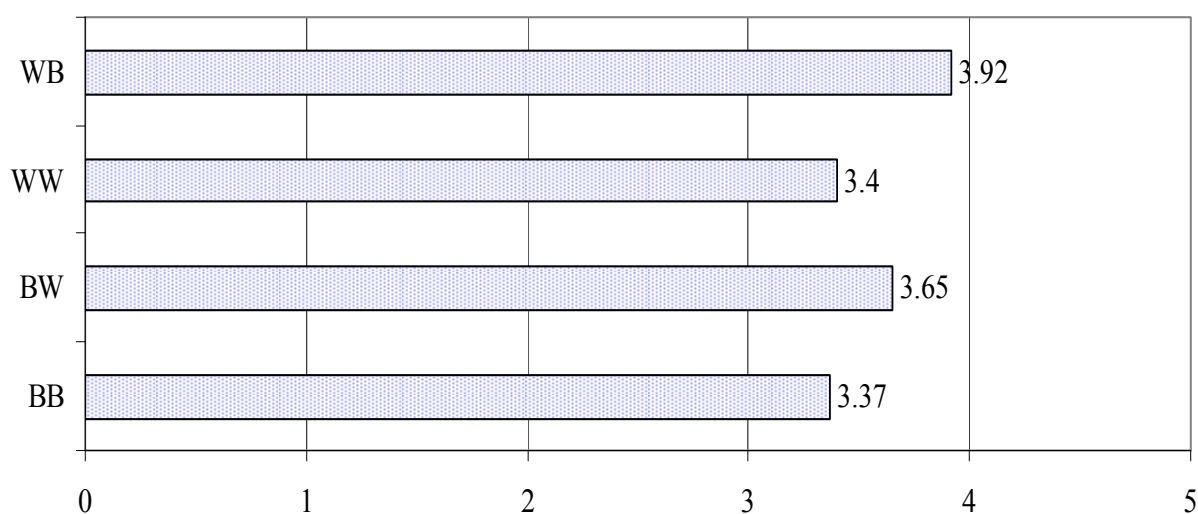


Figure 12

Means of Dyad Combinations for Instrumental Mentoring

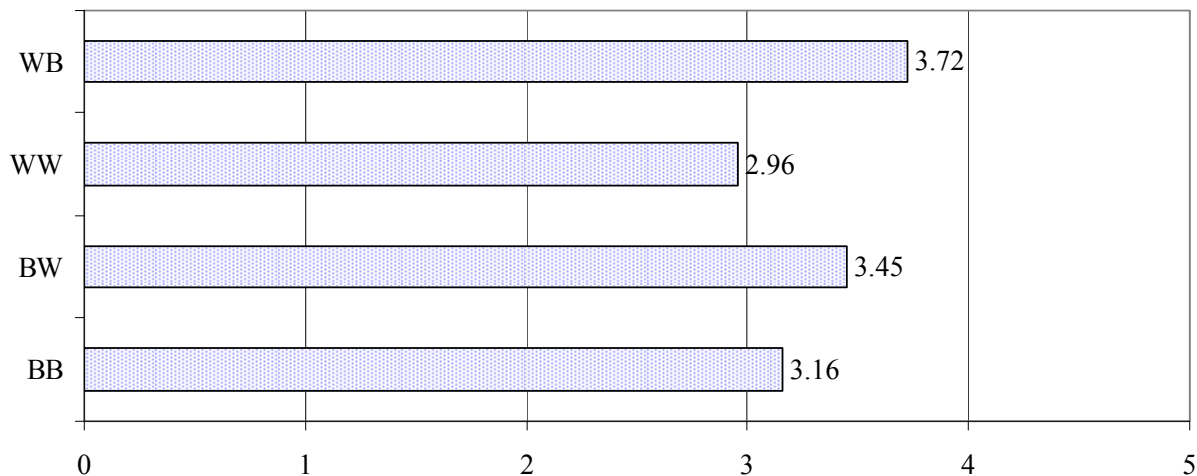


Figure 13

Means of Dyad Combinations for Sponsor Role

Finally, Black protégés with White mentors received more of the challenging assignment role than any other dyad, $F(1, 228) = 3.04$ as shown in Figure 14. (See Tables 8 and 9)

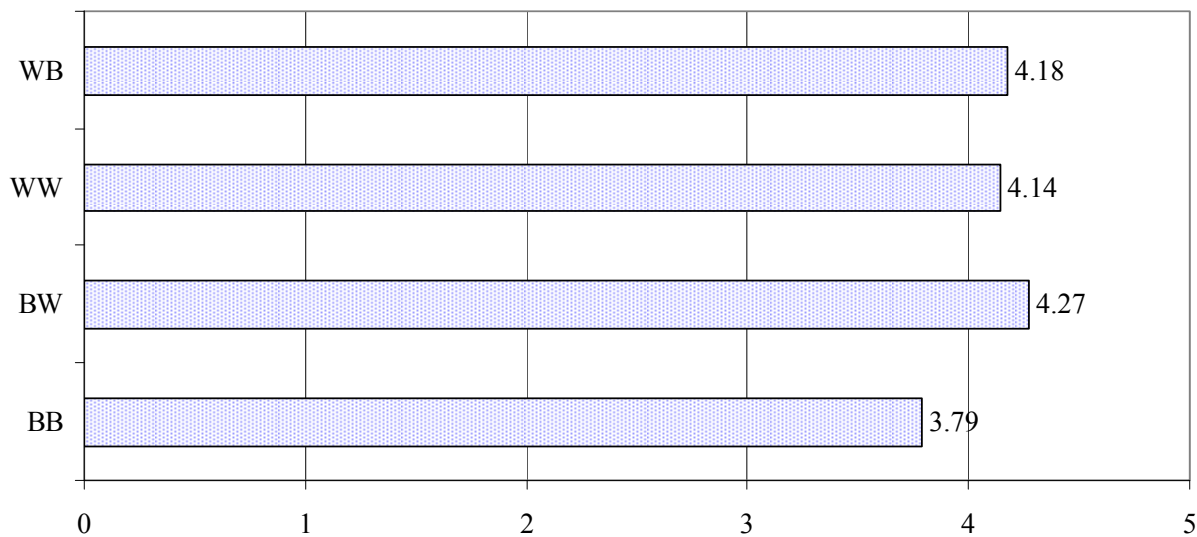


Figure 14

Means of Dyad Combinations for Challenging Assignments Role

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the perceived benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for Whites will be higher than the benefits of mentoring, as related to promotability for People of Color. For respondents with mentors, based on the MANOVA, there was no statistical significance between Whites ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .88$), and Blacks ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.10$), $F(1, 236) = 3.49$. (See Tables 5 and 6) Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

However, when looking at the interaction between protégé race and mentor race, White protégés with a Black mentor felt their mentor had advanced their career more than any other dyad combination, $F(1, 228) = 3.77$ $p < .05$ as shown in Figure 15.

