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The Impact of Mentoring on Leadership among Young African-American Females

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THE IMPACT OF MENTORING ON LEADERSHIP AMONG YOUNG AFRICAN-AMERICAN FEMALES

by

Joyce A. Montgomery

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of The Graduate College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Department of Sociology

Western Michigan University Kalamazoo, Michigan April 1995
THE IMPACT OF MENTORING ON LEADERSHIP AMONG YOUNG AFRICAN-AMERICAN FEMALES

Joyce A. Montgomery, Ph.D.
Western Michigan University, 1995

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the leadership behavior of female mentees in a community leaders program. More specifically, the researcher was concerned with what effects do the variables age, residence location, and family position have on aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior among adolescent female mentees.

The target population consisted of 47 African-American adolescent females ages 14 through 18 years old attending the Community Leadership Program (CLP) based in Battle Creek, Michigan. The major data-gathering scale used, The Mentoring Leadership Survey, was designed and developed by the researcher. Scale one of the Mentoring Leadership Survey consisted of thirty-eight items under five sub-scales. The second scale of the survey contained three demographic items.

Inasmuch as the instrument yielded interval scaled data for the independent variable, and nominal or ordinal scaled data for the dependent variable, a parametric procedure was used. The
parametric procedure employed in this study was the One-Way Analysis of Variance. If a difference was found among the sample means, the Scheffe' Method, a Post Hoc test used to determine whether the difference can be attributed to random sampling fluctuation (Hinkel, Wiersman & Jurs, 1994). All hypotheses were tested at the .05 Alpha level or better.

The data revealed that older African-American female mentees exhibited more favorable perceptions toward the effectiveness of a mentoring relationship on various components of leadership behavior than their younger counterparts. Another important finding of the study was the lack of total influence of the variables family position and residence status on the leadership behavior of African-American female mentees.

Discussion of the results includes implications of the findings and suggestions for future research.
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Joyce A. Montgomery
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

More so than any other female in recorded history, the African-American female has endured some of the most horrific forms of economic, social, and political oppression, as well as slavery, in the United States (Brown, 1992). These experiences have left little hope for role models for the African-American female. The options for leadership development for young African-American females have been, and are few. Leadership for resolving many of the African-American family, neighborhood and community problems are greatly needed. Increasingly for minority families, the burden of problems resolution often becomes the responsibilities of the woman in the family (Brown, 1992). The most compelling data to date describe still more changes to the African-American family structure: the number of single-parent homes has radically increased, and as two parent households have radically increased so have two-parent working families (Petersmeyer, 1989). Yet, the options for leadership development for young African-American females within these families are few.

While there are numerous community leadership programs in operation every year, for a variety of reasons, few of the participants are African-American females. Further, pressures are mounting on African-American individuals, families and communities to seek
ways to motivate and inspire the youth. Data also indicate an in-
crease of minorities in the population, which causes for even great-
er concern to provide direction and purpose for African-Americans
(Hill, 1993). Therefore, many have begun the process of developing
programs to improve the African-American community. Thus, ideas to
build mentor relationships for the African-American female, who
maintains a major role in the African-American family and community
is now viewed as one possible solution for improving the African-
American community.

The word mentor can be traced back to the mythology of western
civilization's earliest cultural heritage. In Greek mythology the
mentor relationship is described in two myths. The first myth is
the wise and faithful Mentor, friend to Odysseus. Odysseus entrust-
ed Mentor with the rearing of his son, Telemachus, whom he subse-
quently watched over, protected, and advised. The second myth is
Pygmalion, the King of Cyprus. Pygmalion one day sculpted a fair
maiden, called her Galatea, fell in love with her, and entreated the
Goddess Aphrodite to give her life. Pygmalion, as a mentor, created
an exemplary pattern and stood in a special archetypal relationship
to Galatea. In both of these myths, the mentor was neither just a
teacher nor a guide. The mentor offered to the protege, peership,
friendship, and the opportunity to creatively perform together (Bur-
ton, 1977).

For the American who is African and female, a mentoring rela-
tionship does appear to provide a source for developing leadership
characteristics. In addition, for the African-American female it has been an uphill battle to maintain self-esteem and willingness to forge on and survive. Thus, the number of mentoring programs have grown dramatically in recent years according to a study conducted by Jeruchim and Sharpiro (1992), yet most are geared towards developing leadership abilities of men. Moreover, not only are there few leadership programs designed for females, there are even fewer leadership programs designed for African-American females. The literature reveals that the African-American female is at the top of the list for those who could benefit from the mentoring experience (Keyton & Kalbfleisch, 1993).

Inasmuch as research suggests that it is more essential for minorities to have a mentor who can help them through periods of doubt and indecision, Willie (1988) feels that the difficulties women face in securing a mentor, alone, are even more extreme for minorities. The obvious societal factors which hinder her leadership abilities have been replaced by more subtle ones. While the saying, it is a man’s world, denotes the fact that she is a woman, it is compounded only by the fact that she is black. There should be no doubt that the African-American female possesses leadership abilities; however, she remains in dire straits to have a mentoring relationship. Thus, there are four key elements of a mentoring relationship which should be taken into account, specifically: (1) Who teaches/motivates her, (2) What she is taught, (3) The relevance and benefit of the teaching, and (4) The overall impact of the
above (combined) on her leadership abilities.

According to Collins (1983) and Jeruchim and Sharpio (1992) although mentoring is seen as a means to achieve success, few women have harnessed its potential. Also, several studies show that mentoring for females makes more of a critical difference for future success than for men (Devanna, 1984) and (Moore, 1982). Likewise, women are not only asking for more role models, but are in need of leadership development (Keyton & Kalbfleisch, 1993).

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to examine the perceived effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the leadership behavior of female mentees in a Community Leaders Program. More specifically, the researcher is concerned with what effects do the variables age, residence location, and family position have on the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior among adolescent female mentees. Answers to the following three questions were sought:

1. To what extent does the female mentees' age influence how they perceive the mentoring relationship with regard to the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior?

2. To what extent does the female mentees' residence location influence how they perceive the mentoring relationship with regard
to the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior?

3. To what extent does the female mentees' family position influence how they perceive the mentoring relationship with regard to the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is threefold: First, a study of this nature will provide sociologists with relevant data on the influence of a mentoring relationship on the leadership skills of adolescent African-American females. Inasmuch as the African-American female is often viewed within the African-American community as a key social actor in helping to find solutions to many of the social woes facing this social structure, leadership skills are essential. The type of leadership skills they possess are important in their efforts to deal with these issues. A positive mentoring relationship experience can go a long way in developing the necessary leadership skills for females in order to assist them in their decision-making abilities.

Second, this study will help enhance the knowledge and understanding of program administrators and other interested professionals (sociologists, psychologist, and so forth) regarding factors
that impact a mentoring relationship for females. By understanding the factors that influence the development and implementation of a mentoring experience, program administrators and other interested professionals can then collaborate on strategies which can assist in nurturing and cultivating this experience to meet the needs of adolescent females, regardless of their ethnicity, age, family position, and residence area.

Finally, the data obtained in the study can be very useful to individuals associated with mentoring programs and those who study such programs regarding African-Americans. An empirical analysis of mentoring programs for African-Americans can provide the type of insight necessary to enable them to be functional individuals within society.

Statement of Hypotheses

It is assumed that the mentoring relationship is an important factor in enhancing the leadership skills of African-American adolescent females. If the African-American female is viewed as a key social entity in solving many of the social ills that permeate the social fabric within the black community, programs which emphasize a mentoring relationship for females are crucial in developing their leadership skills. More importantly, variables such as age, family position, and residence area are significant in determining how female mentees perceive the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on their leadership behavior.
It is hypothesized that older female mentees (16 years and above), will perceive more favorably the effectiveness of mentoring relationship than younger female mentees regarding their leadership skills. Also, it can be hypothesized that female mentees who are in higher family position will perceive more favorably the effectiveness of mentoring relationship than the lower family female position mentees regarding their leadership skills.

The following null hypotheses are generated from the above research hypotheses:

Ho₁: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perception of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Ho₂: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of the knowledge component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Ho₃: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Ho₄: There will be no statistically significant difference
between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness components of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_0^5$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_0^6$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_0^7$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness components of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_0^8$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_0^9$: There will be no statistically significant difference
between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_{0,10}:$ There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_{0,11}:$ There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_{0,12}:$ There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_{0,13}:$ There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

$H_{0,14}:$ There will be no statistically significant difference
between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Ho15: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Theoretical Perspective

For the purpose of this investigation the symbolic-interaction theory can be most useful in identifying and explaining those factors which impact the leadership abilities of African-American females in terms of a mentoring relationship. The symbolic-interaction theory maintains that through social interaction of symbols and symbolic-communication such as language and gestures, individuals form concepts, ideas, and meanings which affect their behavior. More specifically, it emphasizes that individual ideas of self and the roles they play is greatly impacted by others.

In reference to the present study, the symbolic interaction theory can clarify the socializing relationship which can exist between a mentor and a mentee. Also, this theory can denote the seriousness of African-American females sense of purpose, self understanding, overall personality identity and other leadership
characteristics in terms of a mentoring relationship. Therefore, it is expected that the African-American females who are able to have a mentoring relationship will develop the leadership abilities necessary for building and maintaining a stable foundation for themselves, as well as, the African-American family and community.

It is also expected that the African-American female mentee will develop personality characteristics, in terms of (a) aggressiveness, (b) amount of influence, (c) respect of knowledge, (d) parental substitute, and (e) supportiveness components of leadership abilities, proportionally similar to their mentor and based on the nature of the mentoring relationship.

Limitations

The following limitations are observed in this study:

1. This study will be limited to African-American females attending a community leaders program.

2. This study will be limited to five components of leadership behavior: aggressiveness, respect of knowledge, parental substitute, amount of influence, and supportiveness.

3. Generalizations drawn from the findings of this study will be limited to female African-American adolescent mentees attending a Community Leaders Program in Michigan.

Definition of Variables/Terms

The following variables/terms are operationally defined for
the purposes of providing clarity and understanding, relative to the focus of the present research study:

1. **Mentoring** - refers to the process in which one person performs advising, counseling, teaching, sponsoring, coaching, guiding, and role modeling with another in a relationship that is more than pro forma in that the person with greater rank or experience takes a personal interest in the development of a person with less rank or experience.

2. **Mentor** - refers to a person with greater rank or experience who takes a personal interest in the development of a person with less rank or experience. For the purpose of this study the mentor will be female instructors involved with the Community Leaders Program.

3. **Mentee** - refers to an African-American adolescent female student attending the Community Leaders Program.

4. **Age** - refers to a female mentee's chronological age at the time of participation in the study. For the purpose of this study, age will be measured in the following categories: "14" years, "15" years, and "16 years and above."

5. **Residence Location** - refers to the geographical area of the state where a female mentee resides.

6. **Family Position** - refers to the sibling position and/or birth position of a female mentee.

7. **Low Family Position** - refers to a female mentee with a sibling position of 3 or less.
8. **High Family Position** - refers to a female mentee with a sibling position of 4 or more.

9. **Aggressiveness Component** - refers to the aspect of leadership where a female mentee is concerned with initiating decision making skills.

10. **Amount of Influence Component** - refers to the aspect of leadership where a female mentee is concerned with developing persuasion characteristics to enhance her decision making skills.

11. **Respect of Knowledge Component** - refers to the aspect of leadership where a female mentee is concerned with the cognitive attributes of decision making skills.

12. **Parental Substitute Component** - refers to the aspect of leadership where a female mentee is concerned with the familiar characteristics of decision making skills.

13. **Supportiveness Component** - refers to the aspect of leadership where a female mentee is concerned with the networking properties of decision making skills.

14. **Community Leaders Program (CLP)** - refers to a program that assist a female mentee in developing leadership skills.

15. **Leadership** - refers to the ability of a female mentee to demonstrate decision-making skills with regard to aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute, and supportiveness components of leadership behavior.

16. **Self-Esteem** - refers to how a female mentee feels about herself.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

There is little literature on African-American leadership and mentoring, and even less literature on African-American female leadership and mentoring. The literature in this section is divided into 5 categories: (1) Leadership, (2) Mentoring, (3) Self-Esteem, (4) Crises in the African-American Community, and (5) Summary.

Leadership

Theories of Leadership

According to Stoghill (1974), several early theorists, influenced by Galton's (1879) study of the hereditary background of great men, attempted to explain leadership on the basis of inheritance. Woods (1913) studied 14 European nations over periods of five to ten centuries. The conditions of each reign were found to approximate the ruler's capabilities. The brothers of kings (as a result of natural endowment, of course) also tended to become men of power and influence! Woods concluded that the man makes the nation and shapes it in accordance with his abilities. Wiggam (1931) advanced the proposition that the survival of the fittest and intermarriage among them produces an aristocratic class differing biologically from the lower classes. Thus, an adequate supply of superior leaders depends upon a proportionately high birth rate among the
able classes.

