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THE ROLE OF MENTORING AND ETHNICITY ON CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND LEADERSHIP ASPIRATIONS: LOOKING AT HISPANIC WOMEN

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THE ROLE OF MENTORING AND ETHNICITY ON CAREER ADVANCEMENT
AND LEADERSHIP ASPIRATIONS: LOOKING AT HISPANIC WOMEN

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
in
Psychology:
Industrial/Organizational

by
Arlette Osorno
June 2019

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ABSTRACT

Hispanic women in leadership are vastly understudied and little is known as to what factors influence their leadership aspirations and ultimately their career advancement. Mentoring has been found to have a positive influence on women's perceptions of career advancement and the gender of the mentor plays a role (Tharenou, 2005). The purpose of this study was to examine how career-related mentoring influences the protegee's career advancement and how the gender of the mentor may change that relationship. Furthermore, the relationship between psychosocial (emotional) support and the protegee's leadership aspirations were examined, as well as the role of the mentor's gender and ethnicity. In addition, negative factors, such as barriers to obtain a mentor and work family conflict, were also examined to determine how they may affect their leadership aspirations. Last, we also examined if social support moderates the relationship between work family conflict and leadership aspirations. The results indicated that career-related mentoring is positively related to career advancement and is moderated by the mentor's gender. However, the relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspiration is positive, but not moderated by the mentor's gender or ethnicity. It was found that work family conflict is negatively related to leadership aspirations, but not moderated by social support. A mixed method approach was used and the themes found in the qualitative data aligned with the quantitative findings. Both

the theoretical and practical implications of the results for Hispanic women's career aspirations and advanced are discussed

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Hispanic women are one of the largest growing minority groups in the workforce, yet they lack comparable representation in executive positions. In 2016, Hispanic women represented 0.8% (41 executive board seats) on Fortune 500 companies in the United States (Deloitte, 2016). While Caucasian women are still underrepresented relative to their male counterparts, they represent 16.4% (893) of executive board seats on Fortune 500 companies. Clearly, there is an observable gap between Hispanic women and Caucasian women sitting on executive boards.

Women and minorities face barriers when advancing on the corporate career ladders. The glass ceiling is defined as barriers that hinders women from advancement in to higher level leadership positions within an organization (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). There is a lack of research that has exclusively looked at Hispanic women and examined further the unique barriers Hispanic women face when climbing the corporate ladder. Most of the extant research has lumped Hispanic women with other minorities. Therefore, it is important to examine if there are certain factors that may distinguish Hispanic women from other women's advancement into leadership roles.

For example, Latinas who have reached top leadership positions report a lack of mentors to help them navigate the organizational culture and manage the

cultural aspects associated with being a Hispanic women in the workplace (Bonilla-Rodriguez, 2011; Gorena, 1996; Mendez-Morse, 2000).

The Hispanic population is the fastest growing minority group in the United States, and will continue to have a progressively larger impact in the future workforce. In 2015, the Hispanic population rose to 56 million and accounts for about half of the total US population growth (Pew Research Center, 2017). Not only have the number of Hispanics grown in the overall population, but there has also been an increase in the participation of Hispanics in the workplace. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016), Hispanics are projected to compose about 20% of the workforce, which makes Hispanics the fastest growing minority group. Hispanic women in particular have also had a substantial growth in the workforce with about 11.4 million in the workforce as of 2016, which is about 7.2 percent of the total labor force. The number of Hispanic women in the workforce is projected to increase to 14 million by 2024, which would account for 8.5 percent of the total labor force (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016).

Despite their growth in numbers, most of the jobs Hispanic women occupy are in the service industry, which are often low paying. There is a wage gap in which Hispanic-women are the lowest paid minority group in the workforce in comparison to other women of color and white women. According to Catalyst (2018), Hispanic women, on average, earn 56 cents for every dollar whites (men and women) earn; African American women earn 63 cents for every dollar whites

earn, and Asian women earn 87 cents for every dollar whites earned. There has been an increase of Hispanic women in managerial jobs, but they still remain scarce in C-suite positions. Specifically, Hispanic women occupy less than 1% of Fortune 500 company C-level jobs (Hispanic Association of Corporate Responsibility, 2016). Thus, there seems to be a gap in general for women occupying top C-suite positions, but the gap is even wider when looking at Hispanic women specifically.

Researchers have attempted to identify explanations for why this gap exists by conducting mostly qualitative studies that have examined successful Hispanic women in top leadership positions. Hispanic women in top leadership report having faced many barriers on their way to the top, such as inadequate mentoring, missed career opportunities, family obligations, and cultural obligations (Bonilla-Rodríguez, 2011). Nonetheless, adequate explanations remain elusive for the pay gap and lack of executive opportunities for Hispanic women (Colon Gibson, 1992; Méndez-Morse, 1997; Ortiz, 1982, 2000; Ortiz & Venegas, 1978). One possible way to help Hispanic women reach their career aspirations of top leadership is to provide appropriate mentoring.

Mentoring is known to be a method to help improve career advancement for women and minorities by providing sponsorship and visibility (Anderson, 2005). Furthermore, mentors can help protégés overcome barriers to advancement, such as racism and sexism, by helping the protégés navigate the traditional organizational climate (Moore, Miller, Pitchford, & Jeng, 2008).

Research suggests that women and minorities are less likely to have mentors, and there has been very limited research that has examined the effect of mentoring on Hispanic professional women and how that relates to career advancement and leadership aspirations.

The purpose of this study was to examine the role mentoring serves in career advancement and leadership aspirations of Hispanic women. Most of the research conducted to date has been qualitatively based on semi-structured interviews with successful Hispanic women. This study contributes to the literature by using a mixed method design based on quantitative measures and open-ended responses to help capture the barriers Hispanic women encounter to advance their careers and then examining how these barriers relate to their leadership aspirations. Furthermore, we examined how work-family conflict and social support are related to leadership aspirations for Hispanic women.

Definition of Mentoring

Mentoring is defined as a relationship between an experienced organizational member (mentor) and a less experienced colleague (protégé) in which both parties can benefit from the relationship (Arthur & Kram 1985). There are three developmental functions of the mentoring relationship, which are psychosocial support, career-related support, and role modeling. Psychosocial support are behaviors that focus on the interpersonal relationship between the mentor and protégé. Such behaviors help improve the protégé's self-efficacy,

perception of competence, and overall facilitates their personal development (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). There are four psychosocial functions which the mentor provides: acceptance and confirmation, counseling, friendship, and role modeling to the protégé (Arthur & Kram, 1985). Career-related support consist of behaviors that help improve the protégé's advancement within the organization in which the mentor provides the mentee with five main functions: sponsoring the protégé for promotion and advancements within the organization, coaching the protege, protecting the protege from external forces, and providing the protégé with challenging assignments (Arthur & Kram, 1985). Role modeling is when the protégé admires their mentor and sees them as a role model. The distinction between psychosocial and career-related support is that for psychosocial support the mentor's focus is on helping enhance the protégé personal development; conversely, for career-related support, the mentor's focus is on the career advancement of the protégé. Both forms of support aid in the holistic development of the protégé by facilitating their professional and personal growth.

Informal and Formal Mentoring

There are two primary forms of mentoring relationships, which are informal or formal mentoring relationships. The distinction between formal and informal mentoring is based on the way the relationship is formed. Informal relationships are formed on the mentors' and proteges' initiative and is based on shared interests, admiration, and the fulfillment of career needs (Noe, 1988; Ragins &

Cotton, 1999). The mentor looks at the protégé's potential and sees the protégé as a younger version of him or herself. The protégé seeks a mentor with the desired expertise to help him or her develop on a personal and professional level. Informal mentoring relationships, on average, last longer than formal mentoring relationships. On average, informal mentoring relationships last 3-6 years, while formal mentoring relationship can range from 6 months to about 1 year (Arthur & Kram, 1985; Murray, 1991). Chao, Waltz, and Gardner (1992) found that protégés tend to benefit more from an informal mentoring relationship rather than a formal mentoring relationship. In addition, protégés in informal mentoring relationship scored higher on career development functions and had higher salaries than those in formal mentoring relationships.

Formal mentoring relationships are formed with the assistance of the organization, by implementing formal mentoring programs in which the mentors are assigned to the protégé, instead of having the mentors and protégé initiate the relationship (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). There is much more structure involved in formal mentoring relationships. The formal mentoring typically involves a third party member, such as a program coordinator who evaluates the mentors' competencies and matches mentor and protégé. There is also a designated meeting location, frequency, and duration stipulated by the mentoring program contract (Murray, 1991). Likewise, there are contracted goals in the formal mentoring relationship, whereas in informal mentoring relationships, the goals develop and change over time (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Zey, 1985).

Most of the extant research has alluded to formal mentoring relationships being less effective than informal mentoring for both parties in terms of career-related and psychosocial support (Chao, Waltz, & Gardner, 1992; Fargenson-Eland, Marks, & Amendola, 1997; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Nevertheless, protégés and mentors can benefit from a formal mentoring relationship. Eby and Lockwood (2004) found unique benefits for both parties in which the protégé benefitted through networking opportunities and career planning, which are benefits not commonly found in informal mentoring relationships. For the mentors in formal mentoring programs, they reported personal gratification, enhanced managerial skills, and self-reflection when mentoring protégés. Although most mentoring relationships may emphasize the benefits the protégés obtain, the mentor also gains certain benefits, which make the relationship gains mutual.

Benefits Related to Mentoring

According to Kram's mentoring theory, mentoring is a reciprocal relationship in which the mentor and protégé grow and develop on a career and personal level (Arthur & Kram, 1985). Given that the mentoring relationship is mutual, it is important to understand the benefits the mentor reaps from the relationship. Ghosh and Reio (2013) conducted a meta-analysis looking at the career outcomes for the mentor in the relationship. Their results indicated that those who served as mentors were more committed to the organization and

reported higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to those who were not mentors. Likewise, turnover intentions were lower and job performance was greater for individuals who served as mentors compared to those who did not serve as mentors.

Furthermore, objective career outcomes have also been studied in which mentors have reported higher salaries and greater promotion rates than those who have not experienced serving as a mentor (Allen, Lentz, & Day, 2006). Different forms of mentoring have been associated with promotion rates and salary level. For example, vocational mentoring or career-related mentoring has been found to be positively related to promotion rates of mentors, whereas psychosocial support mentoring was found to be significantly related to salary level for mentors (Scandura, 1992).

On the other hand, protégés also benefit from the mentoring relationship. One important function that mentors serve is to provide protégés with opportunities for advancement through sponsorship, visibility, coaching, and allocating challenging work assignments to the protégé (Arthur & Kram, 1985). The protégé benefits from mentoring by having access to the mentor's network, which can help the protégé career advancement. Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, and Lima (2004) conducted a meta-analysis examining the career benefits related with mentoring for protégés. Overall, protégés reported greater career benefits than those who are not mentored. Specifically, those who are mentored reported higher promotion rates and compensation. Likewise, subjective career outcomes

were also measured, in which individuals who were mentored reported greater expectations for advancement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction than those who were not mentored. Overall, mentoring has positive results for both the mentor and the mentee and there are also organizational benefits of mentoring.

