THE PERCEPTIONS OF INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE AND PSYCHOSOCIAL
MENTORSHIP IN DEVELOPING RESILIENCE FOR WOMEN OF COLOR IN THE
WORKPLACE

By

Cassandra E. Burney

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

Charlotte

2023

Approved By:

_____
Dr. Laura Stanley

_____
 Dr. Reginald Silver

_____
Dr. David Woehr

_____
Dr. Sungjune Park

ABSTRACT

CASSANDRA BURNEY. The Perceptions of Interactional Justice and Psychosocial Mentorship
in Developing Resilience for Women of Color in the Workplace
(Under the direction of DR. LAURA STANELY)

Extant management literature has recognized resilience as a positive strategy for thriving in the face of challenges in the workplace. In this dissertation, the theoretical model suggests that psychosocial mentorship and perceptions of interactional justice leads to resilience. These relationships are moderated by gender and race. This research aims to theoretically extend our knowledge of organizational justice theory by analyzing the effects of psychosocial mentorship and perceptions of interactional justice (interpersonal dimension) on resilience. Organizational justice theory provides a framework for capturing employee perceptions of workplace fairness. These relationships are underexplored, and this study fills a critical gap in the management literature. Based on existing literature, a quantitative survey was used to empirically test the theoretical model by collecting data within the United States.

Keywords: diversity, gender, justice perceptions, mentorship, interpersonal justice, interactional justice, race, psychosocial, resilience, workplace

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late mother, Paulette Jones Foster, my grandmother, Elnora Jordan Jones, and my aunt, Hattie Marie Jones Epps. These three remarkable women have been my pillars of strength and inspiration throughout my life journey. Their unwavering love, guidance, and support have shaped me into the person I am today. I am forever grateful to have had them in my life, and I dedicate this dissertation to honoring their memory and profound legacy, which is a testament to their enduring impact. I will forever love you and appreciate everything you have done for me. I hope I have made you proud.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I want to thank my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, for giving me the inspiration, wisdom, strength, and endurance to complete this dissertation. For without His guidance and grace, none of this would be possible. I wholeheartedly adhere to the Bible verse Matthew 6:33. "But seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness and all these things shall be added unto you."

Throughout this journey, the achievement of this dissertation would not have been possible without the additional support of several people. Their encouragement and belief in me have been instrumental in overcoming challenges and reaching this milestone. I would like to extend my heartfelt appreciation and gratitude to the following individuals:

Dr. Laura Stanley, my committee chair, deserves special thanks for her valuable advice and guidance throughout this process. My committee members, Dr. Reginald Silver, Dr. David Woehr, and Dr. Sungjune Park, thank you for the insightful feedback and expertise, which greatly enriched the quality of my research. To DBA Cohort IV, thank you for the Monday night Zoom meetups. Your support and camaraderie throughout this journey have been invaluable and I am grateful for the lasting connections we have formed. Shaw University and my colleagues in the School of Business thank you for your constructive feedback, which helped me refine my ideas, as well as the prayers and support, which freed me up to concentrate on my research without any distractions.

John and Carolyn Jones, my godparents, thank you for your continuous prayers, encouragement, and belief in my abilities. Your unfailing love and midday chats have been a constant source of strength and support throughout this research journey. My sisters in Christ, Dr. Doris Bullock, Anita Wise, and Rita Wortham, I sincerely thank you for the prayers,

encouragement, motivation, calls, text messages, and lunches when I needed to take a break...I appreciate you! Uncle Barry and Cousin Claudette, thank you for pushing me to strive for excellence and to never settle for less. My sweet girls, Asia and Aliyah, you are the reason for everything I do. I love you beyond your wildest imagination. Finally, to my husband, Bernard, with all my heart, I thank you for your love and support and for pushing me to embark upon this doctoral journey!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

"Justice, Sir, is the greatest interest of man on earth".

— Cropanzano et al., 2007, p. 34

"Good mentors help...explore doubts and fears while providing the security to develop new ideas and take risks...Good mentors help to interpret and manage disappointments. They promote the value of resilience".

—Kao et al., 2014, p. 192

Introduction of Context and Theory

The United States (U.S.) population is growing increasingly diverse, and by 2050, people of color will be the majority in terms of race and ethnicity (Holder et al., 2015). Therefore, "as society has become increasingly multiracial, it is critical to examine attitudes toward a variety of racial and ethnic minority groups and not solely Blacks" (Neville et al., 2000, p. 59). In addition, there is an increase in women in the U.S. workforce, and for women of color, the intersectionality of their multiple identities has presented them with both challenges and opportunities (Comas-Diaz & Greene, 2013), which can carry over into the workplace. These challenges have presented racial and gender stereotypes, barriers to professional growth, a lack of social support, and increased psychological stress (Andrew & Ashleigh Shelby, 2011; Arnold & Loughlin, 2019; Cook & Glass, 2014; Hall et al., 2019; McCluney & Rabelo, 2019; Phipps & Prieto, 2020; Prasad, 2022; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Sue et al., 2007).

In light of these challenges, it is important to understand the impact they can have and how organizations can help women of color adapt and thrive in the places where they work. During the last several years, employee resilience has gained the attention of scholars in the field of organization management as a positive strategy for managing employees' stress and uncertainties regarding the work environment (Cooke et al., 2019; King et al., 2016; Tonkin et

al., 2018). Resilience is a psychological construct that enables individuals to bounce back from adversities and traumatic occurrences while maintaining a positive perspective (Baloochi, 2020; Bonanno, 2004; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Although women of color have made progress in the workplace, as evidenced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015), literature suggests they encounter a distinct reality of racism, sexism, and microaggressions based on their identity (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). Meanwhile, several organizations have attempted to address any unfair and impolite treatment affecting women of color (Hebl et al., 2020; Roberson, 2020) triggered by such unique experiences.

Thus, Enayat et al. (2022) asserted that understanding how individuals develop socially is a crucial component of human interaction. Scholars generally view social support as a psychological mechanism for mitigating stressful situations (Cooke et al., 2019) between coworkers, supervisors, and subordinates (Ray & Miller, 1994). Due to current organizational complexities, "creating a supportive workplace culture involves understanding the generational composition of the workforce, facilitating regular discussions about contemporary issues, and developing programs and policies broad enough to address the needs of all workers" (White et al., 2018, p. 496). Furthermore, when decision makers are able to manage organizational justice (defined below), they can take specific action concerning ethics and morals about what is appropriate and fair (Cropanzano et al., 2007) to create a pleasant working environment.

Social interaction is considered an important part of an organization (Cappelli & Novelli, 2010). Interactional justice is defined as employees' opinions regarding interpersonal treatment, such as dignity, respect, and politeness illustrated toward them by authority figures like managers and supervisors (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2007). According to Blau (2017), social relations are mainly dependent on trust establishments. Moreover, social

relationships often form through the social exchange between individuals who influence one another in response to interpersonal interactions (Enayat et al., 2022). Employees form perceptions of these interpersonal interactions that can influence outcomes of particular importance to everyone within the organization (Janssen et al., 2016). Furthermore, in the workplace, it is vital to ensure that everyone within the organization perceives it as a "fair" and "just" place to work (Sherf et al., 2019).

Specifically, perceptions of interactional justice refer to the principle that governs how employees interact in work settings (Colquitt, 2001). Despite important progress, not all individuals receive equitable treatment at work (Jordan et al., 2019; Perryman et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2019). Additionally, employees' prior experiences and perceptions of justice regarding fairness do not always lead to favorable employee attitudes and outcomes (Jordan et al., 2019). Therefore, establishing a network that aids in fostering a sense of identity and community to diminish isolation (Deanna et al., 2022) for women and people of color can perhaps help. According to McCluney and Rabelo (2019), "Ideally, employees feel included when their unique perspectives and contributions are valued while also feeling like they are "insiders" within the organization" (p. 146). Additional research is therefore necessary to improve our knowledge of the perceptions of interactional justice within increasingly diverse workplaces.

In organizational settings, mentorship has been widely acknowledged as beneficial for providing career management and developmental functions (Eby et al., 2015; Ghosh & Reio, 2013). Mentoring is defined as a connection between one with more expertise (mentor) and one with less experience (mentee) who may or may not work for the same organization or hold the same position (Arora & Rangnekar, 2014). In particular, the literature suggests that mentoring can offer individuals a social support system critical for psychosocial functioning and the

capacity to thrive (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013). Psychosocial mentoring is defined as relationship elements that improve a person's perceptions of their ability and self-identity in a professional manner (Kram & Isabella, 1985). The psychosocial support function refers to what Kram and Isabella (1985) asserted as social behaviors that build interpersonal relationships. Of particular importance to the context of this dissertation, psychosocial mentorship is an important construct in that it can provide support, encouragement, and acceptance (Remaker et al., 2021; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010), which can be used to assist women of color who perceive mistreatment (Prasad, 2022). Sanchez-Hucles and Davis (2010) stated, "Although men are also placed in challenging situations, women, and especially women of color, are typically more isolated, without mentors or a network of support, and are less able to garner the help that they might need when facing extraordinary challenges" (p.172). Thus, in addition to mentors' support, a positive adaptive strategy to help alleviate or overcome workplace stressors can be of great benefit to them (Baloochi, 2020; Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019).

Developing resilience is critical for organizations and their employees to overcome challenges and improve wellness (King et al., 2016; Kossek & Perrigino, 2016). Resilience is having positive human strength to overcome adversities and adapt under extenuating circumstances to thrive during tough times (Baloochi, 2020; O'Leary & Ickovics, 1995). Furthermore, resilience building is understood to occur due to interpersonal interactions (Beckman & Stanko, 2020). According to researchers, when presented with psychological challenges, individuals may react to adversities by trying to: *Survive, Recover*, or *Thrive* (O'Leary, 1998; O'Leary & Ickovics, 1995). In particular, O'Leary (1998) and O'Leary and Ickovics (1995) suggested that stressful events affect everyone; however, they impact women differently than men and may create distinct prosperous opportunities. *Surviving* refers to how

individuals are able to function. *Recover* indicates how individuals are able to return to their prior functioning levels and *thrive* implies having the ability to flourish and exceed one's initial degree of performance (O'Leary, 1998; O'Leary & Ickovics, 1995). This is particularly important for women of color, who may experience psychological discomfort as a result of each component of their racial and gender identities (Jones et al., 2022; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010) and challenges at work.

Gender and race are both social constructs that typically represent the biological traits of individuals (Jones, 1991; Unger, 1979). Ideas regarding women and men have been widely studied, differentiating males and females based on gender roles, expectations, and societal beliefs (Blackstone, 2003; Deaux, 1985). Blackstone (2003) stated, "Gender is a concept that humans create socially through their interactions with one another and their environments, yet it relies heavily upon biological differences between males and females" (p. 335). The focus on gender is vital for comprehending human behavior and greater consideration of its constraints and significance can benefit society at large (Deaux, 1985). Gender disparities have emerged as a significant concern, not just for outcomes such as compensation but also regarding employees' attitudes and behaviors pertaining to their perceptions of justice (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012). Like gender, racial disparities have created issues for people of color in the workplace (Prasad, 2022; Wingfield & Chavez, 2020). Race "refers to socially defined differences based on physical characteristics, culture, and historical domination and oppression, justified by entrenched beliefs" (Acker, 2006, p. 444). The value of organizational justice differs considerably based on a person's race and gender, and research findings suggest that interactions between race and gender affects attitudes toward organizational justice (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007). A study by Simpson and Kaminski (2007) found that, compared to distributive or procedural justice, women

of color prefer interactional justice, placing a higher priority on interpersonal relationships and fairness. Thus, they tend to react more favorably to such demonstrations than men (Schulz et al., 2019).

Theoretical Framework

The overarching theoretical framework used to examine the conceptual model in this dissertation will be grounded in organizational justice theory. Although the literature has suggested conclusively that justice significantly influences employees' attitudes and behaviors, most studies have centered on the reactions to perceived organizational injustices (Schulz et al., 2019). Organizational justice refers to the employees' perceptions regarding the fair treatment of the organization. There are three key dimensions of justice. The first is *distributive justice* (perceived fairness of incentive distribution throughout organizations, including compensation and promotions, and rewards); the second is *procedural justice* (perceived fairness of processes providing a rational justification of decisions made); and the third is *interactional justice* (social interactions between employees, colleagues, and their managers concerning information distribution and interpersonal treatment) (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2007; Özbek et al., 2016). Organizational justice theory increases our knowledge of how individual differences affect perceived justice and fairness in work environments. Justice is an essential aspect of social existence and interaction (Greenberg & Cohen, 1982), and a person's opinion about their work workplace can determine how one behaves and performs (Baer et al., 2021; Harrison et al., 2006). Additionally, when organizational justice is managed (Cropanzano et al., 2007) and social support is provided (Prilleltensky, 2012), it can be effective in promoting strength and thriving capabilities (Baloochi, 2020) for women of color in the workplace (Remaker et al., 2021).

Research Objectives

For decades, the concept of fairness in the workplace has been of interest to scholars (Wolfe & Lawson, 2020); hence, organizational justice theory has gained substantial research attention since its introduction to the management literature (Colquitt et al., 2001) to examine employees' perceptions regarding the ethical and moral position of managers' actions (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Additional knowledge can be achieved regarding organizational justice theory by expanding a more theoretically informed understanding of the unique experiences, behaviors, and emotions of women of color regarding events in the larger societal context that can affect perceptions of justice. Therefore, I aim to theoretically extend our understanding of organizational justice theory by examining the effects of psychosocial mentorship and perceptions of interactional justice (interpersonal dimension) on resilience to address the research gap in management literature. Also, I examine the moderating effects of race and gender.

Research Questions

The following research questions will be examined in this dissertation:

1. How do perceptions of interactional justice influence resilience?

2. How does psychosocial mentorship influence resilience?

3. Does gender influence the relationship between perceptions of interactional justice and resilience?

4. Does race influence the relationship between psychosocial mentorship and resilience?

Contributions

This dissertation seeks to make two contributions to the organizational behavior and management literature. First, by analyzing the role of psychosocial mentoring and the

perceptions of interpersonal justice together theoretically, we can understand how psychosocial mentoring and perceptions of interactional (interpersonal dimension) justice affect employee resilience. A more recent meta-analysis has focused on organizational justice and its effects on gender by analyzing all three (distributive, procedural, and interactional) dimensions of justice (Schulz et al., 2019). Thus far, research has failed to consider race and gender as distinctions, as Parker (2004) stated, rather recognizing them as race and gender neutral. Instead, simply, controlling for race (Nkomo, 1992) and gender (Schulz et al., 2019) methodologically. This research study fills this gap, as I contend that these are critical issues for women of color, particularly in the context of managing stress and traumatic experiences in the workplace, where they have succumbed to unique experiences, behaviors, and emotions, thus obtaining resilience.

Lastly, I extend the work of Leigh and Melwani (2019), who highlighted how negative societal mega-events outside of an organization can impact individuals' behaviors and experiences at work. Moreover, their study revealed the way identity fusion encourages minorities to engage in positive behaviors, and relationship bridging. In addition, how leadership compassion, organizational inclusiveness, and organizational demography worked to inspire minority employees, enhancing the outcomes of mega-threats (Leigh & Melwani, 2019). This dissertation contributes to their work by examining the effects of interactional (interpersonal) justice and psychosocial mentorship on resilience.

Organization of Dissertation

To accomplish these objectives, my dissertation will be structured into four chapters. Chapter one introduces the theoretical basis (Organizational Justice Theory) and the background knowledge of the research. An overview of the conceptual model, objectives, and research questions will drive this study and its contributions to existing literature. Chapter two will

provide a review of the extant literature, a description of the theoretical model, and the development of the research hypotheses. Chapter three will outline the methodology that will be applied to test the conceptual mode. In addition, describe a summary of the outcomes of the hypothesis testing results. The study concludes with Chapter four by discussing the significance of the dissertation's findings, its limitations, and areas identified for future research.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

Literature regarding the perception of justice among women and minorities in the workplace has been studied to a great extent (Gilliland, 1993; Graso et al., 2020; Nishii, 2013; Zapata et al., 2016). Over the last several decades, the U.S. workplace has become quite diverse (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). In the 1990s, workplace diversity was introduced to describe differences between individuals within a work unit (Roberson, 2019). Statistical data shows that the workforce will become even more diverse, with greater representation of underrepresented groups. Based on data provided by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the percentage of women in the workplace was 60.2 million in 1994, 68.4 million in 2004, and 73.0 million in 2014; they estimate this number will grow to 77.2 million by 2024 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). In addition, racial diversity and ethnicity within the workplace is increasing. For instance, by 2024, it is estimated that Hispanic people will account for 19.8 percent of the workforce, Asian people 6.6 percent, Black people 12.7 percent, and 3.7 percent will account for additional people of color (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015).

Academic research regarding the disparities and adversities women and minorities face in the workplace is not a new phenomenon within scholarly research (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Hall et al., 2019; Ibarra, 1992, 1993; Prasad, 2022). Scholars have suggested that women of color experience racial and gender discrimination and are stereotyped and treated with prejudice and biases within organizations (Wingfield & Chavez, 2020; Zapata et al., 2016). This creates harmful cognitive components of undesirable attitudes in places where 15% or less of them work, a concept called tokenism (Arnold & Loughlin, 2019; Spangler et al., 1978). According to Kanter (1977), tokens suffer isolation, enhanced visibility, and performance

pressure in male-dominated organizations (Spangler et al., 1978). Furthermore, such treatment in the workplace has created persistent psychological and emotional trauma and stress for women of color (Bonanno, 2004; Kanter, 1977; A. Kim et al., 2019). Despite the underrepresentation, adversities, and unexpected traumatic experiences that women of color endure, a great deal of literature indicates that individuals can develop the capacity to recover through social support and developed resilience (Baloochi, 2020; Bonanno, 2004; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

As a result, this review contributes to the current literature on employees' perceptions based on racial and gender status, justice, mentorship, and resilience. Prior studies have also provided insight into employees' perceptions of organizational support as it relates to their well-being and other work-related outcomes (Kraimer et al., 2011; Meyers et al., 2019). Likewise, extant research has examined the role of mentorship on job-related outcomes such as work engagement, burnout, and career success, to name a few (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019; Kraimer et al., 2019; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Ragins, 1997; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Even though some organizations provide mentorship programs, women of color suffer the intersections of multiple identities such as racism and sexism, a concept known as the "double jeopardy paradigm" where they are constantly reminded of (1) race as women of color and (2) gender as female in organizations dominated by males (Hall et al., 2019; Kanter, 1977; Rosette & Livingston, 2012; Smith et al., 2019; Spangler et al., 1978). Consequently, they are not always provided with equitable opportunities and the proper support (Cohen et al., 2020; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Noe, 1988b). Therefore, this dissertation seeks to analyze the effects of psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and how employees' perceptions of interactional (interpersonal dimension) justice can strengthen resilience.