Leadership was seen as the personality of the leader in action. A leader emerged from the masses because of his innate, superior ability, most often based on heredity (Frieson, pp. 223-225). Jennings (1960) compiled a comprehensive analysis of the Great Man theory of leadership. Traits associated with leadership were investigated in research consisting solely of males (p. 24).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) wrote that leadership skills were once thought a matter of birth. Leaders were born, not made, summoned to their calling through some unfathomable process.

This might be called the Great Man theory of leadership. It saw power as being vested in a very limited number of people whose inheritance and destiny made them leaders. Those of the right breed could lead, all others must be led. Either you had it or you didn't. No amount of learning or yearning could change your fate. (pp. 5-10)

After the Great Man theory, came the environmental theories. These theories viewed the emergence of a great leader as a result of time, place, and circumstance (Stoghill, 1974). Mumford (1909) maintained that the leader emerges by virtue of abilities and skills enabling him to solve social problems in times of stress, change, and adaptation. As such, it is related to the organized and organizing phases of the social process or to the habitual tensional-adaptive phases of association. Person (1928) advanced two hypotheses to account for leadership: (1) any particular situation plays a large part in determining leadership qualities and the leader for that situation, and (2) the qualities in an individual which a particular situation may determine as leadership qualities are
themselves the product of a succession of prior leadership situations which have developed and molded him. Murphy (1941), argued that leadership does not reside in a person but is a function of the occasion. The situation calls for certain types of action: the leader does not inject leadership, but is the instrumental factor through which a solution is achieved.

According to Mclean and Weitzel (1991) various theorists (such as Browne & Cohn, 1958; Chemers & Ayman, 1993; De Bruyn, 1978; Heller, 1982; Manske, 1990; Terry, 1993; Vick, 1989; Von Nostrand, 1993; Zaleznik, 1990), have maintained that the situation is not in itself sufficient to account for leadership. How many crisis situations arise that do not produce a man equal to the occasion?

Both the great man theorists and the environmental theorists attempted to explain leadership as an effect of a single set of forces. The interactive effects of individual and situational factors were overlooked, which were included later in the personal-situational theories. Westburgh (1931) suggested that the study of leadership must include (1) the affective, intellectual, and action traits of the individual as well as (2) the specific conditions under which the individual operates. Case (1933) maintained that leadership is produced by the conjuncture of three factors: (1) the personality traits of the leader, (2) the nature of the group and of its members, and (3) the event (change or problem) confronting the group. These points of view were further developed and, according to Gerth and Mills (1952),
To understand leadership, attention must be paid to (1) the traits and motives of the leader as a man, (2) images that selected publics hold him and their motives for following him, (3) the features of the role that he plays as a leader, and (4) the institutional context in which he and his followers may be involved. (pp. 78-83)

It is important to note that all of the previously mentioned theorists are sexist in that none referred to the possibility that women could be leaders. More specifically, they did not mention the African-American women as a leader.

Characteristics of Leaders and Leadership

Whether you are Black or White, male or female, successful leaders believe that there are certain characteristics associated with a leader and leadership skills. "It is the capacity to develop and improve their skills that distinguishes leaders from their followers" (Manske, 1990, p. 19). Mclean and Weitzel (1991) feels the need for leaders in every walk of life has indeed become critical.

If this situation is to be genuinely improved, we have concluded that the awakening must begin with individuals. The reassuring message is that leadership does not require unusual talent or that elusive quality called charisma. Instead, the role of leaders can be stated quite simply: first, they must apply proven leadership skills to the task at hand. To the individual armed with this knowledge and ability, leadership no longer needs to involve a reckless leap of faith. (pp. 28-30)

According to H. Ross Perot, people cannot be managed. Inventories can be managed, but people must be led (Vick, 1989). Many of us think of powerful, action-oriented people like military leaders, political leaders, and social action leaders. "But you don't have to be highly visible to be a leader. People you come in contact
Characteristics of a good leader include patience, understanding, enthusiasm, charisma, good organizational and listening skills, and strength. These characteristics also provide an incomplete picture of a good leader. While many leadership techniques and skills have to be learned, influence is something everyone is born with. Everyone has the potential to influence someone else. Influence comes from within but you must learn how to use it. No one can be a leader unless they use this power of influence to move people to action. By leading from behind suggesting, persuading, and gently guiding others you exert influence on them. (pp. 2-8)

Vick (1989) believes that leadership is getting people to do what you want them to do. As a leader you must have the ability to motivate others with their consent, without the use of authority on your part. "Although leaders must use authority to motivate others from time to time, a wise leader does not use her or his authority to excess. A leader who is not followed freely is a leader in title only" (pp. 2-3).

Vick (1989) also feels that a leader is a person who has influence with people, which causes them to listen and agree on common goals. There are four important words in his description of a leader: influence, listen, agree, action. You cannot be a leader unless people will listen to you, agree on common goals, and take action (pp. 2-29).

In addition, Vick believes that everyone is born with potential for leadership in varying degrees (pp. 3-14).

Some people appear to be natural leaders because they are always eager to assume leadership roles. Others shy away from leadership roles but are forced into leadership from time to time by an unexpected event. Still another group of people never try to lead. They are always followers, failing to practice or exert their leadership skills. Anyone can be a
leader if he/she takes the time to learn and practice good leadership skills. (pp. 3-5)

Browne and Cohn (1958) states the demand for effective leadership has been intensified in our society. Yet those who are leaders today or who train leaders must act on the basis of what remains largely a series of ad hoc maxims supported by either sound theory or empirical data. They, according to Terry (1993) believe that adequate research on this critical problem calls for the combined resources of the social sciences.

No one yet figured out just how to teach leadership. I frequently faced in those early days the dubious query, can leadership be taught?-to which I could only offer an equally dubious riposte. I'm not sure. All I know from experience is that leadership can be learned. (pp. 10-13)

According to De Bruyn (1976) the key to motivating others to want to lead is communication. If you can't communicate with people, you can't lead, much less cause others to want what you are doing. That's a pure, absolute, and unchangeable fact. De Bruyn (1976) listed several other factors, that he felt were the key to causing others to want to lead:

1. Personal Gain. This is the strongest and most prevalent individual motive possessed by human beings. In any situation, one is almost sure to think or ask, What's in it for me? This is called the Primary Question, and it's one we all seem to ask consciously or subconsciously in all situations.

2. Prestige. People are motivated by what causes them to feel important or will enable them to win approval or recognition from others.

3. Pleasure. When the prestige motive is combined with the need people have to achieve pleasure, motivation to accept leadership is enhanced. A leader would do well
never to forget the leadership asset available in combining these two individual motivators. When the need for pleasure is not allowed, people will not trust a leader, for they believe you are taking credit for all accomplishments and are likely to feel used.

4. Imitation. This is a need people have to follow the crowd and do what the majority-or-minority-are doing.

5. Security. This is a desire we all have for safety. It is revealed in many varied ways.

6. Convenience. When a leader can combine the need for convenience with need for personal gain, leadership acceptance and motivation are enhanced.

7. Desire to Avoid Fear. This need keeps revealing itself in every list, and it is a much stronger need than we will ever suspect. In many ways I think fear dominates and consumes the lives of many, many people. I think this need is among our most intense motivators. . . . It stops people from even trying. A leader can never forget this reality. Fears dominate and control our thinking and lives more than we like to admit. . . . (pp. 19-48)

Carraway (1990), listed a formula which she feels is clearly related to successful leadership style, they include;

(1) Communication-Become a better communicator. Leaders must be perceptive listeners, experts at one-on-one conversations, students of group dynamics and outstanding speakers and writers.

(2) Mutual Reward Theory-States that a relationship between two people (groups) is improved and enhanced when there is a satisfactory exchange of rewards between them. It is upon this human-relations principal that all leader-follower relationships are built.

(3) Handle Power With Care-Every leader must, at times, let his or her leadership show. Authority must be communicated. Timing is important. Followers study their leaders carefully and are more sensitive to how leaders use power than the leaders themselves realize.

(4) Learn To Make Decisions-Leaders and followers agree that good decision making is a primary criterion for successful leadership. The group decision making process should
be followed as long as it leads to better decisions.

(5) Establish Yourself As A Positive Force-A positive force is nothing more than positive expectations. It is a dynamic force that emanates from a leader circle of involvement and activity. Without the positive force, the organization loses its life.

(6) Articulate A Winning Mission- A mission should be an extension of the positive force created by the leader. A mission has two purposes: 1) to hold a group together and 2) to head them in the right direction. (pp. 15-17)

Carraway (1990), feels the previously mentioned leadership formula provides some practical guidelines to those who wish to acquire the skills and behavior patterns associated with successful and effective leadership.

Females and Leadership

Although women have been rarely studied as leaders, they possess many of the same characteristics as all leaders as well as their own unique qualities. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), through the years, the view of what leadership is and who can exercise it has changed considerably. It is no longer true that only men are seen as leaders, theories must now include women.

According to Dubois (1992), the nineteenth-century played an important role in women's leadership. Dubois (1992), notes that such women as Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony are widely known for their lifelong leadership in the women's right movement.

Myers, Morrison and Bloxom (1984), feels that Eleanor Roosevelt also played a key role in the women's right movement.
As the wife of the president she learned to use her influence to bring to his attention problems she thought he should act on. She developed a concern about women's roles in society. Though she was never a radical feminist, she still urged other women to seek advanced education and expanded opportunities. She believed that women had unexplored capacities in many fields of work and politics. (pp. 3-19)

It is evident that because of the efforts of such pioneers as mentioned previously and many others, women are able to become successful leaders. Between 1972 and 1983, the number of women managers doubled to 3.5 million and the number of executive women rose 143% (Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986, p. 11). According to Heller (1982) and Frieson (1983) increasing numbers of women are moving into leadership positions, enjoying their new authority and influence, proving their ability to lead.

Historically, leadership has been considered a masculine domain. The interactions of sex-role stereotypes, occupational sex-typing, and discrimination have contributed to an absence of women in leadership positions. The decade of the 70's, with the rise of the women's movement, affirmative action programs, and new legislation, has seen the place of women in American society brought into the spotlight. The substantial increase in the number of women in the labor force and their gradual movement into the upper echelons of management has been cited as one of the most significant social developments of the decade. (p. 223)

Friesen feels with societal changes and new generations of women moving into leadership spheres will necessitate continued research, in order to develop a conceptual framework to give direction and meaning to the investigation of women in leadership (pp. 229-235). In addition, Van Nostrand (1993), feels there are three important processes of change involving women and leadership.

(1) Gender-responsible leadership: Change requires that leaders recognize bias and sexism in themselves and
others and take steps toward remedies when favoritism over challenges or under challenges either females or males. Because of females' second-class status, leaders need to place special emphasis on women's empowerment.

(2) Women's ways of knowing: Leaders can revalue women's ways of knowing (Belenkky et al., 1986) and understand that women thrive on the use of rapport talk (Tannen, 1990), linking and connecting with others. Adversarial cultures, which emphasize ranking, may inhibit women because females learn and participate more readily in collaborative settings. If women's interaction styles are recognized, appreciated, and cultivated, then females can become more visible and instrumental in mixed groups.

(3) Different voices: It is essential to women's self-concepts and learning capacities that their voices be heard; it is crucial to the well-being of society that leaders develop sensitivity toward, and techniques to elicit, the unique insights and talents of women. Leaders must devise and implement gender-fair strategies that will help create group climates in which women are as advantaged, and valued, as men. (pp. 25-27)

According to (Bass, 1991; McIntire, 1989; Spitzberg, 1987), colleges and universities have long acknowledged that student leadership development is a key element in their institutional missions (Komives, 1994, p. 102). Many programs foster leadership through resident assistants or orientation advisors or such positional leaders as officers of student government and greek organizations (McIntire, 1989). While more research is needed on the topic, involvement as a student leader has been found to enhance development and have long-term effects on select skills (Schuh & Laverty, 1983). College student leadership experiences have also been recognized as stronger predictors of later managerial success than either grades or institutional selectivity (AT&T, 1984). Women students constitute over half of all enrollments (The Nation, 1990), yet hold substantially
fewer campus leadership positions than men students (Shavlik, Touchton, & Pearson, 1989). Developing leadership among women students is therefore receiving increased attention (Sagaria, 1988), especially since extracurricular involvement in leadership activities has been identified as a significant factor in women entering such traditionally male fields as law (pp. 103-105).

According to Komives (1994), studies that focus on gender differences in leadership development have only recently surfaced. While most studies indicate men and women are equally effective as leaders (Bass, 1991; Posner & Brodsky, 1992), findings that men and women may use different leadership styles imply that they focus on different qualities of leadership (Vale & Riker, 1979). Komives (1994) believes that "leadership studies with such an implication warrants further study, particularly in relation to leadership development programs targeting women students" (pp. 105-111).