Furthermore, mentoring has also been shown to be used to promote organizational commitment and is inversely related to turnover intentions in cross-sectional and longitudinal studies (Payne & Huffman, 2005; Stallworth, 2013). More specifically, protégés tend to have a higher affective commitment and continuance commitment than individuals who are not mentored. Mentoring had also been associated with a reduce number of turnover behaviors in a four year course (Lankau & Scandura, 2002).

Mentoring also has a positive effect on organizational culture. Wilson and Elman (1990) found that organizational culture is transmitted from the mentor to the mentee, which helps strengthen the current culture and promotes its continuity. Furthermore, mentoring is suggested to benefit the organization, and thus it is recommended that it be implemented throughout various organizational levels from the entry level through helping shape the new CEO. Organizations that promote mentoring, reap positive benefits for the organization as well.

Mentoring as a Way to Advance

Based on the potentially positive effects mentoring has on all parties involved it is critical to examine the role of gender in mentoring relationships. Mentoring is known to be an essential tool to help women in their career advancement (Burke, 1984; Fagenson et al., 1997; Arthur & Kram, 1985; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Women who have reached top leadership positions within an organization have often attributed their success to their mentoring experience. Mentoring, specifically career-related, has been shown to have a greater effect on women's career advancement than on men's career advancement (Tharenou, 2005). Based on Tharenou's findings, career-related mentoring, versus psychosocial mentoring, was found to be more related to women's career advancement. Given that in career-related mentoring, the mentor focuses on the career aspect of the protégé, rather than the emotional side, this finding supports the functions of mentoring.

Mentoring has also been found to be linked to the protégé perceptions of career advancement and promotions (Singh, Ragins, & Tharenou, 2009). Mentors who provide career-related support, such as sponsoring their protégé and enhancing their visibility in the organization will aid in the protégé's career development. Mentoring is linked to the protégé's career development and can help women navigate the organizational culture through their mentor's social capital. Overall, mentoring provides positive career benefits for women to help them advance the corporate ladder.

Although women seem to benefit more from mentoring than men, they report facing greater barriers to obtain a mentor than their male counterparts (Ragins & Cottons, 1991). Part of women's lack of obtaining a mentor could be due to their often low-level positions within the organization, which hinders potential mentors seeing them as possible protégés. Based on their lack of visibility, women are not part of these informal networks that could help them further advance in their careers. Burt's (1998) findings support the notion that career advancement is a key feature of mentoring. Mentoring helped women to a more rapid and early career advancement when they had strong ties to sponsors, which helped women build their credibility for the executive position. Sponsorship is key for women to take action and move up the corporate ladder; thus, without sponsors, women would not be visible for high potential jobs.

Gender of the Mentor

The similarity-attraction paradigm posits that individuals are attracted to others who share similar demographics, personality, values, and attitudes (Byrne, 1971). The gender of the mentor is a critical factor that can impact the mentoring relationships. Same gender mentoring is more common for men given that there are more men in high executive positions to serve as mentors than women. Sosik and Godshalk's (2000) findings suggest that men tend to provide more career-related mentoring than women, who provided more psychosocial

mentoring. Given this finding, women should benefit more in terms of their career advancement when having a male mentor than a female mentor. However, cross-sex mentoring relationships are inherently related to sexual misinterpretation from the dyads or others in the organization. Women may perceive this sexual misinterpretation as a barrier to obtain male mentors who can help them further advance in their career.

Although women may benefit from having a male mentor because of greater opportunities for career advancement, women can also benefit from having a woman serve as their mentor. It has been found that women who are mentors provide more psychosocial support to their protégés than men who serve as mentors. Women protégés can learn about various beneficial practices to balance work and family duties and ways to overcome barriers to advance in their careers (Ragins, 1999). Psychosocial support can help women feel accepted in the organization by their mentor, which can lead to leadership aspirations through role modeling of their mentor.

For example, Green and King (2001) examined the relationship for African American protégés who had African American female mentors. Through interviews the researchers found that African American women reported feelings of “empowerment” and “camaraderie” when paired with mentors of their same sex and ethnicity. Based on these findings, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Career-related mentoring will be positively related to career advancement. The mentor's gender will moderate the relationship between career-related mentoring and career advancement. Protégés who receive career-related mentoring from a male mentor will report higher career advancement (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 2: Psychosocial mentoring will be positively related to leadership aspirations. The mentor's gender and ethnicity will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspiration. Protégés who receive psychosocial mentoring will report higher leadership aspirations when the mentor and protege share the same gender and ethnicity (i.e., Hispanic women mentoring Hispanic women) (see Figure 1).

According to Thomas (1990), blacks are more likely than whites to participate in informal mentoring than in formal mentoring programs. In addition, minorities are also more likely to form mentoring relationships with individuals outside of their department in their organization. When examining same-race mentoring relationships, there was more psychosocial support reported than in cross-race mentoring relationships. Most of the mentors were white males and the protégés included white men, white women, minority women and minority men. However, minority women also benefit from having mentors who share their gender and ethnicity. The research on mentoring has looked at gender differences, which have often focused on African American women, yet there has

not been much research that looks at Hispanic women and mentoring as a tool for career advancement and how it relates to leadership aspirations.

Barriers to Obtaining a Mentor

Although the research on mentoring is vast, there are still areas that have been under studied, such as the role mentoring functions to further advance marginalized populations such as Hispanic women in the workforce. The research that has examined this population has primarily focused on qualitative data and semi-structured interviews as a way to explore this topic and help inform theory and practice. Hispanic women who have reached top leadership roles in the education sector have reported having non-Hispanic male and female mentors, knowledge of the advancement process, and social support, especially spousal support, as positive aspects that have helped their career advance (Gorena, 1996; Mendez-Morse, 2000). Parental support, spousal support, and extended family support are unique social support systems that Hispanic women who have reached higher education and progressed in their career have reported as their key resources. On the other hand, family obligations, household duties, discrimination, and stereotypes about Hispanic women have also been reported as barriers to their careers (Mendez-Morse, 2000).

The lack of mentors has been reported as a barrier for Hispanic women to advance in their careers (Bonilla-Rodriguez, 2011). Perceptions of barriers to

obtain a mentor have not been examined when looking at Hispanic women. Given that Hispanic women have reported the lack of mentors as a barrier, it is critical to know what barriers they face when obtaining a mentor or continuing the mentoring relationship. For example, Ragins (1996) found that women reported a greater number of barriers to obtain a mentor than men. The relationship has not been tested on Hispanic women, but given the qualitative data findings to date, it is hypothesized that Hispanic women will perceive barriers to obtaining a mentor or continue the mentoring relationship, which would be negatively associated with leadership aspirations.

Furthermore, perceptions of barriers to mentoring has been shown to be negatively related to career outcomes such as income (Blickle, Schneider, Perrewe, & Meurs, 2010). However, the relationship between barriers to mentoring and leadership aspirations has not been examined. Since leadership aspirations has been noted as one of the precursors to career advancement, it is critical to examine the relationship of leadership aspirations and perceptions of barriers to obtain a mentor. Based on the findings noted above, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of barriers to obtain a mentor will be negatively related to leadership aspirations (see Figure 1).

Work-Family Conflict

The overall construct of work-family conflict is described as the notion in which work and family roles are incompatible and can hinder the performance in either domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In today's society, it is common for working professionals to face some form of work-family conflict, which has been conceptualized in two distinct forms. Work to family conflict (WIF) is when the work role interferes with family duties; there is also the family role interfering with the work role, also noted as family to work conflict (FIW). Grzywacz, Arcury, Marin, Carrillo, Burke Coates, and Quandt (2007) examined work-family conflict among immigrant Hispanics. Gender was found to explain a significant amount of the variance in work-family conflict, in which Hispanic women reported higher amounts of work-to-family conflict. Interestingly, Hispanic men did not see the relationship between family and work. Instead, most of the Hispanic men saw work and family as separate entities. These findings suggest that Hispanic women will perceive a greater amount of work-family conflict, which could potentially influence their career decisions, such as accepting a promotion to a leadership position.

Mentoring can be used as a tool to help Hispanic women mitigate work-family conflict. Nielson, Carlson, and Lankau (2001) looked at the relationship of having a mentor and protégés' perceptions of work-family conflict. Overall, those who reported having a mentor reported less work-family conflict, specifically less family to work conflict. When looking at the mentoring functions, it was found that

career-related support was negatively related to work-family conflict.

Interestingly, those who received psychosocial support from their mentor reported an increase in family to work conflict. The author suggests this may be due to protégé pressure to enhance their relationship with their mentor, which then resulted in role strain. Mentoring can be used as a form of social support to help protégés mitigate the work strains they encounter, such as work-family conflict. Further research is needed to help understand the relationship work-family conflict has on Hispanic women's advancement.

Furthermore, social support at work has been shown to have a positive effect on reducing work-family conflict overall. Selvarajan, Cloninger, and Singh (2013), conducted a study examining how different sources of social support influence work-family conflict. They found that work social support, such as a family supportive organizational climate and supervisory support were negatively related to family to work conflict via work to family conflict. Also, spousal support has been shown to be negatively related to work-to-family conflict via family-to-work conflict. These findings suggest that social support is a critical component from both work and family sources, in an effort to help alleviate the role conflict between work and family professionals experience.

Finally, it has been found among Chinese women who are from a collectivistic culture, which share similar cultural values with Hispanics, that work-family conflict has a negative effect on women's career expectations, lowering their career development (Wang & Cho, 2013). In turn, lower career expectations

are related to lower income and organizational rankings. Overall, women who experience a large amount of work-family conflict tend to report lower career expectations, which hinders their career development. Wang and Cho's study suggests that work-family conflict and career expectations are critical factors to consider in the advancement of women to higher organizational rankings.

Based on the findings noted, the following hypothesis is proposed to further understand how work-family conflict relates to leadership aspirations.

Hypothesis 4: Work-family conflict will be negatively related to leadership aspirations. Those who report higher work-family conflict will report less leadership aspirations. (see Figure 1)

Social Support

Given their lack of mentoring opportunities, some Hispanic women have relied more on social support from their parents, grandparents, and spouses as their drive to aspire to leadership positions. Based on Peery's (1998) findings, Hispanic women encounter barriers to advance their careers, such as external barriers, which include women not being taken seriously because of the way they look (lookism). Institutionalized barriers were described as family and cultural expectations to be a mother and wife, which was more difficult to balance with their leadership aspirations when their spouse was Hispanic rather than non-Hispanic (e.g., Caucasian). The author described that some Hispanic men often

hold gender role beliefs about their wives, such as *machismo*, which are incompatible with leadership positions that draw Hispanic women away from their home and children. Hispanic women also reported facing ethnic discrimination and position segregation, which keeps Hispanic women working with others of similar ethnicity and gender. Last, Hispanic women also reported facing internal barriers in which women are expected to excel in all aspects of their work.

While there is a lack of an agreed upon definition of social support among researchers, in the present study it was defined as resources obtained from social relationships from various sources, such as spouse, family, friends, organization and supervisors, that help mitigate certain role strains. There are different social support functions, such as emotional and instrumental support (House, Kahn, McLeod, & Williams, 1985). Social support has been shown to be a strong predictor of work to family conflict and family to work conflict (French, Dumani, Allen, & Shockley, 2018). Hispanic women have described social support as a positive aspect that has influenced their career aspirations and further aided in their career advancement. Lirio, Lituchy, Monserrat, Olivas-Lujan, Duffy, Fox, Gregory, Punnett, and Santos (2007), found that Mexican women reported that social support from male figures, such as their fathers or spouse, positively influenced their career goals and attributed their career success to their support. Overall, women who have reached top leadership positions have benefited from a strong social support, which has facilitated their career development.