Additionally, the emergence of diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) has increased pressure on organizations to evaluate their culture (Mobasseri et al., 2021). Furthermore, as organizations evolve and social and political dynamics become more prevalent through movements such as #LeanIn and #MeToo, women are prompted to seek more equitable treatment and inclusive opportunities within their organizations (Grissom, 2018). Thus, hopes to diminish any forms of racial or gender stereotypes and injustice that may arise (Hebl et al., 2020; Heilman, 2012; Whisenant et al., 2015). Extensive research literature has focused on minorities and women as oppressed victims when faced with obstacles instead of how they have been able to overcome them (Graso et al., 2020; McDonald & Westphal, 2013; Roberson et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2019). Overall, this research suggests the perceptions of interactional justice and psychosocial mentorship play a role in developing resiliency for women of color within organizations where they can overcome emotional and psychological distress. Therefore, I propose that women of color who perceive justice within their organizations and obtain positive mentoring support will also display high levels of resilience in the workplace. Moreover, academic research suggests *organizational justice theory* as the most relevant theory for this research study.

Theoretical Framework

Organization Justice Theory

Organizational justice theory is an extension of Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory, which had evolved since the 1960s, when he suggested that individuals' perceptions of fairness were based on rewards obtained for employees' contributions (Gilliland, 1993; Pritchard, 1969). Research also reveals that organizational justice was introduced in management literature by Greenberg (1987), capturing employee perceptions regarding fairness as well as individuals

within that organization's overall attitude and actions. According to scholars, organizational justice is when employees experience fair treatment in a workplace that fosters a sense of justice and exchange in social relationships that result in positive outcomes (Pan et al., 2017; Sarfraz et al., 2018; Zapata et al., 2016). Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) stated that a person's social environment could influence their perceptions regarding their work organization. Similarly, Festinger (1954) posited that individuals, especially new employees, are more compelled to communicate with their coworkers regarding information, work-related policies, and behavioral norms. He further claimed that the more alike a person is, the more important his or her perspectives are for comprehending one's own reality and the overall organizational culture (Festinger, 1954). Furthermore, people often associate work environments as positive or negative, fair or unfair, based on their treatment by supervisors and coworkers (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Work settings where outnumbered individuals feel included can create a sense of belonging, boost motivation, and perhaps change their experiences, attitudes, and perceptions. Specifically, Hill et al. (2021) stated that employees use their perceptions of justice rules to adjust their work behaviors and meet performance goals. Academic literature has examined organizational justice and found that it has a unique impact on employees' and organizations' behaviors as it influences attitudes (Balven et al., 2018). Likewise, it demonstrates the relevance and significance of justice perceptions and the practice of organizational fairness in promoting a supportive environment for disadvantaged employees with regards to social exchange (Balven et al., 2018; Colquitt et al., 2001; Guo et al., 2020; A. Kim et al., 2019; Tekleab et al., 2005).

For years, employees have been concerned with organizational justice and whether management adheres to appropriate rules and guidelines at work (Hill et al., 2021). Thus, organizational justice has evolved into three dimensions of justice within the workplace since its

original development (Colquitt et al., 2006; Kernan & Hanges, 2002). Drawing from Colquitt et al. (2001) and Colquitt et al. (2006), distributive justice was originally taken from Adams (1963). Also, Adams (1965) and Homans (1961) referred to fairness in the distribution of outcomes. Specifically, it refers to how employees' view equity and equality regarding accomplishments, recognition, and contributions at work (Colquitt et al., 2013; Hill et al., 2021; Koopman et al., 2019; Rodell et al., 2017). For instance, this is demonstrated in how supervisors distribute wages (Hill et al., 2021; Koopman et al., 2019, 2020) and whether men and women are given the same equitable opportunity for assignments and praises. Procedural justice pertains to the degree to which individuals believe that the procedures and decision-making processes are moral, ethical, and fair (Colquitt et al., 2013; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). In addition, an organization that welcomes employees' input and provides consistency, accuracy, and unbiased determination of employee outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Hill et al., 2021; Koopman et al., 2019). For example, employees often care about the procedures utilized in determining outcomes by inquiring about their consistency and if they lack biases. Furthermore, interactional justice refers to Bies and Moag's (1986) perceptions of the interpersonal treatment enacted by the decision makers (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Yangin & Elma, 2017). Additionally, interactional justice focuses on two sub-categories (Colquitt et al., 2006).

The first subcategory, informational justice, pertains to the perception that someone believes they are receiving adequate information in a timely manner (Greenberg & Cropanzano, 1993a). The second subcategory is interpersonal justice, which reflects the original viewpoint of Bies and Moag (1986), where employees perceive fairness when they are given explanations for decisions made (Folger & Bies, 1989) in a respectful and polite way by their managers (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Hill et al., 2021; Koopman et al., 2019). For instance, the

timing and justifications communicated regarding outcomes are important to them (i.e.,

informational justice), and whether their decision-makers are polite and respectful (i.e.,

interpersonal justice) is of great concern (Hill et al., 2021; Koopman et al., 2019, 2020). A

summary of the components of organizational justice is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Components of Organizational Justice

Components of Organizational Justice

1. Distributive Justice: Appropriateness of outcomes.
● Equity: Rewarding employees based on their contributions.
● Equality: Providing each employee roughly the same compensation.
● Need: Providing a benefit based on one's personal requirements.
2. Procedural Justice: Appropriateness of the allocation process.
● Consistency: All employees are treated the same.
● Lack of Bias: No person or group is singled out for discrimination or ill-treatment.
● Accuracy: Decisions are based on accurate information.
● Representation of All Concerned: Appropriate stakeholders have input into a decision.
● Correction: There is an appeals process or other mechanism for fixing mistakes.
● Ethics: Norms of professional conduct are not violated.
3. Interactional Justice: Appropriateness of the treatment one receives from authority figures.
● Interpersonal Justice: Treating an employee with dignity, courtesy, and respect.
● Informational Justice: Sharing relevant information with employees.

Note. From Cropanzano et al. (2007)

Positive Psychology Effects Within the Organization

Additionally, positive behaviors and thoughts are key elements of an employee's functionality (Carmeli et al., 2006). Positive psychology emerged because people's strengths and positive aspects were not receiving sufficient attention (Luthans, 2002b). Therefore, in the 1990s, the positive psychology movement was established to divert traditional psychological research trends away from a dysfunctional model (negative thought process) and toward a more positive approach (Jeung, 2011; Luthans, 2002a, 2002c). According to Jeung (2011), organizational scholars quickly embraced this novel approach to organizational behavior after its introduction, and a decade later, scholars in organizational behavior initiated two different yet complementary concepts. The first concept was positive organizational scholarship (POS) (Cameron & Caza, 2004; Cameron & Dutton, 2003), and the second, positive organizational behavior (POB)

(Luthans, 2002a). Over the years, researchers in organizational behavior have discovered that positive reinforcement and positive effects motivate employee attitudes, with a focus on individuals' strengths and psychological abilities (Luthans, 2002c). For instance, they noticed people that are highly confident are likely to persevere and bounce back when encountering setbacks and failures. In contrast, those with low self-efficacy tend to lack perseverance or quit when facing challenges and obstacles (Luthans, 2002c).

Drawing from the organizational behavior literature and the positive psychological theories, Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) was introduced by Fred Luthans as positive qualities and psychological capacities (emotions and behavior) developed to improve and effectively manage organizational performances that can be measured (Luthans, 2002b, 2002c). Similarly, Positive Organization Scholarship (POS) is built on the strengths of positive psychology and organizational literature (Cameron & Caza, 2004; Cameron & Dutton, 2003; Spreitzer et al., 2021), focused on understanding "positive states," such as resilience" (Luthans, 2002b, p. 4). Furthermore, Wright (2003) later argued for a renewed explanation of positive organization behavior by highlighting the significance of employee health and well-being as vital constructs in addition to job performance.

Nonetheless, taken together, both POB and POS examine the environment and relationship interactions associated with positive attitudes of individuals and organizations to understand emotions like efficacy (Luthans, 2002b; Wright, 2003). In this instance, positivity refers to the organization's leadership, employees' behaviors, and human resource management (Luthans, 2002c; Wright, 2003; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).
Empirical research has found that positive emotions and self-efficacy constructs can impact interactions within an organization and affect work-related outcomes such as human adaptability

and work productivity (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Specifically, Spreitzer et al. (2021) suggested positive psychology as a mechanism for overall well-being that takes place in an organization at the individual level. Accordingly, academic literature has proposed other components that determine positive actions, such as optimism, hope, and resilience (Kim et al., 2019; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Optimism refers to positive expectations as permanent and negative situations as temporary (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). They contended that optimistic individuals hold on to the future, expecting new opportunities, and hope is a motivational state of mind; it is the belief that a goal is attainable, yet resilience is a distinctive concept that has the potential to increase work performances, decrease conflict, and assist in overcoming failures and traumatic events (Kim et al., 2019; Luthans et al., 2006; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

According to Youssef and Luthans (2007), there are distinguishing elements that set resilience apart from hope, optimism, and other encouraging traits. For example, resilience acknowledges the need to adopt both proactive and reactive efforts; it recognizes the possibility of setbacks and struggles that even hopeful and optimistic people have trouble facing (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Hence, I posit that having perceptions of interactional justice (dignity and respect) and psychosocial support (i.e., mentorship) can help one move beyond hoping for better and being optimistic when facing challenges and instead adopting resilience.

Perceptions of Interactional Justice (Interpersonal Dimension)

In this study, I focus on interactional justice, particularly the interpersonal justice dimension, which is more relevant to employee perceptions of fairness between individuals and authority figures (i.e., coworkers, supervisors, managers, and upper leadership) as indicated by acts of kindness (Colquitt et al., 2001). Scholars have asserted that among the three types of

justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional), the interpersonal justice dimension plays the most significant role in influencing employee behavior (Holtz & Harold, 2013) and their attitudes toward authorities (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). Earlier studies in the justice literature focused mainly on distributive justice, where they suggested outcomes received determined fairness (Adams, 1965; Homans, 1961). Distributive justice refers to the adherence to appropriate allocation principles in a decision-making setting (Colquitt, 2012; Greenberg, 1987). For example, Adam's (1965) and Homans' (1961) research centered on how perceived equity or inequity was based on a person's beliefs regarding how outcome allocations (i.e., wages and recognitions) were distributed in comparison to others in similar work settings (Colquitt, 2012).

Furthermore, additional organizational justice studies reveal that people view fairness as more than just distributions of outcomes; instead, they consider the procedures used to decide such outcomes, namely, procedural justice (Leventhal et al., 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Hence, Greenberg and Cropanzano (1993) argued that there is a lot of emphasis on both distributive and procedural justice and how they are accomplished, yet they overlook structural and social determinants, which are the societal elements of fairness . They further posed the question: If distributive justice refers to the opinions of fair treatment regarding the outcome of distributions and procedural justice pertains to the fairness of those proceedings, then how does one define the social determinant of fairness? (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013). Drawing on the earlier work of Bies and Moag (1986), they analyzed fairness and determined it to have three components to judgment occurrences: "(1) a decision, (2) a procedure, and (3) an interpersonal interaction during which the procedure is implemented" (Colquitt, 2012, p. 2). This facet of fairness was pivotal in shaping interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). Interactional justice

refers to individuals' interpersonal treatment as the decision-making authorities enact policies and procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Throughout several decades, research analysis has evolved and found that each dimension of justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) has its own unique element for determining fairness and justice in the workplace. Hence, the importance of the interpersonal dimension of interactional justice is warranted, as it indicates that the level of interpersonal treatment individuals receive is another basis of perceived fairness (Greenberg, 1986). In fact, a meta-analysis over a 25-year span and a construct validation of measures were conducted, where scholars performed empirical analyses (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). The findings revealed that each dimension of organizational justice, including the subsets of interpersonal and informational justice, evidenced different results (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). A structural equation model further supports the distinctive relationships; different measurement outcomes suggest treating each as a separate construct (Colquitt, 2012). Much of the literature has suggested that perceived justice, especially perceived interactional justice, is able to evoke an array of positive attitudinal and behavioral responses (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Colquitt et al., 2013; Moorman, 1991). Besides, individuals can prepare themselves to be strong, but if the organization does not provide support, it will be harder for them to maintain their strength (Comas-Díaz & Greene, 1994; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Watkins et al., 2019).

Women of color are more likely to encounter discrimination at work, making it difficult to maintain stability (Comas-Díaz & Greene, 1994; DeBlaere et al., 2014; Hebl et al., 2020; King et al., 2022; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Sue et al., 2007; Watkins et al., 2019). One possible reason women and minorities may not have benefited much from justice and mentorship is

because of the many interpersonal barriers they have faced, such as stereotypes, biases, and microaggressions. According to Sue et al. (2007), microaggressions are "brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative slights and insults toward people of color" (p. 271). Literature suggests that the notion of microaggressions is a form of subtle discrimination and lack of understanding, therefore making it difficult for individuals to recognize and address it (Acker, 2006; Hebl et al., 2020; King et al., 2022). However, excluding microaggressions from research on racial and gender discrimination because someone believes they are ineffective can perhaps encourage scholars and practitioners to turn a blind eye (Offermann et al., 2014; Sue et al., 2007).

Justice perceptions are recognized as behaviors or choices that are understood to be morally right on the premise of ethical, fair, and equitable behavior (Cugueró-Escofet & Fortin, 2014; Pan et al., 2017; Turillo et al., 2003). Scholars have argued that justice is an ethical concept that combines facts and values, and even when people have nothing to gain personally, they genuinely care about fairness (Cugueró-Escofet & Fortin, 2014; Rosen et al., 2020; Turillo et al., 2003). Moreover, they contend that individuals regard justice as an important moral value rather than a mechanism for obtaining personal goals in the workplace (Cugueró-Escofet & Fortin, 2014; Turillo et al., 2003). Research asserts that justice is essential for organizations success, and employers play a vital part in influencing employees' attitudes and behaviors (Beckman & Stanko, 2020; Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). According to Bandura (1969, 1971) behavior is learned and impacted by interactions (Bandura, 1969, 1971; Eby et al., 2015). Therefore, it could be assumed that when underrepresented minorities and women have

confident and positive role models at work, they will display confidence and positive work behaviors.

Justice is an important social element, as employees often share their justice experiences regarding treatment with their leadership and peers inside the organization (Baer et al., 2018; Colquitt et al., 2001; Koopman et al., 2019). Following Bandura's (1969, 1971) Social Learning Theory, employee actions can be influenced (through observing, modeling, and imitating) by others and impact how justice is perceived; if one's mentor overcame mistreatment, adversities, and anxieties, this could change someone's attitude toward injustice and their reactions to perceived justice (Bandura, 1969, 1971; Eby et al., 2015). Scholars have argued that "fairness is a judgment made about the appropriate actions of others by comparing them to a relevant justice rule," claiming that fairness evaluates one's decision and justice describes the behavior or action of that decision (Sherf et al., 2019, p.471). Furthermore, Swalhi et al. (2017) suggested that an employee's perception of fairness is a crucial determinant of their attitude and interpersonal interactions. Interpersonal is defined as the relationship and communication between individuals and is considered an important concept between supervisors and subordinates as well as others at work (Penley & Hawkins, 1985). Besides, this fosters high-quality social exchange interactions, resulting in improved subordinate well-being and positive supervisor outcomes (Penley & Hawkins, 1985; Zapata et al., 2016).

When employees believe they are being treated properly, they are inclined to work more, demonstrate high-performance levels, and develop individual characteristics such as human strength, resilience, restoration, and virtue (Cameron & Caza, 2004; Cameron & Dutton, 2003; Yardan et al., 2014). Creating a diverse organization promotes diversity and social inclusion by fostering a continued exchange of relationships and information sharing (Kim et al., 2020;

Roberson, 2019). Here, diversity refers to the perception that an organization is equitable and inclusive, promoting equal opportunities and access to resources for all employees (Kim et al., 2020), regardless of their various backgrounds. Diversity can be understood through social exchange, where everyone in the organization can mutually benefit through a work environment that fosters trust, respect, and collaboration (Ali, 2019).

More specifically, social exchange theory applies a cost-benefit analysis of relational interactions to explain social behavior in working relationships; these premises are based on social behavior and the reciprocation of positive interactions with individuals (Leslie, 2019). Social exchange theory is consistent with organizational justice theory, which asserts that employees' judgment of their organization's actions and decisions might influence their attitudes and behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2001; Holtz & Harold, 2013). Therefore, the literature has suggested that having a mentor and trusting in the authority's fair practices can help mitigate challenging work environments and, thus, help people develop and maintain resilience (Blaique & Pinnington, 2021; Colquitt et al., 2001; Dhanani & LaPalme, 2019).

Mentorship Support in the Workplace

Social support is necessary in the workplace as it offers an outlet when dealing with the heightened stress of job demands, hindrances to career trajectory, racial and gender discrimination, internal battles, and balancing work and family (Giauque et al., 2019; Kraimer et al., 2019; Linnabery et al., 2014; Young & Perrewe, 2000). Having supportive coworkers and a positive organization when experiencing difficulties can encourage individuals to pull on their inner strength (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019; Linnabery et al., 2014; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Researchers suggest that organizations can initiate coping strategies and provide mentor support for women and people of color while ensuring they feel at ease at work (Kossek &

Perrigino, 2016; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Rosen et al., 2020). Mentorship refers to the quality, satisfaction, and effectiveness of mutual benefits in the mentor-mentee relationship in providing organizational support (Allen & Eby, 2003). According to Phelps (1992), the mentoring relationship offers substantially more than career support, and it can provide a breadth of personal support.

Mentorship has been studied extensively and is thought to be one of the most critical interpersonal interactions of social support contributing to organizational success (Allen & Eby, 2003; Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019; Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Randel et al., 2021; Tepper, 1995; Williams-Nickelson, 2009). Furthermore, several meta-analyses indicate purposeful mentoring relationships are attributed to various advantages such as employee engagement, job satisfaction, hierarchical positions, and salary increases (Allen et al., 2004; Eby et al., 2008; Ghosh & Reio, 2013; O'Brien et al., 2010). Additionally, there is a dearth of empirical research to support Kram (1988) and Kram and Isabella's (1985) original work that reveals the effectiveness of relational and career development through psychosocial support, which is important for improving organizational success (Chao et al., 1992; Chun et al., 2012; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Ivey & Dupré, 2022; Kao et al., 2014; Noe, 1988a, 1988b; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Williams-Nickelson, 2009; Wu et al., 2019; Yip & Walker, 2021). For instance, a longitudinal study conducted by Chun et al. (2012) assessed transformational leadership and emotional well-being, revealing that the provision of psychosocial support was significantly correlated with positive mentoring.

Moreover, a qualitative study by Allen et al. (1997) reported that mentoring was valuable as it encouraged self-esteem and satisfaction through supporting others. Likewise, psychosocial function focuses on the development of building confidence in their mentees through respect,

compassion, and positive behaviors (Allen et al., 1997; Ghosh & Reio, 2013). This differs from the career function, which aids mentees in obtaining job opportunities, advancement, and career success in the workplace (Kram & Isabella, 1985; Noe, 1988a). This further verifies the importance of having a mentor. A mentor is an accomplished person who serves as a sponsor, advocate, ally, and role model and provides career advice and psychosocial support in the workplace concerning social networks and the advancement of goals regarding life quality for their mentees (Blaique & Pinnington, 2021; Ensher & Murphy, 2011; Erskine & Bilimoria, 2019; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Williams-Nickelson, 2009).