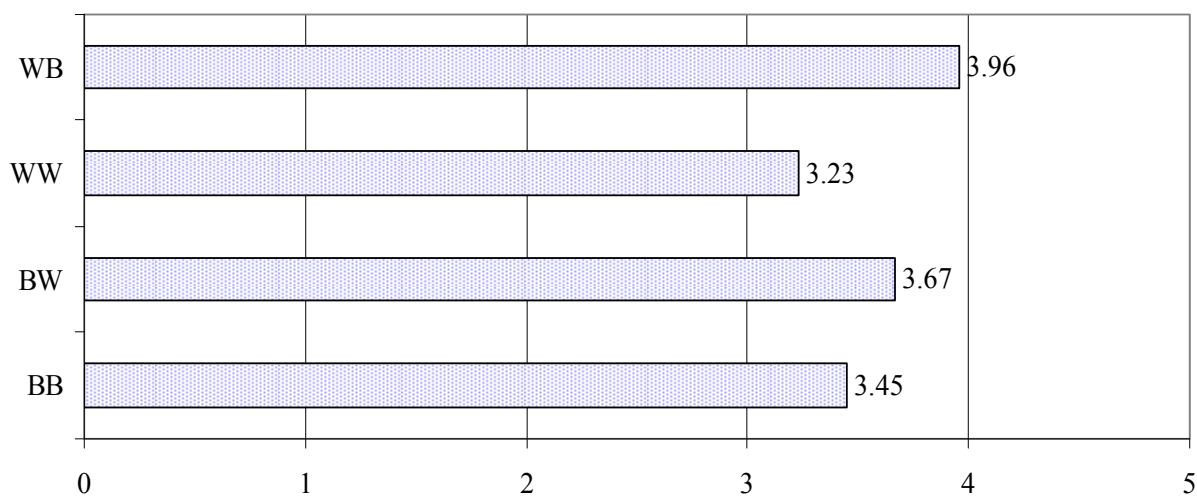


Figure 15

Means of Dyad Combinations for Promotability

Two other areas were examined using the data. The first was to look at whether there was any statistical significance in how mentors were obtained, formally or informally. This finding was statistically significant, $\chi^2(1, n=236) = 6.24, p < .05$. (See Table 12)

Table 12

Chi-square Test for Obtaining a Mentor

Test	χ^2	df	<i>p</i>
Pearson Chi-Square	6.24	1	.01
N of Valid Cases	236		

Note. $p = .05$.

Of the 113 Blacks that were mentored 90 (80%) had informally obtained their mentor compared to the 123 Whites who were mentored and 80 (65%) had informally obtained their mentors as shown in Figure 16.

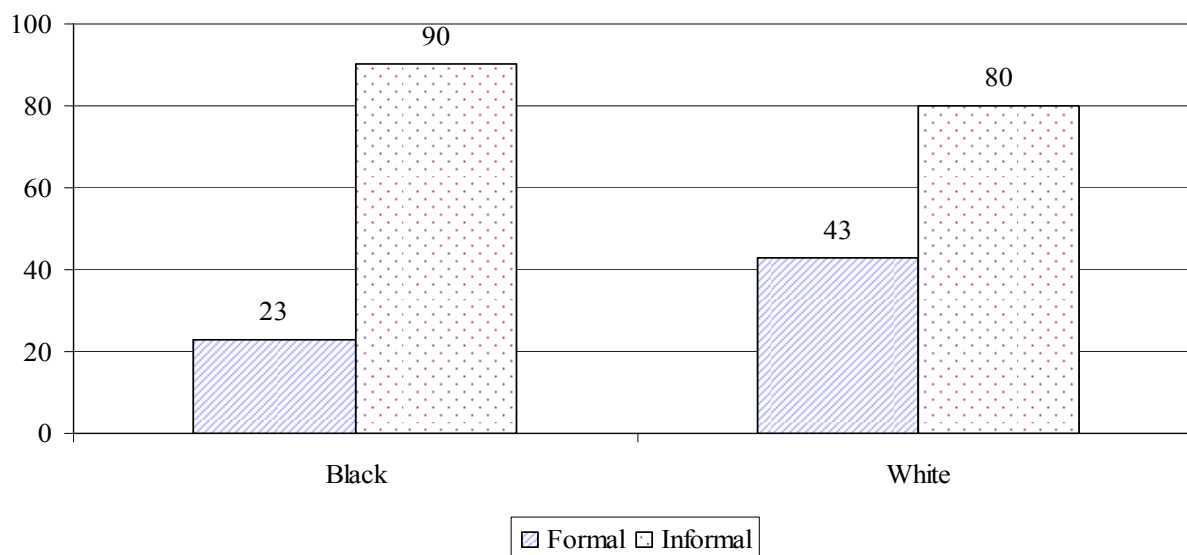


Figure 16

How Mentors Are Obtained

The second area was to examine if there were differences, by race, in barriers to obtaining a mentor. This was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(1, n=153) = .05$. (See Tables 13 and 14)

Table 13

Barriers to Obtaining a Mentor

Race	M	S.D.	<i>n</i>
Black	3.65	.75	73
White	3.66	.54	80

Table 14

Chi-squared Test for Barriers to Obtaining a Mentor

Test	χ^2	df	<i>Sig</i>
Pearson Chi-Square	.05	1	.83
N of Valid Cases	151		

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to interpret the findings presented in Chapter IV. This chapter is divided into six major sections: overview of the study, discussion of the findings, implications for practice, and implications for research, limitations, and summary.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was three-fold. First, it was to determine if mentoring advanced the careers of People of Color in the workplace. Second, the study attempted to determine if People of Color were mentored in the same amounts as Whites. Third, this study sought to determine if People of Color were mentored in the same ways as Whites. This study sought to understand not only what people received in the way of mentoring roles, but in addition, what they valued in terms of mentoring roles. The purpose of this study was to understand mentoring as it relates to increasing the numbers of People of Color into executive and key decision-making positions. This study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1) What is the relationship between perceived quality of mentoring and perceived promotability?
- 2) What is the relationship between mentoring access, protégé race and the perceived opportunity for development?
- 3) What is the relationship among protégé race, mentoring functions received and perceived value?