Cultural perspectives, such as family values, have been shown to influence Hispanic women's careers. For example, Hite (2007) conducted a qualitative study on the work and life challenges Hispanic women in managerial positions face and how they impact their career possibilities. Family was noted as a critical component in the Hispanic culture in which women cited it as a driver to their success, but also as a potential hindrance to achieve other goals they aspire. Hispanic women are often ascribed the responsibility of childrearing and household duties, and as a result are left with the challenge of balancing their family and managerial roles. Some of the participants in Hite's study reported taking their children to business-related events, while others reported feeling a need to be stay-at-home mothers while putting their professional careers on standby.

Furthermore, balancing work and family roles is a challenge for most women and Hispanic women are not the exception. However, as noted in the literature, social support from family, spouse, and organizational support may serve as a buffer for women to mitigate work-family conflict (Rudolph, Michel, Harari, & Stout, 2014). Based on the qualitative studies conducted with Hispanic women who have repeatedly noted work-family conflict as impediments and social support as positive aspects to their professional career, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 5: Social support will moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations. Protégés with high work-family conflict will

report higher leadership aspirations, when they report having more social support (see Figure 1).

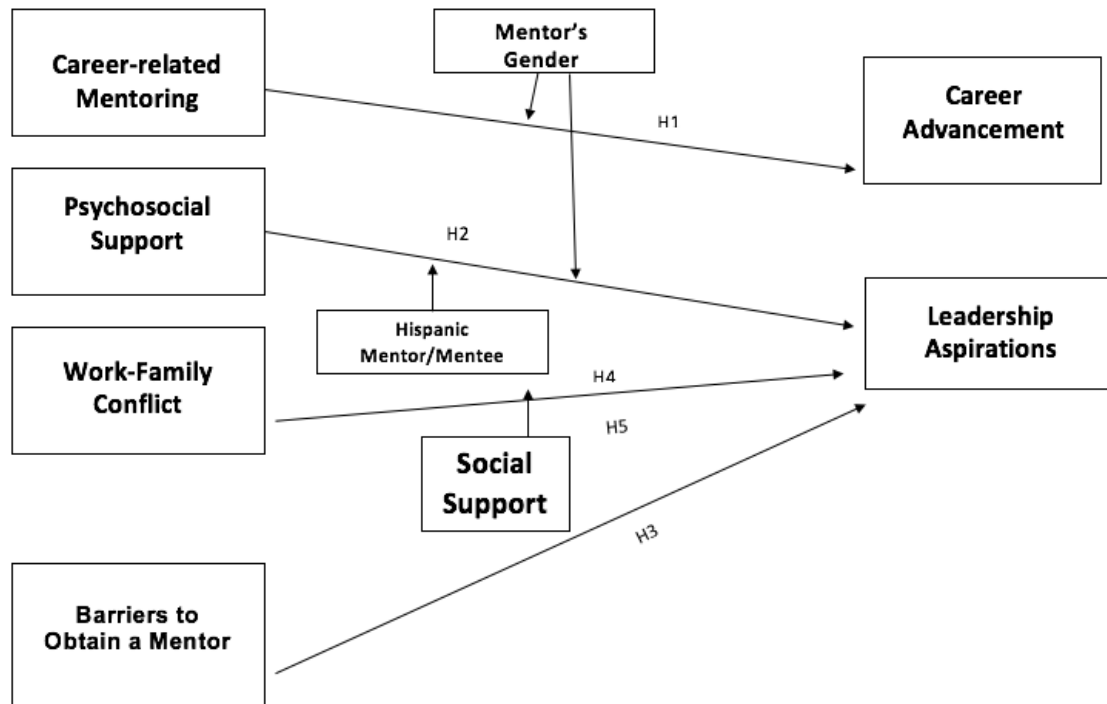


Figure 1. Proposed Model of Hypothesis

CHAPTER TWO

METHODS

Participants

The initial sample size consisted of 587 participants. After screening out those who failed both attention checks, did not identify as Hispanic/Latin American, and failed to complete 50% or more of the survey, the sample size was reduced to 287. The participants consisted of 196 women and 91 men in which 79.8% currently have, or have had a mentor in the past at work and 20.2% have not had a mentor at work. All 287 participants identified as Hispanic/Latin American. Participants were asked about their mentor's gender and ethnicity, length of their mentoring relationship, whether their mentor relationships were current or in the past, if the mentoring was informal or formal, highest level of education, type of organization, current work position, marital status, number of children, and significant other's level of education and ethnicity. For a full list of the descriptive statistics of the sample, see Table 1. Participants were recruited via SONA and social media to capture participants with mentoring experience in the workplace. Given that some college students may not have mentoring experience in the workplace, Mturk and social media was used to invite working Hispanic women and men who have mentoring experience. Participants were

asked to participate in the online survey hosted through Qualtrics, which is securely encrypted. The data were secured through the Qualtrics server and only the primary researcher had access to data.

Table 1. Descriptives Demographics

Variable	N (%)
Participant's Gender	
Male	91(31.7%)
Female	196 (68.3%)
Type of mentor	
Peer	25 (8.7%)
Supervisor	163 (56.8%)
Colleague	36 (12.5%)
Other	5 (1.7%)
Mentoring status	
Currently in a mentoring relationship	150 (52.3%)
Had a mentoring relationship	79 (27%)
Have not had a mentor	58 (20%)
Formal or Informal Mentoring	
Formal Mentoring	90 (39.3%)

	Informal Mentoring	139 (48.5%)
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Mentor's gender		
	Male	111 (48.5%)
	Female	118 (51.5%)
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Mentor's ethnicity		
	White	67 (23.3%)
	African American	14 (4.9%)
	Hispanic/ Latin America	136 (47.4%)
	Asian American	8 (2.8%)
	Native American	1 (.3%)
	Other	3 (1%)
<hr/>		
Duration of mentoring		
	3 months or less	23 (10%)
	4 months to 11 months	71 (24.7%)
	12 months to 23 months	68 (23.7%)
	24 months or more	67 (23.3%)
<hr/>		
Participant's highest level of education		
	Less than High School	1 (.3%)
	High School/GED	24 (8.4%)

Some College	79 (27.5%)
2 Years degree	67 (23.3%)
4 Years degree	91 (31.7%)
Master's degree	22 (7.7%)
Doctorate degree	3 (1%)

Type of organization

For-profit	140 (48.8%)
Non-profit	39 (13.6%)
Government	25(8.7%)
Education	54 (18.8%)
Other	27 (9.4%)

Job Position

Non-supervisor/nonmanager	179 (63%)
First level supervisor	45 (15.7%)
Middle manager	45 (15.7%)
Senior manager	9 (3.1%)
Executive	5 (1.7%)
Senior Executive	1 (.3%)

Marital status

Single, never married	185 (64.5%)
Married or domestic partnership	90 (31.4%)
Widowed	3 (1%)
Separated	2 (.7%)
Divorced	7 (2.4%)

Children under the age of 5

Yes	56 (19.5%)
No	101 (35.2%)
Do not have children	130 (45.2%)

Spouse/significant other's education level

Less than High School	2 (.7%)
High School/GED	15 (5.2%)
Some College	21 (7.3%)
2 Years degree	9 (3.1%)
4 Years degree	33 (11.5%)
Master's degree	9 (3.1%)

Doctorate degree	3 (1%)
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Spouse/significant other's ethnicity	
White	17 (5.9%)
African American	6 (2.1%)
Hispanic/ Latin America	61 (21.4%)
Asian American	2 (.7%)
Native American	3 (1%)
Other	3 (1%)
<hr/>	

Note. N = sample size

Procedures

The online survey was administered on Qualtrics and distributed through a University in Southern California online SONA system, Mturk, via email, and social media (i.e., LinkedIn). The online survey consisted of an informed consent form, which informed the participant of the study purpose, duration of survey, compensation, researcher's contact information, and the ability to withdraw from the survey at any time without any penalty. The participants were then asked if they had participated in a mentoring relationship in the workplace; those who did not have such experience were asked to use their supervisor as their reference

point to answer the survey. Participants were then asked basic demographic questions such as gender, ethnicity, occupation, marital status, number of children, ethnicity and level of education of significant others, and whether they had a mentor or not. Furthermore, participants were asked about their mentoring experiences such as whether it was informal or formal mentoring, length of mentoring relationship, gender and ethnicity of mentor. Subsequently, the participants were presented with the mentor role instrument scale (career-related mentoring and psychosocial mentoring), leadership and achievement aspirations subscales, perceptions of barriers to obtain a mentor scale, work-family conflict scale, social support scale, core self-evaluation scale and psychological safety scale. At the end of the survey the participants were debriefed and thanked for their time.

Measures

Demographics

Participants were asked to report their gender, ethnicity, highest level of education completed, occupation, marital status, number of children, ethnicity, level of education of their significant others, and whether they had a mentor. Those who reported not having a specific mentor were asked to use their supervisors as their reference point when answering the survey. Additionally, to more fully understand the mentoring relationship, the following were also asked:

mentor's gender, the mentor's ethnicity, tenure of the mentoring relationship, and if the mentoring relationship was formal (paired) or informal (sought out) and if so, by whom.

Mentoring Functions

To measure mentoring functions, which includes career-related mentoring and psychosocial mentoring, the Mentor Role Instrument (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) was used. The measure consists of 33-items, which examines the career-related mentoring through career roles such as coaching, sponsoring, challenging assignments, exposure, and protection; psychosocial roles which include friendship and socializing. Responses were rated on a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7, "strongly agree" for each item. A higher number means more career-related support or psychosocial support received from their mentor. Cronbach's alphas for career-related support from the original scale ranged from .77 to .92, based on the role subscale. For psychosocial support, the Cronbach's alpha reliability ranged from .83 to .94 depending on the role subscale. For the present study, the career-related mentoring scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .90 and psychosocial mentoring scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .92. For a list of the items please see Appendix A.

Leadership Aspirations

To measure leadership aspirations, the leadership subscale from the Career Aspiration Scale-Revised (CASR) by Gregor and O'Brien (2015) was

utilized. The Career Aspiration Scale-Revised is comprised of three subscales leadership, educational, and achievement. Responses are rated on a 4-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 0, meaning “not at all true of me” to 4, “very true of me” for each item. Higher numbers indicate the participants have higher leadership aspirations and achievement aspirations. The revised version of the scale includes an achievement dimension and increased the number of items in the previous subscales to improve the reliability coefficients. For the purpose of this study, we utilized the leadership subscale (10 items) to measure women’s aspirations for leadership positions in their career field and the achievement aspirations subscales (11 items) to measure women’s need for achievement in their careers. The test-retest reliability estimates were .79 at time 1 and .81 at time 2 for the leadership subscale. Furthermore, the test-retest reliability estimates were .74 and .80 at time 2 for the achievement subscale (Gregor & O’Brien, 2015). There are two reverse scored items in the leadership subscale and three reverse scored items in the achievement subscale. A greater number means higher leadership aspirations and achievement aspirations. For the present study, the leadership aspiration subscale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .84 and the achievement aspiration subscale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .85. For a list of items, please see Appendix A.

