

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: The Effect of Organizational Mentoring on Job Satisfaction, Organizational
Commitment, Career Development and Job-Related Stress in the Black Employee

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Many American companies strive to achieve racial diversity. Often, they seek to accomplish this through the recruitment of racial minorities. While this effort is commendable, many organizations soon encounter difficulties when trying to retain their minority talent. Once the recruitment process results in a more diverse working environment, companies sometimes struggle to find the best way to instill a sense of organizational commitment in their new minority incumbents. Organizational mentoring is an important aspect of an employee's socialization process, and is one way to increase job satisfaction, sustain quality, and progress the careers of individuals employed in corporate America. However, despite the rapid growth of Blacks in the workforce, many are excluded from involvement in such practices. Still, few studies have addressed the direct effect of minimal exposure to organizational mentoring on this racial group.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to supplement the existing literature on organizational mentoring in a way that directly applies to the Black employee.

Specifically, three main hypotheses were made. First, it was hypothesized that Black employees involved in the mentoring process would experience more job satisfaction, organizational commitment, career development, and less job-related stress in comparison to Black employees not exposed to the process at all. Secondly, Black

employees with Black mentors were compared to mentored White employees and non-mentored individuals regarding their feelings of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, career development, and job-related stress. The third set of hypotheses collectively investigated the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, career development, and job-related stress.

Seventy-six participants completed an informed consent document, a demographic profile, and a questionnaire composed of four scales measuring career development, organizational commitment, job-related stress and job satisfaction. An independent sample t -test was conducted to test the first set of hypotheses. One significant difference was found between Black employees with mentors and Blacks without. An analysis of variance was computed to test the second set of hypotheses. One significant difference was found among Black employees with Black mentors, mentored Whites and non-mentored employees. Correlations among the four administered tests did not reveal any significant findings. Limitations of the study as well as directions for future research were discussed.

**The Effect of Organizational Mentoring on Job Satisfaction, Organizational
Commitment, Career Development and Job-Related Stress in the Black Employee**

A Thesis

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the Division of Psychology and Special Education

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by

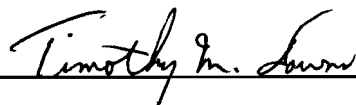
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Throughout all phases of life, mentors play essential roles in the lives of many individuals. People of all races, ages and nationalities look to someone else for guidance, reassurance and emotional support. While this desire for personalized attention primarily surfaces for most individuals during early childhood and adolescent years, the need for certainty and direction does not cease to exist as one enters the realm of adulthood. However, for minorities especially, this fundamental longing to be educated and guided is obscured by the various difficulties encountered throughout their search for an organizational mentor (Backmon, Clark & Weisenfeld, 1997; Colburn, 1992). For whatever reason, some racial minorities, more specifically, Blacks, do not receive the initial direction they need to be successful contributors within the organizations in which they work (Adams, 1998; Blank & Slipp, 1994).

The concept of organizational mentoring has been a topic of discussion in the management literature for over two decades (Scandura, 1998). Yet, with few exceptions, research directly addressing the role and effect that race has in mentoring relationships, especially for Blacks, is scarce (Collins, Kanya & Tourse, 1997). In addition, while the relationship between mentoring and organizational stress has been addressed in past research, the findings pertaining to the definite relationship between the interaction of mentoring and job-related stress has resulted in mixed findings. Needless to say, the literature investigating the effect of mentoring and the amount of job-related stress felt by the Black employee, is virtually non-existent. Knowledge of these realities is especially unfortunate because this country is in the midst of a drastic demographic transition from

what it has been in the past, as people of color are reported by Collins et al. (1997) as constituting the “fastest growing segment of the population” (p. 145).

Because past research has indicated that the same difficulties encountered when attempting to build positive working relationships during the initial phase of employment are not presented to White newcomers (Giscombe & Sims, 1998; Ragins, 1997), the purpose of this study will be to focus solely on the effect these introductory complications have on Black employees in relation to the amount of work-related stress experienced, their commitment to the organization, the amount of professional development encountered on the job, and their overall satisfaction with the job itself.

Organizational Mentoring

According to Geiger-Dumond and Boyle (1995), one definition of a mentor is a “wise and trusted counselor” (p. 54). In organizations, mentoring has become known as an important aspect of organizational socialization and career development (Hill & Bahniuk, 1998). Described as the “prototype of a relationship that enhances career development” (Kram, 1985, p. 2), mentoring used as a career development tool can assist companies with the recruitment of top executives (Hildebrand, 1998) as well as encourage and capitalize on diversity in the workplace (Reid, 1994). Simply, businesses are engaging in the practice of mentoring to “improve management, promote leadership, sustain quality, inspire interest among personnel, and to assure a future” (Frey & Noller, 1986, p. 49).

Derived from Greek mythology (Kram, 1985), the name mentor implies a relationship in which knowledge is moved through an organization from an older, more experienced and trained adult to a younger individual (Geiger-DuMond & Boyle, 1995).

Within this relationship, a period of reflection is nearly inevitable for both parties involved. Whereas mentors in the relationship often identify the protégés as representations of their past, the protégés identify the mentors as representatives of their future (Ragins, 1997).

Scholars in the mentoring literature have found that the mentoring process in organizations advances through a series of steps. According to Kram (1985), the mentoring relationship moves through four phases: Initiation, Cultivation, Separation and Redefinition. During Initiation, a stage that typically lasts for a period of six months to a year, the senior manager is both admired and respected by the protégé for the amount of competence exhibited and the mentor's capacity to provide support and guidance. In the Cultivation stage, which lasts anywhere from two to five years, the protégé develops an individualized sense of competence that roots from the provision of challenging work, coaching, exposure and protection. The Separation phase occurs within six months to two years after a significant change in the mentoring relationship transpires and is often characterized by feelings of turmoil and hostility. Because the mentee, as a result of the mentor's tutelage, has become more empowered and autonomous in his or her actions, the mentoring relationship becomes a less central role in each parties' organizational life. Even still, this period of separation does not have to become a permanent situation. In fact, the mentor and the protégé working together can move their relationship into the Redefinition phase in which the once paternalistic relationship develops into an ongoing friendship. Once this transition has occurred, the mentor and protégé are now on a more equal playing field. Even so, occasional coaching and counseling may still occur during this stage which can last for an indefinite amount of time.

Now, more than ever, companies are beginning to question whether they should structure their mentoring programs in a way that encourages the formal or informal pairing of a mentor and protégé. Informal mentoring or “natural selection” in which mentors and protégés are self-selected based on similarities is often the preferred choice for both parties involved (“The Many Faces,” 1997). “Business people have mentored naturally for years—on the golf course, over drinks—without putting a name to it” (Hildebrand, 1998, p. 66). In this type of process, the individuals who closely resemble mentors in supervisory positions are often the employees selected as protégés and organizational students. Because the majority of the workforce is White, and even fewer minorities occupy positions in the higher echelons of corporations, this relationship often neglects the presence and possible contribution of the Black employee (Hill & Bahniuk, 1998).

Conversely, formal mentoring, as opposed to informal, approaches mentoring in a way that attempts to alleviate the problem of racial exclusion. The primary purpose of this more systematic form of mentoring involves the establishment of explicit goals and practices for the development of “skills and leadership abilities of the less-experienced members of the organization” (Scandura, 1998, p. 450). Whereas informal mentoring tolerates individual preference and selection, formal mentoring strives to match all new entrants with an established employee in the organization. While giving all employees an equal opportunity to establish an organizational mentoring relationship ensures all recent hires will receive the same initial treatment regardless of race, there are some potential problems that can arise as a result of the development of a formal mentoring program. First of all, there is the potential for a mismatch on aspects such as interests and the desire

to participate in the program. There is also the possibility that both parties will have an unrealistic image of what will happen as a result of the mentoring program. Related to this, both the mentor and protégé may not realize the amount of time and commitment that will be needed as a contribution to make the relationship successful (Burke & McKeen, 1989). Needless to say, to avoid such challenges, any formalized mentoring program should afford some means of exit if any sign exists that the assigned mentoring relationship is not proving beneficial to either party involved (Scandura, 1998).

Past research has identified instrumental functions and psychosocial functions as two dimensions of mentoring. Kram (1985), Koberg, Chappell and Ringer (1994), and Dansky (1996) specifically address these two mentoring functions. Instrumental functions are characterized by those aspects of the mentoring relationship in which coaching, protection and sponsorship are enhanced. These components of a positive mentoring experience are most often augmented through career guidance, the protégé's assignment to challenging jobs, and the granting of exposure or visibility of the protégé within the organization. On the other hand, psychosocial functions are those that foster a sense of competence within the mentee as well as effectiveness of role acquisition. This function can best be exemplified through the existence of counseling, role modeling and friendship.

Effects of Mentoring

Virtually all studies on mentoring have in some way examined the outcomes associated with an organizational mentoring relationship. Since this study is particularly concerned with mentoring as it occurs during the early stages of an organizational newcomer's career, it seems appropriate to first outline and understand the effects

associated with the socialization process. According to Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (1999), “formal group socialization methods are often related to lower role ambiguity, role conflict, higher job satisfaction and decreased employee turnover” (p. 5). More specific to the mentoring literature, research suggests that some of the basic benefits afforded to protégés include job security (Scandura, Tejeda, Werther & Lankau, 1996), retention and job performance (Dansky, 1996; Isaacs, 1998), sense of competence and effectiveness in professional roles (Ragins, 1997) and a clear understanding of the goals set forth by the organization (Bailey, 1998). Further, mentored individuals are more satisfied with their jobs and superior in managerial skills compared to their counterparts who are not exposed to the inner workings of a mentoring relationship (Dansky, 1996).