**African-American Females and Leadership**

Literature reveals that a very limited amount of research has been done on African-American women and leadership. However, Loewenberg and Bogin (1976), Franklin and Meier (1982) and Litwack and Meier (1982), contributed useful information on African-American female leaders. According to Loewenberg and Bogin (1976), the nineteenth-century gave us Anna Julia Cooper, a teacher with a sense of mission, a sense of urgency for the education of all people, and a special concern for needs of Black women.
She believed not only that individuals, men and women alike, deserved and required education, but that the future of the African-American race, degraded and deprived for centuries, depended on the development of African-American women together with the men. There was a broader social argument relating to the higher education of women to unlock the feminine side of truth, as valid as the masculine side and of equal importance. (p. 318)

There were other African-American female leaders during the nineteenth-century who contributed to helping African-American women. According to Harley (1988), Mary Eliza Church Terrell had established a national reputation as a Black women’s club leader, a women’s suffrage activist, and a gifted speaker (pp. 307-321).

Not quite thirty years old, in 1892 she helped to organize one of the first Black women’s secular groups in the United States. Four years later she became the first president of the newly formed National Association of Colored Women. Terrell was involved in predominantly white women’s suffrage and reform circles. To both Black and white women’s reform movements she brought a firm belief in racial justice and women’s equality, well-tuned leadership skills, a brilliant mind, and a talent as a public speaker for articulating the goals and beliefs of the movements. (p. 307)

According to Harley (1988), Terrell’s success on various fronts in the closing decades of the nineteenth-century would assure her a prominent place in the twentieth-century American public arena, especially as the opportunities for women leaders expanded. According to Ross (1982), a study of Black female leadership would not be complete without looking at the contributions of Mary McLeod Bethune, who rose from poverty to become one of the nation’s most distinguished Afro-American leaders.

She had three different careers; as an educator, she was the architect of Florida’s Bethune Cookman College; as founder and president of the National Council of Negro Women, she was a central figure in the development of the Black women’s club.
movement; and, as a worker in politics, she was one of the few Blacks who held influential posts in the federal bureaucracy during the administration of Franklin D. Roosevelt. (pp. 191-192)

According to (McAdoo, 1980), from the time that they first set foot in the New World, Black females have struggled courageously to contribute toward a better quality of life in Black communities and in the society at large. From 1619 to the present, their struggles have been waged from the lowest position among Black and white Americans, and they have labored under the hardest conditions. While their contributions have been significant in the development of this Nation and in the continuing fight against the oppression of its Black citizenry, Black females have yet to enjoy the full benefits of their suffering and arduous labors. Obstructed by the dynamics of racism and sexism in the groups in which they live and work, the full leadership potential of Black females throughout their history in this country has remained a relatively untapped-or at best, under utilized-resource, not only in predominantly white institutions and organizations, but also in all Black communities as well (pp. 203-204).

According to Scott (1981) leadership studies tend to deal with powerful public personalities, and since leadership is biased in terms of race, class, and sex privileges, it is not surprising that studies on Black female leadership are scant and present an incomplete picture.

Scott (1981) revealed that as far as Black women are concerned educational and religious institutions have done little to foster
leadership training. It has been the social and church clubs and informal community networks that have been training grounds for Black women leaders. There are obstacles to such leadership training, however:

1. declining participation in the club;
2. the negative myth of the Black matriarchy;
3. the socialization of Black girls away from male-dominated areas such as politics;
4. the neglect of Black women community leaders by public institutions and the media;
5. the neglect of college extra-curricular activities to promote Black women leadership. (pp. 1-19)

Scott (1993) feels that the lack of leadership among women and Blacks is a critical one, which must be addressed by scholars and activists. If we are to save this earth from destruction, we must get more women and Blacks in leadership roles at the negotiating tables (p. 18).

Sara Alyce Wright (Scott, 1993), Executive Director of the YWCA reflected upon her socialization into leadership noting:

A leader is someone who doesn’t throw you in the water and tell you to sink or swim, but who has her hands underneath you in the water if you need it. We need more leaders of this type and I am certain that many uncut diamonds are to be found among the next generation of Black women. (pp. 18-19)

According to Giddings (1984), Black women who are fully employed, year round, have continued to make median income and earning gains relative to Black men, White women, and White men. This should suggest that special attention be given to Black women attaining jobs—in other words, some female-directed policies and
programs should be implemented.


If there are no people of color—if there are no women—on the president’s or chancellor’s executive team, no amount of rhetoric will obscure this deficiency. People in organizations not only listen to whatever leaders say, they watch clearly what is done. (p. 21)

Moses suggested that professional associations and organizations should sponsor administrative internships and other programs to encourage and promote women for leadership roles. For example, the American Council on Education’s Office of Women in Higher Education sponsors a national identification program that makes special outreach efforts to Black women; the California State University System has an administrative fellowship program that focuses on leadership training of women and minorities; the American Sociological Association sponsors a minority fellowship program and encourages Black women to apply.

The lack of Black male leaders, women and other minorities are evident not only in the academia and the community, but also in the corporate sector. Some leaders are saying that Blacks are not fairly represented in corporate America. According to Works (1984), even though employment opportunity and affirmative action legislation is on the books, and corporate policy statements of non discrimination are written, significant changes in the management of the corporate internal labor market requires, in particular, that senior management develop a commitment and determination to alter internal
employment practices (pp. 209).

Works (1984), recommends four types of programs which can improve the utilization of Black and other minority employees, heighten productivity, alter the pattern of Black and minority representation in the corporation, and enhance the corporate equal employment opportunity efforts.

1. The design and implementation of a formal mentor program. The essential thrust of such an effort is to expose selected Black employees (or other minorities and women) to the rigors of upper management and the wide range of day-to-day management concerns, including problem solving.

2. A corporate communications effort directed toward Black employees. Several key programmatic pieces can form the basis for this activity: meetings called once or twice a year by the chief executive officer with selected Black employees for the purpose of sharing corporate plans which may affect employees; a corporate mechanism for upward communications, i.e., from Black employees to senior management, regarding Black career development; and corporate promotion of special education and training programs for Black employees.

3. Corporate leadership, with respect to needed changes in the management of internal labor market, must be accompanied by value-oriented and prideful communications—oral or written—to the work force and to the larger community. Chief executive officers should consider: a) in-house writings in organs and in the popular press; b) addresses to community and civic groups; c) the establishment of corporate workshops for various employee groups for the purposes of identifying and exploring barriers to internal mobility paths; d) heightened involvement in Black civic and educational organizations; and e) other key forms of communication.

4. The establishment of a system of social and organizational accountability ensures the participation of subordinate managers. This can be supported by the kind of incentives described by Diebold. (pp. 209-211)

Leaders also feel that corporate social responsibilities are
not being met. According to Work (1984), corporate members are also members of the larger society which registers its social demands, Black members make the assumption that they too are entitled to a "satisfactory way of life" within the corporate structure and, outside of that structure, that corporations have a social responsibility for contributing toward "general improvements in the life of Black communities" (pp. 204-207).

In sum, the great man theory views leadership skills as a matter of birth, based solely on heredity. The environmental theories view the emergence of a great leader as a result of time, place, and circumstances. The personal-situational theories view leadership as the effects of individual and situational factors. Literature suggests that the early theories were investigated and research based solely on males. However, it is no longer true that only men are seen as leaders, increasing numbers of women are moving into leadership positions. Literature suggest that there is a lack of research on leadership training for women and even less on Black women. One particular concept that is being used to teach leadership skills is mentoring. In business, industry, education and other segments of society, people are utilizing the concept of mentoring to teach leadership skills.

Mentoring

**Brief Historical Overview of Mentoring**

Mentoring comes from the Greek words meaning steadfast and
Mentor was a close friend of Odysseus who cared for his son Telemachus for ten years while Odysseus traveled. Mentor, as the goddess Athena in disguise, embodied both the male and female personas. This androgyny has carried over to those present-day mentors who integrate both traditional feminine and traditional masculine qualities—the ideal mentor is nurturing, supportive, and protective as well as aggressive, and risk taking. Mentor/Athena played all the roles mentors play today, to varying degrees: parent substitute, teacher, friend, guide, protector, and guru (Carmin, 1988; Fagan, 1988; and Noeller, 1982).

**Characteristics of Mentoring**

According to Levinson (1978), Noller (1982), Collins (1983), and Jeruchin and Shapiro (1992), there are certain characteristics found in a mentor. The mentor must be influential, if he/she is to make an impact, and must have a recognized voice. Mentors usually have a long track record of being influential leaders, which can usually be traced back as far as their academic and collegiate activities. A mentor needs to have a genuine interest in your personal growth and development. The mentor should like and respect you as a person, and should be able to see your potential, and take pride in your development. A mentor should be willing to commit time and emotion to the relationship. This goes beyond mere interest and is a commitment that, more often than not, is intense. A mentoring relationship can be one of great devotion. There is a mutual trust
and caring, confidentiality, and a willingness to develop and foster the relationship. It takes time to discuss both fears and problems, as well as to share victories and successes.

Daniel J. Levinson (1978) made an interesting assessment in his book *The Seasons of a Mans Life*. He says the most crucial function of a true mentor is to

foster the young adult’s development by believing in him (her), sharing the youthful dream, giving it his blessing, helping to define the newly emerging self in its newly discovered world, and creating a space in which the young can work on a reasonable satisfactory life structure that contains The Dream. (pp. 18-35)

Collins (1983) agreed with Levinson (1978) by saying,

I don’t know how many of you have had a dream and someone to share it with, but it can make all the difference if a mentor-figure believes that your dream is worthwhile. He can help you map out a plan of action and assist you in making your plan come true. (pp. 25-42)

Collins (1983) not only agreed with Levinson (1978) she went a step beyond, and said that a mentor also gives you vision, teaches you to think big, and expands your horizons. Collins feels a mentor’s intellectual standards and curiosity can stimulate yours. A mentor can share dreams, goals, and insights in life and thus cause you to set your standards and hopes even higher, a function that can make a big difference in later life as well as in the present (pp. 25-42).

In addition, Collins feels that a mentor can also teach by example "in some ways the mentee can want to emulate the mentor’s behavior like a role model" (p. 27). Collins also emphasized that a role model is never a mentor due to the lack of personal involvement.
According to Blackwell's refined listing (1989), mentors perform ten functions for mentees which include:

a. provide training;
b. stimulating acquisition of knowledge;
c. providing information about educational programs;
d. providing emotional support and encouragement (and helping protege develop coping strategies during periods of turmoil);
e. socializing proteges regarding the role requirements, expectations, and organizational imperatives or demand of the profession;
f. creating an understanding of the educational bureaucracy and the ways one can maneuver the system;
g. inculcating, by example, a value system and a professional work ethic;
h. providing informal instructions, again by example, about demeanor, etiquette, collegiality, and day-to-day interpersonal relations;
i. helping the protege build self-confidence, heighten self-esteem, and strengthen motivation to perform at one's greatest potential;
j. and defending and protecting the protege, correcting mistakes, and demonstrating techniques of avoiding unnecessary problems. (p. 10)

Although the characteristics of mentoring and leadership vary, both concepts are found in many of the same areas. According to Evans (1992),

just as a successful corporate executive often has a mentor in his or her background who has been an example or has acted as a sponsor, so too have successful students often been advised or inspired by a mentor. The word has many definitions in the field of education, so many that the older partner in a one-on-one relationship is now often referred to as a true mentor.
Evans (1992) feels that the American education system is in a perilous state, when compared with other countries. He pointed out that individuals have come forward in some bleak situations such as impoverished inner cities and rural areas where there is little reason for hope and made startling differences among students enrolled in grade school.

According to Evans (1992) one of the best known mentors in education is Eugene M. Lange. In 1981 Lange went back to the elementary school from which he graduated and promised 61 sixth graders assembled that day: If you stay in school and graduate, I'll pay your tuition. Evans (1992) feels that what makes Lange a mentor is not just the promise of money, but the hundreds of phone calls, the meetings between Lange and the students, and the help--moral and material--that he readily gave them (pp. 2-5).

According to Price and Others (1990), evidence of why Eugene M. Lange has become such a well known mentor is his I Have a Dream project. The program offers students access to all types of information, a full-time coordinator, the environmental context of the school, project sponsors and mentors, who are supportive of individual student achievement and personal growth.

Five years later, Price and Others (1992) point out that rather than showing the 75% dropout rate typical for students in
this area of East Harlem, 50 of the 51 original students who heard Lange's speech were in school and nearly all expected to get high school diplomas. According to Evans (1992) the I Have a Dream project has now been duplicated in over 125 projects operating in 25 cities. Local sponsors have been found who are willing to contribute both scholarship money and mentoring time to support local programs.

Price and Others (1992), feel while formal evaluations of the I Have a Dream project have not been conducted, the program is simple in conception and apparently effective in improving school achievement and preventing dropout among young people who would otherwise be a high risk for school failure.

Mentoring programs are also being established in many colleges and universities. According to Griffin and Ervin (1990) the primary goal of the Mentor Program is to enhance the cognitive and affective educational experiences of students once they enroll in a college or university. There are other goals that might also be included in the establishment of a mentoring program. The mentor Program might include the following as primary or secondary goals:

(a) To ensure a smooth transition, career development, and the college environment:

(b) To link higher education, career development, and the quality of life before and after graduation:

(c) To provide positive and relevant role models:

(d) To establish career and educational goals:

(e) To provide a consistent and reliable source of support and inspiration:
(f) To provide a structured experience to discuss and reflect on the college experience:

(g) And to learn from experienced (Mentor/Mentee interaction).