Career Advancement

To measure career advancement, participants self-reported the number of promotions within the last year, chance of promotions, and time since last

promotion. Tharenou (2005) used similar measures to capture career advancement for working professional men and women in Australia. The objective measure was to obtain the data necessary to evaluate the career advancement of the participants within the workplace.

Barriers to Obtaining a Mentor

To measure barriers to mentoring the Perceived Barriers to Mentoring Scale (Ragins & Cotton, 1991) was utilized in this study. The measure consists of 19 items which examine five barriers: lack of access to mentors, fear of initiating a relationship, unwillingness of the mentor, fear of disapproval of others, and fear of sexual misinterpretation by others in the organization. Responses are rated on a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree for each item. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients are as follows for lack of access to mentors ($\alpha = .86$), fear of initiating a relationship ($\alpha = .83$), unwillingness of the mentor ($\alpha = .86$), fear of disapproval of others ($\alpha = .85$), and fear of sexual misinterpretation ($\alpha = .93$). A greater number in a given subscale means a greater perception of that given barrier to mentoring. For the present study, the perceptions to obtain a mentor scale has a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .92. For a list of items, please see Appendix A.

Social Support

To measure social support, the Multidimensional Perceived Social Support (MPSS) was utilized (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). The measure consists of 12 items based on three subscales measuring the source of social

support: family, spouse, and friends and each of the subscales has four items. Responses are rated on a 5-point Likert-scale with responses ranging from 1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree for each item. The coefficient alphas for the subscales are as follows for family ($\alpha = .91$), friends ($\alpha = .87$), and significant other ($\alpha = .85$); overall, the scale had a reliability of $\alpha = .88$. A larger number in each subscale means greater social support from that source. For the present study, the social support scale had a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .91. For a list of its items, please see Appendix A.

Work Family Conflict

To measure work-family conflict, the Multidimensional Measure of Work-Family conflict was used (Carlson, Kaemar, and Williams, 2000). The measure is composed of 19 items, which measures six dimensions based on three forms of conflict including time, strain, and behavior and two directions work interference with family and family interference with work. The six dimensions include: time-based work interference with family, time-based family interference with work, strain-based work interference with family, strain-based family interference with work, behavior work interference with family, and behavior family interference with work. Responses are rated on a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree for each item. Cronbach's alpha reliability for each dimension are as followed: time-based WIF ($\alpha = .87$); time-based FIW ($\alpha = .79$); strain-based WIF ($\alpha = .85$); strain-based FIW ($\alpha = .87$); behavior-based WIF ($\alpha = .78$); behavior-based FIW ($\alpha = .85$). For the present

study the work-family conflict scale had a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .91. For a list of items, please see Appendix A.

Open Ended Questions

Open-ended questions were also used to capture other potential barriers Hispanic women may face when trying to advance in their careers. In addition, participants were asked what factors they considered had positively influenced their leadership aspiration. In previous research, Hispanic women have mentioned the lack of mentors, work-family conflict, and discrimination based on gender and ethnicity as potential hindrances to their career; it is anticipated that Hispanic women will speak to these issues. Furthermore, social support and the presence of mentors in their career have been noted as positive aspects that have contributed to the success of Hispanic women in leadership positions.

Core Self-Evaluations

To measure core self-evaluation, the Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES) was used (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). The measure is composed of 12 items, which are based on four specific core traits including self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control. Responses are rated on a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree for each item. Cronbach's reliability was measured on six samples and on average had a reliability of .84. For the present study, the Core Self-Evaluation scale had a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .86. For a list of items, see Appendix A.

Psychological Safety

To measure psychological safety, the Edmondson's Psychological Safety Scale (Edmondson, 1999) was modified to reflect the organizational psychological safety by changing the word "team" to organization. The measure is composed of 7 items based on team psychological safety in the workplace. The responses are rated on a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree for each item. Edmondson reported a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .82. For the present study, the psychological safety scale had a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .71. For a list of items, see Appendix A.

Power Analysis

To ascertain the sample size required, a power analysis was conducted utilizing G*Power, version 3.1.9.3. To test hypotheses one, two, and four, moderated regression analyses were conducted. Based on the criteria of power set at .95 and alpha at .05, a minimum of 80 participants was needed for the moderated regression analysis. In addition, we tested hypotheses three and five by utilizing Pearson correlations. Based on the G power analysis with a criteria of power of .95, $\alpha = .05$, and a small to moderate correlation, 202 participants were needed. Thus, to test all the hypotheses, a minimum of 202 participants were needed. When accounting for inattentive responses an additional 25% was

factored in, a total of 252 participants were required. All data screening and analysis were conducted via IBM SPSS version 24.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Univariate and Multivariate Outliers

Data analysis screening was performed to detect potential outliers and to examine normality, missing data, multicollinearity, and heteroscedasticity. All data screening and analyses were conducted utilizing IBM SPSS 24. A total of 587 participants took the survey, but after screening out those who did not identify as Hispanic, led to a sample size of 339. Furthermore, the data were screened for those who failed both attention checks, which reduced the sample size to 294. These data were screened for univariate outliers utilizing the criterion of $z = \pm 3.3$, $p < .001$. There was one univariate outlier in the social support scale with a $z = -3.85$ (5.00) and $z = -3.44$ (4.67), one univariate outlier in the leadership aspiration variable with a $z = -3.79$ (4.86), and one univariate outlier in the achievement subscale with a $z = -3.84$ (3.85). Additionally, no univariate outliers were found in the psychological safety scale, barriers to obtaining a mentor variable scale, psychosocial mentoring scale, career-related mentoring scale CORE self-evaluation scale, and work-family conflict scale. Furthermore, the data set was screened for multivariate outliers utilizing Mahalanobis distance. There were three multivariate outliers identified, which exceeded the critical value

for 5 degrees of freedom of $\chi^2 = 20.52$, $p < .001$. The univariate and multivariate outliers were removed prior to hypotheses analysis. The total sample size used for the hypotheses analyses was 287.

Normality, Multicollinearity, and Heteroscedasticity

Utilizing a criterion for significant skewness at $z = \pm 3.3$, $p < .001$, work-family conflict, CORE self-evaluation, psychological safety, and barriers to obtain a mentor were normally distributed. There were three variables that were negatively skewed and two variables that were positively skewed. Social support was significantly, negatively skewed and leptokurtic (z skewness = -8.90, z kurtosis = 5.00); given the nature of the variable, it would be expected to be skewed. The variable achievement aspirations was negatively skewed (z skewness = -7.43, $p < .001$). Leadership aspirations was significantly negatively skewed with a skewness of ($z = -4.43$, $p < .001$). Psychosocial mentoring was significantly negatively skewed (z skewness = -3.98, $p < .001$). Career-related mentoring was found to be significantly positively skewed (z skewness = 5.45, $p < .001$). All variables used in the analysis were z centered. The assumption of multicollinearity was satisfied there were no correlations among the predictors with a value that exceeded the criteria of .90. The bivariate correlations ranged from -.423 between social support and career advancement and .130 psychosocial mentoring and work-family conflict.

Missing Values

Furthermore, the data set was also screened for missing data. Based on the missing values analysis of the career-related mentoring variable and psychosocial mentoring variable, there were 68 missing cases; barriers to obtain a mentor had 271 missing cases; social support had 2 missing cases; and core self-evaluation had 1 missing case. Those who did not have mentoring experience were not prompted to answer the question related to career related mentoring or psychosocial mentoring, which led to 68 missing cases for those variables. Participants who identified as having been in a mentoring relationship were not prompted to answer the barriers to obtain a mentor scale leading to the 271 missing cases. However, these missing data were due to the manipulation in the survey presented to the participants and the missing data pattern was expected among those variables. There were no missing values in the achievement aspirations subscale, leadership aspirations subscale, social support scale, and work-family conflict scale. Other than those three variables that were expected to have missing values, no more than 2% of the dataset was missing. Based on the non-significant Little's MCAR test (for the remainder of the variables), the missing values were found to be missing completely at random (MCAR), $X^2(77) = 67.04, p < .001$. See Table 2 for further descriptives and missing data.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Missing Values

Variable	Mean	SD	Number of Missing Data	% of Missing Data
Number of promotions	1.64	.69	0	0
Time without promotion	1.87	.97	4	1.4
Chance of promotion	2.42	.92	2	.7
Achievement aspirations	3.95	.65	0	0
Leadership aspirations	3.56	.61	0	0
Social support	4.12	.76	0	0
Career-related mentoring	2.16	.67	58	20.2
Psychosocial mentoring	3.41	.84	58	.6
Barriers to mentoring	2.48	.59	229	79.8
Work family conflict	2.66	.80	0	0
Core self-evaluation	3.51	.71	1	.3
Psychological safety	3.88	.72	2	.7

Note. SD = Standard deviation.

Table 3. Bivariate Correlation Matrices and Reliabilities

Variables	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Career-related Mentoring	229	.90							
2. Psychosocial Mentoring	229	.30*	.92						
3. Leadership Aspirations	287	-.32*	.33*	.84					
4. Work Family Conflict	287	.20*	-.13*	-.24*	.91				
5. Barriers to Obtain a Mentor	58	none	none	-.23	.30*	.92			
6. Social Support	285	-.42*	.22*	.25*	-.21*	-.17	.91		
7. Core Self-evaluations	286	-.34*	.10	.30*	-.42*	-.16	.44*	.86	
8. Psychological Safety	285	-.40	0.18	.24*	-.39*	-.36*	.29*	.42*	.71

Note. * $p < .05$, None in table reflects the researcher manipulation, Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are displayed in bold.

Hypothesis Analysis

The PROCESS macro by Andrew Hayes (2012) was used to test hypothesis 1, 2, and 5. Bivariate correlations from IBM SPSS 24 were used to test hypotheses 3 and 4.

Hypothesis 1 Results

To analyze hypothesis 1 the number of promotions, time without a promotion, and chances of obtaining a promotion were used to measure career advancement. There was not a statistically significant relationship between career-related mentoring and number of promotions, $b = .12$, $t(225) = .55$, $p = .58$, 95% CI = -.29, .23; career-related mentoring and time without promotion $b = -.03$, $t(225) = -.12$, $p = .90$, 95% CI = -.58, .51; but there was a statistically significant relationship between career-related mentoring and chances of obtaining a promotion, $b = .53$, $t(225) = 1.96$, $p = .05$, 95% CI = -.00, 1.08. Furthermore, the analysis indicated the relationship between career advancement and chances of obtaining a promotion was moderated by the mentor's gender, $b = -.43$, $t(227) = -2.50$, $p < .05$, 95%CI = -.78, -.09. See Figure 2 for a visual representation of the interaction between career-related mentoring and the mentor's gender on the mentee's chances of promotion. Overall, in the model that includes career-related mentoring, gender of the mentor, and the interaction about 3.5% of the

variance in chances of promotion can be explained, Multiple $R = .18$, Multiple $R^2 = .035$, $F(3,223)=2.72$, $p < .05$. The interaction uniquely explained 2.7% of the variance in the chance of promotion. $F(1,223) = 6.27$, $p < .05$. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