With all of these benefits reflecting involvement in a mentoring relationship, it seems almost natural that everyone employed by an organization would be encouraged to participate in such a beneficial process. Yet, as already noted, Blacks are often excluded for various reasons that will be discussed later in this thesis. Because Black professionals are often unjustifiably eliminated from this invaluable socialization process, they are unable to reap the positive outcomes associated with the establishment of a mentoring relationship. Mentoring fosters career progression, increased level of job productivity and greater feelings of job satisfaction (Koberg et al., 1994; Pergamit & Veum, 1999; Van-Collie, 1998; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993). In spite of these findings, Black employees are often denied access to this organizational process (Baldi & McBrier, 1997; Colburn, 1992; Stafford, 1998). With this being the case, what is the likelihood that Blacks will obtain the skills and basic “know-how” needed to climb the corporate ladder? Without the luxury of a mentor’s guidance, Blacks are being forced to reach higher organizational

ranks without the presence of an initial and therefore vital corporate step. Simply put, because Black employees have difficulty finding mentors and consequently, often do without, they have to find alternative pathways to adapt to the missing first rung on the corporate ladder presented to them. In fact, a 1991 U.S. Department of Labor report recorded that a cap for the career growth and development of Blacks often exists (Colburn, 1992). While this inability to locate a means of organizational guidance and leadership is not characteristic of all Black newcomers, enough discontent exists among Black professionals to warrant further investigation of this study (Adams, 1998; Blank & Slipp, 1994).

Blacks in Management Positions

Between 1983 and 1999, Blacks made up approximately 11% of the total American workforce (Grossman, 2000). In addition, they were the largest racial minority group in the United States and in the workforce (Blank & Slipp, 1994). The growth of Blacks in corporate America continues to rapidly increase (Collins et al., 1997). Despite this, the number of Black employees holding positions in the upper ranks of American businesses is drastically disproportionate to the number of Black employees represented throughout organizations (Adams, 1998; Giscombe & Sims, 1998; Ragins, 1997). This truth is manifested in some of the popular literature specifically focusing on this issue. As noted in an article addressing the limitations presented to Black professional women, while Black female professionals account for almost a quarter of all female workers in the American workforce, they are the “most underrepresented subgroup in private-sector management” (Giscombe & Sims, 1998, p. S9). Although this example is particular to Black women, attaining higher organizational positions is not solely characteristic of this

subgroup. Unfortunately, this is the reality most Black professionals are forced to face. As Cose (1994) puts it, “instead of ‘things’ happening, instead of careers taking off, Blacks are being stymied—they are not running into a glass ceiling, but into one made of cement and steel” (p. 41). The prevailing question is why? Are Blacks not acquiring the education needed to be promoted in the companies in which they work? Do Black employees simply not have the desire to achieve higher organizational roles? Do they lack the work ethic deemed necessary for achievement? None of these factors have been shown to be true by previous research. In fact, what has been shown is the complete opposite (Adams, 1998; Blank & Slipp, 1994; Degrees of Difference, 1998).

One answer to the seemingly wide resistance on the part of White male-dominated organizations to acknowledge the talent of Black professionals and therefore, advance them through the ranks of the organization, has been documented in past literature. What has been found is that “people are naturally more comfortable with those who remind them of themselves” (McIlvaine, 1999, p. 54). The concept of this “comfort factor” was initially introduced in literature addressing the effect gender plays in mentoring relationships (Zey, 1984). Even before the introduction of this term, professional women often lacked mentors to help determine the standard of professional performance within the organizational structure (Women Finally, 1978). The implications suggested by this reality are extremely generalizable to today’s racial effects on this organizational process as well. What has often been implied is that mentors often gravitate toward and establish more personal, and therefore more effective relationships, with those who share similar backgrounds and interests (Colborn, 1992). There is also clear evidence that individuals who differ demographically from their supervisors are

often less involved in mentoring relationships with those supervisors (Dansky, 1996). With this being the case, and corporate America being comprised of mostly Whites, this inherent proclivity undoubtedly excludes the participation of Black professionals. What this omission in turn does is essentially deny Blacks the “privileged” organizational information and suggested courses of action often offered to their White counterparts through involvement in mentoring relationships.

Blacks and Organizational Mentoring

Blacks have difficulty finding mentors because of a lack of racial similarity and often experience great obstacles moving up the corporate ladder so that they may be able to serve as a mentor to someone else. This complication has often been attributed to bias and stereotyping within organizations. For instance, Friedman, Kane and Cornfield (1998) showed that Blacks are evaluated more harshly than White men are on performance evaluations. Additionally, positive characteristics are also less likely to be attributed to Blacks than to Whites. Not surprisingly, biases such as these often inhibit the effectiveness of Blacks, which make it nearly impossible for them to be recognized for their accomplishments and thus, stunt the progression of their managerial careers.

Needless to say, the number of Blacks in managerial roles throughout American businesses in relation to the number of actual Blacks employed remains a phenomenon among Blacks in America. One reason this reality is not understood is because just two years ago, a higher number of bachelor's, masters and doctorates were being earned by Blacks than ever before (Degrees of Difference, 1998). Regardless of documented information of this type, a systematic difference in promotion criteria exists for Blacks and Whites within organizational structures. Specifically, Baldi and McBrier (1997),

found that Black professionals are significantly less likely to be promoted than their White counterparts with the “same level of education and work experience and within firms with the same characteristics and organizational environments” (p. 478). So, if Blacks are not being promoted because of a lack of education, what is the reason behind this injustice? More importantly, what kind of effect, if any, does the presence of this truth have on Black employees?

One effect that has been repeatedly noted in response to the challenges encountered when seeking progression within their career is that Black employees are leaving their jobs at rates “two and three times higher than Caucasian men and women” (Stafford, 1998, p. BP4) and experiencing extreme feelings of isolation and discontent. In fact, according to some of the literature related to this topic (e.g., Adams, 1998; Blank & Slipp, 1994), this feeling of seclusion is typical among Black employees. Often this reaction is in direct response to the feeling that “there’s no one at the top they can talk to” (Adams, 1998, p. 76). As a result, Black employees find themselves in the position of forming the majority of their developmental relationships with Whites. While some may not view this as a valid issue for Black professionals, the fact remains that it is incredibly important for someone, in this case Black professionals, “to have the ear and counsel of one who has already fought the same battles” (Benedict, 1978, p. 13).

In a study conducted to specifically examine the relationship between compensation awarded and the establishment of mentoring relationships, African-Americans who established developmental relationships with White men displayed an average annual compensation that was \$16,840 more than those without the same exposure (Dreher & Cox, 1996). Protégés, regardless of race, have not been able to

experience the same compensatory success with Black mentors. In fact, racially homogeneous mentoring relationships involving Blacks are often incapable of providing the career development tools necessary for organizational progression. This lack of contributed support associated with Black mentors is attributed to the stereotypes and misconceptions (i.e., Black professionals gain employment solely through the enforcement of affirmative action, Black professionals are lazy and incompetent) that are often entertained in corporate America (Heilman, Block & Lucas, 1992; Ragins, 1997). Since members of minority groups are found at lower organizational ranks and consequently have less organizational power, perceptions of the Black mentor's level of competence in regards to guiding the protégé through the necessary stages of career development, are often distorted and underestimated. Surprisingly, this misinterpretation has also been shown to prevail even when Black mentors have the same resources for power as their majority counterparts (Ragins, 1997). Even in the few instances in which Blacks establish organizational relationships with mentors of the same race, out of necessity, these rare interactions are developed across different areas of specialization and levels of hierarchy (Hill & Bahniuk, 1998).

Far too often, companies seek to recruit African-Americans into their organizations but forget the importance of retaining their talent (Arthur, 1999). When employees make attempts to make diversity an integral part of the organization and implement programs such as diversity training, there is often no system established to ensure that the organization as a whole will remain committed to the goals set forth by the training offered (Digh, 1998). The establishment of mentoring programs has been proposed as a solution to improving the retention efforts of Black employees (Adamis,

1999). As it has already been mentioned, doing such will provide employees who are not usually included in the mentoring process with essential information on organizational norms and career opportunities. Quite simply, if American companies are going to “recover lost productivity, regain a competitive edge, and move into the century with a renewed sense of preeminence, they will have to effectively attract and manage the diverse talent that will characterize their new work force” (Motawani, Harper, Subramanian & Douglas, 1993, p. 16), and it has been clearly and repetitively stated that mentoring is one way to accomplish this.

Job Stress

Now more than ever, employees are experiencing some severe consequences associated with job-related stress. Unfortunately, this is a growing problem for companies, costing American businesses approximately \$200 billion annually in medical costs, \$20 billion in worker’s compensation claims, more than one million days of absenteeism and a decline in overall productivity (Caudron, 1998; Losey, 1991; Verespej, 1989). Although research on organizational stress is growing, it is still much of an unfinished enterprise (Beehr, 1998). According to Beehr, among industrial-organizational psychologists especially, employee stress has been viewed as a relatively neglected area of research.

Although the concepts of organizational stress and Black protégé involvement in mentoring relationships have been identified as relevant elements within the organizational structure, they have both been scarcely researched. Because of this unfortunate truth, it is evident that the need for investigating the relationship between these two occurrences is long overdue. Often when managers have attempted to identify

the cause of employee discontent attributed to high levels of job-related stress, they have automatically and incorrectly assumed the issue was reflective of incumbents' dissatisfaction with pay (Caudron, 1998). In contrast, what employers are quickly finding out is that employees are often complaining and leaving jobs because of things such as inadequate training, lack of communication and the inability to develop interpersonal relationships at work (Caudron, 1998; Levy, 1998). These complaints should not be taken lightly.

Following the administration of a national survey, 48% of workers in the United States responded to job-related stress by performing unethical or illegal activities (e.g., stealing). Perhaps even more astonishing, 58% of all workers declared that pressures at work led them to considering engaging in unethical or illegal actions such as stealing and vandalizing workplace materials (McShulskis, 1997). Further, Zemke (1991) reported that in 1990, one in three Americans considered leaving their jobs because of job stress. Zemke also found that 7 out of 10 workers acknowledged that job stress lowered their level of productivity and contributed to frequent health problems. This in turn caused them to miss one or more days of work per year. With knowledge of the effects job stress has on both the employee and the organization, the issue of workplace stress cannot be ignored.

Although there may not be a generally accepted definition of stress in either the management or psychological literature (Lawson & Shen, 1998), many researchers have provided one. For instance, Buhler (1993) defines stress as the "body's non-specific response to stressors in the environment...the mental and physical wear and tear we experience in our lives" (p. 17). Another definition refers to stress as "an adaptive

response, mediated by individual characteristics and/or psychological processes, that is a consequence of any external action, situation, or event that places special physical and/or psychological demands upon a person” (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998, p. 529).