Discussion of the Findings

My first hypothesis stated that People of Color would have less experience than Whites with mentoring. The results of my survey do not agree with the literature. The literature states that People of Color receive less mentoring of any form than Whites (Blake-Beard, 1999; Greenhaus, 1990 ; Thomas, 2005) . My results showed that Blacks in my survey received mentoring in almost the same rate as Whites, 49% and 53% respectively. I attribute this departure from the literature due to the demographics of my respondents, highly educated and well compensated. I believe the third tenet of critical race theory, social construction, is at work here. Races are categories that society invents, manipulates and retires when convenient (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Because the respondents are well compensated and highly educated, the dominant majority may view them as less different than coworkers with less education and less compensation. The People of Color in this group are perceived as more like the majority and therefore have less obstacles placed in their way. Another reason for this variance from the literature is that through their education and compensation this group has recognized the first tenet of critical race theory, racism is systemic. By recognizing racism as a systemic issue, they have learned to identify it, maneuver around it, and overcome obstacles that are known to them to be inherent in the system (Harris, 2001, 2002; Valdes et al., 2002; Trevino et al., 2008).

My second hypothesis stated that People of Color would receive more psychosocial mentoring than Whites and less instrumental mentoring than Whites. In the literature, instrumental mentoring is tied more to career advancement than psychosocial mentoring (Allen et al., 2006; Allen& O'Brien, 2006; Baugh & Sullivan, 2005). The instrumental functions of sponsor, coach, protect, challenging assignments, and exposure do more to advance a person

because it targets specific tasks and behaviors a protégé must complete and exhibit to get ahead. Once again, there was no statistical difference between the Blacks in my survey and the Whites. Blacks received psycho-social mentoring to the same degree as Whites and they received instrumental mentoring to the same degree as Whites.

What was significant however was that Blacks received more of the parent role than Whites. The three components of the parent role are: 1) Be like a mother/father to me; 2) Remind me of one of my parents and ; 3) Treat me like a daughter/son. Paternalism can be defined as an attitude that subordinates should be controlled in a paternal way for their own good or a leadership style in which a [leader uses](#) his [power](#) to [control](#), protect, punish, and [reward](#) in [return](#) for obedience and [loyalty](#) from his [employees](#), followers, or [subordinates](#). Both definitions elude to a power dynamic (Allen & Eby, 2007; Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Ragins & Kram, (2007).

What I thought was really interesting in the analysis was that when looking at the race composition of the mentored dyads, White protégés with a Black mentor received more of the role model, friendship, and sponsor components than any other race composition. The components that make up Role Model are: 1) Serve as a role model for me 2) Be someone I identify with and 3) Represent who I want to be. Do Blacks feel that they have to overcompensate when their protégé is White? Are they foregoing some of their racial identity to appear to be the same as their White protégé? The idea of the Black Tax comes into play here. One of the definitions of the Black tax is that Blacks must always be twice as good, do twice as much, always go above and beyond in order to stay equal to their White counterparts (Bell, 1992; Bell, 2004; Delgado, 2001; Ragins, 2007). In addition, when examining group interaction, there was statistical significance in White protégés with Black mentors valuing career advancement

received from their mentors, more than any other dyad. In addition to the Black tax, using a critical race lens, are White protégés being rewarded to overcome the possible stigma of having Black mentors? Going back to the first tenet of critical race theory, racism is systemic. Clearly organizations don't want to appear racist by not having Blacks mentor Whites. But the racism is clearly present when White protégés value Black mentors as providing the highest level of instrumental mentoring. This behavior is also indicative of the second tenet of critical race theory, interest convergence. Simply stated, White people will tolerate the activities of People of Color in obtaining racial justice if and only if these activities promote and converge with the interests of White people (bell, 1992a, 2004; Crenshaw, 2002; Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Harris, 2001). In this case, Blacks are allowed to be mentors to White protégés, as long as the Whites achieve great success.

In terms of instrumental mentoring, protégés in same race dyads received less instrumental mentoring than protégés in different race dyads. In addition, in every aspect of instrumental mentoring; sponsor, coach, protect, challenging assignments and exposure, protégés in same race dyads received less than protégés in different race dyads. This finding is not in line with the literature. The literature clearly shows White protégés with White mentors as being the highest recipient of instrumental mentoring. This finding clearly goes against that. As a matter of fact, White protégés with Black mentors reported receiving more of the sponsor role than any other dyad combination (Feeney, 2007; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Mathews, 2006; Maume, 1999; McGlowan-Fellows, 2004; Ragins, 2000).

My third hypothesis stated that the perceived benefits of mentoring as related to promotability would be higher for Whites than Blacks. This was not found to be true with my respondents. The perceived benefits of mentoring were relatively the same for Blacks as well as

Whites. I have to wonder if this can be attributed to this sample being highly educated. Does higher education lead to leveling the playing field of mentoring access and quality? However, when examining group interaction, there was significance in White protégés with Black mentors valuing career advancement received from their mentors, more than any other dyad.

Implications for Practice

Mentoring has long been touted as a means for advancing minorities in companies. People of Color have seen both promotions and a lack thereof as a result of mentoring. Companies use mentoring as part of larger diversity efforts. They tout affinity programs and associations for any and every type of minority; women, gay, lesbian, transgendered, and all peoples of color. I would like to think that mentoring is a useful tool for developing employees and advancing them within organizations. The fact that the majority of respondents had formed mentoring relationships informally, is startling in lieu of the energies corporations devote to formal mentoring programs. The corporate excuse is that if they did not set up formal programs, then mentoring would not be done, is both true, and clearly evident by the data in this survey, untrue. It is true in that more than half of all respondents did not have mentors and of that half 40% wanted mentors. Clearly if mentoring programs were more formal, then those who wanted mentors should be able to have access. The untrue portion is the overwhelming majority of mentored respondents had gotten their mentors informally, i.e. not a company sponsored program. This was true for Whites as well as Blacks. The data in my survey suggest that practitioners need to be cognizant of the fact that more of their employees are finding and forming mentoring relationships informally. Half of the respondents that had mentors stated that their mentor was chosen in formally. Companies should design programs or work projects that require new members in an organization, or those that want to be mentored, to come in contact

with senior members of an organization. By designing projects that require potential protégés and potential mentors to work together, people will be able to discover what they have in common, and allegiances may form. Through socializing on projects, People of Color may feel comfortable to share their counter-stories. In terms of critical race theory, the fourth tenet holds that minority status brings with it a presumed competence to speak about race and racism (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Through these counter-stories, the dominant discourse of how things happen in a company and to its employees may be challenged when told by someone not in the majority (Solorzano & Yosso, 2001). Human Resource professionals should incorporate these experiences when designing programs that are meant to affect all employees and not just those in the majority.