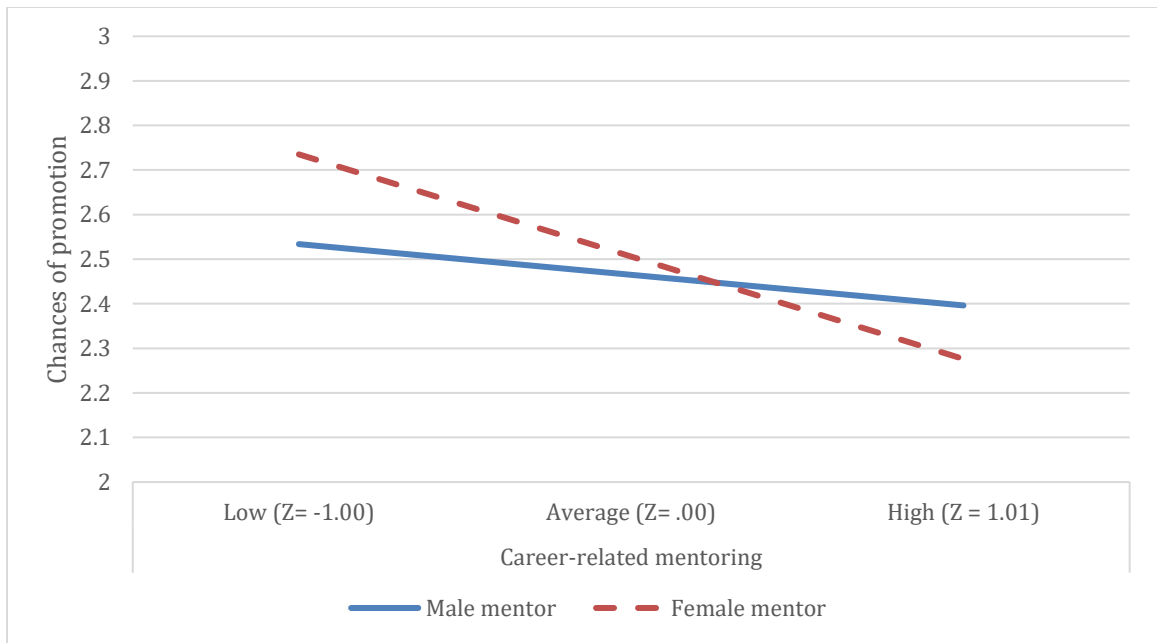


Figure 2. Mentor's Gender Moderates the Relationship Between Career-Related Mentoring and Chances of Promotion.

Hypothesis 2 Results

A linear regression was performed to test Hypothesis 2. There was a positive relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspirations, $b = .26$, $t(229) = 2.23$, $p < .05$, 95 CI% .03, .50. However, the mentor's gender did

not moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspirations, $b = -.01$, $t(229) = -.12$, $p = .80$, 95% CI $-.25, .22$. Furthermore, the mentor's ethnicity did not moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspirations, $b = -.01$, $t(229) = -.24$, $p = .80$, 95% CI $-.13, .10$. Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

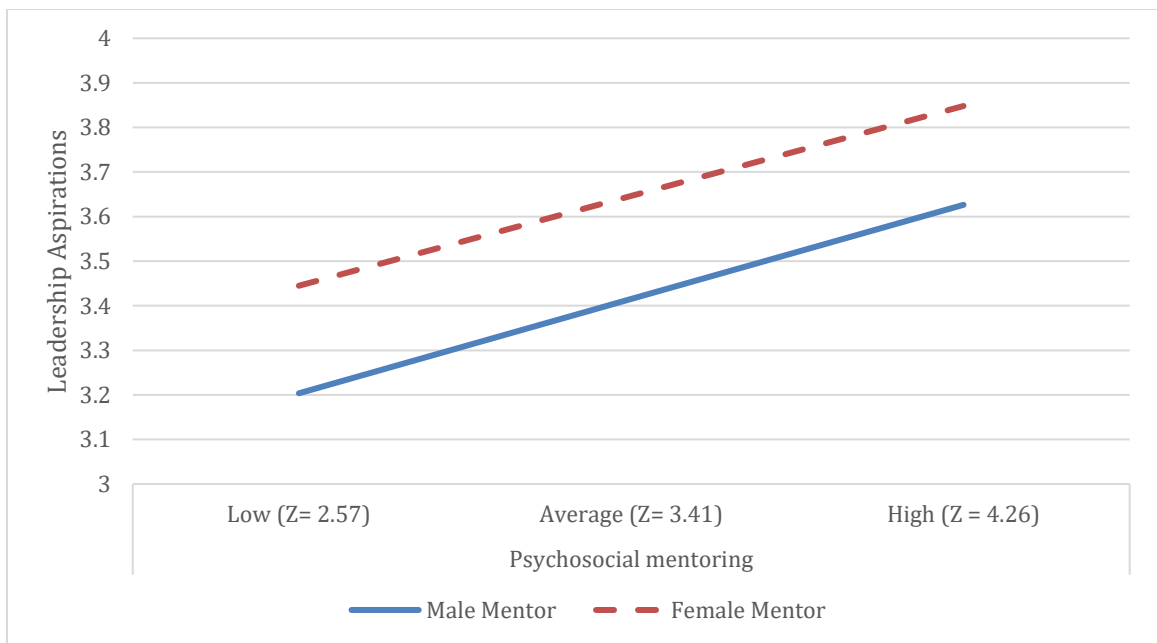


Figure 3. Mentor's Gender and the Relationship between Psychosocial Mentoring and Leadership Aspirations.

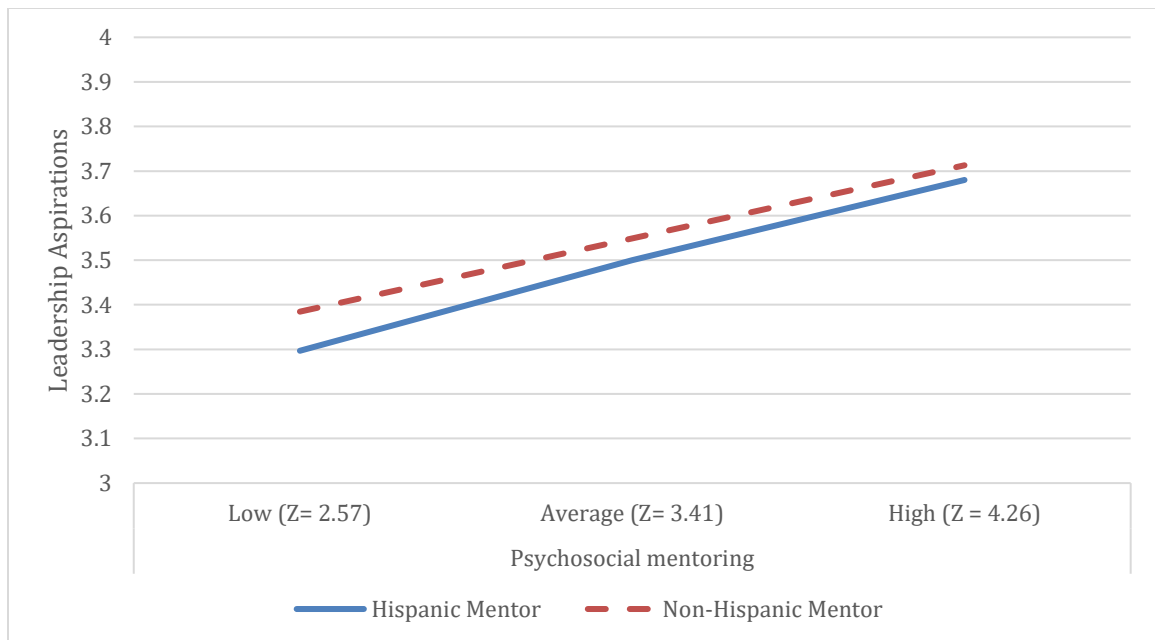


Figure 4. Mentor's Ethnicity and the Relationship between Psychosocial Mentoring and Leadership Aspirations.

Hypothesis 3 Results

Pearson correlation was performed to test Hypothesis 3. There was a small negative relationship between barriers to obtain a mentor and leadership aspirations; however, it was not statistically significant, $r = -.226$, $p = .08$.

Hypothesis 3 was not supported. This result should be interpreted with caution since the power was reduced based on the small sample size ($n = 58$) for the barriers to obtain a mentor variable.

Hypothesis 4 Results

Pearson correlation was performed to test hypothesis 4. There was a negative relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations, $r = -.242$, $p < .001$. Hypothesis 4 was supported. The relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations was small and in the negative direction and statistically significant.

Hypothesis 5 Results

A moderated regression utilizing Andrew Hayes PROCESS macro was used to test hypothesis 5. It was hypothesized that social support would moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations. There was a linear relationship in which work-family conflict significantly predicted leadership aspirations, $b = -.19$, $t(287) = -3.45$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $-.31, -.08$. It was also found that social support significantly predicted leadership aspirations, $b = .20$, $t(287) = 3.51$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.09, .32$. However, social support did not moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations, R^2 change = $.001$, $F(1,283) = .440$, $p = .50$. Although the main effects were statistically significant, the R^2 square change due

to the interaction was miniscule and not statistically significant; therefore, hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

Ancillary Results

To further understand leadership aspirations, additional analyses were conducted. Core self-evaluations were found to be significantly positively related to leadership aspirations, $r = .301$, $p < .001$. The relationship between core self-evaluations and leadership aspirations was moderate and in the positive direction; those with high core self-evaluations also reported high leadership aspirations. This finding is consistent with previous research in which a small positive relationship was found between college women's core self-evaluations and leadership aspirations (Ellis, 2015). Furthermore, psychological safety was also measured in terms of its relationship with leadership aspirations. The relationship between psychological safety and leadership aspirations was found to be positively related and small, $r = .232$, $p < .001$. Those who reported high levels of psychological safety also reported higher levels of leadership aspirations.

Qualitative Data, Coding, and Results

To help identify potential barriers and positive factors that have influenced Hispanic women's career advancement and leadership aspirations, two open ended questions were asked at the end of the survey. A total of 287 statements

were used for the qualitative data analysis; emergent theme analysis was used to identify the predominant themes mentioned by the participants. I listed the definition of each theme and coded each statement according to the themes that were identified. The qualitative data obtained sheds light on potential factors that were not measured with the quantitative questions and can serve to inform future research.

For the first question, “Please describe what factors have hindered your career advancement?” there were multiple themes that emerged. These themes were personal factors, lack of work experience, time constraints, finances, organizational constraints, lack of opportunities for advancement, gender and race, work-family balance, and no barriers identified. Below, I give a thumbnail of each of these themes. A full description of the themes with illustrative statements can be found in Appendix B.

Personal factors. One of the most common themes that was mentioned was personal factors that included the lack of self-esteem, mental health issues, and low levels of motivation to pursue career advancement opportunities. The lack of self-confidence prevented some women from taking on challenging or new opportunities that would help them advance in the organization. As noted by one of the participants: “The main factor that has hindered me in career advancement has been my self-confidence. I am comfortable with what I know but am afraid to try something new and fail so I tend to hold myself back from

tasks that I may fail at. I have gotten better about this and so far I have seen good results.”

Another personal factor mentioned by the respondents were mental health issues. In which they mentioned experiencing anxiety, depression, and PTSD that has held them back in career advancement. There were also mentions of social anxiety as a barrier. Noted below are statements that typify anxiety and mental health issues as potential barriers: “My anxiety that I am not good enough to advance.” “Mental health issues that I have which hold me back from things I should be doing in my life.”