As advocates and allies, mentors can serve as a layer of protection against negativity even when the mentee is not present (Erskine & Bilimoria, 2019; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Webster et al., 2018; Williams-Nickelson, 2009). Additionally, mentors serve as role models by exhibiting professionally recognized behaviors, attitudes, and abilities that support their mentees in gaining competency, self-assurance, and professional identity (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Williams-Nickelson, 2009). Thus, an individual can receive affirmation that sustains and even improves self-esteem and self-confidence when facing organizational challenges (Erskine & Bilimoria, 2019; Smith et al., 2019; Williams-Nickelson, 2009; Wu et al., 2019).

Psychosocial Mentoring Function

According to Kram and Isabella (1985), mentorship can offer career development and psychosocial capabilities to guide mentees toward success. Several studies have empirically investigated mentoring and found that career and psychosocial guidance are unique functions of mentorship, and each provides distinct outcomes to their mentee (Aryee & Chay, 1994; Noe, 1988a; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). For instance, research by Noe (1988a) established a metric revealing that mentoring relationships have two distinct yet critical functions and yield

significant unique benefits for their mentees: (1) career support and (2) psychosocial support (Ghosh & Reio Jr., 2013; Kraimer et al., 2019; Noe, 1988b). Thus, career support produces five specified improvement functions (i.e., coaching, protection, exposure, sponsorship, and challenging assignments) to assist in developing new skills, navigating challenging work, and boosting upper mobility for their mentees' professional and personal goals (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019; Kram & Isabella, 1985). Accordingly, Kram and Isabella (1985) posited that psychosocial support refers to the interpersonal facet of the relationship. More importantly, the social behaviors (i.e., role modeling, validation, and relationship building) within the mentor-mentee relationship improve the mentee's self-esteem and capabilities (Allen et al., 2004; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Noe, 1988a).

Furthermore, the strength of the interpersonal interaction and emotional connection highlights the relationships described by Kram and Isabella (1985) to provide emotional support and validation (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019; Ghosh & Reio Jr., 2013; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Menges, 2016). As a result, for women of color, given their gender and racial dyads in the workplace, this can enable them to resist stress and persist in the face of adversities (Kao et al., 2014). Specifically, for this dissertation, I will highlight the psychosocial function of mentorship and its relevance to my research regarding women of color who suffer multiple subordinate social identities and, as a result, encounter different stressors at work compared to their coworkers (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019; Ghosh & Reio Jr., 2013; Remaker et al., 2021). As mentioned earlier, women of color are disadvantaged in their organizations and society because they are subjected to the "double jeopardy" phenomenon by identifying as both a "minority" and a "woman" (Smith et al., 2019).

According to McCluney and Rabelo (2019), women of color are magnified in organizational environments due to intersectional invisibility in some settings and hypervisibility in other settings. This is consistent with Kanter's (1977) tokenism theory, which asserts that women and people of color encounter heightened visibility that increases performance pressures, invisibility where they are ignored, and assimilation, which results in the role entrapment of tokens. Thus, acceptance and encouragement are vital in guiding coping and adaptive behavior (Kao et al., 2014; Skodol, 2018). Furthermore, the psychosocial function can have a more personal impact on women of color and extend into other areas of their lives (Ragins & Cotton, 1999), further urging them to explore new behaviors regarding their personal strengths, capabilities, and well-being (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Meyers et al., 2019). As described by Skodol (2018), psychosocial functioning refers to an individual's capacity to perform daily activities and responsibilities, which include social and interpersonal interactions (i.e., mental wellness, encouragement, and acceptance).

According to Eagly and Karau's (2002) gender role theory, women are faced with gender challenges at work. Additionally, Hodge (1973) and Reuter (1945) asserted that people of color are faced with racial challenges. Thus, psychosocial mentorship can effectively address these stressors as it promotes strength and emotional improvement through acceptance, reassurance, and support for risk-taking (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019; Williams-Nickelson, 2009). Kram (1983) classified mentoring into four linear stages (initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition) that provides an outline for building positive interactions between the mentor and mentee. During the initiation stage of employment, the mentor and mentee build positive expectations, and within the cultivation stage (two to five years), repeated modeling and rigorous

mentor-mentee exchanges occur, allowing the mentee to learn potentially complex tasks (Koberg et al., 1994).

Moreover, during the separation stage, the mentee attains independence, and both participants reevaluate the partnership; the mentor-mentee relationship then advances to the stage of redefinition, which is determined by whether the relationship evolves into a friendship or dissolves (Koberg et al., 1994). Nevertheless, Kram (1988) proposed that mentorship can be identified as either an informal or formal relationship that develops into career and psychosocial functions (Eby et al., 2013). Informal mentorship occurs spontaneously without a company's involvement (Menges, 2016). Researchers assert that organizations do not typically manage, structure, or formally acknowledge informal mentorship; these are relationships that form organically (Chao et al., 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Furthermore, informal relationships are based on shared interests and the mentor's sincere desire to invest time with a mentee to enhance their career or provide psychosocial support (Chao et al., 1992; Kao et al., 2014; Menges, 2016; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Such relationships arise due to perceptions of competence and interpersonal comfort and usually extend beyond career-related concerns to sharing personal interests, goals, and aspirations (Menges, 2016; Noe, 1988a; Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

According to Bearman et al. (2007), informal mentorship have been stated to have greater success rates with their mentees and produce more favorable outcomes, especially compared to individuals without mentors (Blake-Beard et al., 2011). In contrast, formal mentor relationships are organized, regulated programs sponsored by the organization where mentors are assigned mentees in a structured format (Chao et al., 1992; Menges, 2016; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). The purpose of formal mentoring is to foster career support (e.g., sponsorship and assistance with job-related task) and psychosocial support (e.g., providing advice and encouragement) to

strengthen their mentees' careers and personal development (Menges, 2016; Noe, 1988 a, b). Formal mentoring is especially pertinent for women, who face greater obstacles to creating informal mentoring connections compared to men (Ragins & Cotton, 1991).

Despite the notable differences, scholars suggest that both informal and formal mentoring can provide several benefits to the mentor and mentee, including emotional support and improvement of the mentee's well-being (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018; Williams-Nickelson, 2009). Yet Scandura (1997) asserted that organizational justice and relational interactions are important and should be taken seriously, as perceived fairness and justice are both critical in mentoring relationships. In addition, Scandura (1997) further claimed that if a mentee assumes that the mentor is engaging in any form of favoritism (unfair behavior) during the mentorship process, this could compromise the relationship. Nevertheless, when there is a level of commitment from everyone involved in a relational process, perceptions of interactional justice can be assumed (Cooper et al., 2016; Thompson & Heron, 2005).

Managers must focus on fostering commitment to the objectives most pertinent to the goals of the various employment relationships to achieve desired outcomes with and for all employees (Cooper et al., 2016). As suggested by Aryee et al. (2015), justice is important to both employers and employees, and fair treatment motivates employees to cooperate and embrace management decisions (Swalhi et al., 2017). As mentioned above, relationships are important and fundamental in the workplace (Heaphy et al., 2018; Noe, 1988b). Given that, the psychosocial function of mentoring plays a vital role in the mentee's interpersonal development, which I hypothesize can develop resilience for women of color who lack support and face obstacles at work.

According to Noe (1988b), from a psychosocial standpoint, mentors often perform several interpersonal tasks, functioning as an outlet for mentees to confidently communicate their "concerns and fears" about career-related issues and informally communicate their "nonwork experiences" (p. 66). As such, women of color in the workplace who encounter stress-related tension and pressure can benefit from psychosocial support to strengthen self-control and provide new ways of thinking and behaving at work (Eby et al., 2013). Scholars also assert that individuals can help shape one's identity and increase motivation to some extent (Balven et al., 2018). Arciniega et al. (2017) suggested that "openness to change refers to the extent to which people are driven to follow their own unique intellectual and emotional interests (i.e., self-direction and stimulation)" (p. 1135). Taken together, having a mentor (psychosocial support) within the workplace can assist women of color who feel ostracized, criticized, and overlooked. With today's workplace demographics, mentorship can foster meaningful consideration for positive results (Eby et al., 2008; Williams-Nickelson, 2009). Effective "mentoring requires respect, understanding, and sensitivity to diverse cultural, racial, gender, sexual orientation, religious, geographic region, age group, socioeconomic level," and psychological difficulties to which "individuals relate, identify, and belong" (Williams-Nickelson, 2009, p. 284).

Furthermore, organizations that provide sponsorship (mentors) have what Singh & Vanka (2020) considered a triple win. First, a place where female mentees experience improvements because of those relationships; second, the organization gains a more engaged and diverse workforce where the mentees acquire relevant skills and knowledge and, in return, become mentors to others; and third, top talent is retained. Additionally, a perceived sense of belonging creates favorable emotional, cognitive, and behavioral consequences in a mentoring relationship

(Janssen et al., 2016). Moreover, psychologically, it is the individual's psychosocial thoughts and behaviors that build upon a person's ability to recover from traumatic events (Eby et al., 2013).

Resilience

Resilience is one of the most important components of a positive organization (Luthans, 2002b) and can be revealed through employees' behaviors in response to work-related obstacles (Näswall et al., 2019). According to Mithani (2020), it is easier to develop resilience when organizations provide adequate and recoverable resources. The context of resilience focuses on individuals' social, psychological, and environmental conditions for those with the ability or capacity to adapt or bounce back by overcoming adversity through motivating techniques (Baloochi, 2020; Bonanno, 2004; King et al., 2016; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Thus, having positive organizational behaviors and psychosocial support (a mentor) can encourage self-confidence and self-efficacy, which fosters resiliency. The capacity for resilience has been stated to include both negative setbacks and positive occurrences, yet, with the proper guidance, they can improve one's health and wellness (Dachner et al., 2021; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). For instance, Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory in positive psychology literature asserts that positive emotions increase individuals' awareness, decrease stress, and build valuable skills in situations where individuals are more inclined to be engaged at work.

For this reason, resilient individuals can persevere through adverse circumstances by creating high levels of positive affect (Bono et al., 2007; Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019; Fredrickson et al., 2003; Stoverink et al., 2020). According to Kossek and Perrigino (2016), for women, resilience can be an extremely important construct in workplaces that are traditionally dominated by men. Even though the literature indicates disparities and noticeable barriers, many women and minorities have advanced their careers (Cook & Glass, 2013). Research suggests that

external access barriers and personal factors have also prohibited the advancement of women and created stress for them. For instance, Sheryl Sandberg, the former Chief Operating Officer of Facebook, describes the "lean in" effect, where women wrestle with doubts, fears, and imperfections and buy into stereotypes that hinder their progress (Catalyst, 2020a; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Phipps & Prieto, 2020). This also suggests the need for resilience-building strategies. When women are given access to positive and nurturing professional relationships and exposure to equitable opportunities, they can develop resilience (Richez, 2014). Resilience-building strategies, in this case, are mentors and positive interpersonal behaviors.

According to Kossek and Perrigino (2016), "resilience is individually and occupationally determined," and research shows that women who have support and guidance are twice as likely to achieve goals and receive great benefits (p. 730). For instance, with advocates, women can take on challenging assignments, negotiate and obtain higher salaries (Scheepers et al., 2018), and adapt to stressful work environments (Kossek & Perrigino, 2016; Mithani, 2020). As mentioned earlier, this can take place by either surviving, recovering, or thriving. Surviving where they are able to function in spite of the incident, recovering by being able to return to their previous levels prior to the incident, and thriving by having the capacity to surpass the original functioning level (O'Leary, 1998; O'Leary & Ickovics, 1995). For women of color, this is vital, as gender and race continue to be major barriers despite remarkable improvements (Smith, 2002).

Gender

Gender and race have been major roadblocks despite tremendous advancements for women and minorities in the workforce (de Leon & Rosette, 2022; Smith, 2002). Gender roles are based on what individuals, society, and cultures expect of people regarding their sex.

However, it important to recognize that the concepts of sex and gender are distinct from one another. A person's fundamental feature determines sex (male or female), whereas gender (man or woman) describes the meanings, values, and traits of a person's sex (Blackstone, 2003). Workplace inequalities due to individual characteristics, such as race and gender, are suggested to emerge through organizational social systems (Avent-Holt & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2019). In particular, barriers created by gender differences are theorized to affect women both within and outside of the workplace.

Women began entering the workplace in the late 1800s, making up approximately 2% of the workforce (Fernández, 2013). For years, women have been dominating the workforce in the U.S. with more college degrees than men (Ammerman & Groysberg, 2021). As women continue to make incremental strides in the workplace, making up 47% of the current labor force compared to their early years (Catalyst, 2020b), it will be crucial to address gender concerns that impinge upon them. As statistics indicate, women continue to encounter gender inequalities (Ammerman & Groysberg, 2021). While there have been notable improvements for women in the workplace, researchers found that intercultural conflict between individuals still exists and that gender plays an important role (Chua, R., & Jin, M., 2020).

According to Eagly and Karau (2002), women are scrutinized for their leadership styles and alleged sensitive behaviors. Gender stereotyping in the workplace emerged due to the perceived positional distinction of attributes between men and women (Whisenant et al., 2015). This is because individuals, both men and women, are influenced by society to align with their own gender roles when socially interacting (Chua, R., & Jin, M, 2020; Eagly, 1987). According to de Leon & Rosette (2022), interpersonal behavior is highly reliant on the nature of stereotypes about particular groups (de Leon & Rosette, 2022). Since preconceptions are commonly held,

immediately triggered, and highly impactful, gender stereotypes could influence one's perceptions negatively (Heilman, 2012). Consequently, people can appear to benefit not because of who they are or their work performance but because of their gender roles (Heilman, 2012). As a result, they attain favoritism and advantages, which can affect how employee's view their supervisors, leading to distrust, thereby affecting employer-employee interpersonal relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Greenberg, 1987).

Recent literature has shown that women's preconceptions are evolving to suggest that men and women are seen as equally smart and competent individuals (Hebl et al., 2020). Additionally, Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014) revealed that men and women are equally effective as leaders, regardless of gender (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Yet, women are still subject to more demanding and stringent requirements than their male counterparts (Hebl et al., 2020). A recent research study entitled "Women in the Workplace" by McKinsey and Company (2022) asserted that women are looking for workplaces that promote flexibility, employee wellness, diversity, equity, and inclusion. Furthermore, it is imperative for companies to prioritize managing organizational justice; otherwise, this could have an adverse effect on the next generation of female employees (McKinsey and Company, 2022).

Race

Beyond gender disparities, racial inequality is just as prevalent in the workplace. Before the 1990s, the construct of race had been overlooked in organizational research (Helms, 1994; Nkomo, 1992). Here in the U.S., race greatly affects a person's sense of self, which manifests in their daily lives and social interactions (Nkomo, 1992). Thus, regardless of a person's race, being part of a racial group is a large part of how they see themselves (Helms, 1994). Acker (2006) referred to "race" as differences in appearance, culture, and historical dominance explained by

deeply held beliefs. It represents a collection of people with biological characteristics that signify their membership in a particular group and their social standing in greater society (Jones, 1991). Still, specifically in the workplace, not all racial groups have pleasant experiences. According to Singh and Winkel (2012), "Research on Social Identity Theory (SIT) suggests that employees' perceptions of their organizational climates are greatly influenced by their racial affiliations and negative stereotypes against racial minorities that are very common at work" (p. 471).

Furthermore, drawing on specific concepts supported by organizational justice theory, for example, Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory asserts there are pay disparities between people of color and others in the workplace. Further, Thibaut and Walker (1975), in their procedural theory, suggested that eliminating judgments of impartiality and being honest with everyone regardless of their racial affiliation can be perceived as just. Additionally, Bies and Moag (1986), in their interactional justice theory, suggested that interpersonal and informational justice lead to fair perceptions for people of various races when they feel included, and managers are polite, respectful, and kind towards everyone alike.

Furthermore, a meta-analysis conducted by McCord et al. (2018) on workplace injustice revealed that racial minorities and women experience injustices more than men. For instance, "results indicated significant race differences in perceived workplace mistreatment when the mistreatment was race-based (.71) in comparison with race differences in non-race-based mistreatment (.10)" (McCord et al., 2018, p. 147). Further, circumstances challenging women of color are more difficult than those of other individuals (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). Consistent with McCord et al.'s (2018) findings, women of color are confronted with unsettling experiences. Such encounters influence their behaviors, attitudes, and relationship complexities in the environments where they work (de Leon & Rosette, 2022; Leigh & Melwani, 2019).

Additionally, a meta-analysis examined "The Chair," a fictional yet unsettling Netflix original series. Tracking the dilemmas with specific types of racial biases regarding the first female of color to hold a position as chair at a prestigious institution that was struggling to keep up with the overwhelming demands of an English department that's failing without having proper support (Prasad, 2022). The premises of this Netflix series were to demonstrate how women of color (in this case, "the modeled minority") are victims of racial bias and unfair treatment in the workplace that creates stressful and traumatic experiences. The modeled minority is a terminology used to describe a person of Asian descent (Prasad, 2022). While scholars claim that "times have changed" where people of color succumb to overt discrimination at work (Brief et al., 2000, p. 73), this behavior has shifted to people exhibiting subtle forms of discriminatory conduct towards women and people of color (Brief et al., 2000; Cortina, 2008; Hebl et al., 2020). Discrimination refers to components of prejudice as described by de Leon and Rosette (2022), and "unfair employment occurs when persons in a social category are put at a disadvantage in the workplace relative to other groups with comparable potential or proven success" (Cortina, 2008, p. 55).

The combined effect of racial and gender-based bias and microaggression has theoretically resulted in reduced mortality and diminished wellness (Pierce, 1995). Williams et al. (1997) argued that experiences of discrimination significantly affect individuals' psychological health. Additionally, individuals who endure discrimination suffer continued miseries and discomforts that can disrupt their well-being (Essed, 1991). Generally, everyone desires healthy interpersonal relationships, and organizational justice is directly linked to the concept of fairness in the workplace (Usmani & Jamal, 2013). Furthermore, race and gender are salient individual differences that have significant consequences for work-related experiences

pertaining to justice and interpersonal treatment (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Koch et al., 2015; Koenig et al., 2011).

Women of Color in the Workplace

Justice perceptions are the foundation of employees' day-to-day work lives (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015; Hill et al., 2021) and are important in promoting employee psychological health and work environments (Pan et al., 2017; Sarfraz et al., 2018). Furthermore, perceptions of interactional justice in the workplace are micro-level relational processes, and when people feel that communication is unclear, this can create perceptions of unfairness. (Balven et al., 2018; Hill et al., 2021). Conversely, when individuals believe their supervisors are courteous and decisions made are justifiable, they have a sense of interactional (interpersonal connections) justice (Bianchi & Brockner, 2012; Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg & Cropanzano, 1993; Özbek et al., 2016). As a result, I am investigating the effects of psychosocial mentorship and perceptions of interactional justice on resilience. More importantly, I am investigating how race and gender moderate this relationship for women of color and their ability to bounce back in times of difficulty and triumph in the face of adversity.