Despite the definition chosen to describe this phenomenon, organizations need to express a greater concern about the prevalence of stress within the workplace. In addition to the many consequences already mentioned, employers need to find a solution to this increasing problem for another crucial reason. According to the guidelines set forth by the Occupational Safety and Health Act established in 1970, employers are legally responsible for the existence of stressful conditions that may potentially cause the employee any physical, mental or psychological harm (Stress in Organizations, 1984).

Stress is a life-threatening illness (Buhler, 1993). High blood pressure, high cholesterol, high blood sugar, skin problems, injuries (Chusmir & Franks, 1988), heart disease, fatigue and suicidal attempts (Buhler, 1993; Chusmir & Franks, 1988) are just a few of the symptoms that have been linked to organizationally-induced stress.

Discrimination in the workplace has also been defined as a major stressor. Specifically, if discrimination in the areas of promotion, hiring and performance evaluation exists, a greater level of stress is often experienced by the employee who endures the bias (Chusmir & Franks, 1988). Past research validating the reality of this kind of injustice for Black employees (Ornstein & Isabella, 1993; Pergamit & Veum, 1999; Van Collie, 1998) implies the possibility of a high amount of work-related stress felt by the Black incumbent. Although completely eliminating stress from every individual’s life is unrealistic (Buhler, 1993), one potential moderator of work-related stress may be found

in the increase of an employee's feelings of commitment to the organization (Leong, Furnham & Cooper, 1996).

Organizational Commitment

Over the past 30 years, organizational commitment has been one of the most widely researched areas within industrial psychology and organizational behavior (Benkhoff, 1997). Much of the interest in the past that has been focused on the area of organizational commitment can be attributed to its perceived impact on employee performance (Benkhoff, 1997; Wahn, 1998). As time progresses however, and more information develops in the area of mentoring, research is beginning to explore the impact of mentoring on organizational commitment (Lankau & Chung, 1998). The concept of organizational commitment is important to organizations because committed employees are individuals who are more likely to remain with the organization and who want to work toward the goals of the company (Schappe & Doran, 1997).

Organizational commitment is defined as the "strength of a person's attachment to an organization" (Wahn, 1998, p. 256) and the "employee's identification with, and involvement in, the goals and values of the organization" (McNeese-Smith, 1996, p. 163). While organizational commitment has most often been described as a fairly simplistic notion, some researchers have chosen to define this construct as a multi-dimensional phenomenon. Perhaps the best example of this definitional difference is manifested in a classification of organizational commitment into three separate components. According to a brief analysis of Allen and Meyer's work by Schappe and Doran (1997), the three elements of organizational commitment are affective, continuance, and normative.

Affective commitment describes an employee's "emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Schappe & Doran, 1997, p. 192). Based on descriptions of the three different components, both Schappe and Doran (1997) and Wahn (1998) describe continuance commitment as the consequences the employee associates with leaving the organization. The third component, normative commitment, considers the employee's feelings of obligation to stay with a certain organization. Although each component acknowledges a different aspect of organizational commitment, individuals experience the nature of these states at varying degrees. Therefore, the totality of an employee's commitment to an organization encompasses elements from all three perspectives (Schappe & Doran, 1997).

As was previously mentioned, several studies have been conducted with the intent of investigating the relationship between organizational commitment and employee performance (e.g., Benkhoff, 1997; Wahn, 1998). Other researchers have explored the possible link between various workplace issues and the amount of commitment to the organization the employee feels. Results from these efforts have generated some very interesting findings. For instance, in a study conducted by Saks (1996) examining the connection between the amount of introductory training received and work outcomes, new entry-level accountants were surveyed after their first six months of socialization. The findings revealed that the amount of training extended was significantly related to job satisfaction, intention to quit, commitment, ability to cope, as well as several measures of job performance (Saks, 1996). This study implied that many employees may view an early training experience as an indication that the company is actually interested in them, consider them to be vital elements of the organization, and are therefore willing

to invest time and money in their introductory process. In this sense, training may be considered a definite means of enhancing employee's commitment to the organization.

Because mentoring involves a considerable amount of training on the part of the mentor, it seems almost natural that these same findings would be generalizable to this organizational process. This seemingly indisputable conclusion is supported in a study conducted with front-line employees from three different hotel organizations (Lankau & Chung, 1998). Questionnaires asking employees to respond to inquiries regarding their workplace, job, benefits, team participation, and whether or not they had ever had a mentor were sent out to three participating hotels. Approximately 200 survey packets were mailed to the general manager of each cooperating hotel and 457 responses from the overall sample were used for this study. Specifically, results from this research effort verified that mentoring, as a training tool, does in fact promote organizational commitment and employee retention.

Young, Worchel and Woehr (1998) considered the issues associated with the presence of organizational commitment among blue-collar workers. They found that things such as promotion satisfaction, communication, leadership satisfaction, and job satisfaction were both positively and significantly related to employee commitment. It has repeatedly been suggested throughout this thesis however, that Black employees are often denied the luxury of promotion in comparison to their White counterparts (Baldi & McBrier, 1997; Colburn, 1992; Stafford, 1998), as well as the comfort of having someone in which a true communication-based relationship can be developed (Adams, 1998; Benedict, 1978). With the truth of these factors being so prevalent in today's workforce, and the undeniable need for committed employees in any business setting, any effort

made to determine the commitment level among Black employees should be deemed as noteworthy.

Career Development

For most employees, rank or position within the company in which they work is an extremely important aspect of their job (Pergamit & Veum, 1999). In spite of this almost innate desire and need to excel on the job, Black employees are almost always denied the resources and vital relationships to do such (Baldi & McBrier, 1997; Colburn, 1992; Stafford, 1998). In fact, in a study conducted by Pergamit and Veum (1999), it was straightforwardly stated that just as men are more likely to be promoted than women, Whites are more likely to progress in their career than are Blacks.

One possible answer to the struggle many Black employees have to experience on their climb up the corporate ladder is mentoring. Mentoring is an old concept, but it is often considered a new and sometimes essential developmental tool needed to aid in the process of helping younger employees advance their careers (Van-Collie, 1998). Even still, there has not been an extensive amount of attention focused on the effects of mentoring on career advancements and progression within organizations (Whitely & Coetsier, 1993). Among some of the observations that have been made about the relationship between these two processes, Hill and Bahniuk (1998) report that mentoring is considered a form of supportive organizational communication that is often very powerful in an employee's career development. Mentoring can also influence visibility of protégés within an organization, therefore placing protégés in positions in which they are more likely to be considered for future career mobility opportunities (Walsh & Borkowski, 1999).

Further literature related to this topic has also indicated that mentoring implemented as a career development tool can be used to accomplish corporate diversity goals, as well as the recruitment of top executives (Hildebrand, 1998). For example, it was not until several talented minority employees left the NationsBank located in Dallas that the company began to seriously consider the possible benefits of mentoring (Van-Collie, 1998). According to the summary of this company's experience provided by Van-Collie, a vice-president at NationsBank commented that if the minority employees within the organization "had had more contact and relationships with senior management, they may not have felt as though leaving was their only alternative" (Van-Collie, 1998, p. 42). This instance is particularly unfortunate given that research conducted by Hill and Bahniuk (1998) maintains that mentoring relationships tend to impact the career success of Blacks more than they do for Whites. While both racially heterogeneous and homogeneous mentoring relationships provide a sense of career support, this particular study indicates that same-race relationships essentially provide more psychosocial support and have a much shorter and easier initiation period. Because of this, organizations are encouraged to provide their minority employees a vast amount of opportunities to develop racially homogeneous mentoring relationships. The establishment of these type of relationships may enhance the careers of Black employees as well as provide these individuals with the psychosocial support essential to a healthy, profitable relationship (Hill & Bahniuk, 1998).

In somewhat of an opposition to the proposal mentioned above, Pittenger (1996) stated that it may be in the best interest for organizations that choose to use formal mentoring programs to not exclusively assign their minority employees to either White

managers or those of the same race. Instead, the organization may find the networking relationship more valuable to the company as a whole if more racially diverse relationships are formed.

Pittenger's 1996 survey of 63 middle managers revealed that when the racial composition of organizational networks was considered, a significant difference between White and Black employees existed. Specifically, Blacks who were considered to be on the fast-track were found to establish both Black and White informal networking circles. White employees with high potential as well as Blacks not on the fast-track, developed few, if any, networking relationships with minorities within the organization. Ironically, Blacks not on the fast-track felt that association with members solely from their racial group would be detrimental to their career development. On the other hand, the more successful Blacks from this study greatly emphasized the importance and value of establishing relationships with other Blacks in the organization. Consistent with Hill and Bahniuk (1998), although the Black employees noted that the development of relationships with White contacts was very useful, they felt that the interaction was somewhat limited in that it was difficult to connect with their White mentors on some of the "specific, often race-related, obstacles that the minority manager faces" (Pittenger, 1996, p. 63).

Following a study conducted to investigate the career experiences of Black managers in comparison to White managers, Blacks often reported feeling "less accepted in their organizations, perceived themselves as having less discretion on their jobs, received lower ratings from their supervisors on their job performance and promotability, were more likely to have reached career plateaus, and experienced lower levels of career

satisfaction” (Ornstein & Isabella, 1993, p. 49). Ornstein and Isabella provided two possible justifications for these occurrences. The first of these is the possibility that the experiences encountered by Black employees prior to entering the organization in some way, hinders their potential career progression. The second, and more plausible explanation, is that there is simply a systematic bias apparent in the rating process.

The idea that a bias occurs in the obtainment of organizational mentors for Black employees is particularly distressing when the numerous advantages of mentoring beyond career development are considered. Besides an increase in training and supervisory responsibilities, mentoring may also enhance an employee’s level of job satisfaction (Pergamit & Veum, 1999).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined as the “feelings an employee has about the job in general” (McNeese-Smith, 1996, p. 164). Another definition of this organizational outcome classifies it as being reflective of the “positive emotion that follows the cognitive appraisal of a job or job experiences” (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996, p. 1066). Still another description labels job satisfaction as “an affective or emotional response toward various facets of one’s job” (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998, p. 206). This last definition implies that an employee can be satisfied with one aspect of his or her job, and utterly displeased with other aspects. Likewise, what one employee finds satisfying, another may experience feelings of discontent. So what determines these variations in feelings of satisfaction?