Lack of Work Experience and Degree. Participants described a lack of work experience as a factor that has hindered their career advancement. The lack of work experience included being new to their field and not having a degree or education level that would help aid the in their career. As mentioned by one of the participants who stated the lack of experience as a barrier towards career advancement: “Needing more experience. There is nowhere to get experience if someone does not hire me.” It seems that those who lack the work experience have also mentioned not having the certification or degree, and not being at their desired education level as a barrier to advance in the organization. Another participant mentioned: “Education Level. To be able to become a supervisor, you need to either have a master's degree or almost finished with it.”

Time Constraints. Another common theme mentioned was time constraints. The time constraints were due to the balancing school obligations and employment. Attending school limited their availability to work a full time job or to pursue a promotion in the organization. Respondents also mentioned having to distribute their time between work and school, which disrupts their concentration from switching from work to school and vice versa. As noted by the following respondents: "Being in school and not having the availability for a 9-5 job. I have turned down many offers because I am determined to advance in my studies before I pursue a career." "School has been a conflict for me since I am not able to only concentrate on a job. I am having to split my time and responsibilities accordingly to my school commitments." Respondents also identified the lack of time management skills as a barrier because they are not able to complete their work, which doesn't help them in their career advancement. One of the respondents stated: "I think my workload has hindered me in balancing my career advancement because sometimes my schedule becomes overflowed."

Organizational Constraints. Participants also reported having a poor relationship with their supervisor or coworkers, which they believed hindered their advancement. As mentioned by one of the respondents: "Something I think hindered my career advancement is my attitude with another coworker." Favoritism in the organization was also mentioned as one of the barriers faced. Favoritism usually came from the supervisor who may possess biased

perceptions. As illustrated by one of the respondents: “Favoritism over one person, without the fair evaluation of achievements and capabilities. I can't stay quiet when something is wrong.”

Organizational constraints also include the lack of opportunities offered by the organization and lack of proper training. The lack of opportunities to advance may be due to the nature of the organization structure that doesn't allow for growth. As stated by one of the respondents: “People at this organization have set jobs where there is little room for growth, and I have already grown to my highest advancement I believe.” Last, organizational constraints can also include the lack of proper training for their current position. One of the respondents explained that: “At first, not being given enough opportunities to show my work ethic and my skills was holding me back from advancing in my career. Also, not having full and proper training by management rather than from my peers may have hindered me.”

Lack of a Mentor. The lack of a mentor the mentor describes those who mentioned not having a proper mentor to guide them in the organization as a potential barrier. Others mentioned not being proactive in seeking a mentor in a higher organizational position. As noted by the following respondent: “Not having enough resources or mentors to help guide me. Also, my lack of effort on prioritizing workshops or appointments to talk to someone at a higher rank.”

Work-Family Conflict. Respondents also mentioned the challenge of having to balance work and family roles, which often conflicted with each other. In some cases some respondents passed on promotional opportunities to attend to family obligations. This statement is illustrated by the following respondent: “I promoted quickly early in my career but once I had children I did not participate in a promotional interview until they were out of high school. It was a conscious decision. I could not give 100% to the new job and feel that I could be a good mother. It worked for me. I was recently promoted.”

Demographics. Respondents attributed their lack of advancement in their careers due to being a women or being Hispanic. However, the statements were concise and did not provide explanations as to why they felt their gender or race could hinder their advancement. Nonetheless, that some respondents felt discriminated against on the basis of demographic characteristics, suggests the existence of prejudice in their workplaces. As mentioned by one of the respondents, “The color of their skin tone” was mentioned as a potential barrier: “probably my race because of the fact that my skin color is a little bit darker and have Hispanic roots”.

No Barriers. There were some respondents who stated that they saw no barriers to impede their advancement in the organization. In contrast to barriers, they mentioned having been promoted in the organization and had a positive outlook of their future career growth. The theme is best illustrated by the following statement: “Nothing has hindered my career advancement[.] The

company I work for has been very pleased with the job I've done [.] I got two promotions in one month.”

Participants were also asked a question about the positive factors that have influenced their leadership aspirations: Please describe what factors have positively influenced your leadership aspirations? The following themes emerged: social support (family, colleagues, supervisor), internal drive, mentor support, organizational factors, and no leadership aspirations. See Appendix B for a list and definitions of the themes identified.

Social Support. The most common theme mentioned was related to different forms of social support such as family and friends as positive influences in their leadership aspirations. Social support can also include work-related social support such as having support from a supervisor and/or coworkers in the organization. The following response mentions both social support received at work and outside of work: “My supervisor is extremely supportive and wants nothing but the best for me. I am also inspired by my family. My mother, siblings, and boyfriend are all very determined people when it comes to their careers.”

Internal Drive. The second theme found in the responses was the participant’s internal drive that has influenced her leadership aspirations. The participants reported feeling confident in their abilities and skills and were driven by their strong work ethic to advance into leadership positions. These factors may include having the desire to showcase their skills to others and make a difference in their field. This theme can be best illustrated by the following

statement: “My accomplishments and involvement in my field inspire me to work harder and reach more opportunities, as well as help others with less experience.”

Mentor Support. Participants also mentioned the support they received from their mentors as positive influences in their aspirations. The protegee’s reported receiving psychosocial mentoring and career-related mentoring from their mentor. Psychosocial mentoring can include feeling supported by a mentor via counseling and unconditional acceptance and friendship. Participants who experienced career-related mentoring described being given opportunities to advance in the organization which cultivate their leadership skills. The career-related mentoring support is best described by the following statement: “My mentor has provided me with a lot of gaining opportunities that foster my professional growth in the organization and most importantly[,] as a leader.”

Organizational Factors. Participants reported various organizational factors that promoted their leadership aspirations. Organizational factors can include opportunities for growth, being properly trained in the organization, and working in a positive environment that nurtures their leadership skills. As noted by the following participant, adequate training had a major impact on her aspiration to a leadership position: “Once I was given proper training and the opportunities to show my work ethic and skills, it positively influenced my career advancement and desire for leadership roles. Furthermore, working in a positive work team can also inspire others to seek leadership roles. The following

response illustrates a positive work environment: “Having to work with a great team and equally influencing each other in a positive manner to seek higher positions.”

No Leadership Aspirations. Last, there were participants who reported no interest in seeking a leadership position. The following statement illustrates this sentiment “None, I don't have any interest in being a leader, I'm more of a follower and I am comfortable being one.” There were also certain statements that were not codable because the response did not answer the question posed. The following statement is an example of an uncodable statement: “Leadership is complex and multi-dimensional. Regardless of your current or aspiration role, you are constantly making leadership impressions on those around you”.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine how different mentoring facets influence leadership aspirations and career advancement for Hispanic men and women. Specifically, my aim was to explore how mentor's gender may impact the relationship between career-related mentoring and career advancement as well as how the mentor's gender and ethnicity may influence the relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspirations. Furthermore, barriers to obtain a mentor, work-family conflict, and social support were examined to determine their relationships to leadership aspirations for Hispanic women. One of the main goals of this study was to shed light on the limited research on Hispanic women and their leadership aspirations and career advancement.

As hypothesized, it was found that the mentor's gender moderated the relationship between career-related mentoring and career advancement. However, it was not in the expected direction. Interestingly, those who had a female mentor and low levels of career-related mentoring reported the highest level of chances of promotion (career advancement). This finding is inconsistent with previous research results, who have found that career-related mentoring can positively influence career advancement (Singh & Ragins, 2009; Tharenou, 2005). In examining this finding, 70% of those who reported to have a female mentor were female, which suggests that females may report higher chances of

promotion because they have a female mentor they can relate to in the workplace. The female mentor may not be in the position to provide the sponsorship or career-related mentoring, but may provide other forms of guidance that can influence the protegee's self-perception of career-advancement. Another plausible explanation for this finding may be that due to sample being highly educated Hispanic women who are likely to be high achievers, which can affect their perceptions of promotion. Nevertheless, future research is needed to examine this finding more closely and identify why those with female mentors may report higher levels of chances of promotion when they receive lower levels of career-advancement mentoring.

In contrast, those who received high levels of career-related mentoring from a male mentor reported higher career advancement than those who had a female mentor and high levels of career-related mentoring. This finding suggests that high levels of career-related mentoring have an effect on the protégée career advancement, depending on the mentor's gender. As noted in Sosik and Godshalk (2000), those with a male mentor tend to benefit from more career advancement because they are provided with more career-related mentoring. Historically, most leadership positions are held by men who have the sponsorship to leverage their mentee's possible promotion.

The relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspirations was found to be small and in the positive direction. Those participants who reported higher levels of psychosocial mentoring also reported higher levels

of leadership aspirations. Noe (1988) noted that mentors who provide psychosocial support can help increase their protégés' self-confidence and motivate them to enhance their managerial skills. However, there was no interaction with the mentor's gender, nor the mentor's ethnicity. It did not affect the relationship if the mentor and mentee shared the same ethnicity or same gender. This finding suggests that it is more critical for a protégée to receive psychosocial mentoring to influence his or her leadership aspirations, regardless of the gender or ethnicity of the mentor.

One of the potential negative factors that was hypothesized to hinder leadership aspiration was the perceptions of barriers to obtain a mentor. There was a negative and small relationship between barriers to obtain a mentor and leadership aspirations. Although it was not statistically significant this result may be due to the sample size reduction based on the missing data in the barriers to obtain a mentor variable. Nevertheless, as hypothesized the relationship was in the negative direction. In previous literature, Hispanic women have expressed the lack of mentors in their organizational career as a negative factor that hindered their career advancement (Bonilla-Rodriguez, 2011); those who did not have a mentor in their early career expressed the idea that they had a slower career progression.

Furthermore, another negative factor that can influence leadership aspirations is work-family conflict. As hypothesized, It was found that work-family conflict and leadership aspirations are negatively related. This finding is

supported by Wang and Cho (2013) who also found that work-family conflict had a negative effect on women's career expectations. In this study, social support was found not to moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations. This result may be explained because the majority of the participants reported being single and without any children, which may suggest that social support may not be as critical to the relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations for those unmarried and childless. A similar finding was found by Wadsworth and Owens (2007) who found that non work social support (friends, spouse, and children) was not significantly related to work-family conflict.

The qualitative data provided support for the quantitative findings, in which work-family conflict was a theme identified as a barrier faced by protégées. The participants reported the challenge of having to balance their family life and work, which has hindered their career advancement. A similar finding was identified in the quantitative data in which it was found that work-family conflict and leadership aspirations were significantly negatively related. Bonilla-Rodriguez (2011) also identified family responsibilities and the challenge of fulfilling work and family roles simultaneously as barriers that hinder Latinas in leadership. Mentor support which includes psychosocial mentoring and career-related mentoring were noted as positive aspects that influenced participant's leadership aspirations. This finding is consistent with the existing literature which has also

found similar themes of mentors that have encouraged and built Hispanic self confidence to advance (Marcias 1994;Peery, 1998).

Furthermore, participants identified the social support received within the organization (supervisors, management, colleagues, coworkers) and their support system outside of work (family, friends, spouse or partner) as positive aspects that have influenced their leadership aspirations. The various sources of social support Hispanic women rely on is a common theme found in other qualitative research studies. As noted by Gomez et al. (2011) Hispanic women's career development is influenced by family and relational social support which can include extended family and spouse.