Historically, studies have focused on the access barriers women and racial minorities face, such as underrepresentation in upper leadership (Arnold & Loughlin, 2019), entry to executive board positions (Cook & Glass, 2014), equitable pay (Wingfield & Chavez, 2020), discrimination during the hiring process (Katherine & Mary, 2002; Wingfield & Chavez, 2020), and lack of access to social networks (Silver, 2017), rather than the interpersonal barriers (Hebl et al., 2020), such as the treatment and experiences they encounter (Ilgen & Youtz, 1984; Phipps & Prieto, 2020) in such work places and society as a whole. While access barriers are certainly significant issues facing women of color often, the experiences they encounter affect them. For

instance, negative diversity-related occurrences outside of organizations have crept into the workplace, additionally influencing their sense of justice (Hebl et al., 2020). Specifically, the #BlackLivesMatter (Leigh & Melwani, 2019), #MeToo (Camps et al., 2022), and #LeanIn (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019) movements have had an effect on minorities and women's experiences and behaviors concerning organizational justice (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007).

The perceptions of women of color have prompted a reevaluation of how race and gender are conceptualized in research; for instance, how Asian, Black, Hispanic, and Native American women are experiencing and responding to disparities and challenging work environments is being considered (Chaney et al., 2021; Hebl et al., 2020; Kossek & Perrigino, 2016). Meanwhile, these differences have fostered the way in which they socially interact (Cortina, 2008). Perceptions of justice are a crucial component of every workplace and have been indicated to differ by race (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007) and gender (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012). According to Rosette and Livingston (2012), "Because the schematic representation of a typical leader does not encompass blacks when race is considered or women when gender is considered, black women may be disadvantaged relative to other groups that share a greater degree of schematic overlap" (p. 1162).

Likewise, take Asians, for example, a group of individuals considered the model minority. The model minority was introduced in the 1960s, initially given to Asian Americans that reside in the U.S., to suggest that through their work ethic, competence, and academic success, they are more advantageous in American society than other racial minorities (Prasad, 2022). Kiang et al. (2017) explained, "Although the most common references to Asian Americans as the model minority point to their presumed success and achievement, the underlying issues are complex, multifaceted, and not uniformly positive in nature" (p. 3).

However, Asians are still susceptible to negative experiences, and for many Asian Americans, positive minority stereotypes are a double-edged sword (Prasad, 2022). Furthermore, some of the underlying presumptions of the stereotypes center on social and psychological undesired traits, such as being socially submissive, quiet, self-sacrificing, and weak (Gündemir et al., 2019; Kiang et al., 2017). Additionally, Hispanics, Latinos, and Native Americans all remain undervalued in work settings where they face similar stereotypes, biases, and injustices (Hebl et al., 2020). Moreover, women of color are at the intersection of racial and gender discrimination (Acker, 2006; Beal, 2008; Phipps & Prieto, 2020). They are a unique group of individuals recognized for having multiple subordinate social identities (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019). In addition, they are viewed as non-prototypical employees and experience complexities at the confluence of their uniqueness (Acker, 2006; Purdie-Vaughns & Eibach, 2008).

Accordingly, women of color are more susceptible to having different experiences due to their double minority status in work settings where they are numerically underrepresented (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019; Kanter, 1977). Piggybacking on Smith et al. (2019) valuation regarding intersectional invisibility research, they stated that women of color might be easily noticed or neglected at work due to their non-prototypical racial and gender classification. Specifically, literature pertaining to the paradox of intersecting invisibility suggests that black women may have opportunities and constraints because of their race and gender distinctiveness (Rosette & Livingston, 2012; Smith et al., 2019). However, study results differ in their findings regarding the benefits that Black women receive. For instance, a current research study suggests that, in the distribution of pay, black women are distinctly gaining more than both white women and black men when negotiating their salaries (Leigh & Desai, 2022). Moreover, a study by de Leon and Rosette (2022) revealed different results, asserting that black women are less

financially compensated compared to white women, but receive more financial compensation than black men (de Leon & Rosette, 2022). These findings appear to contradict the idea that women of color encounter the same racial and gender challenges. In general, women and people of color all face barriers, stereotypes, biases, and underrepresentation at work.

Nevertheless, as indicated above, although the various demographic groups face certain common experiences, there are also significant differences that must be acknowledged (Hebl et al., 2020; Richard, 2000), even though their impacts are the same. In sum, "differences in the race/ethnic and gender characteristics of one's coworkers and superiors may enhance or decrease one's workplace experiences" (Smith, 2002, p. 523). Furthermore, leadership and social support can affect an organization's culture, which can influence employees' outcomes (Barrow, 1977; Nielsen & Taris, 2019). As mentioned earlier, social support is recognized as a crucial component necessary for promoting employee health and wellness when dealing with challenges and adversities (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Manning et al., 1996). According to research in personality and social psychology, peoples' motivation is their desire to fir in and be accepted into social circles (Brewer, 1991), which gave them security and fulfillment for their needs for approval (McCluney & Rabelo, 2019; Watson, 2008). However, social inequalities can hinder this cohesion and prevent some individuals from accessing the benefits of social support.

One of the most significant studies of social inequality revealed that disparities exist in the allocation of resources and/or rewards across individual cultures (Davis & Moore, 1945). According to Davis and Moore's (1945) stratification theory, the greater a person's contribution is to society, the greater their rewards should be. For example, the authors claim that certain work-related positions are more fundamental than other positions, and therefore, individuals with

more important work-related assignments should be granted higher salaries, more power, and prestige because they are more valuable to society (Davis and Moore's, 1945; Rigney, 2010). The authors claimed that "every society, no matter how simple or complex, must differentiate persons in terms of both prestige and esteem and therefore possess a certain amount of institutionalized inequality" (Davis & Moore, 1945, p. 243). Some scholars have criticized Davis and Moore's stratification theory asserting it signifies an unfair merit in the distribution of work positions (Buckley, 1958; Tumin, 1953). According to the critics, what is "particularly disturbing is the fact that this theory views as virtues (eufunctions) are the very factors that others overwhelmingly see as vices (disfunctions)" (Buckley, 1958, p. 369).

According to Buckley (1958), critics of Davis and Moore's theory claim that it implies unfairness where individuals with upper-level status and people within their social networks are the only benefactors. For instance, critics of the theory argue that it represents the role of ascription, a particular way of certain people achieving status, attainment, and opportunities (Buckley, 1958). Specifically, Tumin (1953) argued that the stratification theory places individuals with access to higher social classes, networks, or strata with advantages when it comes to the achievement of positions, significant benefits, and privileges in society. More specifically, the social stratification in societal ranks (class) where people with political power and high status can hinder access to those of lower status even though they qualify, resulting in the Matthew effect (Rigney, 2010; Tumin, 1953). A more detailed review of the Matthew effect is delineated in the following section.

Matthew Effect

The Matthew effect is a concept explained by Robert K. Merton, a sociologist at Columbia University, as a passage from Matthew (13:12) in the Bible, which states, "For

whosoever hath, to him shall be given, and he shall have more abundance; but whosoever hath

not, from him shall be taken away even that he hath (King James, 1996, p.1813)." This

phenomenon occurs when social advantages accumulate over time, leading to further advantages

or disadvantages and enlarging the disparity gap amongst those with more and those with less

(Rigney, 2010). The notion of the Matthew effect is the mechanism by which the potential for

social bias and systemic inequality occurs. Additionally, social factors such as race, gender, and

socioeconomics status have determined one's position in society (DiPrete & Eirich, 2006).

According to researchers, the Matthew effects explain how inequality persists and

produces cumulative advantages that worsen over time (DiPrete & Eirich, 2006; Rigney, 2010).

This concept explains the methods or processes by which inequalities, once they exist, self-

reinforce and increase in the absence of intervention, enlarging disparity gaps (Rigney, 2010) by,

unfortunately, expanding the disparities in social stratum between the haves and the have-nots

through continuous increments of advantage (Merton, 1988). Several theorists within various

fields (such as economics, sociology, and psychology) have asserted that the Matthew effect is

the justification for focused interventions (i.e., allocated budgeted tax dollars) in America to

improve healthcare, education, social services, and human development to remediate disparities

(Ceci & Papierno, 2005). However, when interventions across multiple domains are made

available to all individuals, not just the disadvantaged, they have the unexpected impact of

developing preexisting gaps between those groups (Ceci & Papierno, 2005). This is especially

true for advantages concerning class, income, gender, race, and human development (DiPrete &

Eirich, 2006). Demonstrating a fundamentally unequal valuation where the affluent (rich) get

richer and the underprivileged (poor) get poorer (DiPrete & Eirich, 2006; Rigney, 2010).

Furthermore, a study by Clark and Corcoran (1986) discovered that gender-related barriers,

cumulative disadvantages, and a lack of social support deterred women's career trajectories (Clark & Corcoran, 1986). This issue was apparent at the influential elite levels, where men experience higher stages of success in the workplace and society (Clark & Corcoran, 1986).

However, on the contrary, when individuals in work settings perceive mutual trust, genuine relational interactions, and fairness, this can result in positive behavioral outcomes (Arora & Rangnekar, 2014; Baer et al., 2021), resulting in what Bies and Moag (1986) referred to as "interactional justice." Thus, mentorship programs can explicitly increase access to resources (Aryee & Chay, 1994) for women experiencing such difficulties (McDonald & Westphal, 2013). Moreover, for women of color who are at the confluence of social identities and various lived experiences (McCluney & Rabelo, 2019), this can help to highlight the importance of interpersonal well-being (Cohen & Wills, 1985) and psychological stability (Epstein, 1980) toward surviving and thriving when faced with adversities (O'Leary, 1998).

More importantly, to truly comprehend the effects and experiences of women of color compared to those of other individuals, it is necessary to understand the magnitude of the unfairness (social inequalities) and disadvantages (Matthew Effect) they encounter within organizations where they work and the broader society (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2019; McCluney & Rabelo, 2019). Organizational justice theory suggests that employees are concerned about fair treatment at work and whether the procedures, judgments, and standards of their organization are just and equitable (Colquitt et al., 2001). Such perceptions have shaped individuals' attitudes and behaviors, ultimately leading to significant effects on employees' wellness and organizational outcomes (Prilleltensky, 2012). Hence, in view of the above literature, I propose the following hypotheses, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Hypothesized Relationships

Direct Relationships to Resilience
H1 Perceptions of interactional justice are positively associated with Resilience.
H2 Perceptions of psychosocial mentorship are positively associated with Resilience.
Indirect Relationships to Resilience
H3 Status as a female will moderate the relationship between the perception of interactional justice and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a female.
H4 Status as a female will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a female.
H5 Status as a minority will moderate the relationship between the perception of interactional justice and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority.
H6 Status as a minority will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority.

Hypothesis Development

Relationship Between Perceptions of Interactional Justice and Resilience

Organizational justice pertains to the manner in which individuals perceive fairness in their workplaces (Colquitt et al., 2013; Lang et al., 2011). According to the literature, organizational fairness is a major factor influencing employees' organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Ando & Matsuda, 2010). Several studies have indicated that organizational justice influences employees' feelings about work settings and can significantly impact them (Bianchi & Brockner, 2012; Blakely et al., 2005; Colquitt et al., 2001; Özbek et al., 2016). Perceptions of interactional justice are opinions regarding the inclusion and justification of decisions made and the quality of treatment an individual's perceive they have received from their managers (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Employees often look to their managers for interactional justice due to the nature of interpersonal interactions involved (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Thus, organizational leadership should be mindful of how individuals view issues linked

to justice, as this may result in perceptions of unfairness (Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996). For instance, the interpersonal behavior of decision-makers (direct leaders) shapes people's viewpoint regarding interactional justice, which are then connected to their cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses towards their leadership (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Barsky and Kaplan (2007) asserted that the perceptions of justice are impacted by "affective positive or negative" "state and trait" experiences. Thus, the integrity of one's leader plays a significant role in how they view them, and when people are treated fairly, I suspect positivity is enhanced toward perceptions of justice. Furthermore, a research study by Van den Bos (2003) supported this idea, suggesting that when individuals form perceptions of justice in "positive or negative" affective conditions, this can influence their perceptions of their environment. Additionally, individuals "may experience more positive justice perceptions when they are in a positive affective state and may imply more negative justice judgments when in a negative affective state" (Van den Bos, 2003, p. 493).

Furthermore, any perception of injustice resulting from unfairness can have an undesirable effect on one's overall well-being (Prilleltensky, 2012). Moreover, in answering the research question, "How do perceptions of interactional justice affect resilience?" theoretically literature has linked organizational justice with resilience (Prilleltensky, 2012), suggesting that organizational injustice causes anxiety and stressors (Lang et al., 2011). Hence, from an organizational justice standpoint, people need to experience justice. Justice is socially constructed and important for social existence because it yields significant benefits for employers and employees (Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg & Cohen, 1982). Furthermore, human strength and adaptability are fostered by resilience, which causes an individual to shift from a negative to a positive reaction (O'Leary, 1988). Resilience is a psychological construct of human behavior

that enables people to recover from difficulties while keeping a positive mindset toward thriving despite the situation (Baloochi, 2020; Bonanno, 2004; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Employees differ in the extent to which they suffer or thrive at work (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Interactional justice is one of the main factors in the effects of justice (Judge & Colquitt, 2004), it is personal in nature (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), and deals with the interpersonal behaviors (fairness, kindness, honesty, and respect) perceived by employees regarding the decision-makers (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1987). I suspect developing healthy interpersonal relationships at work is good for physical and mental health. According to the conservation of resources theory (COR), people attempt to acquire and preserve their stability when experiencing stressful situations (Hobfoll, 2002).

Therefore, when individuals feel their leaders respect, value, and treat them fairly as organizational members, they seek to maintain a relationship with them and respond in a positive way (Ando & Matsuda, 2010). Furthermore, I assert that it increases trust, so they are more likely to believe they can succeed and persist in difficult situations. I further posit that individuals who feel the organization's decision-makers support them and their ideas and value what they bring to the table perceive interactional justice. Thereby, through interpersonal interactions and the perspective of increased justice, it motivates individuals to engage in thriving capabilities such as developing resilience. Thus, I hypothesize that:

H1: Perceptions of interactional justice is positively associated with resilience.

Relationship Between Psychosocial Mentorship and Resilience

Social support is essential in providing psychosocial functioning, a form of mentorship necessary for one's ability to adapt and thrive (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013). Psychosocial support builds trust and interpersonal relationships that can improve the mentee's confidence,

enhance emotional development, and strengthen work performance (Eby et al., 2013; Ensher & Murphy, 1997). Likewise, Carter and Youssef-Morgan (2019) posited that mutual work relationships improve a person's self-esteem, and having a safe place to discuss anxieties and fears can lead to psychological strengthening. These functions influence the mentee's personal growth by establishing relational connections and supporting their distinctive personal and professional identity (Williams-Nickelson, 2009). It is expected that everyone will face challenges and encounter adversities at some point at work (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013). At the same time, when presented with adverse situations, employees can utilize resources such as a mentor to continuously adapt and thrive (Näswall et al., 2019). Carter and Youssef-Morgan (2019) linked mentorship to developing psychological resources such as resilience. Thriving is developed by promoting positive adaptation and flourishing behaviors through adjusting risk levels or threats during adverse situations (Luthan et al., 2006; Prilleltensky, 2012).

Most research studies have applied social exchange theory to analyze mentoring relationships. This, however, gives little opportunity for relational aspects, such as the influence of mentoring on mentees' desire for interpersonal connections (Janssen et al., 2018). For instance, in organizational behavior, social exchange theory focuses on distributive and procedural justice characteristics regarding the exchange guideline, processes, or adherence to principles (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Successful mentoring and positive interactions strengthen a person's psychological capital through the interpersonal context (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019). Mentoring relationships are significant interpersonal interactions that are helpful in counseling and alleviating negativity (Baugh et al., 1996; Waters, 2004). For instance, through psychosocial support, interpersonal components are necessary to instill confidence, acceptance,

and self-awareness (Arora & Rangnekar, 2014), perhaps enhancing one's capacity to think, react, and respond in ways that aid recovery from difficult situations (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013).

Furthermore, for employee resilience to be developed, it requires a supportive organizational context (Näswall et al., 2019) and interpersonal interaction (Hartmann, 2018). In addition, it requires organizational justice. Therefore, in answering the research question, "How does psychosocial mentorship affect resilience?" according to Sardžoska and Tang (2015), attitudes influence a person's thoughts and actions. Therefore, when facing difficulty, people seek personal and social resources, such as support, to manage their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013; Prilleltensky, 2012). Thus, I propose that when individuals are given psychosocial mentorship, a person who provides them with assurance and friendship when presented with challenges can help them adapt and overcome, ultimately leading to success. I further contend that having a trusted, experienced individual available when feeling discouraged is critical. Additionally, having someone share goals, aspirations, successes, and failures without fear of judgment can enhance a person's attitude and evoke reactions that contribute to developing resilience. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

H2: Psychosocial mentorship is positively associated with resilience.

The Moderating Effect of Gender (Female) with Interactional Justice Perceptions and Resilience

One of the significant disadvantages that women and people of color face in the workplace is obtaining social and professional support (Ibarra,1993 and 1995). While several challenges in the work environment are similar for men and women, scholars assert that women are more vulnerable to certain adversities than their male colleagues (Baloochi, 2020). According to gender role theory, within the organizational context, employees are entrenched in traditional

beliefs about gender roles (Ando & Matsuda, 2010; Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Steffen, 1984).

Furthermore, role congruity theory, is a variation of social role theory, highlights how gender

stereotypes and biases about men and women show up in the workplace. According to Eagly

(1987), people behave differently based on their gender. This theory suggests that women are

expected to be communal and nurturing (Caleo, 2016; Eagly & Karau, 2002), while men are

assumed to be agentic, with traits that are assertive, ambitious, and dominant (Eagly, 1987; Eagly

& Steffen, 1984; Schulz et al., 2019), which can lead to gender bias. Studies have shown that

women often face a "double bind" where they are punished for being too assertive or too passive

in the work environment (Caleo, 2016; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Additionally, explaining why

women may face more barriers in male-dominated fields that are often associated with stressors.

Moreover, stereotypes and biases can influence people's thoughts regarding one another,

generating unfavorable and unjust perceptions (Heilman, 2012). For instance, an experimental

study by Caleo (2016) revealed reactions to injustices where women allegedly violated what they

considered gender norms (communal traits) when making leadership decisions. The study found

that females encountered injustices where they were penalized and given negative feedback for

their assertive managerial style (Caleo, 2016).