Many companies have diversity efforts and mentoring is frequently one aspect of these programs (Thomas et al., 2004, 2005). The results of this study can be used to design mentor-training programs to instruct mentors and organizations what protégés value. Companies could also use the analysis to incorporate what protégés value and what they actually receive as a checkpoint for their own organizations. Companies can also use the barriers to access to evaluate their own organizations' readiness and willingness to mentor. If they think that all employees truly have access, they can conduct their own assessment using these barriers to determine how their employees actually assess access.

From my research, it is clearly evident that Blacks are informally finding mentors and organizations need to design ways for People of Color to connect with possible mentors in a non-formal way. Project teams are one avenue to encourage this connection. Social networking events that would appeal to all races, not just the majority, could also offer opportunities for informal connections.

Mentors can use this research as reality check for themselves in determining what they think protégés need and what protégés actually value. As previously mentioned, human resource professionals can do a better job of training mentors in what protégés value using this research. Protégés can use this research to understand what is available to them in terms of mentoring support. Hopefully, candid discussions could be had with their mentor on specific roles that the protégé may more from the mentor.

Recommendations for Future Studies

This quantitative study is another contribution to the literature in the study of mentoring practice. Further research could continue investigate the findings of this study or approach the research from different perspectives. Even though some data collected in this study was not used to answer my research questions, there is valuable data that was collected using this instrument which could be used to further develop the understanding of mentoring practices. The following section outlines a few avenues for future research.

Further analysis of this data could reveal by industry segment, which ones were more prone to have mentors through a formal program or informally. By the same token, the collected data could be mined to segregate by age and gender if there are any trends in formal or informal mentoring. What would really be interesting is to conduct this study in organizations with formal mentoring programs, to see how many protégés are seeking their mentors informally. A qualitative approach could also investigate why employees in organizations with formal programs feel the need to seek mentors informally. Using a critical race lens, a qualitative approach could be undertaken to understand how minority status individuals are forced to seek out mentors when excluded from formal mentoring programs.

The findings of this study were taken from a cross-section of employed, salaried individuals. The screening criteria was that they could not be the owner or CEO of the company. This was done in order to limit the scope of mentoring to mentors within the organization. Many individuals have many mentors over their careers, both within and outside their organizations. Using Ragins and Cotton's (1991), Mentor Role Instrument (MRI) the mentor functions of both instrumental and psycho-social were measured. All participants answering the survey were asked what they valued in terms of mentoring. Even though all the collected data was not used specifically in this analysis, it would be interesting to compare what is valued in mentoring by both the mentored and the non-mentored. Another study could compare individuals from this study with individuals whose mentors are outside their organization to compare and contrast how mentors are obtained, what is valued, what is received, and who progresses more.

Another analysis that could be mined from this data would be around the six statements involving access to mentoring. Respondents who said they did not have a mentor in their organization, and have wanted a mentor in their organization, were asked to respond using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree to the six statements below: To what extent do you believe that each of the following has impacted your access to mentoring...

- ___ Qualifications of people in the organization to be potential mentors
- ___ Comfort of people in the organization to be potential mentors
- ___ The relative costs-benefits of mentoring
- ___ Current job responsibilities of potential mentors
- ___ Time limitations on potential mentors in the organization

_____ Expectations of my performance that would impact the perceived performance of my potential mentor

It would be interesting to see what, if any, respondents thought the biggest block was to having access to mentoring. And how do these hindrances relate to the respondents race, age, and gender.

Another possibility for a study would be to use a qualitative study to explore how protégés connect with their mentors informally. Has the flattening of organization structures allowed more contact with individuals more experienced in the organization? Has the fact that companies are doing more with less enabled potential protégés to connect with more experienced individuals in the organization more easily than before? Additionally, a qualitative study could reveal the conditions which drive protégés to seek out mentors.

Limitations

As with almost any study, the researcher almost always would like a larger sample in order to be able to extrapolate the results to a larger population. This researcher is no different. Though I received 501 usable responses, they didn't come in as fast as I would have liked. I would have certainly liked to be able to take the discussion past Black and White. Unfortunately, self-selected racial identities other than Black and White were so small, they were omitted from this analysis. Especially with the growing Hispanic population, this researcher was hoping for more data to extrapolate to the Hispanic population. Even though I grouped People of Color into one, I would have liked to have been able to separate and possibly make some distinctions among People of Color when compared not only to Whites but among themselves. By the same token, Asians are shown to be the highest paid among all races, but once again my sample was too small to evaluate and differences or similarities with the Asian race. Another limitation was

the average age of the respondent at 47. Clearly, this was a sample of people who had been working for some time, so their answers were based on years of workforce experience. For that reason, it may be difficult for companies to extrapolate the findings to younger workers. It would be however, very beneficial for their long-range planning of a younger workforce; especially in terms of development and retention.

Summary

This study was designed and developed to determine if mentoring led to increasing the numbers of People of Color into executive and key-decision making positions with US companies. My interest in this was based on my own mentoring experiences throughout my career. I have had great mentors within and outside of the organizations in which I have worked. There were also periods where I didn't have an active mentor. Although my own career, even while sometimes having a mentor, has been more self-directed, I have seen the benefits of having a good mentor both in my career and in the careers of others. What I have witnessed is that a good mentor is there to provide the instrumental or the psycho-social when and most before the protégé knows it's needed. As pat as it may sound, being active and involved are the keys roles a good mentor plays. Having said that, I have wondered why I have seen certain individuals progress into prime positions with seemingly less experience or education. I have personally experienced the lower pay difference between what I received and a White male colleague with EXACTLY the same credentials was paid. All of this made the topic of mentoring a very desirable area of interest. When I started in the Adult Education program here at UGA, I cannot think of one professor who did not repeatedly state that your area of interest had to be something that would keep you motivated in those lonely weary early morning hours. Mentoring for me is it!