The overall objective of the Mentor Program should be to increase student retention and provide an ongoing orientation to all aspects of the college or university. Additional objectives might include:

(h) To provide students with a variety of social, cultural, and intellectual activities:

(g) To promote student leadership development:

(h) To promote activities which will promote students' adjustment to college life:

(i) To enhance better relationships between students, administrators, faculty, staff, and the community:

(j) To use campus resources for referrals (counseling, tutoring, advising, health services, student activities, student government, career planning and placement, advisement):

(k) And to develop a retention conducive environment through personal interaction with caring supportive persons associated with the college and community. (pp. 9-10)

A mentor should be guided by the highest standards of ethical behavior. The American College Personnel Association (ACPA) requires its members to subscribe to the highest standards of ethical conduct. Mentors should always strive to (a) promote healthy social, physical, academic, moral, cognitive, career and personality development of students; (b) bring a developmental perspective to the educational environment; (c) contribute to the effective functioning of the institution; and (d) provide programs and services consistent with the principle (pp. 22-23).

Griffin and Ervin (1993) believe that mentors should be
committed to the fundamental fairness for all individuals in the academic community. The principles of impartiality, equity, and reciprocity (the golden rule) are paramount. Mentors should always promote equal opportunity and abhor discrimination based on age, culture, ethnicity, gender, disabling conditions, race, religion, or sexual/affectional orientation. According to Griffin and Ervin (1990) the mentors should also be truthful, forthright, keep their appointments and be trustworthy in their relationship with the Mentee.

Mentors should abstain from sexual harassment, sexual intimacies, or any other behaviors that would affect the Mentor/Mentee relationship. Mentors should report to the appropriate authority any condition that is likely to harm the Mentee and/or others. (p. 22)

Griffin and Ervin (1990) believe that participants in College Mentor Programs should always be guided in their actions and behavior by the Ten Commandments of Mentoring. They are as follows:

1. I will always be a positive role model.
2. I will always be a guide and trusted counselor.
3. I will always be a friend that will listen.
4. I will always be an ethical and non-judgmental advocate.
5. I will always provide a realistic appraisal of the problems facing a mentee.
6. I will always provide some ideas or strategies for the problems facing the mentee.
7. I will be thoroughly familiar with all resources and personnel available to help the mentee.
8. I will subscribe to the ethical principles/ten commandments of the mentoring program.
9. I will relinquish my position if I can not genuinely share the vision of the mentee.

10. I will always abstain from sexual harassment, sexual intimacies or any other behavior that would affect the mentor/mentee relationship. (p. 22)

Thomas Moloney and Molly McKaughan (1990) in their report on The New Commonwealth Fund Findings on the benefits of mentoring, reported that mentor programs could benefit from several activities. They are:

1. Pre-select mentors. Mentors could be pre-selected on the basis of having had a mentor who was important to their own development or prior experience as a mentor.

2. Provide Mentors with training. Mentors could be given training sessions including advice about appropriate activities, research, and a counselor to call for ongoing activities.

3. Pre-select students. Students could be pre-selected on the basis of familiar status (i.e., single parent households) so as to reach more students who have a greater need for the influence of a concerned adult.

4. Prepare students. Students should be taught how to get the most out of mentoring. Student readiness has two components: Openness to change and a willingness to work on the things mentors suggest.

5. Assign students to mentors or enable them to choose each other. Students can be either assigned to a mentor or enabled to choose a mentor by mutual consent.

6. Assign students to mentors by same or different race. Students could choose or be assigned to a mentor of the same or a different race.

7. Encourage frequent meetings. Mentors should be encouraged to meet frequently with the students: Weekly meetings might be preferable to bi-weekly or monthly sessions.

8. Encourage mentors to engage in specific types of activities. Specific types of activities might help students more. (pp. 15-20)
There are many mentoring programs in existence today, such as:

1. Big/Brothers/Big Sisters of America, which provides quality volunteer and professional services to help children and youth become responsible men and women. It is a national, youth-serving organization based on the concept of a one-to-one relationship between an adult volunteer and an at-risk child, usually from a one-parent family. Made up of more than 495 agencies located across the country, Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America provides children and youth with adult role models and mentors who help enrich the children’s lives, as well as their own, through weekly interaction. Volunteers go through a screening process before acceptance. Professional case workers provide assistance, support, and ongoing supervision of all matches.

2. Help One Student to Succeed is a nationwide, structured mentoring program in language arts that combines community mentors, a computerized database, and a management system to improve student achievement. The program can be purchased and administered by school districts for use in grades k-12. It is now being utilized in over 500 schools in the country and has won numerous awards. Almost 40,000 students are involved.

3. One Hundred Black Men, Inc., established in 1963, is a nonprofit organization of men in business, industry, public affairs, government, and the professions throughout New York State and other areas who share a common goal: to improve the quality of life for
Blacks and other minorities. One component of the organization is the mentoring program that provides a support network and positive role models for young Black males, elementary through high school. It is principally an internal mentoring program in which members are paired one-to-one with students.

4. The National One-to-One Mentoring Partnership, formed in 1989 between business and the volunteer sector, is a mentoring initiative involving dual strategies. It brings together leaders of diverse sectors and encourages them to mobilize people within their networks to recruit mentors, support existing mentoring programs, and begin new mentoring initiatives. Local Leadership Councils then engage leaders, community by community, with support from the local United Way, in a coordinated effort to develop local strategies to increase and support mentoring initiatives (Floyd, 1993, pp. 1-5).

According to (Flaxman, 1992), while research on the effects of mentoring is scarce, some studies and program evaluations do support positive claims. According to Floyd (1992), the major reason why the results of the effects of many mentoring programs are not available is because of the newness of the concept. However, McPartland and Nettles (1991), found mentoring had positive affects on school attendance and grades in English. They concluded that positive effects are much more likely when one-on-one mentoring has been strongly implemented. Another evaluation (Cave & Quint, 1990) found participants in various mentoring programs had higher levels of
college enrollment and higher educational aspirations than nonparticipants receiving comparable amounts of education and job-related services.

**Females and Mentoring**

According to Collins (1983), although mentoring is seen as a means to achieve success, the development of a successful mentoring model is made difficult because of the shortage of female role models.

Jeruchin and Shapiro (1992) state that in the past, women's mothers, aunts, and grandmothers served as models for becoming wives and mothers and supported their childhood dreams of becoming like them. In the 1950's and 1960's most women, did not have dreams and visions of themselves as career or working women. In more recent years young women developed career dreams and goals, but these often conflicted with domestic roles. Female mentors can best serve as models for combining these roles because some male mentors may have difficulty accepting the divided loyalties of working women. (pp. 25-26)

According to Jeruchin and Shapiro (1992) mentoring can bring women professional success and personal growth; it offers them both power and intimacy. However, few women have tapped its potential. Many women may be put off by or uninterested in the conventional male model of mentoring: one mentor for one man in one lifetime.

We have discovered a new vision of this old relationship, one that meets the complex needs of contemporary women. Women's lives and roles are complicated; their needs are unique. Mentoring can build on their strengths and can make them stronger, more powerful, and more supportive of each other. (pp. 2-5)

Mentoring is viewed as being a route for women to achieve suc-
cess and advance to the top of their professions (Corak, 1984; Gar­

isom & Comer, 1984). Mentoring as a predominately male activity is

seen in the use of such terms as protege, literally meaning a man or

boy whose welfare, training or career is promoted by an influential


mentoring was the key to male success and that if women would use

mentoring, they too could achieve independence and success. Many

more men than women felt they had the ability and confidence to make

it on their own, with or without a mentor (Devanna, 1984). Several

studies have since found mentoring for women to make a much more

critical difference for future success than for men (Devanna, 1984,

Moore, 1982).

According to Scott a major issue in mentoring for and with wo-

men is the question of whether female mentees should have female

mentors. Some major factors in favor of same-sex mentoring are clo-

ser identification with a same-sex role model, better understanding

of any sex-specific problems the mentee may face, and less likeli-

hood of sexual tension in the relationship. Same-sex mentoring may

also provide greater independence for a mentee who might be suscep-

tible to possible male dominance, which has been shown to present

difficulties for effective mentoring (Shapiro, 1977).

Keyton and Kalbfleisch (1993), feel that as more women enter

the work force and increase their prominence in managerial ranks,

the relationships women develop at work are crucial in helping them

advance and be successful (pp. 1-4).
Most women are adequately skilled in developing friendships, but many do not build the crucial mentoring relationships that facilitate personal success. This shortcoming is not necessarily related to a woman's relational development skills, but it could be related to lack of fit between these skills and the development of traditional mentoring relationships. (p. 4)

According to Keyton and Kalbfleish the past, mentoring model has been a male-to-male relationship with an organization defined by masculine characteristics and interaction values. Ragins, (1989) feels that females facing different organizational realities may need a different type of mentoring relationship.

Kram and Isabella (1985), feel that the acceptance of hierarchy and task activity predominately characterize the male-to-male relationship, females appear to need more psychosocial and emotional support in their organizational relationships than their male counterparts.

In addition, Hardesty and Jacobs (1986), argues beyond the sexual themes that pervade a male-female mentoring relationships, women cannot develop the father-son characteristics of the traditional male mentoring model. Attempts to develop this type of relationship often result in the female protege becoming overly dependent upon the male mentor thereby obscuring her ability to make her own decisions. Even though every male-female mentoring relationship does not become sexual, a "sexual undercurrent, however repressed, is virtually always present" (p. 123). And, as Hardesty and Jacobs (1986) argue,

the time has come for women to take the next step and help one another as women, recognizing they must support members of their own sex before they can expect to gain anything ap-
proaching the power or influence men in the corporation have obtained. (p. 375)

Keyton and Kalbfleisch (1993) feel this is especially important if women are to break the barrier between the visible and invisible organizational structure (p. 11). One aspect of this barrier is the male-dominated corporate culture. By virtue of their gender and minority status, women are not part of the political shadow of the organization—the arena where action occurs (Jeruchim & Shapiro, 1992). While still not equally placed in the work force, women have made significant gains. Statistics from the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that women represented 43% of the overall labor force in 1981 and 46% in 1991. While females were only 27% of the managers in 1981 this figure rose to 41% in 1991 (p. 8). Keyton and Kalbfleisch (1993) feel it is crucial that women in the position to mentor other females take more positive steps to help erase this invisible internal glass ceiling (p. 12).

Mentoring programs are not only used in business to promote leadership, but in communities as well. According to Price and others (1992), an example of a community based mentoring support program called Las Madrinas, is to promote leadership and school retention among young Hispanic women (Stanton, 1988). Las Madrinas means godmothers in Spanish, and the girls are described as Ahijadas, goddaughters. The Madrinas are young working professional Hispanic women who are high achievers and willing to return to their own communities to share their talents and experiences. The program combines the development of intense personal bonds with structured
group activities. The program was specifically developed to provide a mentoring relationship which is consistent with both Hispanic family and cultural traditions. Such programs may help young people reflect on their own cultural traditions and the dilemmas and supports that may emerge in bicultural contexts. The author notes that the results of the program are encouraging.

**African-Americans and Mentoring**

There are some mentoring programs set up for African-Americans. Marian White-Hood (1986) stated that mentoring is a strategy for teaching and coaching, for strengthening character, improving racial harmony, promoting social change, assuring total quality education for all, and creating opportunities for personal empowerment.

I realized early in my career at Benjamin Tasker Middle School in Prince George's County, Maryland that our students would only succeed with the guidance of educators committed to effective modeling. According to our school improvement data, many of our African-American students were experiencing roadblocks to learning: a substantial gap in achievement existed between the African-American and white students. (pp. 76-78)

White-Hood started a mentoring program at the school where she worked as a Vice-Principal. The program began with 35 African-American students, identified by teachers as academically or behaviorally in trouble. The evaluation of the program revealed that successful mentoring required staff development, feedback, and ongoing training. White-Hood felt most participants gained from the mentoring, thus leading other schools in the county to follow suit (pp. 76-78).

According to Jacob (1990), the National Urban League, has been very successful in their efforts to establish mentoring programs for
minorities. In a special report on mentoring, the Urban League's Rhode Island program, Florida program, and the Michigan program, based in Flint were all praised for doing an excellent job. According to Jacob (1990), the Flint, Michigan Urban League Incentives for Success Program has left an impression hard to ignore—not as the most publicized of mentoring initiatives, and not as the largest, but as a thorough and long-term approach to providing comprehensive assistance to potential high school dropouts from the Flint Community School System. The Michigan Urban League is trying to build on the concept of incentives for success, with the one-on-one mentoring relationship. This is done through group meetings, which expose students to culturally enriching experiences, improve self-esteem, and develop leadership skills (pp. 1-8).