Even though justice is a significant issue that affects everyone (Judge & Colquitt, 2004),

women face challenges that are critical determinants of their perceptions (Lee & Farh, 1999). A

research study by Tata and Bowes-Sperry (1996) assessing the concerns of fair decisions used

distributive, procedural, and interactional and found that men and women use different contexts

by which they interpret the fairness (Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996). These findings are similar to

those of Sweeney and McFarlin (1997), who asserted that because men seem more goal-driven,

perceptions of distributive justice may be more significant factors in male satisfaction with

organizational outcomes such as pay, promotions, and rewards (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997).

Furthermore, the findings indicated that women preferred the processes used to determine

outcomes, such as procedural justice and interpersonal treatment found in interactional justice

(Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997). Moreover, a later study by Simpson and Kaminski (2007)

examined the dimensions of justices and found that women valued interactional justice mostly

(Simpson & Kaminski, 2007). In fact, the findings suggested that women were more concerned

with how they were being treated and whether their viewpoints were being considered when the

policies and procedures were being implemented than the procedure itself (Simpson &

Kaminski, 2007). Given these differences on how men and women perceive justice, interactional

justice perceptions are of particular importance to the context of this dissertation.

From a justice standpoint, fair treatment fosters more intimate, ongoing social interaction,

and research suggests there is a gender difference in how individuals value and react to justice

(Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997; Whisenant et al., 2015), implying that women prefer interactional

justice, placing more value on interacting and sharing with others. Justice scholars argue that

people need to experience justice from an organizational perspective (Adams, 1963, 1965;

Leventhal et al., 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). That is, upper managers are the decision-

makers who enforce the organization's implementation process (Cohen-Charash & Spector,

2001); therefore, they help integrate various policies and practices that can impact everyone

equitably. According to the justice theory, a manager's treatment and the organization's policies

and procedures have an impact on employees' perceptions (Ando & Matsuda, 2010). However,

when women are part of the organization and its decision-making practices, this can signal a

sense of unity, value, and trust. Although procedural justice influences employee behaviors and

attitudes, it relates to the policies that lead to the decision made, whereas interactional justice

relates to the interpersonal treatment an individual experiences while a procedure is being implemented (Ando & Matsuda, 2010). Therefore, in answering the question, "Does gender influence the relationship between perceptions of interactional justice and resilience?" because people interact with each other so often in organizations, interpersonal justice is generally more meaningful than the other dimension of justice (Holtz & Harold, 2013).

Furthermore, research by Schulz et al. (2019) and Simpson and Kaminski (2007) revealed that women, in particular, value interpersonal relationships and prefer interactional justice, prioritizing relational interactions and fairness more than men. Likewise, Gilligan (1977) asserted that women are typically more concerned with social harmony and moral judgments. Moreover, research shows that employees generally judge the fairness of their working conditions by the actions of their superiors (Caleo, 2016). Additionally, women, despite the changes that have been made in the workplace, are still confronted with gender barriers. For instance, a recent research study, "Women in the Workplace," by McKinsey and Company (2022), asserted that "in the past year, 29% of women have taken less demanding jobs or left the workforce altogether" (para. 1). These decisions have come after encountering roadblocks, gender inequality, and microaggressions in their workplaces. Furthermore, such negative conditions that are not managed appropriately can become problematic, decreasing confidence and mental and physical health.

For women, they can draw on interpersonal resources (interactional justice), thereby counteracting the detrimental impacts of negative experiences. Therefore, I assert that to the extent women feel their organizations are inclusive and equitable, they will perceive justice, further boosting their positive thoughts and capabilities, which are fostered through resilience. On the other hand, when the perception is that males are obtaining more resources and

opportunities through their "old-boy" social networks and privileged status, this can have an adverse effect on how women view justice. Thus, it can lead to discontentment, feelings of frustration, and a lack of motivation among women, which can ultimately result in a decline in their abilities to thrive in such environments. Hence, I hypothesize that:

H3: Status as a female will moderate the relationship between perceptions of interactional justice and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a female.

The Moderating Effect of Gender (Female) on the Relationship Between Psychosocial Mentorship and Resilience

Social support refers to ways that interpersonal relationships are aimed at protecting individuals from stressful situations (Cohen, 1984). Literature suggests women are faced with significant gender stratification and gaps that have created workplace disparities between them and their male counterparts (Acker, 2006; Blumberg, 1984; Caleo, 2016). According to West and Zimmerman (1987), gender disparities emerges from daily interactions. It refer to social classes, where men typically have more authority and social status compared to women (Blumberg, 1984). Specifically, in places where their aspirations and goals are considered more important. As a result of these embedded societal attitudes and experiences of gender biases, I propose gender disparities can generate access barriers and interpersonal barriers that manifest in the lives of women.

Additionally, for women who encounter stereotypes, biases, and gender-subjective norms, this may hinder their psychological abilities. Furthermore, statements that women are nurturing, caring, and emotional individuals can undermine their authority when making decisions that are considered critical in an organization. As such, research shows that gender

stereotypes and biases have created obstacles for women within the workplace, where they are at a disadvantage when being evaluated on skills and performance, therefore, impeding their social judgment and growth (Heilman, 2012). Moreover, women can prepare themselves to be strong, but if the organization does not support them, it will be harder for them to maintain their mental capacity.

Therefore, I propose that mentoring is a critical component of social support for women trying to survive and thrive in stressful work settings. Mentorship intends to promote personal and professional growth by enhancing the ability to cope with challenges and build new personal, interpersonal, and organizational skills (Collins et al., 1997). Specifically, psychosocial mentoring is interpersonal in nature and signifies a richer and more intensive component of interpersonal interactions (Arora & Rangnekar, 2015). While women have been given opportunities in the workplace, research shows that men have been granted mentoring support at a much greater level (Allen & Eby, 2008; Burke & McKeen, 1990; Noe, 1988b; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Scandura & Ragins, 1993).

According to researchers, this absence of the relationship has created "invisibility" experiences where women encounter roadblocks regarding their career trajectory (Johnson & Thomas, 2012; Silver, 2017) and psychosocial development. An organization whose culture is inclusive and supportive can build confidence. Thus, having mentorship programs where underrepresented individuals can secure advocates who will speak up for them and have allies within the organization can help them navigate complex challenges and feel more connected with others (Johnson & Thomas, 2012). In addition, these programs can help them recognize skills they may not have known they had. According to Prasad (2022), "Management scholars studying gender and diversity issues in organizations have underscored the importance of

allyships among different relegated groups to subvert various social inequalities" (p. 33). This is needed not only for career advancement but, more importantly, for psychosocial development. A mentor may improve workplace perceptions and minimize stress levels (Scandura, 1997). For instance, a mentor can provide employees with psychosocial support and the interpersonal components necessary to instill confidence, acceptance, and self-awareness (Arora & Rangnekar, 2014), which can enhance one's thoughts and responses in ways that aid recovery from difficult situations (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013).

Furthermore, if a person feels they have someone inside or outside of the organization that is invested in them professionally and/or interpersonally towards obtaining their goals, they are more inclined to preserve towards overcoming difficulties. The psychosocial role of mentoring motivates individuals directly with confidence (Kram, 1988), which allows them to think positively and regain self-control toward thriving (O'Leary, 1998), regardless of what happens at work. As described above, women have historically faced gender unfairness, workplace imbalance, and a lack of support, thus requiring more psychosocial support than men. Even though mentoring seems to benefit all employees, it may be especially beneficial for women, given the additional challenges they face (O'Brien et al., 2010; Wanberg et al., 2003). Specifically, in workplaces, where men have been given greater power and opportunities than women (Ragins & Cotton, 1999), this can result in the Matthew effect, where men are receiving greater benefits and , therefore, showing higher levels of resilience. Therefore, I further propose that being female weakens this relationship. Henceforth, I hypothesize that:

H4: Status as a female will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a female.

The Moderating Effect of Minority (Race) with Interactional Justice Perceptions and Resilience

Minority status can be conceptualized as the distinction among individuals' social, cultural, ethnic, racial, religious, national origin, and other unique attributes (Perkins & Wiley, 2014). A minority group is a subset of the population that is distinguishable from the majority population (Perkins & Wiley, 2014). Racial diversity in the workplace is one of the most complex organizational and human resource concerns (Richard, 2000). Hence, with the progression of "human, women, and civil rights," organizations have an obligation to manage employees with diverse identities, origins, and experiences (Roberson, 2019, p. 70). However, this has led to a lot of obstacles that shape how people think about justice and fairness. Therefore, an organization's diverse climate is important. It involves inclusiveness, where employees feel their distinctness is welcomed and appreciated (Mor Barak, 2015; Shore, 2011). It can be done by bringing together individuals with different perspectives and experiences (Leigh, 2019). Diversity climate is defined as "employee behaviors and attitudes that are grounded in perceptions of the organizational context related to women and minorities" (Mor Baraket al., 1998, p. 83).

Additionally, it refers to any distinctions in the demographic makeup of individuals in a work environment (Roberson et al., 2017). Latané and Wolf (1981) asserted, "A minority, by definition, is disadvantaged in terms of those characteristics—size, status, and power" (p. 438). For instance, in this case, the minority status is referred to as race. The perceptions of people of

color have prompted a reevaluation of how race is conceptualized in research (Zinn & Dill, 1994). According to Roberson et al. (2017), people's identities are a complicated combination of meanings drawn from their group affiliations, perceptions, and interpersonal interactions. Hence, integrity and positive interactions with one's leader can influence the experiences employees encounter and the opinions they create.

Roberson (2019) noted, "Early research drawing from a more relational perspective on groups proposed that the proportional representation of certain characteristics, such as gender or race, will activate majority versus minority categorizations and, thus, the social experiences of individuals in each category" (p. 71). Minorities are more likely to face unfairness at work, making it tough to preserve stability. Several studies have contended that prejudice, stereotypes, and biases have touched the hearts and minds of people of color, thus prompting difficulties and increasing the extent to which they mentally and physically experience working life (Chrobot-Mason, 2019; Prilleltensky, 2012; Sanchez-Hucles, 2010; Kropp & McRae, 2022). According to Weick (1993), adversity can manifest in unusual and complex situations.

Moreover, as Helms (1994) pointed out in the *Racial Identity Theory Literature,* leaders fail to establish healthy racial shared identities and, as a result, create situations where people of color experience interpersonal and access barriers. This is often manifested through overt exclusion, where one's racial identity might be diminished or rendered irrelevant (Sue et al., 2007). According to the Harvard Business Review, "fairness and equity will be the defining issues that are taking place inside organizations in the year 2022." The report states, "According to our analysis of S&P 500 earnings calls, the frequency with which CEOs talk about issues of equity, fairness, and inclusion on these calls has increased by 658% since 2018" (Kropp & McRae, 2022). This issue indicates the need for justice in the workplace by solidifying the

relevance of expanding organizational justice theory for strengthening organizational culture and minimizing stress. Furthermore, when stress persists for a long time, it can manifest through psychological challenges, that is, emotional exhaustion, anxiety, or depression (Tepper, 2001). Nonetheless, Sanchez-Hucles and Davis (2010) posited that women of color, for example, endure different kinds of adversities at work that others may not encounter. Similar to the study of Chrobot-Mason et al. (2019), it stated that women of color are plagued with more extensive challenges; that is, not only are they facing gender stereotypes, biases, and discrimination, but they are also undertaking some non-dominant identities where they are (1) expected to abandon their origin of culture to fit in at work (2) encounter the "concert ceiling" when trying to advance their careers as opposed to the "glass ceiling" that has been much easier to break for others (3) tasked to ignore negativity and take on a different mindset without support.

Additionally, the theory of planned behavior (TPB) is a psychological approach that connects attitudes, perceived behaviors, and subjective norms (Ajzen, 1991). The premise of TPB is that subjective norms and beliefs pertain to behaviors. TPB is claimed to influence one's perception and intentions to accept a specific behavior (Godin & Kok, 1996). This is consistent with organizational justice theory, where a person's perception of justice influences their opinions. When individuals in a work setting sense genuine relational interactions and fair treatment, this can result in perceptions of interactional justice (Arora & Rangnekar, 2014; Baer et al., 2021). Of particular importance to this study, "justice has the ability to reduce the uncertainty and lack of control that are at the heart of feelings of stress" (Judge & Colquitt, 2004, p. 396). Thus, having the information readily available, positive interactions with colleagues and managers, and the ability to shape decisions are essential criteria by which people gauge their value in the workplace and, ultimately, their feeling of belonging (Roberson, 2019).

Resilience encourages strength and adaptability by permitting people to change their responses from negative to positive (O'Leary, 1998). As a result, resilience building-strategies can counter adversities and the effects of negativity (Funston & Wagner, 2010).To that end, developing strong interpersonal relationships where people can respond positively to significant and life-changing situations (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013) can be encouraging for women and minorities.

Moreover, for people of color who encounter obstacles at work, I propose that these encounters can be overcome when positive interpersonal interactions, justice, and thriving mechanisms are in place. I assert that buffering resources like resilience can be developed to disrupt negative effects and assist people of color toward thriving during tough times. Although justice perceptions are believed to increase resiliency, the magnitude of the effect on resiliency is argued to be different between racial groups based on the Matthew effect. This phenomenon occurs when individuals, through their social structure, can accumulate additional resources, further expanding the disparity gap (Rigney, 2010). Thus, I would suggest that the benefits experienced by minorities would be less in comparison to those of non-minority individuals. Hence, I hypothesize that:

H5: Status as a minority (race) will moderate the relationship between perception of interactional justice and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority.

The Moderating Effect of Minority (Race) with Psychosocial Mentorship and Resilience

Mentoring has been of interest to scholars and organizational leaders all over the world for decades, and it is widely known as one of the most common ways that people interact with each other (Arora & Rangnekar, 2015). Research has discovered that people who receive

mentoring achieve success from the relationship (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1992), and as a result, organizations experience positive outcomes (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019; Ensher & Murphy, 1997). As mentioned earlier, mentoring relationships can provide opportunities for personal and professional growth as well as social and emotional support. Specifically, the psychosocial mentorship functionality, which is a critical component in the workplace for individuals facing challenges. Although the benefits of psychosocial and career mentoring have been frequently studied (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019; Kram, 1988), the development of psychological resources is rarely taken into consideration (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019), particularly for racial minorities.

Research has a history of analyzing characteristics of race and ethnicity, considering them either "unspecified" or irrelevant (Nkomo, 1992). This has led to a need for more understanding of how a person's race impacts organizational behavior and outcomes, a critical issue today in society and the workplace. According to Prasad (2022), the concept of diversity is complex, and if understanding is to be achieved, it is necessary to examine the complexities that may occur within each social grouping of differences. For people of color, they have often expressed being stigmatized and mistreated in the workplace because of their race (Cortina et al., 2001; Deitch et al., 2003; Fox & Stallworth, 2005). Yet, beyond racial status, research shows that, despite such inequality, there are minorities that have benefited from effective mentorship (Remaker et al., 2021). For instance, Remaker et al. (2021) discovered that mentoring was great for improving training experience through the provision of respect, encouragement, direction, and self-assurance.

However, the lack of mentorship opportunities for women of color has been an issue, creating feelings of isolation, decreasing self-esteem, and reducing performance, which affect

emotional stability (Noy, 2012; Remaker, 2021). Prilleltensky (2012) claimed that minorities are often treated with less value than non-minority members, which impacts their well-being. Thus, to bounce back and regain their pre-incident state of health, people must adopt various attributes, techniques, and social support (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013). Therefore, I further propose resilience as a fundamental technique. Resilience refers to the ability to self-regulate emotional, cognitive, and behavioral methods that support the recovery of one's ability to function following a traumatic occurrence or experience at work (McLarnon & Rothstein, 2013). By leveraging social support and developing resilience, employees can better manage their emotions and toward a more satisfying work environment.

Furthermore, when leaders actively participate in mentorship, employees are more engaged and likely to perform better. Similarly, when leaders are transparent, compassionate, and inclusive, employees are more likely to get involved at work (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Yip & Walker, 2021). Consequently, when individuals do not believe that they have supportive resources this can trigger anxiety (Lang et al., 2011).

Hence, in answering the research question, "Does race influence the relationship between psychosocial mentorship and resilience?" "The subjective experience of being stereotyped can feel restrictive, wrong, and damaging to social relationships" (Kiang et al., 2017, p. 2). Specifically, minorities who have undergone stressors for an extended period may respond to negative situations and challenges with defeat. Nevertheless, having psychosocial support, including positive role models, access to counselors, and meaningful friendships to assist them, perhaps can facilitate the development of thriving capabilities.

Even though everyone can benefit from the psychosocial functions of mentorship, people of color particularly encounter cumulative disadvantages because of their racial category and

limited access to support systems. These disadvantages have both direct and indirect effects on their resilience. For instance, research findings indicate that mentorship can serve as a protective barrier and mitigate negative experiences faced by people of racial minority status (Noy, 2012). However, I propose that minorities will benefit less from the interventions than non-minorities because of the lack of access and opportunities. Although mentorship is believed to positively affect resilience, the racial and ethnic status of the mentee could strengthen or diminish this relationship. Thus, leading to the Matthew effect, which suggests that gaps between advantaged and disadvantaged groups will expand because of pre-existing disparities gaps. Furthermore, for people of color, the positive impact of mentorship on resilience might be lessened by the interventions as compared to non-minorities. Hence, I hypothesize that:

H6: Status as a minority will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority.
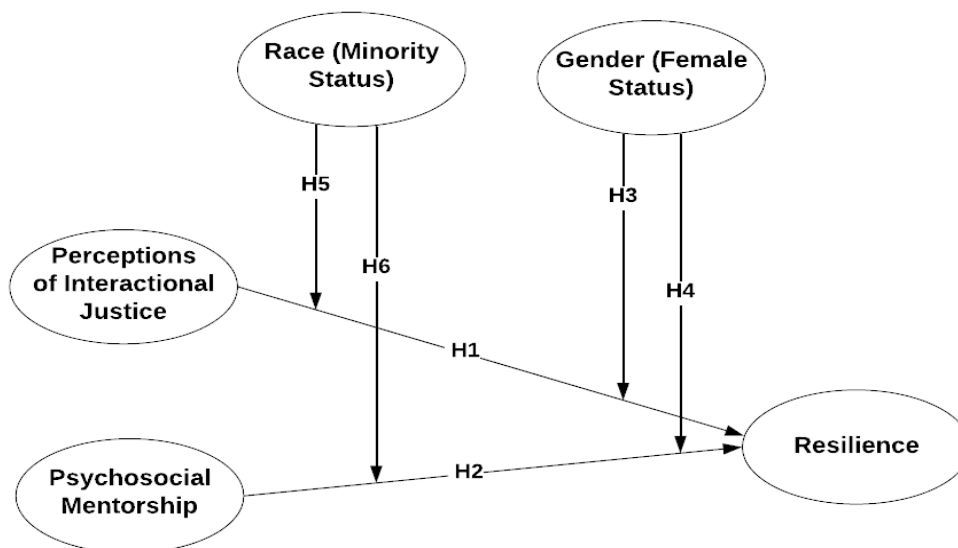
Figure 1: Theoretical Model

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides an overview of the sample, data collection procedures, and measures used to test the prior hypothesis in this dissertation. Further, this chapter discusses the methodology applied in testing the research model and the discussion of descriptive statistics, including correlations between variables, means, standard deviations, and reliability. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the approach taken to reduce common method bias in the research design and a summary of the hypothesized relationships amongst the variables.