I must say that the results of my survey left me somewhat stymied and panicked. How could it be that my results were so much different than the literature which I espoused in Chapter Two? More importantly, how could it be that my results differed so greatly from my own experiences? And what I continue to see and read about in American business. Yes, women are making gains. But the power holders are still primarily White and primarily male. So the question I pose to myself is are we on the cusp of a change? Could my research be saying that indeed advances are being made? Yes, the power may still reside in the hands of the White male, but there are just as many Blacks being mentored, learning what is needed, slowly edging our way ever forward to be positioned to take the reigns when key positions are opening. This I hope is the truth. That yes mentoring is a key element in career development, and yes we are receiving mentoring in the same numbers as Whites and there is no longer a differential in the type of mentoring we are receiving. Yes, we have moved beyond just getting the “here’s how you fit in” mentoring. We are getting, “you need to take that position”, “you need to be on such and such project”. We are getting the sponsorship required to make us competitive with our White counterparts when in a lot of cases, we are more educated with greater depth of experience. My study says yes, we are getting there. And I am proud to be able to statistically back that up.

Even though it may not be evident by looking at business leaders or boards of organizations, there is a population of People of Color being groomed to step-in. Blacks are having mentors. We are desiring instrumental mentoring and we are receiving instrumental mentoring. We are desiring psycho-social mentoring and we are getting psycho-social mentoring. I recognize through friends in the workplace that are of Color, not everyone is getting what they need, but my survey would show that Whites are somewhat in the same boat. They are not being mentored to the same degree as we are. The proverbial fly in the ointment though, is

that even though I realize my survey showed little disparity between Blacks and Whites, there is still a MUCH greater volume of Whites being let in the door to organizations. So yes my sample of 501 may be a beacon for things to come, the here and now still shows a daily struggle for equality in access to mentoring and the quality of mentoring received.

REFERENCES

- Allen, T. D., Poteet, M. L., & Burroughs, S. M. (1997). The mentor's perspective: A qualitative inquiry and future research agenda. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51*(1), 70-89.
- Allen, T. D., & Eby, L. T. (2003). Relationship Effectiveness for Mentors: Factors Associated with Learning and Quality. *Journal of Management, 29*(4), 469-486.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., & Lentz, E. (2006a). Mentorship behaviors and mentorship quality associated with formal mentoring programs: Closing the gap between research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(3), 567-578.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., & Lentz, E. (2006b). The relationship between formal mentoring program characteristics and perceived program effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology, 59*(1), 125-153.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(1), 127-136.
- Allen, T. D., & Eby, L. T. (Eds.). (2007). *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Allen, T. D., & O'Brien, K. E. (2006). Formal mentoring programs and organizational attraction. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 17*(1), 43-58.
- Allen, T. D., Russell, J. E. A., & Maetzke, S. B. (1997). Formal peer monitoring: Factors related to protégés' satisfaction and willingness to mentor others. *Group & Organization Management, 22*(4), 488-507.
- Athey, S., Avery, C., & Zemsky, P. (2000). Mentoring and diversity. *American Economic Review, 90*(4), 765-786.
- Barrett, I. C., Cervero, R. M., & Johnson-Bailey, J. (2004). The career development of black human resource developers in the United States. *Human Resource Development International, 7*(1), 85-100.
- Baugh, S. G., & Sullivan, S. E. (2005). Mentoring and career development. *Career Development International, 10*(6/7), 425-428.
- Baugh, S. G., Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. (1996). An investigation of the effects of protégé gender on responses to mentoring. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 49*(3), 309-323.
- Bell, D. (1992a). The racial preference licensing act: A fable about the politics of hate, *ABA Journal* (Vol. 78, pp. 50): American Bar Association.
- Bell, D. A. (1992b). *Faces at the bottom of the well : the permanence of racism*: BasicBooks Perseus Books Group, C/O Perseus Distribution, 1094 Flex Dr, Jackson, TN, 38301.
- Bell, D. (2000). Affirmative action: Another instance of racial workings in the United States. *Journal of Negro Education, 69*(1/2), 145.
- Bell, D. A. (2004). *Silent covenants : Brown v. Board of Education and the unfulfilled hopes for racial reform* Oxford, NY: Oxford New York Press.
- Bell, E. L. J. E., & Nkomo, S. M. (2001). Our separate ways: Black and White women and the struggle for professional identity. *Harvard Business School Press Books, 1*.
- Benabou, C., & Benabou, R. (1999). Establishing a formal mentoring program for organizational success. *National Productivity Review (Wiley), 18*(2), 7-14.
- Bierema, L. L. (2001). Women, work, and learning. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education*(92), 53.