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) propose five models of job satisfaction explaining its many causes. They are need fulfillment, discrepancy, value attainment, equity and

trait/genetic components. Quite simply, the need fulfillment model suggests that job satisfaction is contingent upon the extent to which the specifics of the job fulfill the needs of the employee. Discrepancy theories propose that employees will experience a high amount of job satisfaction as long as they receive from the job exactly what was initially expected from the experience. The basic premise supporting the theories of value attainment is that satisfaction is directly related to the employee's perception that the job provides complete fulfillment of the work values the employee possesses. Equity theory blatantly states that job satisfaction results from the feelings of fairness an employee has about organizational processes. More specifically, does the employee's perception of work outcomes as a result of inputs to the organization compare favorably with the input/outcome relationship of others within the workplace? If this relationship is not perceived as comparable, this theory suggests that the employee's level of job satisfaction will be low. The fifth model of job satisfaction, referred to as the trait/genetic model, is based on the idea that the existence of job satisfaction is equally a function of both personal traits and genetic factors.

In an attempt to provide a brief summary of some of the consequences of job satisfaction, Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) also outlined the relationships between job satisfaction and various other organizational variables. Relationships between job satisfaction and motivation, job involvement, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover, perceived stress and job performance were all noted. From these variables, however, only organizational commitment and perceived stress were strongly related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, past research has indicated that involvement in organizational mentoring relationships greatly effects an

employee's amount of job satisfaction (Koberg et al., 1994; Pergamit & Veum, 1999). The combination of these findings suggests that mentoring relationships should have a direct or indirect effect on an employee's commitment to the organization and perceived amount of job-related stress, in addition to individual feelings specifically related to job satisfaction.

In a review of a study provided by Dodd-McCue and Wright (1996), gender differences were apparent in job satisfaction. According to the study, women exhibited a greater sense of intrinsic satisfaction than men. One explanation for these results suggested that women perceived the variety of their career alternatives to be severely limited. Another interpretation proposed that women possess a greater sense of job satisfaction because they associate several high costs with the attainment of their current organizational membership.

Because of the similarity of difficulties Blacks and women have experienced within the workforce, one may assert that the findings from this study are generalizable to the Black working population. One study conducted with the intent of addressing this very notion provides support for this assertion. Rubaii-Barrett and Beck (1993) examined the similarities and differences in the perceptions of work climate and levels of job satisfactions among employees in a "general purpose local government" (p. 503). Blacks were found to have a higher level of job satisfaction than were Whites. This finding was attributed to the government's role in the incorporation of employees from various minority and ethnic groups. Whatever the reason, it is clear that more research needs to be conducted before the relationship between job satisfaction and race of the employee can truly be determined.

The Present Study

The number of Black employees in the American workforce is undeniably increasing. Despite this reality, literature addressing key issues pertinent to the Black employee is extremely scarce. Past research has repeatedly cited positive employee outcomes resulting from a good socialization process and more specifically, mentoring relationships. Nevertheless, in the midst of the findings, it has been briefly acknowledged that professional Blacks rarely have access to organizational mentors; thus further capitalizing on the challenges any new incumbent faces. Furthermore, a limited amount of studies have actually looked at the effect this denial of proper and positive socialization has on the Black employee's career progression. The main goal of this study, therefore, is to expand on the few studies that have addressed the issue of Blacks and the relationships they develop with organizational mentors, and provide further insight on how the lack of minority representation in higher positions throughout organizations and the seemingly consequential exclusion of Blacks from the mentoring process, effects the Black employee's perception towards the job in terms of job-related stress and level of organizational commitment. In addition to this, this experiment will investigate the effect that obtainment of an organizational mentor has on the Black professional's feelings of job satisfaction and the success experienced in their career development. Based on the literature discussed, the following hypotheses will be tested:

Hypothesis 1a: Blacks who have the opportunity to establish organizational mentoring relationships, regardless of the race of their mentor, will exhibit a significantly greater sense of job satisfaction than Black employees who do not engage in an organizational mentoring relationship at all.

Hypothesis 1b: Blacks who have the opportunity to establish organizational mentoring relationships, regardless of the race of their mentor, will exhibit a significantly greater sense of organizational commitment than Black employees who do not engage in an organizational mentoring relationship at all.

Hypothesis 1c: Blacks who have the opportunity to establish organizational mentoring relationships, regardless of the race of their mentor, will experience significantly lower job-related stress in comparison to Black employees who do not engage in an organizational mentoring relationship at all.

Hypothesis 1d: Blacks who have the opportunity to establish organizational mentoring relationships, regardless of the race of their mentor, will experience significantly more success in their career development/progression compared to Black employees who are not involved in an organizational mentoring relationship at all.

These four hypotheses will collectively compare the differences apparent between Black employees with and without mentors in their response to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job-related stress and career development.

Hypothesis 2a: Black employees who have access to Black mentors and establish Black-Black mentoring relationships will have significantly higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to both Black employees who establish Black-White mentoring relationships and White employees involved in the mentoring process.

Hypothesis 2b: Black employees who have access to Black mentors will establish Black-Black mentoring relationships and will be significantly more committed to their organization compared to both Black employees who establish Black-White mentoring relationships and White employees involved in the mentoring process.

Hypothesis 2c: Black employees who have access to Black mentors will establish Black-Black mentoring relationships and will experience significantly less job-related stress compared to both Black employees who establish Black-White mentoring relationships and White employees involved in the mentoring process.

Hypothesis 2d: Black employees who have access to Black mentors will establish Black-Black mentoring relationships that will result in significantly greater success in their career development/progression compared to both Black employees who establish Black-White mentoring relationships and White employees involved in the mentoring process.

These four hypotheses will collectively compare the differences apparent among Black employees with Black mentors, Black employees with White mentors and White employees who are involved in a mentoring relationship in their response to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job-related stress and career development.

Hypothesis 3a: Employees who experience a high sense of career development will also exhibit high feelings of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Employees who experience high feelings of job satisfaction will also exhibit a high amount of commitment to their organization.

Hypothesis 3c: Employees who experience a high amount of commitment to their organization will also exhibit low feelings of job-related stress.

Hypothesis 3d: Employees who experience low feelings of job-related stress will also exhibit high feelings of job satisfaction.

These four hypotheses will focus on the correlation among the four administered tests.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

The sample size for this study consisted of 76 incumbents employed across various job positions in a large Midwestern mass transit company. Out of the 76 participants, 41 were Black. Eleven had previously been involved in a mentoring relationship; 1 had been exposed to White mentorship, and 10 Blacks had been protégés of Black mentors. There were a total of 30 Black workers who had not been mentored at all. Thirty-two of the total sample were White employees. The remaining 3 participants were from Asian/Pacific Islander backgrounds.

The organization that was used in this study was selected because of its racially mixed nature and the diversity of mentoring experiences within the company. While some departments offer a formal mentoring program, others do not. Because of the presence of these two fundamental characteristics, the researcher believed participants from this selected organization would generate results that would essentially be generalizable to other professional individuals that engaged in similar practices (mentoring) within their organizational structures.

The basic premise of this research effort was to assess the role race plays in organizational mentoring relationships, and the effect this relationship has on the level of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and amount of work-related stress Black employees feel. The result of this process regarding the career development of the Black employee was also considered.

Demographic information concerning the participants' ethnicity and their mentor's ethnicity was evaluated. Additionally, the number of years the participants have been employed with the organization was recorded. And finally, specifics pertinent to the individual's current position, as well as the number of years employed in that position was also collected.

Design

The first set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 1a-1d) were analyzed using independent sample t tests. Specifically, the relationship between the Black participants' involvement in a mentoring relationship (independent variable) and the amount of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job-related stress and career development they experience (dependent variables) was assessed.

For the second set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 2a-2d), a one-way ANOVA in which the comparison among Black employees with Black mentors, Black employees with White mentors, and mentored Whites (independent variables) in relation to the amount of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job-related stress and career development each group experiences (dependent variable) was conducted. When the F statistics of the computed ANOVAs revealed a significant overall difference, the Tukey post-hoc procedure was utilized. Further, correlations among the four administered tests were also computed (Hypotheses 3a-3d).

Measures

Organizational Mentoring General Survey. Participants in this study were required to complete a short, six-question survey developed by the researcher (see Appendix A). Questions on this survey were designed to determine the participants' past

involvement in an organizational mentoring relationship and to solicit basic demographic information (e.g., ethnicity of participant, mentor's ethnicity, number of years employed in organization, etc.) about the individuals participating in the study. In order to assess the hierarchical level of the individual's current position within the organization, participants were asked to provide the grade level assigned to their position.

Validity of this instrument was assessed by allowing the three individuals on the thesis committee to review the questionnaire prior to its initial administration. The committee verified content validity of this measure by agreeing that the items on the survey were relevant to the subject and were designed to extract the information desired. They also agreed on the overall comprehensiveness of the questions asked.

Career Development Survey. Career development of the participants was assessed through responses to a five-question survey constructed by the researcher (see Appendix B). Items on this questionnaire evaluated the participant's involvement in training seminars and challenging assignments. By providing answers to the questions asked on the short survey, information regarding the participant's exposure throughout the organization and his/her opportunities for advancement was evaluated. Scores on this scale range from 5-23. Lower scores indicate that the individual has not experienced many opportunities for career development as a result of participation in the mentoring process. Conversely, higher scores on this instrument suggest that the participant has been provided with several options for career development and professional growth.

The amount of reliability in this instrument was determined by computing the coefficient alpha for the items included on the questionnaire. A coefficient of .28 was revealed. The validity of this instrument was determined by the three individuals on the

thesis committee. The committee verified content validity of the measure by indicating the items on the survey were relevant to the subject and were designed to elicit the desired information prior to the initial administration of the survey. They also agreed on the overall comprehensiveness of the questions asked.

Organizational Commitment Survey. The participant's commitment level to his/her organization was evaluated by a five-question survey developed by the researcher (see Appendix C). Questions on this instrument assessed the individual's future plans for employment with the company as well as his/her feelings of obligation to remain with a single organization throughout his/her professional career. Scores on this scale range from 5-25. Lower scores imply the individual possesses very high organizational commitment, whereas higher scores suggest the individual's low sense of commitment to his/her organization.