Sample and Procedures

The participants for this dissertation were identified using Qualtrics (XM) Experience Management, a robust online survey solution that allows users to extract information and evaluate surveys conveniently. Each participant was notified regarding the opportunity to take part in the research study, and a survey link with instructions to an electronic questionnaire was granted to them. For this study, the target participants consisted of individuals eighteen years of age and older who were employed full-time within various organizations in the United States. The Institutional Review Board and data storage authorization for this research were approved on February 15, 2023, by the UNC Charlotte IRB (Study #: 22-1256).

Data Collection

The quantitative data was collected over two weeks by distributing an electronic survey link with directions to potential target participants (full-time employees). Prior to answering the survey questions, participants were provided with a consent form. In addition, it was required for all participants to meet specific screener requirements to access the survey, such as answering yes to having a mentor (i.e., someone they rely on for career advice). Participants had to state whether that person was in their current organization and whether that specific person was their

direct supervisor. Additionally, all participants were made aware that taking the survey was completely optional, that their responses would remain anonymous and confidential, and that the data collected would be used exclusively for the purpose of this dissertation.

The survey was designed to make sure that respondents had adequate time to provide meaningful responses. To prohibit potential careless responses within the data, Qualtrics set the minimum survey response time at 2 minutes and 20 seconds. This was the lower boundary set to prevent respondents from just clicking through the survey without actually taking the time to take it. Thus, the average time taken to complete the survey was determined to be 9.8 minutes, with a standard deviation of 14.75 minutes. Participants who failed to meet the established minimum threshold of 2 minutes and 20 seconds, as well as those who gave careless responses, were excluded as of part the sample.

The initial invitation, consisting of 2,951surveys, was sent out but not accessed. There were 2,480 participants who accessed the survey. Of the 2,480 participants, 70 responded "no" to the consent, and 1002 responded "no" to having a mentor. Therefore, those participants who failed to meet the screening criteria were directed to exit the study. Hence, a total of 1,408 full-time employees started a survey, and of the 1,408 surveys, 1,180 were deemed unusable due to missing or inaccurate data. Qualtrics recorded that a total of 902 of those participants responded to the attention items incorrectly. For instance, 805 answered question "1" incorrectly, 72 answered question 2 incorrectly, and 25 answered question 3 incorrectly. They were flagged as not paying attention to the questions and instructed to exit the survey. In addition, 278 respondents did not complete the survey, permitting a final sample size of 228 (16.1% response rate) participants in this study. The descriptive statistics for screener questions are shown in Table 4 *(A)*. Of the total participant replies, 149 responded "yes" to whether that person was in

their current organization, and 79 responded "no," that those individuals were not in their current organization. In addition, 105 participants responded "yes" to whether that specific person was their direct supervisor, and 123 responded "no" to whether that person was not their direct supervisor. See Table 4(*B*) for the descriptive statistics for screener questions.

Furthermore, it was noted that 96 of those participants identified as male, 131 identified as female, and 1 identified as non-binary. Additionally, the study's participants were comprised of individuals from various racial and ethnic groups. For instance, 6 individuals identified as American Indian or Indigenous, 109 identified as White, 66 identified as Black or African American, 7 identified as Asian or Pacific Islander, 22 identified as Hispanic or Latina, 15 identified as multi-racial, and 3 self-identified as other. See figures 2 and 3 below.
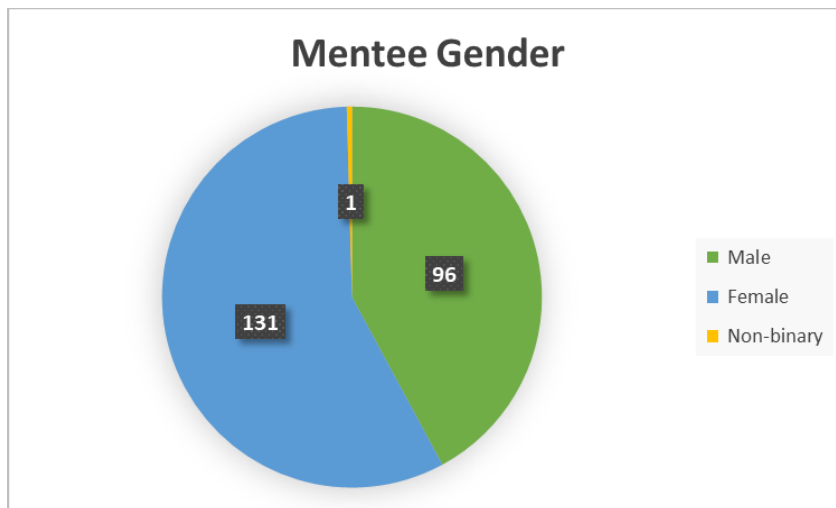
Figure 2: Sample Gender Distribution
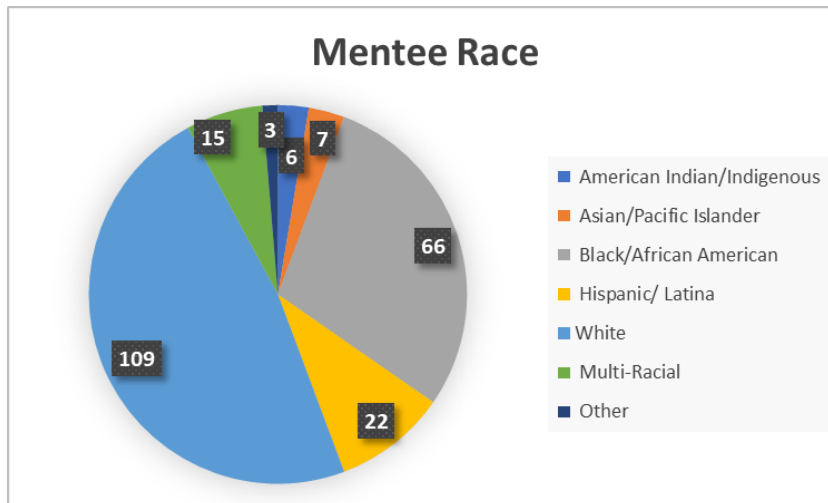
Figure 3: Sample Race Distribution

Analytical Procedures

Hierarchical multiple linear regression was the statistical analysis used for the research study to test the hypotheses. Additionally, the evaluation of the descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, along with conducting a correlation analysis. Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations between the variables are shown in Table 8. Before conducting tests of the hypothesized model, data diagnostic procedures were performed to evaluate the normality of the data, the presence of multicollinearity, and the identification of outliers. Also, testing for normality of skewness and kurtosis for each of the independent variables as well as the dependent variable. The statistical analysis performed was conducted utilizing the IBM SPSS Statistics software, version 28. In addition, this study considered the possibility of common method bias, which happens when an individual responds to both the criteria measure and the predictor measure (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was done in SPSS, and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was done in AMOS. The EFA is to test for common method variance and assess the reliability and validity of the scale items (Forza, 2002) to make sure that all items loaded onto their intended scales have factor

loadings of >.500 (Tadesse et al., 2018). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was examining the dimensionality between scale measurement variables to identify the relationships in my research model (Green, S.B., & Salkind, N.J., 2014). Furthermore, according to the Guttman (1954) rule for EFA, any factor that has eigenvalues above 1.0 should be kept (Warne & Larsen, 2014).

Therefore, using SPSS for the factor analysis principal component analysis extraction method the initial first run of the data described to have 5 factors greater than 1.0. In addition, I ran the EFA using the varimax (orthogonal) rotation once the number of factors were identified on the screen plot which was three. See Figure 4 below, Exploratory Factory Analysis Screen Plot. The orthogonal (varimax) rotation factor matrix showed there were several items identified in the research model that did not load for the construct in my model and therefore excluded to improve the constructs measures in the model. In addition, the initial factor represented 19% of the variance for the test of common method variance in my research model. This aligns with and is consistent with my theoretical model where I am measuring the independent variables (IV), perceptions of interactional justice and psychosocial mentorship with the dependent variable (DV), resilience.

As a result, mentorship scale Q6: "shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems?" did not load. This meant it was not a good measure for the construct of mentorship in the research model, so it was removed, thus leaving only seven scale items of measurement for the psychosocial mentorship variable. Also, three scale items for resilience Q1: "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times," Q3: "It does not take me long to recover from stressful events, and Q5: "I usually come through difficult times with little trouble" did not load and were removed, therefore leaving only Q2: "I have a hard time making it through stressful events, Q4: "It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens," and Q6: "I

tend to take a long time to get over setbacks in my life" as items. Following the scale developed

by Smith et al. (2008), question items Q2, Q4, and Q6 were reversed coded to reduce response

biases. In addition, items Q4: "Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?"

and Q5: "Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?" for interactional justice did not

load, thus being removed, resulting in only seven justice scale items for this research study. See

Table 5: Exploratory Factory Analysis Factor Loadings.

Also, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using a marker variable to test

for common method bias in SPSS using Harmon's Single Factor Method, where all items were

loaded onto one factor, and the total variance explained was 30.23%, which is less than the 50%

threshold, indicating the validity of the measurement variables. According to Cronbach (1951),

to show good internal consistency, measurement-based research must consider the reliability of

measurement. Therefore, Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.70$ or higher) is considered acceptable for the

reliability of the data in this dissertation. After running the scales for reliability, all scale

measurements were above the appropriate threshold of 0.70, thus meeting the acceptable

threshold.

Measures

Dependent Variable

Resilience was measured using the 3-item Brief Resilient (BRS) Scale, a subset of the

scale developed by Smith et al. (2008) to measure resilient employee behaviors. All items were

rated on a five-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Sample item

was "I have a hard time making it through stressful events" (Smith et al., 2008). However, as

mentioned above, questions items Q1: "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times," Q3: "It

does not take me long to recover from a stressful event, and Q5: "I usually come through

difficult times with little trouble" did not load and were excluded from this scale. Cronbach's alpha for this construct was 0.830.

Independent Variables

Mentorship. Participants were measured using a 7- item mentorship scale (shortened version) originally developed by Dreher and Ash (1990) and used by Kraimer et al. (2011) that utilizes both career and psychosocial mentoring. For this study, only psychosocial mentoring will be used. All items were rated on a five-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The Kraimer et al. (2011) scale is an eight-item instrument that is well established in the literature to measure mentorship, and a sample item is, "encouraged you to talk openly about anxiety, fears, or concerns you have that may detract from your work." However, as mentioned above questions item Q6: "Shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems?" did not load and was an excluded item for this scale. The Cronbach's alpha for this construct was 0.790.

Justice Perceptions. The overall measurement of justice perception followed the recommendation of Colquitt (2001), using a subset of 8 items to assess employees' perceptions of interactional justice in the workplace. However, Q4: "Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?" and Q5: "Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly? interactional justice did not load and was excluded as an item for this scale. All other items were rated on a five-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). A sample question was, "Have they treated you with dignity?" (Colquitt, 2001; Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012). The Cronbach's alpha for this construct was 0.884.

Moderating Variable

Participants' Gender. Participants were asked with which gender they identify by indicating their gender by selecting either "0" for males, "1" for females, or "2" for nonbinary (Allen & Eby, 2008). For the present study, gender was coded dichotomously using "1" for males and nonbinary and "2" for females.

Participants' Race. Race measured using dichotomous variable, and participants indicated their race by selecting either "1" for non-minority or "2" for minority.

Control Variables

This dissertation included control variables to evaluate their impact on the independent and dependent variables. Thus, each control was measured and examined for significance. Therefore, I controlled for mentors' gender, mentor's race, and the mentees organization tenure.

Mentor Gender same as above, participants were asked with which gender they identify by indicating their gender by selecting either "0" for males, "1" for females, or "2" for nonbinary (Allen & Eby, 2008). For the present study, gender was coded dichotomously using "1" for males and nonbinary and "2" for females.

Mentor Race: Race was measured using a dichotomous variable. Participants will indicate the race of their mentors by selecting either "1" for non-minority or "2" for minority. For consistency, both the mentee race and the mentor race were coded using the same dichotomous variables. Also, the mentees' timeframe within their organizations was stated to be important for this research.

Organization Tenure. The mentees organizational tenure is a continuous variable that was measured in years.

Marker Variables

Perceived Price Unfairness in National Brands

The measurement of the marker variable, private label branding, followed the recommendation of Sinha and Batra (1999) to assess employees' Perceived Price Unfairness in National Brands, this item was rated on a five-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The scale was measured using 3-items, and a sample item was "the price of national brands of food products are "rip- offs" (Sinha & Batra, 1999).

Attention Check Items. According to Berinsky et al. (2014), a "good survey and experimental research require subjects to pay attention to questions and treatments; unfortunately," many respondents do not (p. 739). Attention is best assessed using several "screener" questions and "identifying careless responses in survey data;" therefore, utilizing screeners predicts the amount of cognitive effort respondents devote to their responses (Berinsky et al., 2014; Meade & Craig, 2012). In addition, they can achieve both internal and external validity by reporting results based on various levels of attention (Berinsky et al., 2014; Meade & Craig, 2012). To identify careless responses provided by respondents, three attention check questions were intentionally distributed throughout the survey, checking responders' attention, called "instructed response" items (Meade & Craig, 2012). The attention check items utilized in this study were adapted from Berinsky et al. (2016) to complement the context of the other survey questions and are presented below.

The following attention check items were utilized throughout the full survey questionnaire:

Attention Check Items

1. Differences in how people feel, their previous knowledge and experience, and their environment can affect choices. To help us understand how people make decisions, we are interested in whether you actually take the time to read the directions. To show that you have read the instructions, please select "1" as your response.

2. Most modern theories of decision-making recognize that decisions do not take place in a vacuum. Individual preferences and knowledge, along with situational variables, can greatly impact the decision process. To demonstrate that you've read this much, please select "3" as your response.

3. People are very busy these days, and many do not have time to follow what goes on in the workplace. Some do pay attention but do not read questions carefully. To show that you've read this much, please select "5" as your response.

Table 6 represents a summary of the measures presented in the dissertation research model, and Table 7 represents the controls and marker variables used for this dissertation.

Table 3: Screener Descriptives (A)

Initial Invitations	Participants who accessed survey	Responded "No" to consent	Responded "No" to mentor	Responded "Attention Items" incorrectly	Didn't complete survey	Survey sample of dissertation
2,951	2,408	70	1002	905	278	228

Table 4: Screener Descriptives (B)

Screener Questions (N = 228)	Responded Yes	Responded No	Total Responses
Do you have an individual (i.e., a mentor) you rely on for career advice?	228	0	228
Is this person in your current organization?	149	79	228
Is this person your direct supervisor?	105	123	228
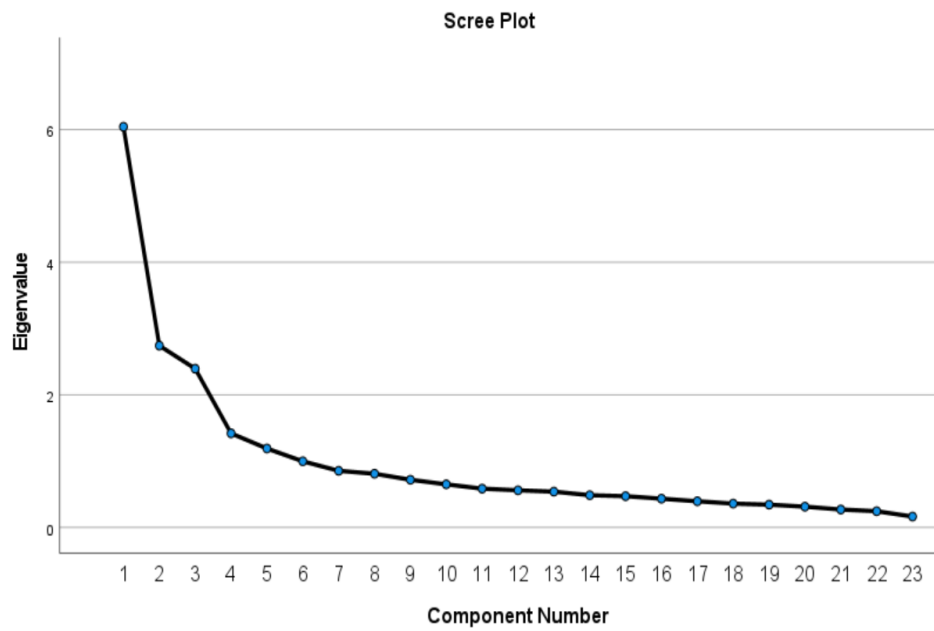
Figure 4: Exploratory Factory Analysis Screen Plot

Table 5: Exploratory Factory Analysis Factor Loadings

| | | Factor loadings | | | |
		1	2	3	Communalities
Mentorship	Q1		.525		.401
Mentorship	Q2		.588		.411
Mentorship	Q3		.671		.520
Mentorship	Q4		.553		.348
Mentorship	Q5		.510		.341
Mentorship	Q6		------		.363
Mentorship	Q6		.566		.328
Mentorship	Q7		.684		.477
Resilience	Q1			------	.384
Resilience2 Recoded	Q2			.738	.489
Resilience	Q3			------	.397
Resilience4 Recoded	Q4			.782	.549
Resilience	Q5			------	.272
Resilience6 Recoded	Q6			.831	.602
Justice	Q1	.791			.665
Justice	Q2	.851			.676
Justice	Q3	.875			.748
Justice	Q4	------			.306
Justice	Q5	------			.382
Justice	Q6	.630			.515
Justice	Q7	.666			.547
Justice	Q8	.540			.429
Justice	Q9	.624			.485

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood

Table 6: Model Measurement

Measure	Variable	Reference
Resilience	Dependent Variable	Smith, B. W., Dalen, J., Wiggins, K., Tooley, E., Christopher, P., & Bernard, J. (2008). The brief resilience scale: assessing the ability to bounce back. International journal of behavioral medicine, 15(3), 194-200.
Perceptions of Interactional Justice	Independent Variables Psychosocial Mentorship	Colquitt, Jason A, (2001). On the Dimensionality of Organizational Justice: A Construct Validation of a Measure. Journal of applied psychology, Vol. 86 (3), 386-400 Dreher, George F; Ash, Ronald A (Dreher & Ash, 1990). A Comparative Study of Mentoring Among Men and Women in Managerial, Professional, and Technical Positions. Journal of Applied Psychology,1990 -10, Vol.75(5), p.539 -546 (Allen & Eby, 2008). Mentor commitment in formal mentoring relationships. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 72 (2008) 309 -316
Gender (Female Status	Moderator	
Race (Minority Status)	Moderator	Collins, P. M., Kamya, H. A., & Tourse, R. W. (1997). Questions of racial diversity and mentorship: An empirical exploration. Social Work, 42(2), 145-152.