- Bierema, L. L., & Merriam, S. B. (2002). E-mentoring: Using computer mediated communication to enhance the mentoring process. *Innovative Higher Education*, 26(3), 211-227.
- Blake-Beard, S. D. (1999). The cost of living as an outsider within: An analysis of the mentoring relationships and career success of black and white women in the corporate sector. *Journal of Career Development*, 26(1), 21-36.
- Blake-Beard, S. D. (2001). Taking a hard look at formal mentoring programs: A consideration of potential challenges facing women. *Journal of Management Development*, 20(4), 331-345.
- Blake-Beard, S. D., O'Neill, R. M., & McGowan, E. M. (2007). Blind dates? The importance of matching in successful formal mentoring relationships. In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: theory, research, and practice* (pp. 617-632). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Blancero, D. M., & DelCampo, R. G. (2005). Hispanics in the workplace: Experiences with mentoring and networking. *Employment Relations Today (Wiley)*, 32(2), 31-38.
- Brooks, A. K., & Clunis, T. (2007). Where to now? Race and ethnicity in workplace learning and development research: 1980-2005. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 18(2), 229-251.
- Brown, B. P., Zablah, A. R., & Bellenger, D. N. (2008). The role of mentoring in promoting organizational commitment among black managers: An evaluation of the indirect effects of racial similarity and shared racial perspectives. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(7), 732-738.
- Catalyst. (1998). *Advancing women in business--the Catalyst guide : best practices from the corporate leaders / foreword by Sheila W. Wellington*. (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Chao, G. T., Walz, P. M., & Gardner, P. D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(3), 619-636.
- Chrobot-Mason, D., & Thomas, K. M. (2002). Minority employees in majority organizations: The intersection of individual and organizational racial identity in the workplace. *Human Resource Development Review* 1(3).
- Cox, T. H., Lobel, S. A., & McLeod, P. L. (1991). Effects of ethnic group cultural differences on cooperative and competitive behavior on a group task. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(4), 827-847.
- Crenshaw, K. W. (2002). The first decade: Critical reflections, or 'A foot in the closing door.'. *UCLA Law Review*, 49(5), 1343.
- de Janasz, S. C., Sullivan, S. E., & Whiting, V. (2003). Mentor networks and career success: Lessons for turbulent times. *Academy of Management Executive*, 17(4), 78-91.
- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2001). *Critical Race Theory An Introduction*. New York: New York University Press.
- Dreher, G. F., & Ash, R. A. (1990). A comparative study of mentoring among men and women in managerial, professional, and technical positions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(5), 539-546.
- Dreher, G. F., & Cox, J., Taylor H. (1996). Race, gender, and opportunity: A study of compensation attainment and the establishment of mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(3), 297-308.

- Dudziak, M. L. (2000). *Cold War civil rights : Race and the image of American democracy*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Fagenson, E. A. (1989). The mentor advantage: perceived career/job experiences of proteges versus non-proteges. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 10(4), 309-320.
- Feeney, M. K. (2007). *Mentoring in the public and nonprofit sectors*. Univeristy of Georgia, Athens.
- Ferguson, S. A., & King, T. (1996). Bringing organizational behavior and therapy together. *Women & Therapy*, 18(1), 47-58.
- Forret, M., & de Janasz, S. (2005). Perceptions of an organization's culture for work and family: Do mentors make a difference? *Career Development International*, 10, 478-492.
- Gedro, J. A., Cervero, R. M., & Johnson-Bailey, J. (2004). How lesbians learn to negotiate the heterosexism of corporate America. *Human Resource Development International*, 7(2), 181-195.
- Gonzalez-Figueroa, E., & Young, A. M. (2005). Ethnic identity and mentoring among Latinas in professional roles. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 11(3), 213-226.
- Harris, A. P. (2000). Equality trouble: Sameness and difference in twentieth-century race law. *California Law Review*, 88(6), 1923.
- Harris, A. P. (2001). Foreword. In *Critical Race Theory An Introduction*.
- Harshman, E. M., & Rudin, J. P. (2000). Corporate mentoring programs: Legal landmines? *Journal of Employment Discrimination Law*, 2(1), 135.
- Headlam-Wells, J., Gosland, J., & Craig, J. (2005). 'There's magic in the web': E-mentoring for women's career development. *Career Development International*, 10, 444-459.
- Hegstad, C. D., & Wentling, R. M. (2004). The development and maintenance of exemplary formal mentoring programs in fortune 500 companies. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(4), 421-448.
- Jandeska, K. E., & Kraimer, M. L. (2005). Women's perceptions of organizational culture, work attitudes, and role-modeling behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 17(4), 461-478.
- Johnson-Bailey, J., & Cervero, R. M. (2002). Cross-cultural mentoring as a context for learning. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education*(96), 15.
- Johnson-Bailey, J., & Cervero, R. M. (2004). Mentoring in black and white: the intricacies of cross-cultural mentoring. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 12(1), 7-21.
- Johnson-Bailey, J., & Tisdell, E. J. (1998). Diversity issues in women's career development. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education*(80), 83.
- Kersten, A. (2000). Diversity management dialogue, dialectics and diversion. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 13(3), 235-248.
- King, T. C., & Ferguson, S. A. (2001). Charting ourselves: Leadership development with Black professional women. *NWSA Journal (Project Muse)*, 13(2), 123-141.
- Kochan, T., Bezrukova, K., Ely, R., Jackson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K., et al. (2003). The effects of diversity on business performance: report of the diversity research network. *Human Resource Management*, 42(1), 3-21.
- Kogler Hill, S. E., & Gant, G. (2000). Mentoring by minorities for minorities: The organizational communication support program. *Review of Business*, 1/2, 53.
- Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26(4), 608-625.
- Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

- Lyon, J. M., Farrington, P., & Westbrook, J. (2004). Mentoring of scientists and engineers: A comparison of gender. *Engineering Management Journal*, 16(3), 17-25.
- Mathews, P. (2006). The role of mentoring in promoting organisational competitiveness. *Competitiveness Review*, 16(2), 158-169.
- McDowall-Long, K. (2004). Mentoring relationships: Implications for practitioners and suggestions for future research. *Human Resource Development International*, 7(4), 519-534.
- McGlowan-Fellows, B., & Thomas, C. S. (2004). Changing roles: Corporate mentoring of black women. *International Journal of Mental Health*, 33(4), 3-18.
- Mullen, E. J. (1994). Framing the mentoring relationship as an information exchange. *Human Resource Management Review*, 4(3), 257.
- Mullen, E. J. (1998). Vocational and psychosocial mentoring functions: Identifying mentors who serve both. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 9(4), 319-331.
- Noe, R. (1988). Women and mentoring: A review and research agenda. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(1), 65-78.
- O'Neill, R. M., & Blake-Beard, S. D. (2002). Gender barriers to the female mentor -- male protégé relationship. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 37(1), 51-63.
- Ohlott, P. J., Ruderman, M. N., & McCauley, C. D. (1994). Gender differences in managers' developmental job experiences. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(1), 46-67.
- Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified mentoring relationships in organizations: A power perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(2), 482-521.
- Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1991). Easier said than done: Gender differences in perceived barriers to gaining a mentor. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(4), 939-951.
- Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1993). Gender and willingness to mentor in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 19(1), 97-111.
- Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: A comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(4), 529-550.
- Ragins, B. R., & Kram, K. E. (Eds.). (2007). *The handbook of mentoring at work: theory, research, and practice*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Ragins, B. R., & Scandura, T. A. (1994). Gender differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 957-971.
- Ragins, B. R., & Scandura, T. A. (1999). Burden or blessing? Expected costs and benefits of being a mentor. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(4), 493-509.
- Richie, B. S., Fassinger, R. E., Linn, S. G., Johnson, J., Prosser, J., & Robinson, S. (1997). Persistence, connection, and passion: A qualitative study of the career development of highly. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 44(2), 133.
- Scandura, T. A. (1992). Mentorship and career mobility: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 169-174.
- Scandura, T. A., & Ragins, B. R. (1993). The Effects of Sex and Gender Role Orientation on Mentorship in Male-Dominated Occupations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 43(3), 251-265.
- Scandura, T. A., & Viator, R. E. (1994). Mentoring in public accounting firms: An analysis of mentor-protégé relationships, mentorship functions, and protégé turnover interventions? *Accounting, Organizations & Society*, 19(8), 717-734.

- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Defining organizational culture* (Second ed.). San Francisco, CA US: Jossey-Bass.
- Siegel, P. H., & Reinstein, A. (2001). An exploratory study of mentor relationships in large CPA firms. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 17(4), 421-436.
- Solorzano, D. G., & Yosso, T. J. (2001). Critical race and LatCrit theory and method: counter-storytelling. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education (QSE)*, 14(4), 471-495.
- Spector, P. E. (1992). *Summated rating scale construction*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Thomas, D. A. (1993). Racial dynamics in cross-race developmental relationships. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38(2), 169-194.
- Thomas, K. M. (2005). *Diversity dynamics in the workplace*. Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Thomas, K. M., Mack, D. A., Montagliani, A. (2004). The arguments against diversity: Are they valid? In *The psychology and management of workplace diversity*. (pp. 31-51). Malden, MA US: Blackwell Publishing.
- Trevino, A. J., Harris, M. A., & Wallace, D. (2008). What's So Critical About Critical Race Theory? *Contemporary Justice Review*, 11(1), 7-10.
- Underhill, C. M. (2006). The effectiveness of mentoring programs in corporate settings: A meta-analytical review of the literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(2), 292-307.
- US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2007). Charting the U.S. labor market in 2006. Retrieved February 3, 2009 from <http://www.bls.gov/cps/labor2006/chartbook.pdf>
- Valdes, F., Culp, J. M., & Harris, A. P. (Eds.). (2002). *Crossroads, directions, and a new critical race theory* Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Warner, F. (2007, December 19). Inside Intel's mentoring movement. Retrieved February 16, 2009 from <http://www.fastcompany.com/magazine/57/chalktalk.html>
- Whitely, W. T., & Coetsier, P. (1993). The Relationship of Career Mentoring to Early Career Outcomes. *Organization Studies (Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. KG.)*, 14(3), 419-441.
- Wilson, J. A., & Elman, N. S. (1990). Organizational benefits of mentoring. *Academy of Management Executive*, 4(4), 88-94.
- Young, A. M. (2000). The exchange relationship between mentors and protégés: The development of a framework. *Human Resource Management Review*, 10(2), 177.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PROJECT NUMBER: 2010-10488-0

TITLE OF STUDY: Mentoring Outcomes for People of Color in the Workplace

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Dr. Kecia M. Thomas

CO- PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Mr. Kevin Lee Westray

Dear Dr. Thomas and Kevin,

The University of Georgia Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved your above-titled proposal through the exempt (administrative) review procedure authorized by 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) - Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, /unless:/ (i). the information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human participants can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the participants; /and /(ii). any disclosure of the human participants' responses outside the research could reasonably place the participants at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the participants' financial standing, employability, or reputation. You may now begin your study. Your approval packet will be sent by campus mail.

Note to Kevin: Please note the edits to consent letter per our conversation last night (see attached). Your cell/phone number was also included in case participants have questions which need your immediate attention. Please be sure to use this final approved version, and save it for your records and for any future amendment requests. Thanks.

Please be reminded that any changes to this research proposal can only be initiated after review and approval by the IRB (except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the research participant). Any adverse events or unanticipated problems must be reported to the IRB immediately. The principal investigator is also responsible for maintaining all applicable protocol records (regardless of media type) for at least three (3) years after completion of the study (i.e., copy of approved protocol, raw data, amendments, correspondence, and other pertinent documents). You are requested to notify the Human Subjects Office if your study is completed or terminated.

Good luck with your study, and please feel free to contact us if you have any questions. Please use the IRB project number and title in all communications regarding this study.

Best regards,

Benil

--

Benilda P. Pooser, Ph.D., CIM
Director, Human Subjects Office
629 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center
University of Georgia Athens, GA 30602-7411
Telephone: 706-542-3199 Fax: 706-542-3360
<http://www.ovpr.uga.edu/hso/>

APPENDIX B

March 1, 2010

Dear Participant:

My name is Kevin Westray and I am pursuing a doctorate degree in Adult Education at the University of Georgia under the direction of Dr. Kecia Thomas, Dean's Office, Franklin College, 706-542-5383, kthomas@uga.edu. My research area of interest is mentoring. I am writing to request your voluntary participation in an online survey; the data obtained from this survey will be used to complete my dissertation research. The research will identify the role of Human Resource Development activities, like mentoring, in career development. This survey also requests basic demographic information such as age, gender, racial/ethnic group membership about you and your mentor. Please be assured that none of this information will be used to identify you as an individual; rather it will be used to group you with other participants like you, in order to understand unique group experiences. These data will be used to complete my dissertation research. Completing this survey should take no more than 15 minutes. You may skip any questions that you do not feel comfortable responding to.

The survey will be maintained on a secure server, and IP addresses (unique number which identifies a computer or device connected to the internet) will not be collected. Every effort will be made to keep any individually-identifiable information confidential; however, as with any online transaction, there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed during the actual internet communication procedure. You can refuse to participate or stop taking part at anytime without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. You are not expected to benefit from participating, but this research may help us find out whether or not mentoring leads to People of Color being promoted.

Please feel free to contact me at (atlchase@uga.edu or 404-791-9613) if you have any questions now or during the length of this study. Questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to the Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411 [[706-542-3199](tel:706-542-3199) or irb@uga.edu].

I hope that I can count on your support of this research in pursuit of my doctorate. Please complete this voluntary survey by March 15, 2010. If there is anyone else that you think would be able to contribute to this research, please feel free to forward them this email. It will be greatly appreciated!