In the qualitative data there were also themes that have not been identified by previous researchers who have studied Hispanic women in leadership. In particular, it was found that organizational factors, such as the organization providing opportunities for advancement and proper training can positively affect Hispanic leadership aspirations. Furthermore, a nurturing and positive work environment can also contribute to an increase in leadership aspirations. Future research is needed to examine this closer to validate the findings from this study.

Limitations and Future Research

One of the limitations in this study was that self-reported career advancement measures were used, which may be biased based on the respondent's perceptions. A way to help improve this study is to use a combination of subjective and objective career-advancement measures. Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005) utilized salary level and promotions as objective career success measures. The objective career-advancement measures can be reported by the protégée's supervisor or through archival data obtained from the organization. The objective measures may be more feasible to obtain if all the participants are employed at the same organization. The objective measures can include number of promotions, time since last promotion, salary, and salary increase.

Another limitation of this study was that the majority of the participants held entry level positions and the duration of the mentoring relationship was less than three years. The lack of tenure in their job and in a mentoring relationship may not allow sufficient time for the protégée to reap the mentoring benefits for their career advancement nor in their leadership aspirations. One way to improve this study is to examine the mentoring relationship of those who hold a supervisory level in their organization and have participated in a mentoring relationship for an extended amount of time. There was a significant, but small

positive relationship between tenure of mentoring relationship and time without a promotion, $r = .14$, $p < .05$. Those who have been in a mentoring relationship for a longer time reported less time without a promotion. Further research is needed to examine if this relationship is consistent among protégées who hold supervisory or management positions.

This study used a cross sectional design, which may have limited the ability to capture the full effects of mentoring, having been a snapshot at a single time. Therefore, in a future study a longitudinal design would be desirable to shed light on the long term effects of mentoring on career advancement and leadership aspirations. Given that career advancement opportunities are likely to change over time, it would be appropriate to measure this variable across the participant's career. Perhaps it may be more feasible to conduct a longitudinal study in a formal mentoring program at an organization. This would allow the researcher to examine the same participants across time.

A majority of the participants reported to be single and having no children, which may limit the generalizability of these findings to those who differ from those demographics. In a future study, those who are married and/or have children should be actively sought and included in the sample to identify if there are any differences in the results based on these factors. It has been noted in previous research that balancing work and family has hindered leadership aspirations for Hispanic women; therefore, it is important to include this population for future research (Bonilla-Rodriguez, 2011).

Implications

This study contributes to the limited research about Hispanic women in mentoring relationships and how mentoring relates to their leadership aspirations and, ultimately, their career advancement in the workforce. Other factors such as barriers to obtain a mentor, work-family conflict, and social support were also examined in terms of its relationship with leadership aspirations. As noted in the literature review, most of the research examining Hispanic women has been exploratory and has relied on semi-structured interviews with Hispanic women in leadership positions (Bonilla-Rodriguez, 2011; Gomez, 2011) This study took a mixed method approach and used quantitative measures, as well as open-ended questions, to capture the barriers and positive factors that influence the advancement of Hispanic women.

Furthermore, most of the mentoring research studies have been conducted on samples of predominantly Caucasian men and women and when Hispanic women are included, only a small portion comprise the study. For example, mentoring functions and their relationship to career advancement have been examined, yet this relationship has not tested on Hispanic women. This study contributes to the scarce literature. The findings previously noted in the literature about the use of career-related mentoring to help women in their career advancement was supported in this study. Those with a male mentor received

more career related mentoring which in turn resulted in higher career advancement (chances of promotion) (Tharenou, 2005). The barriers Hispanic women face are similar to women in general, but they may face additional barriers in the workplace based on cultural expectations. Hispanic women are raised in a family-oriented culture and face additional pressure when they do not fulfill traditional Hispanic values. They may opt to have a family and balance their work with their family obligations, which may limit their opportunities to progress on the career ladder. This study further examined the role of social support for Hispanic women's career advancement, work-family conflict, and its relationship to leadership aspirations and perceived barriers to obtain a mentor. As expected, work-family conflict and leadership aspirations were negatively related; this finding has been previously noted among other demographic groups, but can now be generalized to Hispanic women.

Likewise, Hispanic women are part of a minority category in the workplace who are often underrepresented in leadership positions, which may limit researchers from examining them. This study will help researchers and practitioners understand how different mentoring support functions such as career related support and psychosocial support are related to leadership aspirations, which has not been examined before. Furthermore, it will look at how the gender of the mentor may change this relationship. Given that Hispanic women may face barriers to obtaining mentors, this study will also help

researchers and managers better understand how those barriers relate to their leadership aspirations.

This study will help practitioners in designing formal mentoring program. Based on the findings, it is best to pair Hispanic women with a mentor who is also a women, because they tend to report higher levels of chances of promotion. Practitioners can also aid the protégée in the leadership aspirations by having the mentor incorporate psychosocial mentoring, which was shown to be positively related to leadership aspirations. Furthermore, practitioners should be mindful of the negative effects work-family conflict may have on protégée leadership aspirations. It may be that protégée leadership aspirations are hindered when they experience high levels of work-family conflict.

Conclusion

The study's purpose was to explore how different forms of mentoring, mentor's gender and ethnicity, barriers to obtain a mentor, work-family conflict, and social support may impact Hispanic women and men leadership aspirations. Specifically, I assessed how the mentor's gender and ethnicity may impact the protegee's career advancement and leadership aspirations in the organization. Unexpectedly, those who reported having a female mentor who provided low levels of career related mentoring reported the highest amount of chances of promotion. Furthermore, the mentor's ethnicity was found not to have an effect

on the relationship between psychosocial mentoring and leadership aspirations. Organizations should also consider work-family conflict when attempting to influence their employees leadership aspirations. A negative relationship between work-family conflict and leadership aspirations was found; therefore, it is important to help minimize the work-family conflict to increase their leadership aspirations. There are multiple factors that can hinder or positively influence their leadership aspirations and consequently their career advancement; this study has examined a few. Future research is needed to shed the light to understand better the variables that hinder and promote Hispanic women in the workplace.

APPENDIX A
MEASURES

Demographic Information

Do you currently have, or have had in the past, a mentor at work?

- Yes, I currently have a mentor
- I had a mentor in the past, but do not currently have anyone I consider a mentor
- No, I have not had a mentor

Who is (was) your mentor?

- Peer
- Supervisor
- Colleague
- Other (Please specify)

How was this mentoring relationship formed?

- Formal mentoring program at work
- I looked on my own for a mentor
- My mentor reached out to me

What is your mentor's gender?

- Male
- Female

What is your mentor's race/ethnicity?

- White/ European American
- African American
- Hispanic/ Latin American
- Asian American
- Native American
- Other (please specify)

What was (has been) the duration of the mentoring relationship?

- 3 months or less
- 4 months to 11 months
- 12 months (1 year) to 23 months
- 24 months (2 years) or more

What is your sex/gender?

- Male
- Female

What is your race / ethnicity?

- African American
- Asian American
- Hispanic/Latin American
- Native American
- White/European American
- Other

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Less than High School
- High School / GED
- Some college
- 2 year degree
- 4 year degree
- Masters degree
- Doctorate

Which of the following best describes the type of organization you work for?

- For-profit
- Non-profit
- Government
- Education
- Other

Which of the following best describes your current job position?

- Nonsupervisor/ nonmanager
- First level supervisor
- Middle manager
- Senior manager
- Executive
- Senior executive
- CEO

Have you been promoted in the last year?

- No
- Yes

How many managerial promotion have you had in your career?

- None
- 1 to 2
- 3 to 5
- 6 to 8
- 9 or more

How long have you been without a promotion?

- Less than 1 year
- 1 to 2 years
- 3 to 6 years
- 7 to 9 years
- 10 or more years

How would you rate your chance of getting a promotion?

- No chance
- Somewhat good
- Good
- Very good

What is your marital status?

- Single, never married
- Married or domestic partnership
- Widowed
- Separated
- Divorced

How many children do you have at home?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4 or more

Do you have children under the age of 5?

- Yes
- No
- I do not have any children.

What is your spouse's or significant other's_highest level of education completed?

- Less than high school
- High school graduate
- Some college
- 2 year degree
- 4 year degree
- Professional degree
- Doctorate

Which of the following best describes your spouse's or significant other's race/ethnicity?

- White/European American
- African American
- Hispanic/Latino American
- Asian American
- Native American
- Other (please specify)

Mentor Role

(Ragins & McFarlin, 1990)

Career roles

1. My mentor helps obtain desirable positions.
2. My mentor uses his or her influences in the organizations for my benefit.
3. My mentor uses his or her influence for my advancement in the organization.
4. My mentor suggests specific strategies for achieving career aspirations.
5. My mentor gives me advice on how to obtain recognition in the organization.
6. My mentor helps me learn about other parts in the organization.
7. My mentor “run interference” for me in the organization.
8. My mentor shields me from damaging contact with important people in the organization.
9. My mentor protects from those who are out to get me.
10. My mentor provides me with challenging assignments.
11. My mentor assigns me tasks that push me into developing new skills
12. My mentor gives me tasks that require me to learn new skills.

13. My mentor helps me be more visible in the organization
14. My mentor creates opportunities for me to impress important people in the organization.
15. My mentor brings my accomplishments to the attention of important people in the organization.

Psychosocial roles

16. My mentor is someone I can confide in.
17. My mentor provides support and encouragement.
18. My mentor is someone I can trust.
19. My mentor and I frequently have one-on-one informal social interactions outside of work.
20. My mentor and I frequently socialize one-on-one outside the work setting.
21. My mentor and I frequently get together outside of work by ourselves.
22. My mentor reminds me of one of my parents.
23. My mentor is like a father or mother to me.
24. My mentor treats me like a son or daughter.
25. My mentor serves as a role model for me.
26. My mentor represents who I want to be.
27. My mentor is someone I identify with
28. My mentor guides my personal development.

29. My mentor serves as a soundboard for me to develop and understand myself.

30. My mentor guides my personal development.

31. My mentor accepts me as a competent professional.

32. My mentor thinks highly of me.

33. My mentor sees me as being competent.

Career Aspirations Scale- Revised

(Gregor & O'Brien, 2015)

1. I hope to become a leader in my career field.
 2. When I am established in my career, I would like to train others.
 3. I do not plan to devote energy in getting promoted to a leadership position in the organization or business for which I'm working for.* Reverse coded
 4. I want to be among the very best in my field.
 5. My work accomplishments will make a significant difference to others.
 6. Becoming a leader in my job is not at all important to me.
 7. When I'm established in my career, I would like to manage other employees.
 8. I want to have responsibility for the future direction of my organization or business.
 9. I want my work to have a lasting impact on my field.
 10. I will be content to stay at the entry level of my career.
 11. I aspire to have my contributions at work recognized by my employer.
 12. I would like to motivate others in my organization or business.
 13. My main source of satisfaction in my life will come from achievements in my career.
 14. Attaining leadership status in my career is not that important to me.
- *Reverse code
15. I hope to move up to a leadership position in my organization or business.

16. I want to be nationally known leader in my field.

17. I know that I will be recognized for my accomplishments in my field.

18. Achieving in my career is not at all important to me. *Reverse coded

19. Being one of the best in my field is not important to me.

20. I plan to obtain many promotions in my organization or business.

21. I plan to rise to the top leadership position in my organization or field.

Achievement Aspirations items: 4, 5, 9, 11, 13, 17, 18, 19

Leadership Aspiration items: 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21

Barriers to Obtain a Mentor Scale

(Ragins & Cotton, 1991)

I am prevented from obtaining a mentoring relationship because

1. of a lack of opportunity to meet potential mentors
2. of the lack of opportunities to develop relationships with potential mentors.
3. of the shortage of potential mentors.