Table 7: List of Control Variables and Marker Variable

Control Variables
Mentor Gender
Mentor Gender
Organization Tenure
Marker Variable
Perceived Price unfairness in National Brands

Test of the Research Model

Prior to conducting tests on the hypothesized model, data diagnostic methods were performed to determine the normality of the data, detect multicollinearity, and identify outliers. Several theorists have claimed that the effects of some dependent variables are influenced by the interaction of two or more variables (Allison, 1977; Blalock, 1965). To identify the intricate relationships and theoretical linkages between the independent and dependent variables, it required sufficient explanation (Andersson et al., 2020). Because my research model has two moderating variables (gender and race), I created the following interaction term for my

hypothesis: The Perceptions of Interactional Justice *Gender, The Perceptions of Interactional Justice *Race, Psychosocial Mentorship*Gender, and Psychosocial Mentorship *Race. Prior to creating the interaction variables, the moderators were z-scored (Hair, Black, Babin, et al., 1998; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011).

The descriptive statistics were obtained, and a normality test was conducted to assess the distribution of the data, specifically examining the skewness and kurtosis values of both the independent variables (perceptions of interactional justice and psychosocial mentorship) and the dependent variable (resilience). For all three variables, the results validated the normal distribution of the data.

Additionally, I examined the variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance scores for multicollinearity. All VIF values for Model 1, Model 2, and Model 3 were below ten, and all tolerance values were over 0.30 (Hair et al., 2011). However, for Model 4, which included the interaction terms along with the main effects, the VIF shows that multicollinearity may be present for psychosocial mentorship (VIF = 16.629) and perceptions of interactional justice (VIF = 18.463) since the values are greater than 10 and tolerance values are less than 0.10. However, according to Regorz, (2020), if VIF values are above 10 the collinearity diagnostics should be analyzed for further review to see if values greater than .90 are in the same row, then there could be an issue with collinearity between the predictors that have high values. This indicates there is no substantial multicollinearity present in the data for this dissertation.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Mentor's Gender	1.47	0.50									
2	Mentors' Race	1.43	.496	.43**								
3	Mentee Tenure	7.69	6.63	-.11	-.04							
4	Marker Variable	3.89	1.09	.16*	.10	-.02						
5	Percepts of Int Justice	4.42	.656	-.03	.004	.02	.003					
6	Psychosocial Mentorship	4.03	.748	-.08	.04	.003	.11	.32**				
7	Mentee Gender	1.57	.496	.73**	.47**	-.20**	.25**	-.10	-.07			
8	Mentee Race	1.52	.050	.64**	.59**	-.16*	.20**	-.11	-.01	.72**		
9	Resilience	3.41	1.13	.14*	.17*	.007	-.26**	.18**	.04	.003	.13	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)

Descriptive statistics and correlations for each of the variables included in the research study are shown in Table 8. An examination of those correlations indicated some interesting results. Findings indicate there are some significant correlations among some of the variables. For instance, there were very high correlations .73 between the mentee gender and the mentor gender. In a review of the analyses, it was revealed that almost all mentees—109 women of color—reported having had a mentor (90 women) that was of the same gender. Similarly, for the mentee race, most reported having a mentor of the same race .59; analyses revealed that 78 out of 109 women of color mentees identified as having a mentor who was of minority status. This is consistent with prior mentorship literature on cross-race and cross-gender mentoring. According to Hunt and Michael (1983), they claim that women do not necessarily identify with male mentors, making it difficult for them to obtain mentoring benefits from male mentors. The authors assert that the mentor-mentee gender perceptions could have an impact on their conceptions regarding their respective roles (Hunt & Michael, 1983). According to a study by Randel et al., (2021) on the identity functions of mentorship and diversity, they found that if organizations plan to become more equitable and inclusive, cross-race and cross-gender mentors

are a dire need. The authors posit that cross-race, cross-gender advocacy is one way to help

people of color accomplish their career goals because Caucasian males are the majority within

organization leadership and have power and access to major networks that can assist women and

people of color (Randel et al., 2021).

Test of the Hypotheses

A hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis was performed to test the hypothesis.

The examination of the variables was done to analyze the link between the two independent

variables in the research model and the dependent variable. Specifically, the study assessed the

change in the independent variables, the perceptions of interactional justice and psychosocial

mentorship, to evaluate how these relationships influenced the dependent variable, resilience,

while also considering the impact of other variables (Hair et al., 2018). Additionally, the study

sought to explain the significance and variability of change at each stage of the model

(Guimaraes, et al., 1992). A summary of the regression results for each of the models is shown in

Table 9.

Model 1

Model 1 tested all control variables (Mentor Gender, Mentor Race, Mentee Tenure,

Marker variable) in this research study was significant, $p < .001$, with an adjusted $R^2 = .104$

explaining 10.4% of the variance in resilience. In addition, the marker variable was significant (β

$= -0.295$, $p < .001$).

Model 2

Model 2 contained all the control variables from Model 1 and the independent variables

Perceptions of Interactional Justice and Psychosocial Mentorship. As shown in Table 9. The

Model had an ΔR^2 = .034. The adjusted R^2 for model 2 was .131, indicating that the model explained 13.1% of the variance in resilience.

The results suggest that perceptions of interactional justice significantly predicted resiliency (β = 0.174, p = .008), supporting H1.

Model 3

Model 3 contained all the control variables from Model 1, the independent variables from Model 2, and the moderating variables, Mentee Gender, and Mentee Race. The adjusted R^2 for Model 3 was 0.146, indicating that the model explained 14.6% of the variance in resilience.

Model 4

Model 4 contained all the control variables from Model 1, the independent variables from Model 2, the moderators from Model 3, and the interaction terms, The Perceptions of Interactional Justice X Gender, The Perceptions of Interactional Justice X Race, Psychosocial Mentorship X Gender, and Psychosocial Mentorship X Race. The ΔR^2 = .021 and the adjusted R^2 for Model 4 was .153, indicating that the model explained 15.3% of the variance in resilience.

The results indicated that none of the interaction variables had statistical significance. As proposed in hypothesis 3 (H3), the hypothesis was not supported.

As proposed in hypothesis 4 (H4) gender will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience, such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is female. However, the model did not provide support for this relationship. Hence, this hypothesis was not supported.

As proposed in hypothesis 5 (H5) race will moderate the relationship between the perception of interactional justice and resilience, such that the positive relationship will be

weaker when the respondent is a minority. However, the model failed to provide support for this relationship. Hence, this hypothesis was not supported.

Lastly, as proposed in hypothesis 6 (H6) race will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience, such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority. The hypothesized relationship was not supported. As shown in Table 9, only hypothesis 1 (H1) was supported.

Meanwhile, hypotheses 2 through 6 in this research study did not receive evidence of support.

Table 9: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Construct	Model 1 Controls	Model 2 Main Effects	Model 3 Moderators	Model 4 Interaction Effect
Dependent Variable:				
Resilience				
Step 1: Controls:				
Mentor Gender	.128	**.139***	**.202***	**.204***
Mentor Race	**.145***	**.139***	.117	.101
Mentee Tenure	.020	.016	.002	-.003
Marker Variable	-.295***	-.300***	-.282***	-.272***
Step 2: Independent Variables:				
Psychosocial Mentorship		.026	.015	-.400
Perceptions of Interactional Justice		**.174***	**.177***	**.604***
Step 3: Moderators				
Mentee Gender			**-.240***	**-.247***
Mentee Race			.179	.191
Step 4: Interaction Effects				
Psychosocial Mentorship X Gender				-.253
Perceptions of Interactional Justice X Gender				-.034
Psychosocial Mentorship X Race				-.178
Perceptions of Interactional Justice X Race	.			.447
R^2	.120	.153	.177	.198
Adjusted R^2	.104	.131	.146	.153
ΔR^2	-	.034	.023	.021
F	7.58***	6.68***	5.87***	4.42***
ΔF	-	4.42*	3.07*	1.43

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level or less.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level or less.

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level or less.

Table 10: Summary of Hypothesis Tests

H1	Perceptions of interactional justice are positively associated with Resilience.	Supported
H2	Psychosocial mentorship is positively associated with Resilience.	Not Supported
H3	Status as a female will moderate the relationship between the perception of interactional justice and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a female.	Not Supported
H4	Status as a female will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a female.	Not Supported
H5	Status as a minority will moderate the relationship between the perception of interactional justice and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority.	Not Supported
H6	Status as a minority will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority.	Not Supported

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION

This chapter provides an overview of the dissertation research study. A general discussion of the research findings, contributions to the literature, limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and a conclusion.

Overview

For some time now, despite the growing population of diversity in the United States workplace, women and minorities have continued to face challenges in their work environments that impact their well-being and working relationships (Prilleltensky, 2012; Roberson, 2019). In recent years, there has been a growing interest among academic scholars and practitioners regarding employee resilience due to the adverse nature of organizational climate. As a result, Organizational Justice Theory was applied as the theoretical framework for this dissertation to assess employees' perceptions regarding the fairness of their managers' actions as it relates to policies, procedures, and interpersonal relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2007). This research study focused on investigating the relationships between the perceptions of interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal dimension), psychosocial mentorship, and employee resilience for women of color in the United States workplace.

Findings

This dissertation explored Organizational Justice Theory as a theoretical framework. So far, existing literature on justice and mentorship has primarily focused on work-related outcomes such as job performance (Greenberg, 1986), job satisfaction (Al-Zu'bi, 2010; Fryxell, 1989), employee turnover (Aquino et al., 1997; Parker, 2005), workplace conflict (Judge & Colquitt, 2004), and career advancement (Scandura, 1997), to determine employee perceptions of fair treatment in their work settings. Furthermore, both concepts of justice and mentorship have been

investigated for organizational development, with less attention given to psychological resource capabilities (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019). This dissertation fills a gap in the field of management and organizational behavior literature. Hence, extending organization justice theory, I empirically examine the perceptions of interpersonal justice and psychosocial mentorship collectively to understand their impact on women of color's capacity to develop resilience. The data collected for this dissertation measured employees' perceptions of interactional justice and psychosocial mentorship and provided support for only one of the six hypotheses proposed in the research model.

Hypothesis 1 suggests that the perception of interactional justice is positively associated with resilience. The results of the study revealed that there is a significant correlation between individuals' perceptions of interactional justice, specifically the interpersonal dimension, and high levels of resilience. Prior literature asserts that justice in the workplace defines the fundamental nature of interpersonal interactions between employees and their managers, which leads to valuable outcomes (Ledimo, 2015). According to Whitman et al. (2012: p. 777), "In this sense, supervisors who treat subordinates in a fair manner send a signal that they can be trusted, thus eliminating employee fears of exploitation." This aligns with the fairness heuristic theory, which suggests that fair treatment influences a person's justice judgement, creating positive thoughts that can influence organizational and social behavior towards favorable outcomes (Lind, 2001). Consistent with the current literature, these findings indicate that employees who perceive fairness (i.e., dignity, respect, and politeness), as well as having positive interactions with colleagues and managers, are more inclined to thrive when facing difficulties.

Hypothesis 2 proposes that psychosocial mentorship is positively associated with resilience. While most literature on mentorship suggests that interpersonal relationships and

developmental activities are linked to attaining positive work-related outcomes such as burnout (Van Emmerik, 2004) and emotional support (Kram, 1983), the results of this study did not find evidence to support the idea that having a mentor was correlated with high levels of resilience. In general, psychosocial mentoring functionality provides benefits to the mentee. A possible reason this hypothesis did not find support could be a disruption in the mentoring process. According to Kram (1983), mentorship is a linear process consisting of five distinct developmental stages, and if there is a disruption prematurely, it can have an adverse effect on desired mentorship outcomes. For instance, there could be factors that influenced the observed failure in interpersonal exchanges, like the form of mentorship or relationship quality (i.e., formal or informal). This aligns with the theory of high-quality connections, which contends that interpersonal working relationships can be life-changing when all parties are participating equally and in a mutual agreement regarding expectations and outcomes (Dutton & Heapy, 2003).

Moreover, due to the biases and difficulties that females experience at work, it was hypothesized (H3 and H4) that female employees could benefit more from perceptions of interactional justice climate and psychosocial mentorship.

Hypothesis 3 asserts that gender will moderate the relationship between the perception of interactional justice and resilience, such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the employee is a woman. On the contrary, the data did not support the findings in this research. The results imply there are gender differences in the level of resilience ($\beta = -.240$, $p < .05$). Sadly, women are still experiencing gender inequalities and disparities in the workplace. Research on gender has asserted that there are gender differences in social behaviors based on genetic traits and societal expectations (Eagly, 2013; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Women tend to place higher

importance on fair treatment and respectful communication in their interactions (Gilligan,1977). Although in the past decade there have been some advancements in the workplace for women, researchers have discovered that intercultural conflict persists amongst individuals, with gender playing a critical role (Chua, R., & Jin, M., 2020).

Existing research posits that "justice defines the very essence of individuals relationships with employers; it's a sense of moral propriety in how they are treated—it is the "glue" that allows people to work together effectively." Cropanzano et al. (2007: p. 34). Unfortunately, there are some organizations that have failed to acknowledge this. Therefore, it is possible that the reason this hypothesis is not supported is due to the imbalance of the way in which DEI has been implemented. The emphasis on increasing awareness of racial barriers may have resulted in the marginalization of women in the workplace. As a result, there are increasing injustices and decreasing levels of resilience.

Hypothesis 4 suggests that being a female will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience, such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the employee is a woman. This focuses on whether females can bounce back when facing difficulties at work, even when the odds are against them. Previous research has shown that mentoring serves as an effective strategy for females seeking positive results (Singh & Vanka, 2020). In analyzing the moderation effect of gender on psychosocial mentoring and resilience, the findings of the study revealed a negative correlation with gender; thus, the results of this study were not supported for hypotheses 4. As mentioned earlier, women make up 47% of the U.S. workforce, yet 40% have stated that they have been subjected to some form of gender discomfort at work (Hebl et al., 2020). Hence, one possibility for the hypothesis not holding true could be based on the type of relational exchange.

Since COVID, mega events such as #BlackLivesMatter have shifted the dynamics of society and the workplace, impacting the way individuals interact with one another. There has been a lot of focus on DEI initiatives, which have been great for bringing awareness to inequalities. However, the result of my study indicates there has been a shift that shows small improvements for racial minorities and not as much for women. This could suggest that women are still encountering the glass ceiling. If women are not receiving adequate support, I suspect this could impact their abilities to develop resilience.

Furthermore, due to disparities and challenges that minorities encounter at work, perceptions of interactional justice and psychosocial mentorship were hypothesized (H5 and H6), that they would be more beneficial for minority employees.

This dissertation examined employees' perceptions' regarding their interpersonal interactions with co-workers and managers in work settings. According to justice theory, employees will often act and behave according to the way they perceive fairness (Ando & Matsuda, 2010). Research has indicated that, in spite of employment laws and policies forbidding workplace discrimination, the issue remains relevant for racial minorities (Hebl et al., 2020; Triana et al., 2015). As such, Hypothesis 5 proposes that the status as a minority will moderate the relationship between the perception of interactional justice and resilience, such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority. However, the results did not support hypothesis 5. A possible reason for the research results could be the push for a more inclusive work culture. That is, organizations are urged to hire and promote based on qualifications and not just through social networks. Additionally, as mentioned previously, provide developmental training on diversity initiatives in the workplace. Where individuals are becoming more aware of implicit biases and unjust behaviors. Moreover, according to Rigney

(2010: p.1), "sometimes, though rarely, we find initial disadvantages do not always lead to further disadvantages.

    This dissertation analyzed employees' perceptions regarding their experiences with psychosocial functionality at work. Research on mentoring has described it as dyadic relationships that foster social support across personal, interpersonal, and organizational domains (Collins et al., 1997). Moreover, it is determined that the nature of the interpersonal connection is what produces significant mentorship results (Carter & Youssef-Morgan, 2019). For decades, racial minorities have struggled to obtain or maintain such relationships. As such, Hypothesis 6 asserts that status as a minority will moderate the relationship between psychosocial mentorship (i.e., having a mentor) and resilience, such that the positive relationship will be weaker when the respondent is a minority. In contrast, the results for hypothesis 6 did not support a weaker association between minorities who engage in psychosocial processes and their capacity to bounce back and thrive in the workplace when cumulative advances widen disparity gaps.

    Despite the realities that racial minorities encounter, a few factors could have contributed to the stronger effects of the relationships in hypothesis 6. The analyses revealed that 78 out of 109 minority mentees identified as having a mentor who is of minority status. Likewise, 90 out of 109 mentees reported having a mentor who was of the same gender. This could be due to the same-race, same-gender mentor relationships. Previous literature on interpersonal attraction suggests that individuals tend to respond positively and have a stronger connection with those with whom they share commonality (Byrne & Griffitt, 1973; Collins et al., 1997). Moreover, future research could perform a comprehensive analysis across racial and gender constructs to verify the methodological impact of these relationships. Additionally, as mentioned earlier, minorities may be satisfied with embracing their own authenticity. According to Brady et al.,

(2022: p.33), "a person's authenticity is their competitive advantage." Accordingly, it is possible that the benefits some people are acquiring at work may not be having an adverse effect on all minorities in the workplace.

Therefore, while most of the hypotheses were not supported, it is worth noting that empirically, the results of this dissertation research support the importance of gender and race, organizational justice, psychosocial mentorship, and employee resilience.

Contributions

This study contributes to the existing literature offering insight from both a theoretical and methodological viewpoint as it relates to the organizational justice theory, psychosocial mentorship, and employee resilience by examining interpersonal interactions and perceived treatment for women and minorities in organizations. First, as mentioned earlier, this dissertation examined organizational justice theory as the framework for exploring these relationships for the variables in the conceptual model. Moreover, this research study contributes to organizational justice theory by going beyond an approach of increasing employee performance, retention, and motivation. Thus, this dissertation presents a theoretical framework that offers a different outcome by integrating perceptions of interactional justice, psychosocial mentorship, and employee resilience which has been lacking in extant literature. This study gains the perspective of women of color empirically regarding interpersonal interactions and workplace challenges as well as strategies to develop in helping overcome such difficulties. In doing so, the research findings revealed there is a positive association that exists between employee's perceptions of interactional (interpersonal dimension) justice and employee resilience. Indicating that when individuals experience justice, they are better able to thrive in difficult work environments.

A second contribution of this dissertation is that this research study contributes to extant literature by filing the gap methodologically by examining the moderating effect of gender and race. Previous literature typically includes gender and race as controls (Nkomo, 1992; Schulz et al., 2019). We first acknowledge that race and gender are separate social constructs with distinct origins and outcomes by analyzing women of color unique experiences and not just solely controlling for gender and race together. This study assesses the effects of psychosocial mentorship (i.e., role modeling, acceptance, validation, counseling, and friendship) and interactional justice (i.e., dignity, respect, and politeness) have on women of color's ability to develop resilience when experiencing distress. The study investigated the demographic data set and facets that influence various organizational outcomes that measure employee's experiences in the workplace. More specifically, perceived interactional justice and psychosocial mentorship were measured to understand gender and race influence on organizational outcomes.