Evaluation of this instrument yielded an internal consistency of .60. The validity of this instrument was determined by the three individuals on the thesis committee. These individuals verified content validity by stating the items on this survey successfully elicited the desired information prior to the initial administration of the survey. There was also consistency among the committee members' feelings about the comprehensiveness of the questions asked.

Work Stress Profile. Participants were also requested to complete the Work Stress Profile (Rice, 1992; See Appendix D). In order to use the Work Stress Profile (Rice, 1992) as part of personal study, permission from the author of the book in which the survey appears was obtained.

This 57-question survey was designed in order to extract information pertinent to the individual's perceptions of work-related stress as it relates to his/her working conditions, job environment or personal feelings that he/she may encounter at the workplace. Instructions on this instrument required the participant to estimate the approximate percentage of time the conditions provided were true. Scoring of this questionnaire produces three subscales. Questions 17-42 are geared toward stress in interpersonal relationships (e.g., questions 17, 21-27, 39) and to job satisfaction (e.g., questions 18-20, 28-38, 40-42). Questions 43-64 provide instances of physical conditions that could possibly elicit stress in the workplace. Specifically, this subscale measures the physical demands of the work environment. Questions 65-73 focus solely on job interest (e.g., questions 65-68), individual involvement on the job (e.g., questions 69, 73), and the possible onset of work-related stress (e.g., questions 70-72). After the subscale scores were computed, they were added together to arrive at a numerical total for the work stress experienced by the individual. A high score on either scale indicated more job-related stress. There are three scales identified in this profile. Reliabilities for these subscales are .75, .76, and .47. For the total scale, a reliability coefficient of .79 was shown.

Job Satisfaction Profile. The participants in this study were asked to complete a 32-question job satisfaction survey (see Appendix E). In order to use this for personal study, both verbal and written permission were sought and acquired from the author. This survey, constructed by Mark S. Nagy (1995), provides valuable information about the incumbent's current amount of satisfaction with his/her job and his/her perception about the amount of future satisfaction that will be felt towards the job.

The overall reliability for the questionnaire items was computed, and a reliability coefficient of .92 was found. Comparison of the Job Description Inventory (JDI) and the Nagy Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (NJSQ) suggests a high correlation between the two scales on measures of employee satisfaction with the work itself ($r = .65$), pay ($r = .72$), promotions received ($r = .60$), supervision ($r = .70$) and the employee's relationships with co-workers ($r = .64$; See Appendix F). This information indicates this is an acceptable measure for this study.

Procedure

After obtaining approval from both the thesis committee and the Institutional Review Board (see Appendix G) to conduct the proposed research, the researcher then notified the primary employer with whom the surveys were distributed. Although a representative from the company had already granted permission to administer the survey, authorization from the Director of Human Resources, the Director of Diversity/Affirmative Action, and the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the organization was also sought. At the request of the company, the format of the survey was changed and condensed to a two-sided, four paged folded questionnaire (see Appendix H). The new format offered a much less intimidating presentation for this lengthy investigation. Once approval was granted, data collection began. The CEO agreed to allow all employees to participate in the study.

The period of data collection occurred over one day. One week prior to the date of collection, an electronic mail message was sent to all employees throughout the building to alert them about this research effort. On the actual day of data collection, employees were greeted early in the morning by the elevator and handed a survey to complete and

return. Brief explanations were given when requested, and individuals were asked to return the informed consent (see Appendix I) along with the completed survey by the end of the day. For convenience, two dropboxes were prepared and left in the lobby area. The researcher also stayed in the lobby throughout the day to answer any questions.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the role race plays in organizational mentoring relationships. In particular, employees in a mass-transit company were studied to determine if their involvement in a mentoring relationship and the race of their mentor effected their overall success in terms of the employees' career development, commitment to the organization, feelings of job-related stress and their satisfaction with their work. Above all, the occurrence of the mentoring relationship was investigated in order to explore the direct outcomes of involvement for the Black employee.

Three sets of hypotheses were made. Specifically, it was posited that Black employees involved in the mentoring process would experience significantly greater job satisfaction, organizational commitment, career development and lower job-related stress compared to Black employees not exposed to such involvement (Hypotheses 1a-1d). The second set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 2a-2d) collectively compared the experiences endured by Black employees with Black mentors, Black employees with White mentors, and White employees who were involved in a mentoring relationship in regards to their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job-related stress and career development. Finally, it was hypothesized that correlation would exist among the four tests administered on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job-related stress and career development (Hypotheses 3a-3d).

For the first set of hypotheses, the independent variable was the Black participants' involvement in a mentoring relationship. Ratings obtained from scales

measuring organizational commitment, job-related stress, career development and job satisfaction served as the dependent variable. Independent sample t tests were used to provide an analysis of these relationships.

The effect of mentorship on Black employees' amount of job satisfaction discussed in Hypothesis 1a, did not reveal significance among participants, $t(39) = 1.52$, $p = ns$ (see Table 1). Hypothesis 1b focused on the relationship between Black employees' involvement in an organizational mentoring relationship and the effect such engagement had on the employees' commitment to their organization. Results from this investigation did not produce significant findings, $t(33) = .48$, $p = ns$. The effect of mentoring on Black employees' lower job-related stress outlined in Hypothesis 1c was also not shown to be significant, $t(39) = .1.54$, $p = ns$. Career development was the dependent variable tested in Hypothesis 1d. Results were shown to be significant, $t(32) = 5.90$, $p < .05$. These results indicate that Black employees involved in a mentoring relationship do in fact experience significantly more success in their career development opposed to Black employees who are not involved in the mentoring process at all.

Hypotheses 2a-2d were evaluated by using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Race of the mentor served as the independent variable and the participants' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job-related stress and career development scores acted as the dependent variables. For this set of hypotheses, analysis of the three intended groups could not be performed due to an inadequate sample size in one of the cases. To remedy this situation, the focus of investigation for the initial hypotheses was altered. Instead of considering the differences apparent among Black employees with Black mentors, Black employees with White mentors, and White employees involved

Table 1

Independent Sample t-tests on the Effect of Mentoring on Job Satisfaction,
Organizational Commitment, Career Development and Job-Related Stress on the Black
Employee

	Mentored Blacks		Non-Mentored Blacks		t	df
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>		
Job Satisfaction	224.92	40.13	201.25	49.07	1.52	39
Organizational Commitment	15.08	2.02	14.59	3.32	.48	33
Career Development	9.75	3.96	2.95	2.73	5.90*	32
Job-Related Stress	163.00	30.79	151.11	18.58	1.54	39

* $p < .05$

in the mentoring process, the case of Black employees with White mentors was substituted for both Black and White employees without mentors at all.

After this slight modification occurred, Hypotheses 2a-2d produced similar results to those found in Hypothesis 1a-1d (see Table 2). Hypothesis 2a was not found to be significant, $F(2, 71) = 2.05$, $p = ns$. Likewise, Hypothesis 2b, which focused on the effect Black-Black mentoring relationships would have on Black employees' organizational commitment, compared to that of White employees involved in the mentoring process, and employees not involved in the mentoring process at all, was also shown to be not significant, $F(2, 61) = 0.23$, $p = ns$. Findings resulting from Hypothesis 2c were also not significant, $F(2, 71) = 1.71$, $p = ns$. Hypothesis 2d, like Hypothesis 1d, focused on the effect mentoring has on the employees' sense of career development and resulted in a significant outcome, $F(2, 60) = 20.83$, $p < .01$. The Tukey post-hoc procedure revealed that the significant difference in career development success was greatest between Black employees with Black mentors and individuals who were not exposed to the mentoring process at all, and also between White employees with mentors and those not involved in the mentoring process. Analysis of the means and standard deviations for the comparison groups used for this set of hypotheses suggested some possible advantages to involvement in Black-Black mentoring relationships (see Table 3). Comparison of these groups did not include descriptive information for the Black protégé –White mentor relationship because of the insufficient sample size for this pairing.

Hypotheses 3a-3d considered the correlation among the four administered tests (see Table 4). Hypothesis 3a suggested a relationship between career development and job satisfaction; no significant correlation was found, $r = 0.13$. Hypothesis 3b implied job

Table 2

Analysis of Variance on the Effect of Mentoring on Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Career Development and Job-Related Stress in the Black Employee Involved in Black-Black Mentoring Relationships Compared to Mentored Whites and Non-mentored Employees

<u>Source</u>		<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Job	Between Groups	2	8381.54	4190.77	2.05
Satisfaction	Within Groups	69	141430.44	2049.72	
	Total	71	149811.99		
Organizational	Between Groups	2	2.91	1.46	.23
Commitment	Within Groups	59	380.07	6.44	
	Total	61	382.98		
Career	Between Groups	2	361.49	180.74	20.83*
Development	Within Groups	58	503.20	8.67	
	Total	60	864.69		
Job-Related	Between Groups	2	1298.28	649.14	1.71
Stress	Within Groups	69	26148.17	378.96	
	Total	71	27446.44		

* $p < .001$

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Organizational Mentoring Comparison Groups

Source	Comparison Group		
	Black-Black	Mentored Whites	No Mentors
Job Satisfaction			
<u>M</u>	227.50	226.00	202.83
<u>SD</u>	40.77	24.31	48.31
Organizational Commitment			
<u>M</u>	14.83	14.50	15.12
<u>SD</u>	1.90	2.33	2.72
Career Development			
<u>M</u>	9.27	6.63	3.14
<u>SD</u>	3.77	2.77	2.74
Job Stress			
<u>M</u>	166.42	160.75	155.25
<u>SD</u>	29.48	11.81	17.50

Table 4

Correlations Among Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Career Development and Job-Related Stress

<u>Scale</u>	<u>JS</u>	<u>OC</u>	<u>CD</u>	<u>JRS</u>
Job Satisfaction (JS)	--	-.01	.13	.01
Organizational Commitment (OC)		--	.04	-.14
Career Development (CD)			--	.12
Job-Related Stress (JRS)				--

Note: No significant correlations.

satisfaction would lead to organizational commitment within employees. A significant relationship between these two factors was not revealed, $r = -0.01$. Hypothesis 3c also produced a non-significant result, $r = -0.14$. Commitment to the organization and feelings of job-related stress are not significantly associated. In addition, support was not found for Hypothesis 3d, $r = .01$. Findings revealed that feelings of job-related stress are not related to feelings of high job satisfaction. Further analysis was conducted to calculate the reliability coefficients for the three subscales on the Work Stress Profile. Reliabilities for the subscales were .75 (items 17 through 42), .76 (items 43 through 64), and .47 (items 65 through 73).