There is not much experience with mentoring and networking for minorities as there is for White women. A greater disparity between minorities at the higher and lower levels of business and education has made minority networking and mentoring less common (Blackwell, 1983). Universities must give much thought to minority issues in designing mentoring programs and may draw some guidance from the consideration that has been given to women and mentoring issues because many of the issues raised with regard to women and mentoring also exist for minorities (Blackwell, 1983). There may be similar problems in the willingness of mentors or mentees to select from other racial or ethnic groups. Problems of identification with the mentor and understanding of the problems faced by the mentee seem to
have commonalities, as well as differences. Although some cultural differences may prove to be greater obstacles than sex differences, others may not prove to be as great an impediment (Scott, 1992, pp. 172-174).

Those difficulties that turn on the fewer numbers of women in the ranks from which mentors are drawn may be even more extreme for minorities (Willie, 1988). It is even more essential for minorities to have a mentor who can help them through periods of doubt and indecision (Willie, Grady, & Hope, 1991). The pool of minority mentors at predominately White universities, however, is small to nonexistent (Willie, 1988).

Trust, acceptance, and support are necessary ingredients to all mentoring relationships but are more a problem for minorities who often find themselves on predominately White college campuses (Willie, Grady, & Hope, 1991). It is argued that a mentor must accept the mentee as he or she is before attempting to induce change, must trust the mentee and not be tempted to withhold such trust until the mentee proves himself or herself worthy, and must support the mentee, so that the mentee feels secure enough to risk failure and go on to succeed. Non-minority mentors were found to be less likely as accepting, trusting, and supporting with minority mentees than with non-minority mentees (Willie, 1988; Willie, Grady, & Hope, 1991).

There has been a general failure on the part of institutions to provide mentors even for minorities who go on to become scholars.
A study of faculty scholars in United Negro College Fund institutions found 53% of the sample had mentors, but many of these individuals found mentors only after they were employed (Willie, Grady, & Hope, 1991). In fact only one fourth of all the faculty scholars in the study found mentors during graduate studies.

It seems that minorities tend, when given a choice, to link up with mentors of the same ethnicity (Willie, Grady, & Hope, 1991). According to Ebony Magazine the success of minorities mentoring minorities can be seen when looking at certain mentoring programs, such as, the National Minority Mentor Recruitment Network. It was set up by the National Medical Association to provide support to minority students. Network maintains a national database of minority physicians willing to serve as mentors to students and aid in career development and residency program selection (December, 1992).

Because there is a lack of potential minority mentors at predominately White institutions, there was tendency for the United Negro College Fund institution scholars to link up with other minority students in a student-to-student mentoring relationship. According to Scott (1992) if the goal of mentoring is to develop leaders and to provide access to networking with those already established, the student-to-student mentoring is clearly inadequate.

Moses (1993) feels that Black women students frequently miss out on the experience of having a mentor or advisor they can look to as a role model in college.

It is clear to me that we as Black administrators and faculty
at both white and Black colleges can play a greater role in keeping Black students enrolled once they are recruited. We must begin to examine critically the quality and quantity of mentoring relationships with students. We can never establish too many of these relationships. (pp. 8-9)

Moses (1993) stated that although Black male mentors may be aware of the special needs of Black students, they are not always aware of the special needs of female students and may give Black women less support (p. 9).

In the paper *African American Women and Mentoring*, Howard-Vital and Morgan (1993) stated that, "limited by both race and gender, women of color face significant and unique obstacles as they pursue academic and administrative careers in higher education" (p. 1).

Even as we move towards more diversity. African American women are still perceived by many to be the least powerful in our society and in most organizations. They rarely enjoy positions of power or experience the inner workings of an organization. (pp. 14-21)

Howard-Vital and Morgan (1993) explored the mentoring experiences of African American women and the potential of mentoring for improving their circumstances. Howard-Vital and Morgan found that 96% of the women in their study said that they would like to be mentors. The most frequently perceived function of mentors was building self-confidence, heightening self-esteem, and strengthening motivation.

**Self-Esteem**

Literature suggest that there is a difference in self-esteem between males and females. According to Price and Others (1992),
the role of gender and gender identity is important in understanding identity and self-esteem in adolescents. Early adolescence is a time when the salience of gender becomes greater both for the adolescent and for those in his or her family and community. Price and Others (1992), believe that the developmental tasks at this age differ to some degree for men and women in part because of cultural and in part because of biological differences (pp. 50-54).

It was reported in a recent article in the Washington Post that girls have lower self-esteem than boys. In 1990, the American Association of University Women, commissioned a nationwide poll of 3,000 girls and boys, aged 9 to 15, that showed that girls suffered more psychologically during these years. In elementary school, 60% of the girls said they are happy the way I am, but by high school only 29% agreed with that statement. The number of boys happy with themselves dropped far less, from 67% in grade school to 46% in high school. Girls also scored more poorly on a self-esteem index, based on five poll questions, including sometimes I don’t like myself that much and I wish I were somebody else. On a scale of 6.0, girls started at 3.93 on average in elementary school and dropped to 2.77 by high school. Boys on the same scale went from 4.99 to 4.65 in the same period. However when asked what they like about themselves, boys were twice as likely to name something they do, often sports, while girls were twice as likely to pick something about their appearance. Evans (1993) feels that "girls aged 8 and 9 are confident, assertive and feel authoritative about themselves and
their abilities" (p. 7).

The topic of self-esteem among African-Americans has received much attention. According to Rosenberg and Simmons (1988) many theorists, believe that Blacks are more likely to have lower self-esteem than are whites. Theorist feel that self esteem will suffer seriously in a minority group which consistently ranks lowest in the society's prestige structure: whose members, for the most part, are located at the bottom of the socioeconomic ladder; who consequently experience low occupational prestige, severe poverty, and powerlessness; many of whom are more likely to perform poorly in the important arena of school; and who are more likely to originate from types of family backgrounds disparaged on the larger social scenes (p. 1).

According to Rosenberg (1977) there are sound reasons for expecting that the low societal ranking of Blacks in terms of their racial status, occupational position, physical type, family background, and school performance will markedly reduce their ability to perceive themselves as worthy persons. The theory underlying these hypotheses is clearly that of Mead (1934) and Cooley (1912), who posit that the individual's self-attitudes are to an important extent the product of reflected appraisals. If the Black is treated as an inferior on grounds of his race or his lack of success in the occupational or academic realms, then his sense of personal value should be low (pp. 11-41).

According to Rosenberg and Simmons (1988) the issue of Blacks
having lower self-esteem appear to be in agreement with both Black and white social scientists. According to Owens in Johnson (1975) sociological and psychological differences between Blacks and Whites in America have been the subject of much sociological literature dating from the 1930's.

Many early studies, (e.g., Warner, Junker and Adams, 1941; Davis and Dollard, 1940; frequently cited studies like those of Kardiner and Ovesey (1951), Goodman (1952) and Clark (1958), gave much credence to the idea of low self-esteem among Blacks (pp. 92-110). The Black psychologist, Kenneth Clark (1965), speaks of "pernicious self and group hatred, the Negro's complex and debilitating prejudice against himself" (p. 21). In time, he asserts, "Negroes have come to believe in their own inferiority" (p. 64). The Black sociologist, E. Franklin Frazier (1957, p. 24), presents reasons why "the Black bourgeoisie has developed a deep-seated inferiority complex."

In more recent studies, Krause reported that the testimony of social scientists and educators in the Brown v. Board education trial, as well as in a series of decisions at the state level, helped to establish the official government policy that segregation in public schools is harmful to the self-esteem of minority school children (McAdoo, 1988). Krause revealed later findings, which show that instead of bolstering the self-esteem of Black students, increased contact with majority members may actually lower Black self-esteem. The basis for the position that minority self-esteem is
negatively influenced by contact with whites may be traced to the work of early social theorists, such as Cooley (1902), who argued that self concepts are formed as reflections of the responses and evaluations of others in the environment. Later studies suggest that Blacks in segregated school settings enjoy much higher levels of self-esteem than Blacks in integrated settings (e.g., Epps, 1978; St. John, 1975; Stephan, 1978; Wylie, 1979). Rosenberg agreed in, his attempts to explain why Black students in predominantly white schools have lower self-esteem than Blacks in segregated institutions (McAdoo, 1988).

The issue of self-esteem is also important in the study of mental health of Black women. The Black psychiatrists, Grier and Cobbs (1968) observe, "the essence of the situation is that Black women have a nearly bottomless well of self-depreciation into which they can drop when depressed" (p. 132). Rodgers-Rose (1988) agreed with Grier and Cobb.

In reviewing the family background and personal histories of Black Women, who were severely depressed and subsequently suicidal, Howze found a common thread of: severe blow to self-esteem and security in these women as small children which placed a heavy toll on the child's psyche through the developing years. (pp. 265-284)

The decline in self-esteem in girls according to Marie C. Wilson president of the Ms. Foundation, a women's group, is because, they start noticing how the world devalues their mother, how the world devalues them (Washington Post, Evans). According to Price and Others (1992), for young people who are members of ethnic and minority groups, ethnicity is a critical factor in the development
of identity and self-esteem. Various theorists such as (Baughman, 1981; Deutsch, 1960; Erikson, 1966; Tenenbaum, 1962; Yancey, 1971) believe that some of the problems suffered in the African-American community can be linked to low self-esteem.

There are many positive things occurring in the African-American community. However, there are many negative problems, which must be addressed in order to meet the need for Black Male and Female leaders.

Crises in the African-American Community

Loury (1984) believes the staggering statistics on early unwed pregnancies should be addressed. Ladner (1981) looked at the topic of teen pregnancy among females. Over the past year major newspapers, magazines, and television networks have highlighted the subject. Although the problem has only recently been recognized by the media, it has long been researched by scholars. Unfortunately, the singular focus on Black teen pregnancy obscures the larger problem--teen pregnancy does not confine itself to the Black community--it transcends racial, economic, geographic, and sub-cultural boundaries. In recent years, teen pregnancy rates have increased at a faster rate for younger white teens than for Blacks as a group. However, unlike whites, the special problems posed by Black teen pregnancy emerge from the fact that most girls remain poor, unmarried, and dependent on welfare (60%) (McAdoo, 1988, pp. 296-304).

In a recent article in the Kalamazoo Gazette, the author
stated that teen pregnancy is the worst manifestation of a larger national trend of out-of-wedlock births at all ages. Single-parent families are much more likely than those headed by two parents to experience poverty, drug abuse and academic failure. According to the article, the problem is particularly acute for the children of unwed parents who are teenagers. About 80% of the children born to unwed, teen-age dropouts will live in poverty. But the figure is only 8% for parents who finish high school, marry and defer having children until the age of 20.

Time Magazine ran a cover story, in August, 1977 that dramatized conditions in the ghettos of Chicago and New York. The article has information that is applicable today, when researching the African American female. The article (Clark, 1977) in part stated that though its members come from all races and live in many places, the Underclass is made up mostly of impoverished urban Blacks, who still suffer from the heritage of slavery and discrimination. Their bleak environment nurtures values that are often at radical odds with those of the majority—even the majority of the poor. Thus the Underclass minority produces a highly disproportionate number of the nations' juvenile delinquents, school dropouts, drug addicts and welfare mothers, and much of the adult crime, family disruption, urban decay, and demand for social expenditures. (p. 19)

Literature suggests that an increasing amount of attention is now being given to the Black female. Hill (1993) asked the following question: "What were the major social trends among African-American Families?" He believes that over the past two decades, the most important social change was the sharp growth in single-parent families (pp. 28-29).
While the proportion of families headed by white women rose from 11% to 13% between 1970 and 1985, the proportion of families headed by Black women jumped from 28% to 44%. However, the number of female-headed families with children increased at about the same rate among Blacks (13%) and whites (16%). While the sharpest increases in one-parent white families occurred among separated and divorced women account for nine out of ten (86%) of white female-headed families formed between 1970 and 1985, never-married women account for two out of three (67%) of the Black female-headed families formed during that 15-year span. (p. 29)

Hill (1993) presented a slightly different picture of female-headed households on welfare. He stated the proportion of female-headed Black families on welfare plummeted from 54% to 39% (p. 29). Although, he did mention that this was in large due to large cuts by the Reagan Administration.

According to Ladner (1971), Black womanhood has become a popular topic of discussion during the past decade, when social analyst, policy makers, community leaders and others became concerned about the so-called plight of the Black family and sought to intervene in this institution in an effort to uplift it from alleged decay and disorganization (p. 1).

Although you can find a lot of information on Black female-headed families, Sudarkasa in (McAdoo, 1993) feels it is important to keep in mind the following six points as we seek to clarify, amplify, and demystify the data on households headed by African-American women:

1. A key to understanding contemporary African American family structure, whether headed by women, by men, or by couples, is a knowledge of the earlier structure of African extended families out of which they evolved. It is particularly important to understand that as these African-derived extended families evolved in America,
they embraced households headed by married couples.

2. Female-headed households are not all the same. They differ in terms of the dynamics of their formation and their functioning.