Sincerely,

Kevin Lee Westray
PhD Candidate at the University of Georgia

In order to provide your informed consent to participate in this research project, please click on the link below which will direct you to the Mentoring Survey.

[Mentoring Survey](#)

APPENDIX C

Thank you for agreeing to complete the following survey. The reason for the research is to identify the role of Human Resource Development activities, like mentoring, in career development. This survey should take no more than 15 minutes to complete.

The following statements are to understand your perception of a mentor's activities. For this survey, please use the definition of mentor as an experienced person in an organization lending their advice, counsel and support to another person in the same organization

Please answer the following using the scale below:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

A mentor should....

- Help me attain desirable positions
- Use their influence to support my advancement in the organization
- Use their influence in the organization for my benefit
- Help me learn about the organization
- Give me advice on how to attain recognition in the organization
- Suggest specific strategies for achieving career aspirations
- Protect me from those who may be out to get me
- "Run interference" for me in the organization
- Shield me from damaging contact with important people in the organization
- Give me tasks that require me to learn new skills
- Provide me with challenging assignments
- Assign me tasks that push me into developing new skills
- Help me be more visible in the organization
- Create opportunities for me to impress important people in the organization
- Bring my accomplishments to the attention of important people in the organization
- Serve as a role model for me
- Be someone I identify with
- Represent who I want to be
- Be someone I can confide in
- Provide support and encouragement
- Be someone I can trust
- Frequently get together informally after work by ourselves
- Frequently socialize one-on-one outside the work setting
- Frequently have one-on-one, informal social interactions
- Be like a mother/father to me
- Remind me of one of my parents
- Treat me like a daughter/son
- Serve as a sounding board for me to develop and understand myself
- Guide my professional development

- Guide my personal development
- Accept me as a competent professional
- See me as being competent
- Think highly of me

Do you currently have or have you had, a mentor in your current organization? (*The mentor may be in a different department*)

If they answer no, the following questions will be asked:

Have you wanted a mentor in your organization? Yes No

Do you think having a mentor would/will have advanced your career? Yes No

Please answer the following using the scale below:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

To what extent do you believe that each of the following has impacted your access to mentoring...

- Qualifications of people in the organization to be potential mentors
- Comfort of people in the organization to be potential mentors
- The relative costs-benefits of mentoring
- Current job responsibilities of potential mentors
- Time limitations on potential mentors in the organization
- Expectations of my performance that would impact the perceived performance of my potential mentor

Send to collection of demographic data for the participant..

If they answer yes, the following questions will be asked:

How was your mentor obtained? Formally (company program)
 Informally (personal contact)

Please answer the following using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

My mentor....

- Helps me attain desirable positions
- Uses their influence to support my advancement in the organization
- Uses their influence in the organization for my benefit
- Helps me learn about the organization
- Gives me advice on how to attain recognition in the organization

- Suggests specific strategies for achieving career aspirations
 Protects me from those who may be out to get me
 “Runs interference” for me in the organization
 Shields me from damaging contact with important people in the organization
 Gives me tasks that require me to learn new skills
 Provides me with challenging assignments
 Assigns me tasks that push me into developing new skills
 Helps me be more visible in the organization
 Creates opportunities for me to impress important people in the organization
 Brings my accomplishments to the attention of important people in the organization
 Serves as a role model for me
 Is someone I identify with
 Represents who I want to be
 Is someone I can confide in
 Provides support and encouragement
 Is someone I can trust
 Frequently get together informally after work by ourselves
 Frequently socialize one-on-one outside the work setting
 Frequently have one-on-one, informal social interactions
 Is like a mother/father to me
 Reminds me of one of my parents
 Treats me like a daughter/son
 Serves as a sounding board for me to develop and understand myself
 Guides my professional development
 Guides my personal development
 Accepts me as a competent professional
 Sees me as being competent
 Thinks highly of me
 Has increased my chances for promotion
 Has led me to my promotion

Please provide the following demographic information about yourself.

Gender Female Male

Age _____

Race/Ethnicity

- African American/Black/Caribbean American
 Asian American/Pacific Islander
 Caucasian/White
 Hispanic
 Native American, Intuet, or Aluet
 Other

Highest Education Level Achieved

- High School Graduate or Equivalent
 Two-Year College Degree (Associates or Other Technical Degree)
 Four-Year College Degree (Bachelor's)
 Graduate Degree (Masters or Doctorate)
 Other

Job Title _____

Type of Industry _____

Number of years in your organization _____

Annual Income

- Less than \$25,000 \$25,000 - \$49,999 \$50,000 - \$74,999
 \$75,000 - \$99,000 \$100,000 - \$249,999 \$250,000 and above

Finally, please answer the following demographic information about your mentor.

Gender Female Male

Age _____ _____ Don't know but older than me _____ Don't know but younger than me

Race/Ethnicity

- African American/Black/Carribbean American
 Asian American/Pacific Islander
 Caucasian/White
 Hispanic
 Native American, Intuet, or Aluet
 Other

Highest Education Level Achieved

- High School Graduate or Equivalent
 Two-Year College Degree (Associates or Other Technical Degree)
 Four-Year College Degree (Bachelor's)
 Graduate Degree (Masters or Doctorate)
 Other

Job Title _____

Type of Industry _____

Number of years in your organization _____

Number of levels above your position *Same level* *1 level above*
 2 levels above *3+ levels above*

Thank you for your participation in this survey.

APPENDIX D

Sample Characteristics

Demographic Information	Frequency/Percentage
<hr/>	
Race	
African American	237 (46.9)
Asian	11 (2.2)
Caucasian	233 (46.1)
Hispanic	11 (2.2)
Native American	4 (0.8)
Other	9 (1.8)
Gender	
Female	296 (59.3)
Male	203 (40.7)
Average Age	$M = 47, S.D. = 11$
Education	
High School	46 (9.2)
Two-Year	36 (7.2)
Four-Year	178 (35.7)
Graduate	219 (44.1)
Other	19 (3.8)
Income	
Less than \$25,000	23 (4.7)
\$25,000-\$49,999	103 (21.2)
\$50,000-\$74,999	132 (27.2)
\$75,000-\$99,999	92 (18.9)
\$100,000-\$249,999	122 (25.1)
\$250,000-Above	14 (2.9)

Mentor Characteristics

Race	No Mentor	Have Mentor	Totals
Black	120	117	237
White	110	123	233
Totals	230	240	470