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Based on past research, involvement in positive organizational socialization, and more specifically, mentoring relationships results in favorable outcomes for individuals exposed to such benefits (Bailey, 1998; Dansky, 1996; Isaacs, 1998; Ragins, 1997; Scandura et al., 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 1999). Consequently, the purpose of this study was to extend the existing literature by offering specific findings that apply to the Black employee. Few studies have explored the effects of involvement in mentoring relationships on Black employees, yet they are the fastest growing racial minority in the American workforce (Collins et al., 1997). Therefore, more information about this racial group was undoubtedly needed.

Effect of Mentoring on Black Employees

Results from the investigation concerning the effect of the mentoring process on the Black employee showed no significant difference between those with a mentor and those not involved in the mentoring process in terms of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job-related stress experienced towards the job. These results are inconsistent with conclusions drawn from past research (e.g., Koberg et al., 1994; Pergamit & Veum, 1999). Nonetheless, Black employees involved in the mentoring process did receive significantly greater exposure to career development practices compared to their Black non-mentored counterparts. This supposition was compatible with previous findings (e.g., Hill & Bahniuk, 1998; Walsh & Borkowski, 1999).

Although the differences between the two groups regarding effects on job satisfaction, and job-related stress were not statistically significant, the discrepancy

between those mentored and those who were not, on these two factors, was not minimal. This certainty was more apparent in the job satisfaction ratings acquired. Black employees with mentors experienced more satisfaction toward their job compared to Black employees who did not report prior involvement in a mentoring relationship. While not congruent with the hypothesis, Black employees with mentors were more subject to feelings of high job-related stress in comparison to Black employees not mentored during their career life. This finding may be attributed to both the need for mentored individuals to schedule meeting times and various appointments with their mentors, and the feeling of obligation of the mentee to meet the expectations and standards set forth by the mentor.

Effect of Race in Mentoring Relationships

Hypotheses for this study proposed that Black employees with Black mentors would experience more job satisfaction, commitment to their organization, career development, and less job-related stress than either Black employees with White mentors or Whites involved in the mentoring process. Analysis of these three groups could not be satisfactorily conducted because of an insufficient sample size for Black employees with White mentors. Out of 76 responses, only 1 such case was reported. This occurrence is in accord with research on diversified mentoring. Often, the natural proclivity for individuals is to gravitate towards those who most reflect themselves (Hill & Bahniuk, 1998; "The Many Faces," 1997). Perhaps this tendency rationalizes the lack of diversified mentoring relationships involving Black protégés reported in this study. As a result of not being able to assess the effects of Black protégé -White mentor relationships, ratings from non-mentored employees were used instead. Comparisons among Black-Black

mentoring relationships, White mentees, and employees not involved in mentoring relationships at all did not result in total support of the assertions made prior to the study.

Similar to the findings comparing Black employees with mentors and those without, no significant differences among Black-Black mentoring relationships, mentored Whites, and non-mentored employees were found for job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job-related stress. Additionally, career development was the only factor statistically effected by the mentoring process. This effect was greatest between Black-Black mentoring relationships and lack of employee involvement in the mentoring process. This finding is in direct contradiction to past research that suggests Black mentors are incapable of providing necessary career development tools to their Black protégés (e.g., Heilman et al., 1992; Ragins, 1997). Black-Black mentoring relationships also showed a slight advantage (statistically non-significant) in the area of job satisfaction. These observations may suggest notable benefits to involvement in Black-Black mentoring associations. Still, although not statistically significant, Black employees did report one potentially detrimental result of such relationships. According to the ratings, Black-Black mentoring relationships could lead to higher feelings of job-related stress compared to mentoring relationships involving White mentees, and those experienced by non-mentored individuals. This report could be justified by the reasons previously outlined, as well as the Black employee's daily struggles (e.g., racial discrimination in the areas of promotion, and hiring and performance) encountered as a result of being a racial minority in corporate America (Chusmir & Franks, 1988).

Correlation of Tests

No prior research was uncovered to support the hypothesized association between

career development and job satisfaction. Regardless, it seemed logical that the more opportunities an employee was granted for career development, the more satisfied with the job the individual would be. Unfortunately, no significant relationship between career development and job satisfaction was found.

Despite research outlined by Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) that suggests a relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, no significant correlation between these two variables was revealed as a result of this research effort. Needless to say, this was an unexpected finding. In addition to the fact that past research had confirmed an association between these two factors, it seems as though satisfaction in a job would naturally exude a sense of commitment to the organization. Yet, that was not shown to be the case.

Likewise, the proposed correlation between commitment and job-related stress was also not supported. Conviction in the existence of connection between these two factors was fostered by a research finding by Leong et al. (1996) that suggested a potential solution to job-related stress was an increase of an employee's commitment to the organization. Although very conceivable, confirmation of the association between job-related stress and organizational commitment was not found as a result of this investigation.

A significant association between job-related stress and job satisfaction was also not uncovered. This finding also failed to confirm past findings by Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) that implied a strong relationship between perceived stress and job satisfaction. This outcome was surprising as well. Rationally, perceived stress and satisfaction are undeniably linked. Whether an individual's perception of stress encountered on the job

results in high or low satisfaction is determined by an individual's personal source of motivation. Though this investigation unsuccessfully provided evidence for this rationalization, perceived job-related stress does impact employee satisfaction.

Limitations

As with any study, there are a few things that may have confounded the outcome of this research effort. Namely, some of the questions asked on the questionnaire may have potentially caused some participants to skew their responses. Out of fear of incomplete anonymity, some employees may have felt apprehensive about answering the questions specifically related to organizational practices or their feelings about the job itself. Although all participants were assured beforehand about the absolute confidentiality of their survey responses, some may have still experienced feelings of distrust, and therefore, attempted to mask their true thoughts and ideas as they pertained to the organization.

Secondly, although the response rate for the surveys was 42%, 76 participants may have been too small of a sample size for this study. Out of the questionnaires completed and returned, only 1 response was obtained from a Black employee that had been a protégé of a White mentor. Perhaps if the sample size had been considerably larger (e.g., observation included more than 1 company or more participation from company elicited), more numerically equivalent groups would have been formed.

Additionally, the low reliabilities of some of the administered tests could have contributed to the undesirable outcomes of this study. Even though the career development scale was the only measure that yielded a significant outcome for the

hypotheses tested, it should not go unnoticed that this measure resulted in a coefficient alpha of .28.

Future Research

Far too often, companies strive to achieve diversity by permeating their organization with a large number of racial minorities. In most cases, this surge of diversified candidates consists of members of the Black population. While efforts to be more representative of the American workforce are commendable, the organization's task does not end with mere recruitment. According to Arthur (1999), many companies forget the importance of retaining the minority talent. This in turn, causes the minority to leave their job because of things such as inadequate training, lack of communication, and the inability to develop interpersonal relationships at work (Caudron, 1998; Levy, 1998). Companies need to become more concerned with ways of preserving talent in order to ensure they will be able to benefit from the minority, and more specific to this research effort, the Black employee's contribution. Mentoring is definitely one way to promote the safeguarding of the minority influence (Adamis, 1999; Lankau & Chung, 1998). Yet, Blacks have difficulty finding mentors because of a lack of racial similarity with the majority of their supervisors (Stafford, 1998).

There are two approaches to mentoring, but both present problems for the Black employee. Informal mentoring, which is the more preferred alternative for both organizations and employees alike, allows the self-selection of the mentor and protégé based on similarities ("The Many Faces", 1997). Naturally, people are more comfortable with those that remind them of themselves (McIlvaine, 1999). With the American

workforce being comprised of mostly White males, this excludes Blacks from the selection process.

On the other hand, formal mentoring is sometimes seen as a forced situation as it attempts to alleviate the exclusion of racial groups by matching all new entrants with an established employee in the organization. At times, problems with this approach arise due to incompatibility of interests and desire to participate in the mentoring relationship (Burke & McKeen, 1989). Since both means of implementing a mentoring program present problems for Black protégés trying to receive guidance from a White mentor, this research effort investigated the outcomes and benefits associated with Black mentorship for Black employees.

There have been several studies that have thoroughly investigated the effects of the mentoring process on employees (e.g., Bailey, 1998; Danksy, 1996; Issacs, 1998; Koberg et al., 1994; Scandura et al., 1996). Few have even considered the relationship between race and mentoring in organizations in attempt to acknowledge the common adversities experienced by racial minorities in corporate America (e.g., Hill & Bahniuk, 1998; Colborn, 1992; Collins et al., 1997; Ragins, 1997). Less have been directly applied to the Black employee (e.g., Backmon et al., 1997; Friedman et al., 1998; Giscombe & Sims, 1998). As the growth of Blacks in corporate America continues to rapidly increase (Collins et al., 1997), such realities become a rising concern.

As previously mentioned, this study sought to investigate the possible benefits associated with a Black-Black mentoring relationship in terms of career development, organizational commitment, job-related stress, and job satisfaction. The presence of a Black mentor in the organizational life of a Black protégé only had a significant impact in

the Black protégé's career development as a result of this effort. A trend, although non-significant, was also found to support the impact of Black mentorship in the area of job satisfaction. Still, further research with more reliable measures needs to be performed in order to provide definitive answers to some of the questions posed by this research effort. Are Black-Black mentoring relationships more beneficial than any other racial combination of mentoring associations? A secure conclusion cannot be reached until more research is conducted among larger populations and across different settings.

Once more extensive research on this topic is conducted, the underlying implications and findings recorded from further research will be more applicable to comparable settings. Moreover, provision of this information will help individuals gain a better understanding of the importance and need for either strong, mutually desired mentoring relationships, or the promotion of qualified Black employees, so that more Black-Black mentoring relationships can be established, and therefore, contribute to the Black employee's successful career experience.