I am prevented from initiating a mentoring relationship because

4. there is a lack of access to potential mentors.

I am prevented from initiating a mentoring relationship because

5. I am uncomfortable taking an assertive role in approaching a potential mentor.
6. I am afraid of being rejected from a potential mentor
7. I am afraid that a potential mentor may be “put off” by such as advancement
8. I believe that it is up to the mentor to make the first move.

I am prevented from obtaining a mentoring relationship because

9. Potential mentors are unwilling to develop a relationship with me.
10. Potential mentors are unwilling to develop a relationship with me because of my gender.
11. Potential mentors are unwilling to develop a relationship with me because of their gender.

12. Potential mentors lack the time to develop a relationship with me.
13. Potential mentors do not notice me.
14. Supervisors would disapprove if I entered a mentoring relationship.
15. Coworkers would disapprove if I entered a mentoring relationship.

I am prevented from initiating a mentoring relationship because

16. My immediate supervisor may disapprove of me initiating a mentoring relationship.
17. My coworkers may disapprove of me initiating a mentoring relationship.
18. Such an approach may be misinterpreted as a sexual advance by a potential mentor.
19. Such an approach may be seen as a sexual advance by others in the organization.

Multidimensional Perceived Social Support (MPSS)

(Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988)

1. There is a special person who is around when I am in need.
2. There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
3. My family really tries to help me.
4. I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.
5. I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.
6. My friends really try to help me.
7. I can count on my friends when things go wrong.
8. I can talk about my problems with my family.
9. I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
10. There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.
11. My family is willing to help me make decisions.
12. I can talk about my problems with my friends.

Multidimensional Work Family Conflict Scale

(Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000)

1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like to
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps from participating equally in household activities and responsibilities.
3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.
4. The time I spend on family responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities.
5. The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful in my career.
6. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.
7. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
8. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that I it prevents me from contributing to my family.
9. Due to all the pressure at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.
10. Due to stress at home, I often preoccupied with family matters at work.
11. Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.

12. Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.
13. The problem-solving behaviors I used in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
14. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.
15. The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.
16. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.
17. The problem-solving behavior that work for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.

Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES)

(Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen, 2003)

1. _____ I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
2. _____ Sometimes I feel depressed. (r)
3. _____ When I try, I generally succeed.
4. _____ Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. (r)
5. _____ I complete tasks successfully.
6. _____ Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. (r)
7. _____ Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
8. _____ I am filled with doubts about my competence. (r)
9. _____ I determine what will happen in my life.
10. _____ I do not feel in control of my success in my career. (r)
11. _____ I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
12. _____ There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. (r)

Psychological Safety Scale

(Edmondson, 1999)

Team psychological safety

1. If you make a mistake in this organization, it is often held against you. Reverse coded*
2. Members of this organization are able to bring up problems and tough issues.
3. People in this organization sometimes reject others for being different.

*Reverse coded

4. It is safe to take a risk in this organization.
5. It is difficult to ask other members of this organization for help.
6. No one in this organization would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts.
7. Working with member of this organization, my unique skills are valued and utilized.

APPENDIX B
QUALITATIVE DATA

Themes of Barriers to Career Advancement

Main Themes	Definition	Illustrative Statement
Lack of work experience and education level (40%)	Participants believe that their lack of work experience and not having a degree has limited their ability to advance in their career	<p>Lack of work experience: “Needing more experience. there is no where to get experience if someone does not hire me.”</p> <p>Lack of degree: “Education Level. To be able to become a supervisor, you need to either have a master's degree or almost finished with it.”</p> <p>“I still haven't earned my bachelor's degree.”</p>
Personal factors (20%)	Participants make reference to their lack of self-esteem, mental health issues, and low levels of motivation as barriers to their advancement.	<p>Lack of self-esteem: “Lack of confidence in my abilities to successfully complete what is required of me.”</p> <p>Mental Health Issues: “Mental health issues that I have which hold me back from things I should be doing in my life.”</p> <p>Low Motivation: “Factor that hinder my advancement are motivation to strive to be bigger.”</p> <p>“motivational success and pushing myself forward”.</p>

<p>Time constraints (13%)</p>	<p>Participants mentioned not having time management skills and not able to accomplish all of their tasks. In particular, not having the time required to work a higher position due to school obligations.</p>	<p>School and Work Conflict: “Going to school full time and being offered manager positions, but not being able to take them because I would have to work days that I do attend school have hindered my career advancement.”</p> <p>Time Management: “Factors that have hindered my career advancement could be time because as much as I try to get things done on time or just ahead there are always other priorities that get in the way.”</p>
<p>Organizational Constraints (14%)</p>	<p>Participants mentioned having a poor relationship with their supervisor and/or coworker and favoritism as well as lack of training in the organization as forms of barriers for advancement.</p>	<p>Poor relationship: “Pettness, my supervisor and I did not get along well enough so I was overlooked when promoting opportunity I.”</p> <p>Favoritism: “Favoritism over one person, without the fair evaluation of achievements and capabilities. I can’t stay quiet when something is wrong.”</p> <p>Lack of training: “Not having full and proper training by management rather than from my peers may have hindered me.”</p>
<p>Lack of mentor (11%)</p>	<p>Participants stated that not having a mentor to guide them in the organization.</p>	<p>“Not having enough resources or mentors to help guide me. Also, my lack of effort on prioritizing workshops or appointments to talk to someone at a higher rank.”</p>

Work-family Conflict (6%)	Participants mentioned having to balance their work and family responsibilities as barriers to their advancement	“The biggest factor that hinders my advancement is balancing work and home life. I want to have it all, and I have learned that is not the available scenario”
Demographics (2%)	Participant mentioned their gender or ethnicity as a negative factor to their advancement.	“Factors that have hindered my career advancement are: Being a Female, Physical strength, Race.” “Being a Hispanic woman.”
No Barriers (9%)	Participants reported not having any barriers to their advancement.	“Nothing has hindered my career advancement, the company i work for has been very pleased with the job I've done I got two promotions in one month.”

Note. The number in the parentheses is the percentage of responses who referenced this theme

Themes of Positive Factors that Have Influenced Leadership Aspirations

Main Themes	Definition	Illustrative Statement
Internal Drive (47%)	Participants reported feeling confident in their abilities to success and are driven by their strong work ethic or passion.	<p>“Having the ability to learn a lot of different things made me more aware of the possibilities I have in my field, so hopefully in a few year I can focus on what I really want.”</p> <p>“The fact that I know that my leadership skills are superior, and cannot wait to express them on my team in the future.”</p>
Social Support (20%)	Participants reported having support from family, friends, supervisor, or coworkers that have influenced their leadership aspirations.	<p>Non work Support: “Family support have positively influenced my leadership aspirations in all field.”</p> <p>“The help and encouragement from my friends and family.”</p> <p>Work Social Support: “I have been positively influenced by the great team i am a part of and the great work family i have who supports me.”</p>
Organizational Factors (16%)	Participants reported a variety of organizational factors, which may include new opportunities for growth, proper training, and working in a positive environment.	<p>“My company does a good job of promoting those that work hard and do a good job. This works to my favor.”</p> <p>“Being able to learn managerial skills that I can use in a more important position.”</p>

Mentor Support (10%)	Participants mentioned receiving psychosocial support from their mentor, which may include feeling supported by the mentor as well as career related mentoring.	<p>Psychosocial: “I am influenced by my mentor about what it means to be proud of my work and how to manage work and life together.”</p> <p>Career-related: “My mentor has provided me with a lot of gaining opportunities that foster my professional growth in the organization and most importantly as a leader.”</p>
None (9%)	The participants reported not having leadership aspirations or were not codeable which means the statements did not answer the question posed.	<p>None: “None, I don't have any interest in being a leader, I'm more of a follower and I am comfortable being one.”</p> <p>Not Codable: “Leadership is complex and multi-dimensional. Regardless of your current or aspiration role, you are constantly making leadership impressions on those around you”.</p>

Note. The number in the parentheses is the percentage of responses who referenced this theme

APPENDIX C
INFORMED CONSENT



College of Social and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Psychology

**Informed Consent
"Mentoring Relationships at Work"**

Principal Investigators:

You are invited to participate in a study being conducted by Arlette Osorno, BA, and Janet Kottke, PhD, of the Psychology Department at California State University of San Bernardino.

Approval Statement

This study has been approved by the Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee of the California State University, San Bernardino, and a copy of the official Psychology IRB stamp of approval should appear on this consent form. The University requires that you give your consent before participating in this study.

Description of the Research

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your experience in a mentoring relationship at work. In addition, you will be asked a series of questions about your work attitudes, and basic demographic information. Please read all questions in detail and respond honestly.

Statement of Time Required

This study should take no more than 30 minutes to complete.

Risks and Benefits Statement

This study involves no risks that are greater than expected in everyday life, nor any direct benefits to you as a participant other than credit for one of your psychology courses if you are a CSUSB student.

Compensation

If you are a CSUSB student, you will receive 1 credit on SONA (at the discretion of your instructor) for your participation in this study. If you are an Mturk participant you will be compensated \$2.00 after completing the survey and passing the attention checks.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to withdraw your participation at any time during the study. You are also free to skip any questions you feel uncomfortable answering without loss of credit.

Confidentiality

As no identifying information will be connected with your responses in this study; all your responses are completely anonymous. Only the primary investigators and staff will have access to the results of this study and these will only be reported as group data,

not individual responses. The data will be evaluated, but no connection between your identity and the results will be made.

Sharing Results

Access to all of your responses is limited to the Principal Investigator and research staff. If we publish the results of this study, we will report only aggregate (group) data; we will not report individual responses. The following groups may need to review study records, but the records will not be linked to your identity: Institutional oversight review offices at CSUSB and federal regulators. All data will be destroyed five years after publication.


Opportunity to Ask Questions

Any questions regarding this study can be answered by contacting Dr. Jan Kottke at jkottke@csusb.edu. You may also contact the CSUSB Psychology department IRB Sub-Committee and psyc.irb@csusb.edu.

Consent, Right to Receive a Copy

You are voluntarily making the decision to participate in the research study. By selecting "I consent, begin the study" in the space provided below, you are certifying that you have decided to participate and have read and understood the information presented to you.

I acknowledge that I understand and have been informed of the purpose and nature of the study and consent to participate. I am at least 18 years of age.

California State University			
Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee			
Approved:	9/21/18	Void After:	9/21/19
IBB #	H-18FA-01	Committee Chair	

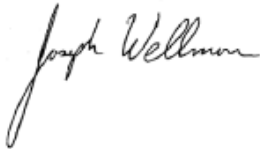
APPENDIX D
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

**Human Subjects Review Board
Department of Psychology
California State University,
San Bernardino**

PI: Janet Kottke
From: Joseph Wellman
Project Title: Mentoring Relationships at Work
Project ID: H-18FA-01
Date: 9/21/18

Disposition: Administrative

Your IRB proposal (**Mentoring Relationships at Work, H-18FA-01**) is approved. You are permitted to collect information from 282 participants from Sona for 1 Sona Credit. **Good luck with your research!**



Joseph Wellman, Committee Member
Psychology IRB Sub-Committee

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