3. Marital stability and family stability are not one and the same. Female-headed households have been and can be stable over time.

4. There are demographic and socioeconomic reasons why many African American female-headed households are now and have always been a predictable and accepted form of household organization.

5. There is a need to appreciate that women may be primary providers with both parents as well as in situations where they are the only parent in the home.

6. It is necessary to refute the notion that female-headed households are the main cause of the deplorable conditions of poverty, crime, and hopelessness found among Blacks in many inner cities. (pp. 80-83)

According to Loury (1984) the present Black family crisis characterized chiefly by the precipitous growth of poor female-headed households, can be traced almost directly to American racism (pp. 14-16).

As large numbers of Blacks migrated to large cities from rural areas, Black males have often been unable to find work, and government policies and other social forces further zapped family strength. These trends proceed today, aided by the widespread failure even to recognize the pressures on the Black family as central to other problems and by the failure to devise both preventive and healing strategies. (p. 16)

According to Hill (1993), another major problem in the African-American community is drug abuse.

Since 1973, the mortality rate from drug-related deaths has increased markedly in nine major urban areas, with about one-third of those fatalities occurring among Black youths 15-24 years old (Gibbs, 1984). The increase in drug abuse among Black women has led to a sharp increase in births of drug-addicted babies-many of them spending several years in hos-
Hill (1993) also described how the menacing consequence of extensive drug abuse in inner cities has resulted in the disproportionate spread of AIDS among minorities and how minority women comprise the overwhelming majority of female AIDS cases. According to Whetstone (1994), nationwide, heterosexual Black women are contracting HIV, the virus that causes AIDS, faster than any other single group of Americans. As of September 1993, of the total number of Black women who have contracted AIDS, 36% were infected through heterosexual contact, compared to only eight percent of Black men (pp. 118-120).

Literature suggest that the Black community is in a crisis. Some believe that times are worse for the Black family since slavery, as reflected in an article recently published in the Monroe News Star. The article gave some startling statistics, according to the Black Community Crusade for Children:

(a) Homicide is the leading cause of death for Black youths from ages 15-24.

(b) Nearly half of all Black children lived under the poverty level in 1990, and nearly a fourth of Black children living in two-parent households lived in poverty—twice the rate of white children.

(c) As of March 1994, 34% of all Blacks 16 to 19 years-old looking for work could not find a job.

(d) Black babies are twice as likely as white babies to be born at low birth weight.

(e) In 1992, 1 in 8 Black children were not covered by insurance. Without Medicaid, nearly half of all Black children would lack health insurance.
(f) In 1992, nearly 49% of all Black children between 19 and 35 months old were not fully immunized.

(g) Every 104 seconds a Black teenager becomes pregnant.

(h) Every three minutes a Black baby is born to a mother who did not graduate from high school. (p. 6A)

Puddington in Pincus and Ehrlich (1994) believes the problems of the Black community which includes poverty, unemployment and despair are directly related to the lack of Black leaders. According to West (1993), the crisis in Black leadership can be remedied only if we candidly confront its existence. We need national forums to reflect, discuss, and plan how best to respond. It is neither a matter of new Messiah figure emerging, nor of another organization appearing on the scene. Rather, it is a matter of grasping the structural and institutional processes that have disfigured, deformed, and devastated Black America such that the resources for nurturing collective and critical consciousness, moral commitment, and courageous engagement are vastly underdeveloped. We need serious strategic and tactical thinking about how to create new models of leadership and forge the kind of persons to actualize these models.

It is a reality that the African-American community is in a crisis state. It is evident from the literature on the African-American female that she has to play a major role in improving the socio-economic conditions in the African American community. According to Loury (1984) certain problems faced by the Black race should be undertaken by the Black community.

The nature of problems facing the Black community today, the
significant recent expansion of opportunities for Blacks in American society, and the changing political environment in which Black leaders now stress should be placed upon strategies which might appropriately be called self-help. (p. 14)

Summary

According to David Hamburg (1993), youth organizations and programs can provide young adolescents with social support and guidance, life-skills training, positive and constructive alternatives to hazards such as drug and alcohol use, gang involvement, early sexual activity, and crime, and they can create opportunities for meaningful contributions to the community. The literature suggests that strategies are needed to improve the African-American community. The concept of mentoring has lead to success for both males and females. Although the concept of mentoring varies, literature suggest there is a need for females to mentor females. One reason given was that a better understanding of sex-specific problems could be better addressed by another person of the same sex. Literature suggests that Blacks relate better to other Blacks, thus preferring a mentor of the same race. Literature also suggests that mentoring heightens self-esteem. The lack of self-esteem and leadership, according to many researchers, are links to many of the problems in the African-American community. Some of the major-problems include teenage pregnancy and female-headed households, which often lead to poverty, drugs and other crimes. Therefore it is important for the African-American female to acquire the necessary skills to take on leadership responsibilities.
Literature also suggests that mentoring improves communication skills, which are necessary leadership skills. According to Blechman (1991), successful mentors appear to promote bicultural competence in high-risk minority youth through effective communication. Bicultural competent mentors are more likely to help problem families and children learn effective communication.

Since the concept of mentoring has been successful in business, education and the community, literature suggests it could be a useful tool in teaching leadership to African-American females. According to Carraway (1990), the mentoring process may be just the experience to develop your full leadership potential. Donald Phelps (1989), Chancellor of the Los Angeles Community College District, commented that "we must continue to nurture the idea of providing opportunities, continue to nurture (mentor) new people (women and Minorities) into positions of leadership we have held" (p. 277).

One of the key roles of leadership is the responsibility to identify and provide for the development of future leaders.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceived effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the leadership behavior (aggressiveness, respect of knowledge, parental substitute, amount of influence and supportiveness components) of adolescent females attending a community leaders program. Discussions in this chapter are divided into eight major areas: (1) Type of Design, (2) Population and Sampling Procedure, (3) Instrumentation, (4) Validity of the Instrument, (5) Reliability of the Instrument, (6) Pilot Study, (7) Data Collection Procedure, and (8) Statistical Analysis.

The survey as the methodological framework was employed in this investigation to collect and analyze the data. The survey design allowed the researcher an opportunity to collect data from members of a population with respect to one or more variables. Furthermore, the survey design provides the researcher the opportunity to assess the attitudes, perceptions, opinions, behaviors, and motivations of individuals regarding a certain phenomenon or object (Selltiz, Wrightsman, & Cook, 1986).

As Kerlinger notes, survey methodology includes a variety of procedures. Survey research can be conducted by use of personal interviews as well as by mailed questionnaires. More often than not, survey research tends to utilize more than one kind of method
in order to increase the reliability and validity of the data collected.

Survey designs, like other kinds of research paradigms, have their methodological weaknesses. One of the key weaknesses in the survey design is that the information generated often lacks sufficient depth. Consequently, the description obtained from this methodology tends to be circumscribed to its temporal location and thus lacks the strengths that accompany protracted observations (Kerlinger, 1986).

Although the survey design has its methodological limitations, there are several advantages to its use that tend to outweigh its disadvantages. These advantages Selltiz, Wrightsman & Cook (1986) enable the researcher

1. to collect detailed factual information that describes existing phenomena about a population;
2. to identify problems or justify current conditions and practices that are occurring within a population;
3. to make the comparisons and evaluations of a population; and
4. to determine what others are doing with similar problems or situations and thus benefit from their experience in making future plans and decisions. . . . (pp. 42-48)

In sum, as Kerlinger notes, the methodology of survey research, like that which was employed in this study, can be conceived of as an inquiry into the uniformity or regularity of some phenomena. The use of the survey design provides the most effective, efficient, and economical means for studying the perceived effects of mentoring relationship on the leadership behavior of young African-
American females.

Population

The most appropriate sample for a sociological investigation is the total population. All 47 participants (entire population) attending the Community Leaders Program were part of the study. Three of the participants were considered inactive by the program administrator (these participants dropped out of the program after two weeks).

Instrumentation

The major data-gathering scale used, The Mentoring Leadership Survey, was designed and developed by the researcher (See Appendix C). The researcher developed the instrument because a thorough search revealed that no standardized instrument was available which could be used to ascertain the mentoring relationship among African-American female mentors and young African-American female students.

The mentoring Leadership survey consists of two major sections. Scale one contain thirty-eight items under five sub-scales. Sub-scale one is entitled "Aggressiveness Components of Leadership" which consist of nine items. Sub-scale two which is entitled "Amount of Influence Component of Leadership" contains seven items. Moreover, sub-scale three contains eight items and is entitled "Respect of Knowledge Component of Leadership." Sub-scale four is entitled "Parental Substitute Component of Leadership" and will consists of
seven items. Sub-scale five the "Supportiveness Component of Leadership," contains seven items.

All the items on scale one of the investigative instrument are in the form of a Likert-scale. The items in this section of the investigation required the participants to check one of five fixed-alternative expressions: Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. The stated expressions were assigned the following weight for analysis purposes: Strongly Agree (5); Agree (4); Undecided (3); Disagree (2); and Strongly Disagree (1). The items in this section are scored one to five (1 to 5), with the highest score representing a favorable perception and lowest score representing an unfavorable perception with regard to the mentoring relationship.

Additionally, the second scale of the survey contains three demographic items. Items one and three were scored one to six (1 to 6), respectively. Item two was scored one to three (1 to 3). Inasmuch as this section is composed of demographic items, the scoring of one to six does not represent a perceptual sequence, only categories.

Validity of the Instrument

To test the validity of the Mentoring Leadership Survey, the researcher administered the instrument to a group of professors in the fields of Sociology and Psychology. The panel of professors were asked to assess the content of each item and of the test as a
whole. In addition, the panel of judges were asked to respond to each item and the test as a whole by employing a scale of one to three (one meaning the statement is not valid, two meaning the respondent is unsure, and three meaning the item is valid and measures what it is supposed to measure). A mean score of 2.81 was computed from the validation sheet administered to the panel. Once the panel of professors agreed that the survey was a valid instrument for use in this study, the researcher conducted a pilot test of the instrument.

Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability for the Mentoring Leadership Survey employed in this study was assessed through the application of Rational Equivalence Procedure. This type of reliability determines "how all items on a single test relate to all other items and to the test as a whole" (Hinkle, Wiersma & Jurs, 1994, pp. 33-44). For determining the rational equivalence (internal consistency) reliability for an instrument, the Alpha Reliability Coefficient is used. The operation of this procedure is to find the variances of all individuals' scores for each item and then to add these variances across all items (Hull & Nie, 1981). The final tabulation of data from the study yielded internal consistency reliability coefficients for the following dimensions (subtest) of the investigative instrument and the test as a whole.

1. Aggressiveness components .99
2. Amount of Influence components .98
3. Respect of Knowledge components .99
4. Parental Substitute components .97
5. Supportiveness components .94
6. Test as a whole .99

Brunie and Kintz (1986), opined whenever an instrument's reliability value is .70 or above the instrument is considered reliable.

Additionally, each of the above reliability coefficients were found to be significant at the .01 level. Based on these criteria the instrument was found to be reliable.

Pilot Study

In the summer of 1994, a field study was conducted to examine the appropriateness and clarity of the items as well as to acquire an estimate of reliability of the investigative survey. Ten female students from a similar Community Leaders Program were randomly selected to participate in the pilot study. The field-tested surveys were examined for suggestions and criticisms. At this time, the necessary revisions and recommendations regarding the Mentoring Leadership Survey were incorporated.

Data-Collection Procedure

The researcher mailed a letter, together with the research proposal, to the Program Administrator conducting the Community Leaders Program. The letter summarized the theoretical framework of...
the study and outlined the methodology and procedures to be used. The researcher indicated to the program administrator that a copy of the results will be made available to their organization. Finally, an authorization letter from the program administrator was sought so that the researcher could proceed with the study.

The procedure for administering the survey involved a two-fold process. First, the students were given a letter regarding the purpose of the research and requesting their participation. Secondly, the researcher in conjunction with the instructors in the program administered the questionnaires to the students after proper instructions were given. The students were asked to respond honestly to all the items on the surveys to eliminate non-responses.

Moreover, to ensure anonymity of participants' responses, their names were omitted. All completed surveys were then logged and examined for non-responses and errors. Instruments not properly completed were discarded. Once the foregoing was completed, the researcher coded the data from the questionnaire. Likewise, the researcher entered the codes into the computer. For statistical purposes, the researcher used applications from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to treat the data (Brunie & Kintz, 1986).

**Statistical Analysis**

Inasmuch as the instrument yielded interval scaled data for the dependent variable and nominal or ordinal scaled data for the
independent variable, a parametric procedure was used. The parametric procedure employed in this study was the One-Way Analysis of Variance. According to Kerlinger (1986), the One-Way Analysis of Variance is a statistical technique which examines the independent effects of one independent variable on a dependent variable.

Finally, if a difference is found among the sample means, the researcher then employed the Scheffe' Method, a Post Hoc test used to determine whether it can be attributed to random sampling fluctuation (Hinkel, Wiersman & Jurs, 1994). All hypotheses were tested at the .05 Alpha level or better.
CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the leadership behavior of female mentees in a Community Leaders Program. Answers to the following three questions were sought:

1. To what extent, does the female mentees' age influence how they perceive the mentoring relationship with regard to the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior.