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APPENDIX A

Organizational Mentoring General Survey

Organizational Mentoring Survey

The following questions are designed to determine your past or present involvement in an organizational mentoring relationship. If you have been a mentee involved in more than one mentoring relationship within the past two years, please refer to your last relationship for the purpose of this study. If you have been involved in a mentoring relationship for at least six months, refer to the specifics of that association to answer the following questions. Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements by placing a circle around the answer that best reflects your personal experience. Please do not write your name on this survey so that all information can be kept confidential.

For the purpose of this study, "Mentor" refers to a wise and trusted counselor that provides assistance and shares knowledge with another individual within the organization.

Thank you for your time and input!

1. I have had or currently have a mentor for at least six months. Never Once More Than Once

**If you have not been involved in a mentoring relationship for at least six months, please circle "Never"*

2. Your Ethnicity (check one)

African American/Black _____

American Indian _____

Asian/Pacific Islander _____

Caucasian/White _____

Latin American/Hispanic _____

Other _____

3. Your mentor's ethnicity (check most recent, if applicable)

African American/Black _____

American Indian _____

Asian/Pacific Islander _____

Caucasian/White _____

Latin American/Hispanic _____

Other _____

4. Number of years you have been employed by this organization _____

5. Job title/Current position _____

6. Number of years in current position _____

APPENDIX B

Career Development Survey

Career Development

If you have never had a mentor before, please skip questions 7-9. Answer questions 10 and 11 and proceed with the remainder of the survey.

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5
7. My mentor encouraged me to try new things.					
8. My mentor gave me assignments or tasks that helped me prepare for career advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My mentor helped me meet colleagues that I would not have otherwise had the opportunity to meet.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I have attended numerous training seminars/workshops since I have been employed with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5

For the following question, please indicate in the blank provided the number of promotions you have received. "Promotion" refers to an increase in the amount of pay and responsibility on the job.

11. Since I have been employed with this organization, I have received _____ promotions

APPENDIX C

Organizational Commitment Survey

Organizational Commitment

Just how committed are you to your organization? Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	
12. I am glad I chose to work at this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I believe that as long as things are going well within the company, people should not consider leaving the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I plan to stay with this company until I retire.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am searching for other job opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I think about quitting this organization.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

Work Stress Profile

Work Stress Profile

This scale provides some information on work stress. The following statements describe work conditions. After reading each statement, circle the answer that best reflects the working conditions at your place of employment. If the statement is about a personal feeling, indicate the extent to which you have that feeling about your job. The scale markers ask you to judge, to the best of your knowledge, the approximate percentage of time the condition or feeling is true.

NEVER= not at all true of your work conditions or feelings

RARELY= the condition or feeling exists about 25% of the time

SOMETIMES= the condition or feeling exists about 50% of the time

OFTEN= the condition of feeling exists about 75% of the time

MOST OFTEN= the condition or feeling is virtually always present

	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
17. Support personnel are competent.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My job is very well defined.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I am sure about what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I am sure what will be expected of me in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I seem to satisfy my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
22. My superiors strike me as incompetent, yet I have to take orders from them.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I seem to be able to talk with my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
24. My superiors seem to care about me as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
25. There is a feeling of trust between me and my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5

	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
26. There is a feeling of friendliness between me and my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
27. There is a feeling of respect between me and my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
28. There seems to be tension between administrative personnel and staff personnel.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I have autonomy in carrying out my job duties.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I feel as though I can shape my own destiny in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
31. There are too many bosses in my area.	1	2	3	4	5
32. It appears that my boss has "retired on the job."	1	2	3	4	5
33. My superiors give me adequate feedback about my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
34. My abilities are appreciated by my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
35. There is good prospect of personal or professional growth in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
36. The level of participation in planning and decision making at my place of work is satisfactory.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I feel that I am over-educated for this job.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I feel that my educational background is just right for this job	1	2	3	4	5

	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
39. I feel that I will be laid off or fired.	1	2	3	4	5
40. In-service training for my job is inadequate.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Most of my colleagues are unfriendly or seem uninterested in me as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I feel uneasy about going to work.	1	2	3	4	5
43. There is time for personal business.	1	2	3	4	5
44. There is obvious sex discrimination in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
45. There is obvious race discrimination in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
46. There is obvious age discrimination in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
47. The physical work environment is crowded, noisy, or dreary.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Physical demands of the job are unreasonable (heavy lifting, extraordinary periods of concentration required, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5
49. My work load is never-ending.	1	2	3	4	5
50. The pace of work is too fast.	1	2	3	4	5
51. My job seems to consist of responding to emergencies.	1	2	3	4	5
52. There is no time for relaxation, coffee breaks, or lunch breaks on the job.	1	2	3	4	5

	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
53. Job deadlines are reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
54. Job requirements are beyond the range of my ability.	1	2	3	4	5
55. At the end of the day, I am physically exhausted from work.	1	2	3	4	5
56. I can't even enjoy my leisure because of the toll my job takes on my energy.	1	2	3	4	5
57. I have to take work home to keep up.	1	2	3	4	5
58. I have responsibility for too many people.	1	2	3	4	5
59. Support personnel are too few.	1	2	3	4	5
60. I am not sure about what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
61. I am not sure what will be expected of me in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
62. I leave work feeling burned out.	1	2	3	4	5
63. There is little contact with colleagues on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
64. I feel uneasy about going to work.	1	2	3	4	5
65. The complexity of my job is enough to keep me interested.	1	2	3	4	5
66. My job is very exciting.	1	2	3	4	5
67. My job is varied enough to prevent boredom.	1	2	3	4	5

	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
68. I seem to have lost interest in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
69. I feel as though I can shape my own destiny in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
70. I leave work feeling burned out.	1	2	3	4	5
71. I would continue to work at my job even if I did not need the money.	1	2	3	4	5
72. I am trapped in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
73. If I had it to do all over again, I would still choose this job.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

Nagy Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (NJSQ)

Job Satisfaction

Using the line below as a guide, please write an appropriate number from 1 to 10 to indicate your current level of satisfaction and importance. Please indicate the same for the future.

1

not at all
satisfying (important)

10

very
satisfying (important)

PRESENT SATISFACTION

74. How does the type of work that you currently do compare to what you think it should be?

Number: ____

76. How important to you is the type of work that you do?

Number: ____

78. How does the amount of pay that you currently receive compare to what you think it should be?

Number: ____

80. How important to you is the amount of pay you receive?

Number: ____

82. How do the number of opportunities for promotion that you currently have compare to what you think they should be?

Number: ____

FUTURE SATISFACTION

75. Two to four years from now, how will the type of work you do compare to what you would like it to be?

Number: ____

77. Two to four years from now, how important will the type of work you do be to you?

Number: ____

79. Two to four years from now, how will the amount of pay that you receive compare to what you would like it to be?

Number: ____

81. Two to four years from now, how important will the amount of pay you receive be to you?

Number: ____

83. Two to four years from now, how will the number of opportunities for promotion you have compare to what you would like them to be?

Number: ____

1

not at all
satisfying (important)

PRESENT SATISFACTION

84. How important to you are the opportunities for promotion?

Number: ____

86. How does the quality of supervision that you currently receive compare to what you think it should be?

Number: ____

88. How important to you is the kind of supervision you receive?

Number: ____

90. How does the quality of colleagues and people you currently work with compare to what you think it should be?

Number: ____

92. How important to you are the type of people you work with?

Number: ____

94. How do the working conditions in your job compare to what you think it should be?

Number: ____

10

very
satisfying (important)

FUTURE SATISFACTION

85. Two to four years from now, how important will the opportunities for promotion be to you?

Number: ____

87. Two to four years from now, how will the quality of supervision that you receive compare to what you would like it to be?

Number: ____

89. Two to four years from now, how important will the kind of supervision you receive be to you?

Number: ____

91. Two to four years from now, how will the quality of colleagues and people you work with compare to what you would like it to be?

Number: ____

93. Two to four years from now, how important will the type of people you work with be to you?

Number: ____

95. Two to four years from now, how will the working conditions in your job compare to what you would like them to be?

Number: ____

1

10

not at all
satisfying (important)

very
satisfying (important)

PRESENT SATISFACTION

96. How important to you are the working conditions in your job?

Number: ____

98. How does the amount of autonomy or personal freedom that you have compare to what you think they should be?

Number: ____

100. How important to you is the amount of autonomy or personal freedom you have in your job?

Number: ____

102. How does your overall satisfaction with your current job compare to what you think it should be?

Number: ____

104. How important to you is your overall satisfaction with your job?

Number: ____

FUTURE SATISFACTION

97. Two to four years from now, how important will the working conditions in your job be to you?

Number: ____

99. Two to four years from now, how will the amount of autonomy or personal freedom compare to what you would like it to be?

Number: ____

101. Two to four years from now, how important will the amount of autonomy or personal freedom you have in your job be to you?

Number: ____

103. Two to four years from now, how will your overall satisfaction with your job compare to what you would like it to be?

Number: ____

105. Two to four years from now, how important will your overall satisfaction with your job be to you?

Number: ____

APPENDIX F**NJSQ Validity Table**

Intercorrelations of the JDI and the NJSQ single-item approach measure of facet job satisfaction.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
JDI										
1. Work Itself	(.83)									
2. Pay	.20	(.84)								
3. Promotions	.37	.32	(.86)							
4. Supervision	.35	.21	.33	(.89)						
5. Coworkers	.45	.15	.31	.52	(.90)					
Single-Item Approach										
6. Work Itself	.65	.30	.36	.39	.37					
7. Pay	.27	.72	.22	.15	.15	.48				
8. Promotions	.41	.28	.60	.29	.28	.47	.34			
9. Supervision	.36	.30	.35	.70	.40	.47	.30	.41		
10. Coworkers	.39	.12	.21	.33	.64	.46	.21	.38	.36	

Note: All correlations significant $p < .01$. Cronbach's alpha in parentheses. Bold indicates

correlations of same facets across facet measures. There are no Cronbach's alpha for the global approach because each facet is a one-item measure.

APPENDIX G

Institutional Review Board Approval Letter



EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

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GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
RESEARCH AND GRANTS CENTER
Campus Box 4003

July 20, 2000

Mia Hollins
1400 N. Elizabeth
Calverton Park, MO 63135

Dear Ms. Hollins:

The Institutional Review Board reviewed your application for approval to use human subjects, entitled "The Effect of Organizational Mentoring on Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Career Development and Job-Related Stress in the Black Employee." I am pleased to inform you that your application was approved and you may begin your research with subjects as outlined in your application materials.

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I wish you luck with your research project. If I can help you in any way, don't hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Timothy M. Downs".

Timothy M. Downs, Ph.D.
Dean, Graduate Studies and Lifelong Learning

pf

cc: Brian Schrader

APPENDIX H

Administered Questionnaire

Following questions are designed to determine your past or present involvement in an organizational mentoring relationship. If you have been a mentee involved in more than one mentoring relationship within the past two years, please refer to your last relationship for the purpose of this study. If you have been involved in a mentoring relationship for at least six months, refer to the specifics of that association to answer the following questions. Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements by checking the circle next to the answer that best reflects your personal experience. **Please do not write your name on this survey so that all information can be kept confidential.**

For the purpose of this study, "Mentor" refers to a wise and trusted counselor that provides assistance and shares knowledge with another individual within the organization.

Thank you for your time and input!

Have you had or currently have a mentor for at least six (6) months. Never Once More Than Once
If you have not been involved in a mentoring relationship for at least six months, please check "Never"

Ethnicity (check one)

American/Black
 American Indian

Asian/Pacific Islander
 Caucasian/White

Latin American/Hispanic
 Other _____

Mentor's ethnicity (check most recent, if applicable)

American/Black
 American Indian

Asian/Pacific Islander
 Caucasian/White

Latin American/Hispanic
 Other _____

Number of years you have been employed by this organization

Number of years you have been in current position

Circle the band number of your current position.

- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14

If you have never had a mentor before, please skip the following three (3) questions and proceed with the remainder of the survey.

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
Mentor encouraged me to try new things.	1	2	3	4	5
Mentor gave me assignments or tasks that helped prepare for career advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
Mentor helped me meet colleagues that I would not otherwise had the opportunity to meet.	1	2	3	4	5
I have attended training seminars/workshops since I have been employed with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5

For the following question, please indicate in the blank provided the number of promotions you have received. "Promotion" refers to an increase in pay range and/or responsibility on the job.

Since I have been employed with this organization, I have received promotions

Indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
I am glad I chose to work at this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that as long as things are going well within the organization, people should not consider leaving the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
I plan to stay with this company until I retire.	1	2	3	4	5
I am currently researching for other job opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
I am considering about quitting this organization.	1	2	3	4	5

reading each statement, circle the answer that best reflects the working conditions in the working environment you have chosen to use for the purpose of completing this survey. If the statement is about personal feeling, indicate the extent to which you have that feeling about your job. The scale markers ask you to, to the best of your knowledge, the approximate percentage of time the condition or feeling is true.

NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
not at all true of your work conditions or feelings	the condition or feeling exists about 25% of the time	the condition or feeling exists about 50% of the time	the condition of feeling exists about 75% of the time	the condition or feeling is virtually always present

	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
Staff personnel are competent.	1	2	3	4	5
Job is very well defined.	1	2	3	4	5
I am sure about what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
I am sure what will be expected of me in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
I try hard to satisfy my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
My superiors strike me as incompetent, yet I have to obey orders from them.	1	2	3	4	5
I want to be able to talk with my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
My superiors seem to care about me as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
There is a feeling of trust between me and my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
There is a feeling of friendliness between me and my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
There is a feeling of respect between me and my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
There seems to be tension between administrative personnel and staff personnel.	1	2	3	4	5
I have autonomy in carrying out my job duties.	1	2	3	4	5
It is as though I can shape my own destiny in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
There are too many bosses in my area.	1	2	3	4	5
It appears that my boss has "retired on the job."	1	2	3	4	5
My superiors give me adequate feedback about my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
My abilities are appreciated by my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
There is good prospect of personal or professional advancement in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
Level of participation in planning and decision making at my place of work is satisfactory.	1	2	3	4	5
It appears that I am over-educated for this job.	1	2	3	4	5
It appears that my educational background is just right for this job.	1	2	3	4	5
It appears that I will be laid off or fired.	1	2	3	4	5
On-the-job training for my job is inadequate.	1	2	3	4	5
Most of my colleagues are friendly or seem interested in talking to a person.	1	2	3	4	5

NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
not all true of your work conditions or feelings	the condition or feeling exists about 25% of the time	the condition or feeling exists about 50% of the time	the condition of feeling exists about 75% of the time	the condition or feeling is virtually always present

	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OFTEN
uneasy about going to work.	1	2	3	4	5
no time for personal business.	1	2	3	4	5
no obvious sex discrimination in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
no obvious race discrimination in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
no obvious age discrimination in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
physical work environment is crowded, noisy, or	1	2	3	4	5
physical demands of the job are unreasonable (heavy lifting, extraordinary periods of concentration required,	1	2	3	4	5
work load is never-ending.	1	2	3	4	5
pace of work is too fast.	1	2	3	4	5
work seems to consist of responding to emergencies.	1	2	3	4	5
no time for relaxation, coffee breaks, or lunch on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
deadlines are reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
requirements are beyond the range of my ability.	1	2	3	4	5
at the end of the day, I am physically exhausted from	1	2	3	4	5
work. I do not even enjoy my leisure because of the toll my job takes on my energy.	1	2	3	4	5
often have to take work home to keep up.	1	2	3	4	5
responsibility for too many people.	1	2	3	4	5
not enough personnel are too few.	1	2	3	4	5
not sure about what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
not sure what will be expected of me in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
work feeling burned out.	1	2	3	4	5
no little contact with colleagues on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
uneasy about going to work.	1	2	3	4	5
complexity of my job is enough to keep me interested.	1	2	3	4	5
work is very exciting.	1	2	3	4	5
work is varied enough to prevent boredom.	1	2	3	4	5
work has made me feel like I have lost interest in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
work is so demanding that I feel as though I can shape my own destiny in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
work feeling burned out.	1	2	3	4	5
work is so demanding that I would continue to work at my job even if I did not need the money.	1	2	3	4	5
work is so demanding that I would not have been trapped in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
work is so demanding that if I had to do it all over again, I would still choose this	1	2	3	4	5

Using the line below as a guide, please write an appropriate number from 1 to 10 in the box provided to the left to indicate your current level of satisfaction and importance. Please indicate the same for the future.

1	10
not at all satisfying (important)	very satisfying (important)

PRESENT SATISFACTION

How does the type of work that you currently do compare to what you think it should be?

How important to you is the type of work that you do?

How does the amount of pay that you currently receive compare to what you think it should be?

How do the number of opportunities for promotion that you currently have compare to what you think they should be?

How important to you are the opportunities for promotion?

How does the quality of supervision that you currently receive compare to what you think it should be?

How important to you is the kind of supervision you receive?

How does the quality of colleagues and people you currently work with compare to what you think it should be?

How important to you are the type of people you work with?

How do the working conditions in your job compare to what you think it should be?

How important to you are the working conditions in your job?

How does the amount of autonomy or personal freedom that you have compare to what you think they should be?

How important to you is the amount of autonomy or personal freedom you have in your job?

How does your overall satisfaction with your current job compare to what you think it should be?

How important to you is your overall satisfaction with your job?

FUTURE SATISFACTION

Two to four years from now, how will the type of work you do compare to what you would like it to be?

Two to four years from now, how important will the type of work you do be to you?

Two to four years from now, how important will the amount of pay you receive be to you?

Two to four years from now, how will the number of opportunities for promotion you have compare to what you would like them to be?

Two to four years from now, how important will the opportunities for promotion be to you?

Two to four years from now, how will the quality of supervision that you receive compare to what you would like it to be?

Two to four years from now, how important will the kind of supervision you receive be to you?

Two to four years from now, how will the quality of colleagues and people you work with compare to what you would like it to be?

Two to four years from now, how important will the type of people you work with be to you?

Two to four years from now, how will the working conditions in your job compare to what you would like them to be?

Two to four years from now, how important will the working conditions in your job be to you?

Two to four years from now, how will the amount of autonomy or personal freedom compare to what you would like it to be?

Two to four years from now, how important will the amount of autonomy or personal freedom you have in your job be to you?

Two to four years from now, how will your overall satisfaction with your job compare to what you would like it to be?

Two to four years from now, how important will your overall satisfaction with your job be to you?

APPENDIX I

Informed Consent Document

Participation Consent Letter

Read this consent form. If you have any questions, please inform the experimenter and she will answer your question.

You are invited to participate in a study investigating the role race plays in organizational mentoring relationships and the effect that relationship has on the overall amount of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, career development and work-related stress Black employees experience in comparison to White employees, as a result of participation. As a part of this study, you will be requested to complete one survey. Specifically, the questionnaire will assess your past involvement in an organizational mentoring relationship, your career development since being employed with this organization, and your level of commitment to the organization. The survey will also provide some information about your feelings towards your work conditions, overall job environment, and feelings of job satisfaction. Information obtained from this study will be identified solely by code number. Your name will be used only to indicate that you participated in the study.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to terminate your participation, you are welcome to do so at any point in the study. Termination of participation will have no bearing on any aspect of your employment with this organization. There is no risk or discomfort involved in completing the study.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, feel free to contact Mia Hollins, Primary Investigator, 314-521-4581.

Thank you for your participation.

I, _____, have read the above information and have decided to participate.
(please print name)

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without prejudice after signing this form should I choose to discontinue participation of this study.

(Signature of Participant)

(Date)

**THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED BY THE EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY
COMMITTEE FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS**

I, Mia A. Hollins, hereby submit this thesis to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available for use in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching) and research purposes of a nonprofit nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain will be allowed without written permission of the author.



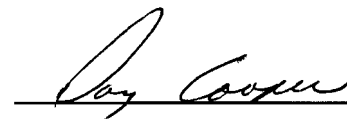
Signature of Author

11-27-00

Date

**The Effect of Organizational Mentoring
on Job Satisfaction, Organizational
Commitment, Career Development and
Job-Related Stress in the Black
Employee**

Title of Thesis



Signature of Graduate Office Staff Member

11-29-00

Date

192000