2. To what extent, does the female mentees' residence location influence how they perceive the mentoring relationship with regard to the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior.

3. To what extent, does the female mentees' family position influence how they perceive the mentoring relationship with regard to the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior.

The population consisted of 47 female mentees attending a Community Leaders Program in the state of Michigan. The data for this study were collected from a locally devised questionnaire entitled
Mentoring Leadership Survey. The data analysis for this study was accomplished under two major sections. The first section contained the demographic profile of the participants in the study. The second section examined the major hypotheses formulated for this investigation. The data were tested using the One-Way Analysis of Variance and the Scheffe' Test.

Demographic Data Regarding the Participants of the Study

The population were divided into three different age groups of female mentees who participated in this empirical study. There were 13 mentees 14 years of age, 24 mentees 15 years of age, and 10 mentees 16 or above years of age. The percentages of the female mentees who fell in the aforementioned age levels were 27.7, 51.1, and 21.2, respectively. (See Table 1 for these results).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 and above</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the residence status of the female mentees who
participated in the study, 11 (23.4%) were from the Albion area, 14 (29.8%) were from the Battle Creek area, and 22 (46.8%) were from the Kalamazoo area. (See Table 2 for these findings).

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albion area</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle Creek area</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalamazoo area</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this empirical investigation, 16 (or 34%) of the female mentees indicated they were the first child, 14 (or 29.8%) expressed they were the second child, 9 (or 19.1) reported they were third child, and 8 (or 17%) indicated their child position were fourth or above. (See Table 3 for these results).

Hypotheses Testing

\[ H_{01} \]: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perception of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.
Table 3

Frequency Distribution of Female Mentees
By Family Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st child</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd child</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd child</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th and above</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reported in Table 4 are the Analysis of Variance results regarding the age of the female mentees and their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior. The differences in the obtained perception scores with respect to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior by the three age groups ($F = 2.5440; df = 2/44$, $P>.05$) were not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, hypothesis one was not rejected.

$H_0_2$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of the knowledge component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.
Table 4

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Age of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Aggressiveness Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1023.8897</td>
<td>511.9448</td>
<td>2.5440</td>
<td>.0901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8854.3231</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>9878.2128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-Way Analysis of Variance results for the three age groups of female mentees (See Table 5) revealed significant differences between their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior ($F = 3.2971; df = 2/44, P < .05$). Thus, hypothesis two was rejected.

Further data analysis utilizing the Scheffe' Test as a follow-up (See Table 6) revealed that female mentees who are 16 years old and above had a more favorable perception regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior than those mentees who are 14 years of age.

H03: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the

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supportiveness component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Table 5
Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Age of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Respect of Knowledge Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>970.5912</td>
<td>485.2956</td>
<td>3.2971</td>
<td>.0463*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>6476.2173</td>
<td>147.1868</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7446.8085</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 6
Scheffe' Results Regarding Age and Perceptions Regarding the Knowledge Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean 1</th>
<th>Mean 2</th>
<th>Mean 3</th>
<th>Observed Mean Difference</th>
<th>Scheffe' Critical Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>16 and above</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.15</td>
<td>26.38</td>
<td></td>
<td>-4.23</td>
<td>10.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.15</td>
<td>35.10</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.95*</td>
<td>11.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.38</td>
<td>35.10</td>
<td></td>
<td>-6.72</td>
<td>13.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level
Revealed in Table 7, are the One-Way Analysis of Variance results regarding the age of female mentees and their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior. The difference in the obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior by the three age groups \( (F = 5.1987; \text{df} = 2/44; \text{P}<0.01) \) were significant at the .01 level. Consequently, hypothesis three was rejected.

Further data analysis utilizing the Scheffe' as a follow-up test (See Table 8) revealed that female mentees who are 16 years and above had a more favorable perception toward the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior than their 14 years of age counterparts.

Table 7

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Age of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Supportiveness Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>737.1276</td>
<td>368.5638</td>
<td>5.1987</td>
<td>.0094**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3119.4256</td>
<td>70.8960</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3856.5532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at the .01 level
Table 8

Scheffe' Results Regarding Age and Perceptions Regarding the Supportiveness Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean&lt;sub&gt;1&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>Mean&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>Mean&lt;sub&gt;3&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>Observed Mean Difference</th>
<th>Scheffe' Critical Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>16 and above</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.15</td>
<td>19.67</td>
<td>-3.52</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.15</td>
<td>27.40</td>
<td>-11.25*</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.67</td>
<td>27.40</td>
<td>-7.73</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level

H<sub>0</sub>4: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on aggressiveness components of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Revealed in Table 9 are the Analysis of Variance results regarding the geographic location of the female mentees and their obtained perceptions scores with respect to the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior. The differences in the obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior by the three residence groups (F = .0786; df = 2/44; P > .05) were not significant at the .05 level. Accordingly, hypothesis four was not rejected.

H<sub>0</sub>5: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female men-
Table 9

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Geographic Location of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Aggressiveness Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35.1803</td>
<td>17.5901</td>
<td>.0786</td>
<td>.9245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>9843.0325</td>
<td>223.7053</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>9878.2128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicated in Table 10 are the Analysis of Variance findings regarding the geographic location of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Indicated in Table 10 are the Analysis of Variance findings regarding the geographic location of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior. No differences were found between the perceptions of the various residence groups of female mentees with regard to the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior at the .05 level of significance ($F = .1094; \text{df} = 2/44; P>0.05$). Consequently, hypothesis five was not rejected.

$H_{06}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship
on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Table 10
Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Geographic Location of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Respect of Knowledge Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36.8605</td>
<td>18.4302</td>
<td>.1094</td>
<td>.8966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>7409.9481</td>
<td>168.4079</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7446.8085</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Analysis of Variance was computed between the three residence groups of female mentees and their perceptions with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior. As shown in table 11, no differences were found in the obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship ($F = .1526; df = 2/44; P>0.05$) on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior. Thus, hypothesis six was not rejected.

H07: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior as
measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Table 11

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Geographic Location of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Supportiveness Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26.5597</td>
<td>13.2798</td>
<td>.1526</td>
<td>.8590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3829.9935</td>
<td>87.0453</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3856.5532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reported in Table 12 are the Analysis of Variance results regarding the female mentees’ family position and their perceptions with respect to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior. The differences in the obtained perception scores regarding the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior by three family position groups of mentees ($F = .8726; \text{df} = 3/43; P > 0.05$) were not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, hypothesis seven was not rejected.

$H_{07}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior.
behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Table 12

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Family Position of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Aggressiveness Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>566.8626</td>
<td>188.9542</td>
<td>.8726</td>
<td>.4627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>9311.3502</td>
<td>216.5430</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>9878.2128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Revealed in Table 13 are the Analysis of Variance results regarding the family position of the female mentees and their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior by the three family position groups of female mentees (F = 1.1664; df = 3/43; P>0.05) were not significant at the .05 level. Consequently, hypothesis eight was not rejected.

H09: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

The One-Way Analysis of Variance was calculated between the
three family position groups of female mentees and their perceptions with respect to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior. As reported in Table 14, no differences were found in the obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship ($F = .3851; \text{df} = 3/43; P>0.05$) on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior. Accordingly, hypothesis nine was not rejected.

$H_{010}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

One-Way Analysis of Variance results for the three age groups of female mentees (See Table 15) revealed significant differences between their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness...
Table 14

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Family Position of the Female Mentees and Their Perception Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Supportiveness Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100.9143</td>
<td>33.6381</td>
<td>.3851</td>
<td>.7642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3755.6389</td>
<td>87.3404</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3856.5532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership behavior ($F = 3.6839; df = 2/44; P<0.05$). Thus, hypothesis ten was rejected.

Further data analysis (See Table 16) employing the Scheffe' test revealed that female mentees who were 16 years of age and above had a more favorable perception regarding the amount of influence component of leadership behavior than those female mentees who were 14 years of age.

$H_0_{10}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Reported in Table 17 are the Analysis of Variance results
Table 15
Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Age of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Amount of Influence Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>808.7364</td>
<td>404.3682</td>
<td>3.6839</td>
<td>.03324*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>4829.6891</td>
<td>109.7657</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5638.4255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 16
Scheffe' Results Regarding Age and Perceptions Regarding the Amount of Influence Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean_1</th>
<th>Mean_2</th>
<th>Mean_3</th>
<th>Observed Mean Difference</th>
<th>Scheffe' Critical Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>16 and above</td>
<td>-5.25</td>
<td>26.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.54</td>
<td>23.79</td>
<td>-11.96*</td>
<td>11.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.79</td>
<td>30.50</td>
<td>-6.71</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the .05 level

regarding the age of the female mentees and their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior. The dif-
ferences in the obtained perception scores with respect to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior by three age groups ($F = 1.9732; df = 2/44; P>0.05$) were not significant at the .05 level. Consequently, hypothesis eleven was not rejected.

Table 17
Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Age of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Parental Substitute Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>467.3968</td>
<td>233.6984</td>
<td>1.9732</td>
<td>.1511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5211.1564</td>
<td>118.4354</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5678.5532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$H_{012}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Reported in Table 18 are the Analysis of Variance findings regarding the geographic location of the female mentees and their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership beha-
behavior by the three residence groups ($F = .1719; df = 2/44; P > .05$) were not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, hypothesis twelve was not rejected.

Table 18

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Geographic Location of the Female Mentees and Their Perception Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Amount of Influence Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42.7048</td>
<td>21.8524</td>
<td>.1719</td>
<td>.8427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5594.7208</td>
<td>127.1527</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5638.4255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$H_{013}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Indicated in Table 19 are the Analysis of Variance findings regarding the geographic location of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior. No differences were found between the perceptions of the various residence groups of female mentees with regard to the parental substitute component of
leadership behavior at the .05 level of significance ($F = .2458; df = 2/44; P > 0.05$). Thus, hypothesis thirteen was not rejected.

Table 19

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Geographic Location of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Parental Substitute Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>$F$ $P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>62.7415</td>
<td>31.3708</td>
<td>.2458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5615.5532</td>
<td>127.6321</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5678.5532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$H_{014}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position group of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on amount of influence component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

Reported in Table 20 are the Analysis of Variance results regarding the family position of the female mentees and their obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership behavior. The differences in the obtained perception scores with respect to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership behavior by the three family pos-
ition ($F = 1.0012; \ df = 3/43; \ P>0.05$) were not significant at the .05 level. Accordingly, hypothesis fourteen was not rejected.

Table 20

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Family Position of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Amount of Influence Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>368.1309</td>
<td>122.7103</td>
<td>1.0012</td>
<td>.4015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5270.2946</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5638.4255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$H_{015}$: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position group of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

The Analysis of Variance was computed between the three family position groups of female mentees and their perceptions with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior. As shown in Table 21, no differences were found in the obtained perception scores regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship ($F = .5410; \ df = 3/43; \ P>0.05$) on the parental substitute component of leadership.
behavior. Consequently, hypothesis fifteen was not rejected.

Table 21
Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Family Position of the Female Mentees and Their Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship on the Parental Substitute Component of Leadership Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>206.5393</td>
<td>68.8464</td>
<td>.5410</td>
<td>.6568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5472.0139</td>
<td>127.2561</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5678.5532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of Hypotheses

There were fifteen null hypotheses formulated and tested in this investigation. All fifteen were tested for differences between the variables. Of the fifteen hypotheses tested in this study, three were found to have significant differences. They were hypotheses two, three, and ten. (See Table 22 for these results).

The results from hypothesis two revealed that female mentees who were 16 years of age or older had a significantly more favorable perception toward the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior than those female mentees who were 14 years of age (See Table 6 for these findings). Similar findings were revealed in hypotheses three and ten regarding the influence of age on the perceptions of female mentees
toward the supportiveness and amount of influence components of leadership behavior (See Tables 8 and 16 for these results).

### Table 22

Summary of Hypotheses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H01</td>
<td>2.5440</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.0901</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H02</td>
<td>3.2971</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.0463*</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H03</td>
<td>5.1987</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.0094**</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H04</td>
<td>.0786</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.9245</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H05</td>
<td>.1094</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.8966</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H06</td>
<td>.1526</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.8590</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H07</td>
<td>.8726</td>
<td>3/43</td>
<td>.4627</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H08</td>
<td>1.1664</td>
<td>3/43</td>
<td>.3336</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H09</td>
<td>.3851</td>
<td>3/43</td>
<td>.7642</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H10</td>
<td>3.6839</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.0332*</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H11</td>
<td>1.9732</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.1511</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H12</td>
<td>.1719</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.8427</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H13</td>
<td>.2458</td>
<td>2/44</td>
<td>.7832</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H14</td>
<td>1.0012</td>
<td>3/43</td>
<td>.4015</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H15</td>
<td>.05410</td>
<td>3/43</td>
<td>.6568</td>
<td>Fail to Reject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the .05 level
** Significant at the .01 level
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the perceived effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the leadership behavior of female mentees in a community leaders program. More specifically, the researcher was concerned with what effects do the variables age, residence location, and family position have on the aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, parental substitute and supportiveness components of leadership behavior among adolescent female mentees.

A survey design was employed in this investigation to collect and analyze the data. Forty-seven (47) female mentees were selected to participate in this empirical study. An instrument entitled "The Mentoring Leadership Survey" was used to gather the data. The investigative instrument was validated by a group of authorities in sociology and psychology. The instrument had an Alpha Coefficient of .99 for the test as a whole.

Moreover, the data were tested through the application of the One-Way Analysis of Variance and the Scheffe' follow-up test. The following null hypotheses were tested at the .05 significance level or better in this empirical investigation:

HO1: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perception of different age groups of female mentees
with regard to the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H02: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of the knowledge component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H03: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H04: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness components of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H05: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of the knowledge component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H06: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female
mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H07: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness components of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H08: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H09: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H10: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H11: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different age groups of female mentees
with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of Leadership behavior as measured by the mentoring Leadership Survey.

H_{012}: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H_{013}: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different residence groups of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H_{014}: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position group of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.

H_{015}: There will be no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of different family position group of female mentees with regard to the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of Leadership behavior as measured by the Mentoring Leadership Survey.
Summary of the Findings

Based on the results of this study, the following findings were observed:

1. The age of the female mentees did not produce a significant influence on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior.

2. Sixteen (16) years old and above female mentees had a significantly higher mean perception score than their fourteen (14) years of age counterparts regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior.

3. Female mentees who were sixteen (16) years of age and above had a more favorable perception toward the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior.

4. The residence status of female mentees did not produce a significant influence on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior.

5. The perceptions of female mentees regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior were not significantly affected by their residence status.
6. Female mentees' residence status did not produce a significant effect on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior.

7. The variable family position did not produce a significant effect on the perceptions of female mentees regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness component of leadership behavior.

8. Female mentees' family position did not produce a significant effect on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge component of leadership behavior.

9. The family position of the female mentees did not produce a significant influence on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the supportiveness component of leadership behavior.

10. Female mentees who were sixteen (16) years of age and above had a more favorable perception regarding the amount of influence component of leadership behavior than those female mentees who were fourteen (14) years of age.

11. The perceptions of female mentees regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior were not significantly affected by their age.

12. The residence status of female mentees did not produce a
significant influence on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership behavior.

13. Female mentees residence status did not produce a significant effect on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior.

14. The variable family position did not produce a significant effect on the perceptions of female mentees regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the amount of influence component of leadership behavior.

15. The perceptions of female mentees regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on the parental substitute component of leadership behavior were not significantly affected by their family position.

Discussion

The investigator feels the most interesting findings of this study pertained to the influence of age on the perceptions of African-American female mentees regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on their leadership behavior. The data revealed that older African-American female mentees exhibited more favorable perceptions toward the effectiveness of a mentoring relationship on various components of leadership behavior than their younger counterparts. These findings were not consistent with the
works of Evans (1993). Evans opined that younger females are more confident, assertive, and feel more in control of themselves and their abilities than older females.

Additionally, the age variable showed significantly more impact regarding the leadership components of amount of influence, respect of knowledge, and supportiveness. One reasonable explanation for these significant results might be that older African-American females, who participate in a mentoring program seem to be the ones more concerned with those areas of leadership that emphasize cooperation, intellectual enrichment and goal attainment (Willie, Grady, & Hope, 1991). On the other hand, the age variable had no influence on the leadership component of aggressiveness and parental substitute. Although no significance was found, older female mentees exhibited higher mean perception scores on both of these leadership subscales.

Another important finding of the present study was the lack of total influence of the variables family position and residence status on the leadership behavior of African-American female mentees. The similar perceptions held by African-American female mentees in the present study probably can be explained best by a mentoring program which offer a female to female relationship (Keyton & Kalbfleisch, 1993; Ragins, 1989). Moreover, another reason for the aforementioned finding might be that female mentors are able to provide female mentees with the psychosocial and emotional support they need to reach their professional goals (Kram & Isabella, 1985).
Finally, when the mean scores were obtained for each of the leadership subscales without examining the influence of the variables age, residence status, and family position, the female mentees had a high level of agreement on four of the five scales (aggressiveness, amount of influence, respect of knowledge, and supportiveness). It is clear from the above analysis that female mentees' sense of self and purpose as well as their position in society can be enhanced through a mentoring relationship. This relationship as reported by Howard-Vital and Morgan (1993) cultivate female mentees by building self-confidence, heightening self-esteem, and strengthening motivation.

Conclusions

Based on the findings derived from the results of this empirical study, the following conclusions were reached:

1. The older the female mentees the more favorable her perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the respect of knowledge, supportiveness, and the amount of influence components of leadership behavior.

2. The residence status of female mentees did not influence how they perceive the aggressiveness, respect of knowledge and supportiveness components of leadership behavior.

3. The various family position groups of female mentees had similar perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness, respect of knowledge, and
supportiveness components of leadership behavior.

4. The different age groups of female mentees had similar perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship on the aggressiveness and parental substitute components of leadership behavior.

5. The lack of significant influence of social variables such as residence status and family position on the perceptions of female mentees regarding the effectiveness of mentoring relationship revealed the lack of importance of the above variables in determining how female mentees perceived the parental substitute and the amount of influence component of leadership behavior.

Implications

The following implications are offered to females and concerned individuals within the African-American community.

1. African-American female professionals in general and the African-American community in particular should be aware of the importance of female-to-female mentoring relationships on the cultivation and enhancement of adolescent African-American females. African-American female-to-female mentoring relationships will provide young African-American females with the psychological and emotional support needed to reach not only their educational goals but life objectives/aspirations.

2. African-American professionals especially females should be aware of the influence of certain variables on the perceptions of
adolescent African-American females toward the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on their leadership skills. A better understanding of the variables which influence how female mentees perceive the mentoring relationship and its impact on their capacity to fulfill their dreams will assist counselors, educators, and other concerned individuals in developing and implementing a solid mentoring program.

3. Finally, due to historical circumstances any mentoring program for adolescent African-American females must include cultural enrichment experiences, self-esteem building and leadership skills cultivation. The above attributes are essential in developing and establishing a continuing line of female leaders in the African-American community. By doing so, adolescent females can emerge from social woes such as teen pregnancy, poverty, drugs, academic failure and welfare into an arena of goal attainment.

Recommendations for Further Study

In order to extend the findings of this study, the researcher recommends that:

1. A follow-up study be conducted using various mentoring programs in different geographic locations. Such a study would provide additional data on the importance of a mentoring relationship on the leadership behavior of adolescent females.

2. A study be conducted to examine the relationship and predictive power of selected factors regarding the success of mentoring
relationship.

3. A study be conducted to investigate the effect of mentoring relationship on the leadership skills, self-esteem, and attitudes toward school of adolescent females over time.

4. A study needs to be conducted to compare and contrast female-to-female relationships and male-to-male relationships.
Appendix A

Letter of Permission From the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board to Conduct Research
Date: July 29, 1994

To: Joyce Montgomery

From: Kevin Hollenbeck, Chair

Re: USIRB Project Number 94-07-09

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "The impact of mentoring on leadership among young African-American females" has been approved under the exempt category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

You must seek reapproval for any changes in this design. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: July 29, 1995

cc: Thompson, VPR
Appendix B

Consent Forms
CONSENT FORM

Western Michigan University
Department of Sociology
Principal Investigator: Dr. Donald Thompson
Research Associate: Joyce A. Montgomery

I understand that my child has been invited to participate in a research project entitled "The Impact of Mentoring on Leadership Among Young African-American Females". The purpose of this study is to assess leadership skills. I further understand that the purpose of this project is to fulfill Joyce A. Montgomery's dissertation requirement.

I understand that my child will be administered a Mentoring Leadership survey. This survey will be an indication of how the concept of mentoring made an impact on the participants in the Community Leaders Program. The survey will occur during the month of August.

Children are free at any time, even during the administration of the survey, to choose not to participate. If my child refuses or quits, there will be no negative effect on her participating in the program.

I understand that all survey data will remain confidential. This means that the child's name will be omitted from all survey forms and will be replaced by a number. No names will be used in the written report.

I understand that there are no anticipated discomforts or risk to my child. As in all research, there may be unforeseen risks to my child. If an accidental injury occurs, appropriate emergency measures will be taken; however, no compensation or treatment will be made available to my child except as otherwise stated in this consent form.

I understand that I may also withdraw my child from this study at any time without any negative effects on services to my child. If I have any questions or concerns about this study, I may contact either Dr. Donald Thompson the Vice President for Research at (616) 387-8298 or Joyce Montgomery at (616) 387-7650. I may also contact the Chair of Human Subjects Institutional Review Board with any concerns that I have.

My signature below indicates that I give my permission for _____________________(child name) to be surveyed with a Mentoring Leadership survey.

_________________________________________  ________________________
Signature                                      Date
ASSENT FORM

Western Michigan University
Department of Sociology
Principal Investigator: Dr. Donald Thompson
Research Associate: Joyce A. Montgomery

I understand that I have been asked to be a part of a research project called "The Impact of Mentoring on Leadership Among Young African-American Females." The purpose of this study is to see how the concept of mentoring impact leadership skills.

I understand that if I agree, I will be given a survey that measures leadership skills. I understand that I will not be doing this out loud, but I will mark the answers on papers that will be given to me.

I understand that I will not get any compensation for being a part of this research project, and if I don't want to take a part, there will be no effect on my participating in the Community Leaders Program.

I understand that my name will not be used when writing the report and that the only person to see what I write on the papers will be Joyce Montgomery.

My signature below indicates that I agree to take the survey.

Print your name here________________________________________

Sign your name here________________________________________

Date________________________
Appendix C

Mentoring Leadership Survey
Mentoring Leadership Survey

This survey is an attempt to assess the effect that a mentor relationship has on the leadership abilities/styles of females. It looks at components of leadership such as aggressiveness, influence, knowledge, parental substitute, and supportiveness to understand what type of behaviors are inspired by a mentor.

Scale One

Part I Aggressiveness Components of Leadership

1. I have learned to become more concerned about others because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

2. I demand the respect of individuals more because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

3. A mentor relationship can be positive in encouraging an individual to get more involved in projects.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

4. I attempt to give my best effort because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree
5. I have a strong desire for self-improvement because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

6. I demand that others give their best effort because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

7. I feel that I am more capable than others to do certain things because of my mentor.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

8. I have improved in my ability to deal with others because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

9. I am more accepting of others disagreement with me because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

Part II Amount of Influence Component of Leadership

10. I feel that I can perform any task because of my mentor relationship.
    1. Strongly Agree
    2. Agree
    3. Neutral
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly Disagree

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11. I feel that I hold a certain position with others because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

12. I am more liked by others because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

13. I am able to solve problems between others because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

14. A mentor relationship has made me a better person.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

15. I am more effective at getting others to listen to me because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

16. I have learned to take charge of a situation more because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree
Part III Respect of Knowledge Component of Leadership

17. I have grown more knowledgeable because of my mentor.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

18. I have the ability to handle almost any situation because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

19. I am able to use the most appropriate means to handle a situation because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

20. I have a greater understanding of most subjects because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

21. Women and men are both knowledgeable in a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

22. I offer guidance to others more because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree
23. I can accept criticism from others better because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

24. I feel more knowledgeable than others because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

Part IV Parental Substitute Component of Leadership.

25. I have learned to listen to others problems because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

26. A mentor's ability to give good advice and insight to solve a problem is very important.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

27. I am more able to realize when I have made a mistake because of my mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

28. A mentor should always help an individual to solve a problem.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree
29. A mentor relationship has taught me that it is okay to share personal problems to help others understand their own.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

30. There is a difference between a black and white person in a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

31. I feel more compelled to accept guidance from a mentor of similar background.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

Part V Supportiveness Component of Leadership

32. I have learned to face my fears because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

33. I have learned to map out my goals because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

34. A mentor should share a special interest in every aspect of individuals' development and growth.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree
35. I am more inspired towards accomplishing a goal because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

36. A mentor should be critical of an individual's effort towards self-improvement.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

37. A mentor's belief in an individual's ability is very important.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

38. I am accepting of positive and negative things about myself because of a mentor relationship.
   1. Strongly Agree
   2. Agree
   3. Neutral
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly Disagree

Scale Two (Background Information)

39. How old are you?
   1. 14 years-old
   2. 15 years-old
   3. 16 years-old
   4. 17 years-old
   5. 18 years-old
   6. Other_______

40. Where do you live?
   1. Albion area
   2. Battle Creek area
   3. Kalamazoo area
41. What is your position in the family?
   1. 1st child
   2. 2nd child
   3. 3rd child
   4. 4th child
   5. 5th child
   6. Other_____
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