Finally, this study contributes by extending the research of Leigh and Melwani (2019), which points out how the impact of adverse societal mega-events effect minorities work-related behaviors and encounters. Particularly, how positive connections, interventions, and leadership compassion strengthen organizational outcomes. The authors posit that mega-threats are relevant events that happen to minority employees that are stress related occurrences that highlight the discrimination and trauma minorities often encounter at work and society. The authors further suggest, if these occurrences are not addressed, they can cause psychological issues for minorities that can have an adverse effect on them and organization (Leigh and Melwani, 2019). This dissertation contributes to their work by exploring the challenges women of color encounter and their perceptions of justice climates within organizations where they work. This dissertation offers organizational justice theory as a framework to measure organizational outcomes. The

existing theory (i.e., mega-threat) captures adversities minorities experience within society that can manifest into the workplace (Leigh and Melwa, 2019). However, this theory accounts for events that take place in the community context (Tilcsik & Marquis, 2013), which fails to address the various challenges minorities encounter in the context of the workplace. Thus, organizational justice theory captures outcomes as it relates to organizational context. This dissertation empirically examines the difficulties women of color face while at work and how it influences their perceptions of interactional (interpersonal) justice and how psychosocial mentorship toward obtaining resilience. Specifically, the interpersonal encounters with coworkers and managers.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This research study has some limitations. First, the limitations of the study pertain to the recruitment of participants via the Qualtrics platform. The utilization of a web-based survey platform can provide some advantages, such as a fast and convenient way to collect survey data. However, some limitations could exist within the measurement of variables as it relies on self-reported data on participants' normative behavior. This could potentially introduce social desirability bias and the possibility of common method variance that could lead to measurement errors that impact research findings (Aguinis et al., 2018; Christensen et al., 2004).

Furthermore, the utilization of web-based survey platforms could limit the sample quality of respondents as well as present self-selection bias, which can impact reliability the of survey results (Bethlehem, 2010). This happens when individuals have complete liberty in determining whether they want to participate in the research study or not (Bethlehem, 2010). However, for this dissertation, several methods were applied to minimize this possibility, such as including

screener questions, incorporating various attention check item questions throughout the survey, and setting a minimum duration criterion for survey completion.

Secondly, a limitation of this research study was that the control variables were highly significant. In addition, the marker variable was highly correlated with some of the variables within the research model. The results of my study revealed a correlation of -.26 between the marker variable and the dependent variable, resilience. The results also revealed a correlation of .16 between the control variable (mentor gender) and the marker variable. Likewise, there was a correlation between the marker variable and the moderators, mentee gender, which was -.25, and mentee race, which was -.20. These results suggest that there may be potential social desirability in participants' responses, which could have impacted the results of the research study. Moreover, there is a .59 correlation between the mentor race and the mentee race. It is possible that this only reflects mentee-race differences in resilience. Also, it is plausible that there exists an external variable, not accounted for in the model, that might explain these relationships as having positive affect. Thus, it is likely that the highly significant correlations could have impacted the overall findings of the study. To further explore this possibility, future research could examine any extraneous factors to gain a comprehensive understanding of the significant relationships between the marker variables and the associated variables in the study. Likewise, mentor gender is highly correlated with mentee gender at .73. Mentor gender is highly correlated with mentee race at.64. Moreover, as indicated in Model 3, the results show that mentee race is negatively related to resilience. However, mentee gender and race are positively correlated at .72. Again, it is possible a variable may be excluded from the model that explains these correlations. Future research might investigate external factors to obtain a thorough explanation of the high correlations between the variables. However, it is vital to acknowledge

that the existence of common method variance does not necessarily indicate the presence of common method bias (Doty & Glick, 1998). According to Doty & Glick (1998), even though there are incidences of common method bias, the effects on results and outcomes are not necessarily substantial.

The third limitation in the research study suggests a potential weakness of multicollinearity for psychosocial mentorship, which has a VIF value of 16.629, and perceptions of interactional justice, which have a VIF value of 18.463 and all the interaction terms. For this dissertation, a threshold value of 10 is considered acceptable. While the values exceed the cutoff of 10, implying a high degree of correlation amongst the variables, all variables were centered to reduce any methodological issues. In addition, to improve the understanding of the relationships involving the variables in the model, further research analysis could be performed. This can be accomplished by either collecting more data or examining other variables that may have influenced these relationships.

Moreover, there are three dimensions of justice that can determine one's perception of justice. In this dissertation, I focused only on interactional justice (interpersonal dimension), where I examined women of color perceptions regarding their abilities to obtain or maintain resilience in work settings. Future research could investigate other dimensions of justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, and informational) to analyze perceptions of justice and its impact on employee resilience, particularly for women and minorities. By exploring alternative components of justice, scholars and practitioners can understand how other facets of justice influence one's capacity to survive and thrive when faced with problematic situations.

Another limitation of the research was the study's exclusive focus on full-time employees within the United States. However, the perceptions of interactional justice, psychosocial

mentorship, and resilience may have different viewpoints and outcomes for part-time employees and for employees working in other countries. In addition, this research explored participants at various levels in their organizations and how mentorship impacted those relationships for women and minorities. Perhaps future research could explore the relationship between sponsorship and resilience for women in upper leadership and its impact on their ability to develop resilience. More specifically, exploring sponsorship, which is a form of mentorship that has been stated to be more beneficial for individuals working in c-suite positions within organizations. Additionally, future research should explore the effectiveness of sponsorship for women who are encountering gender challenges. More specifically, black women who have double minority status working in c-suite positions in organizations that are dominated by men may require different a form of mentoring support.

In this study, the relationship between psychosocial mentorship and resilience did not hold true. Future research should explore additional variables that may explain why the relationship might look different. For instance, consider formal versus informal mentorship. Mentoring is implied to be more effective if the mentor is at a higher level in the organization where they can share their network and provide greater benefits to their mentees (Baker and Muschallik, 2020). Prior research suggests that mentees who received informal mentoring perceived their mentors as more valuable and obtained more favorable outcomes compared to those in formal mentoring programs (Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

However, it is less likely for women and minorities to obtain mentors without structured programs. Hence, with the push for diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging in the workplace, future research should explore programs like employee resource groups to see how cross-race and cross-gender mentoring impact interpersonal relationships, justice, and resilience in

organizations. Finally, this research study could further extend our knowledge by examining the variables in the theoretical model using qualitative research methodology. In general, qualitative analysis is commonly used to assist scholars in obtaining a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon and to provide significance to a given data set (Anfara et al., 2002; Lester et al., 2020). Future researchers should perhaps conduct a mixed-methos analysis to also get the lived experiences of women of color through live interviews to achieve meaningful insights that are non-numerical. This methodology may provide different outcomes and results that quantitative analysis may not capture.

Finally, in the context of updating this research study, I would not have controlled the mentor's gender or race. The utilization of mentor gender and mentor race may have unintentionally created bias and limitations on the research results. By excluding them as control variables, this could allow the research to focus on factors that directly influence the desired outcome.

Conclusion

Diversity within the workplace requires additional attention as women and minorities face persistent challenges that impact their health and well-being. More recently, there has been an increase in scholars' interest in advancing organizational justice theory (Adamovic, 2023). Likewise, there has been rising interest from scholars and practitioners across various academic disciplines in the concept of employee resilience (Masten, 2018). In the workplace, gender and racial biases have been perceived as access and interpersonal barriers impacting women and minorities. Hence, acknowledging that such challenges and occurrences are taking place and, providing resources to address these social concerns is vital (Adamovic, 2023). As a result, this

involves an approach where diverse employees, such as women and minorities, feel they are part of the organization and have social support and trust in decision-making processes.

Therefore, this dissertation assessed employees' perceptions as it pertains to women of color's ability to successfully navigate stressful situations and recover through perceived justice and fostered resilience. The results from this dissertation revealed that an aspect of interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal dimension) significantly correlates with employee resilience. However, the data did not find support for the other five proposed hypotheses in my study. Although the findings of this dissertation do not provide evidence for the capacity to develop resilience in the mentoring relationship for women of color, there could be factors that influenced the observed failure in the interpersonal exchange. Therefore, the future research mentioned above should be considered methodologically and theoretically to explore and measure specific resources and interventions that women and minorities may need to overcome hardships at work. Additionally, eliminating justice-related problems toward creating an environment conducive to where everyone within the organization survives and thrives.

REFERENCES

Acker, J. (2006). Inequality regimes: Gender, class, and race in organizations. *Gender & Society, 20*(4), 441-464.

Adamovic, M. (2023). Organizational justice research: A review, synthesis, and research agenda. *European Management Review*.

Adams, J. S. (1963). Towards an understanding of inequity. *The journal of abnormal and social psychology, 67*(5), 422.

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). Elsevier.

Aguinis, H., Ramani, R. S., & Alabduljader, N. (2018). What you see is what you get? Enhancing methodological transparency in management research. *Academy of Management Annals, 12*(1), 83-110.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 50*(2), 179-211.

Allen, T. D., & Eby, L. T. (2003). Relationship Effectiveness for Mentors: Factors Associated with Learning and Quality. *Journal of management, 29*(4), 469-486. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(03)00021-7

Allen, T. D., & Eby, L. T. (2008). Mentor commitment in formal mentoring relationships. *Journal of vocational behavior, 72*(3), 309-316.

Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégeé: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology, 89*(1), 127-136.

Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology, 89*(1), 127.

Allen, T. D., Poteet, M. L., & Burroughs, S. M. (1997). The mentor's perspective: A qualitative inquiry and future research agenda. *Journal of vocational behavior, 51*(1), 70-89.

Ali, M., & French, E. (2019). Age diversity management and organisational outcomes: The role of diversity perspectives. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *29*(2), 287-307.

Allison, P. D. (1977). Testing for interaction in multiple regression. *American journal of sociology, 83*(1), 144-153.

Al-Zu'bi, H. A. (2010). A study of relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction. *International journal of business and management*, *5*(12), 102.

Ammerman, C., & Groysberg, B. (2021). *Glass half-broken: Shattering the barriers that still hold women back at work*. Harvard Business Press.

Anfara Jr, V. A., Brown, K. M., & Mangione, T. L. (2002). Qualitative analysis on stage: Making the research process more public. *Educational researcher*, *31*(7), 28-38.

Andersson, U., Cuervo-Cazurra, A., & Nielsen, B. B. (2020). Explaining interaction effects within and across levels of analysis. *Research methods in international business*, 331-349.

Ando, N., & Matsuda, S. (2010). How employees see their roles: The effect of interactional justice and gender. *Journal of Service Science and Management, 3*(02), 281.

Andrew M, C., & Ashleigh Shelby, R. (2011). Explaining bias against Black leaders: Integrating theory on information processing and goal-based stereotyping. *Academy of Management journal, 54*(6), 1141-1158. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.0745

Aquino, K., Griffeth, R. W., Allen, D. G., & Hom, P. W. (1997). Integrating justice constructs into the turnover process: A test of a referent cognitions model. *Academy of management Journal*, *40*(5), 1208-1227.

Arciniega, L. M., Stanley, L. J., Puga-Méndez, D., Obregón-Schael, D., & Politi-Salame, I. (2017). The Relationship between individual work values and unethical decision-making and behavior at work. *Journal of business ethics, 158*(4), 1133-1148. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3764-3

Arnold, K. A., & Loughlin, C. (2019). Continuing the conversation: Questioning the who, what, and when of leaning in. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 33*(1), 94-109.

Arora, R., & Rangnekar, S. (2014). Workplace mentoring and career resilience: An empirical test. *The Psychologist Manager Journal, 17*(3), 205-220. https://doi.org/10.1037/mgr0000021

Arora, R., & Rangnekar, S. (2015). Relationships between emotional stability, psychosocial mentoring support and career resilience. *Europe's journal of psychology, 11*(1), 16.

Aryee, S., & Chay, Y. W. (1994). An Examination of the Impact of Career-Oriented Mentoring on Work Commitment Attitudes and Career Satisfaction Among Professional and Managerial Employees 1. *British journal of management, 5*(4), 241-249.

Aryee, S., Walumbwa, F. O., Mondejar, R., & Chu, C. W. (2015). Accounting for the influence of overall justice on job performance: Integrating self-determination and social exchange theories. *Journal of management studies, 52*(2), 231-252.

Avent-Holt, D., & Tomaskovic-Devey, D. 2019. Organizations as the building blocks of social inequalities. *Sociology Compass*, 13(2): e12655.

Baer, M. D., Frank, E. L., Matta, F. K., Luciano, M. M., & Wellman, N. (2021). Undertrusted, overtrusted, or just right? The fairness of (in) congruence between trust wanted and trust received. *Academy of Management journal, 64*(1), 180-206.

Baer, M. D., Rodell, J. B., Dhensa-Kahlon, R. K., Colquitt, J. A., Zipay, K. P., Burgess, R., & Outlaw, R. (2018). Pacification or Aggravation? The Effects of talking about supervisor unfairness. *Academy of Management journal, 61*(5), 1764-1788. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2016.0630

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*.

Raabe, B., & Beehr, T. A. (2003). Formal mentoring versus supervisor and coworker relationships: Differences in perceptions and impact. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *24*(3), 271-293.

Balven, R., Fenters, V., Siegel, D. S., & Waldman, D. (2018). Academic entrepreneurship: The roles of identity, motivation, championing, education, work-life balance, and organizational justice. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 32*(1), 21-42.

Bandura, A. (1969). Social-learning theory of identificatory processes. *Handbook of socialization theory and research*, *213*, 262.

Bandura, A. (1971). Psychotherapy based upon modeling principles. *Handbook of psychotherapy and behavior change. New York: Wiley, 653*, 708.

Barrow, J. C. (1977). The variables of leadership: A review and conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review, 2*(2), 231-251.

Barsky, A., & Kaplan, S. A. (2007). If you feel bad, it's unfair: A quantitative synthesis of affect and organizational justice perceptions. *Journal of applied psychology, 92*(1), 286.

Baugh, S. G., Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. (1996). An investigation of the effects of protégé gender on responses to mentoring. *Journal of vocational behavior, 49*(3), 309-323.

Beal, F. M. (2008). Double jeopardy: To be Black and female. *Meridians, 8*(2), 166-176.

Bearman, S., Blake-Beard, S., Hunt, L., & Crosby, F. J. (2007). New directions in mentoring. *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach*, 375-395.

Beckman, C. M., & Stanko, T. L. (2020). It takes three: Relational Boundary work, resilience, and commitment among Navy couples. *Academy of Management Journal, 63*(2), 411-439. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2017.0653

Berinsky, A. J., Margolis, M. F., & Sances, M. W. (2014). Separating the shirkers from the workers? Making sure respondents pay attention on self-administered surveys. *American Journal of Political Science, 58*(3), 739-753.

Berinsky, A. J., Margolis, M. F., & Sances, M. W. (2016). Can we turn shirkers into workers? *Journal of experimental social psychology, 66*, 20-28.

Bernerth, J. B., & Aguinis, H. (2016). A critical review and best-practice recommendations for control variable usage. *Personnel psychology, 69*(1), 229-283.

Bethlehem, J. (2010). Selection bias in web surveys. *International statistical review*, *78*(2), 161-188.

Bianchi, E. C., & Brockner, J. (2012). In the eyes of the beholder? The role of dispositional trust in judgments of procedural and interactional fairness. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 118*(1), 46-59. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2011.12.005

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. F. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. *Research on negotiation in organizations, 1*, 43-55.

Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1987). Interactional fairness judgments: The influence of causal accounts. *Social justice research, 1*(2), 199-218.

Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1988). Voice and justification: Their influence on procedural fairness judgments. *Academy of Management journal, 31*(3), 676-685.

Blackstone, A. M. (2003). Gender roles and society, In J. M. Miller, R. M. Lerner, & L. B. Schiamberg (Eds.),. In *Human Ecology: An Encyclopedia of Children, Families, Communities, and Environment* (pp. 335-338).

Blaique, L., & Pinnington, A. H. (2021). Occupational commitment of women working in SET: The impact of coping self-efficacy and mentoring. *Human Resource Management Journal*.

Blake-Beard, S., Bayne, M. L., Crosby, F. J., & Muller, C. B. (2011). Matching by Race and gender in mentoring relationships: Keeping our eyes on the prize. *Journal of social issues, 67*(3), 622-643. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.2011.01717.x

Blakely, G. L., Andrews, M. C., & Moorman, R. H. (2005). The moderating effects of equity sensitivity on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 20*(2), 259-273.

Blalock Jr, H. M. (1965). Theory building and the statistical concept of interaction. *American Sociological Review*, 374-380.

Blau, P. M. (2017). *Exchange and power in social life*. Routledge.

Blumberg, R. L. (1984). A general theory of gender stratification. *Sociological theory*, 23-101.

Boardman, J. D., Blalock, C. L., & Button, T. M. (2008). Sex differences in the heritability of resilience. *Twin Research and Human Genetics, 11*(1), 12-27.

Bonanno, G. A. (2004). Loss, trauma, and human resilience: Have we underestimated the human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events? *The American psychologist, 59*(1), 20-28. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.59.1.20

Bono, J. E., Foldes, H. J., Vinson, G., & Muros, J. P. (2007). Workplace Emotions: The Role of Supervision and Leadership. *Journal of applied psychology, 92*(5), 1357-1367. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.5.1357

Brady, S. M., Foutty, J., & Wooten, L. P. 2022. ***Arrive and Thrive: 7 Impactful Practices for Women Navigating Leadership***: McGraw Hill Professional.

Brewer, M. B. (1991). The social self: On being the same and different at the same time. *Personality and social psychology bulletin, 17*(5), 475-482.

Brief, A. P., Dietz, J., Cohen, R. R., Pugh, S. D., & Vaslow, J. B. (2000). Just doing business: Modern racism and obedience to authority as explanations for employment discrimination. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 81*(1), 72-97.

Buckley, W. (1958). Social stratification and the functional theory of social differentiation. *American Sociological Review, 23*(4), 369-375.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. D. o. L. (2015). *Labor force projections to 2024: the labor force is growing, but slowly*. https://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2015/article/labor-force-projections-to-2024.htm#:~:text=December%202015-,Labor%20force%20projections%20to%202024%3A%20the%20labor%20force%20is%20growing,rate%20than%20in%20recent%20decades.

Burke, R. J., & McKeen, C. A. (1990). Mentoring in organizations: Implications for women. *Journal of business ethics, 9*, 317-332.

Byrne, D., & Griffitt, W. 1973. Interpersonal attraction. **Annual review of psychology**, 24(1): 317-336.

Caleo, S. (2016). Are organizational justice rules gendered? Reactions to men's and women's justice violations. *Journal of applied psychology, 101*(10), 1422.

Cameron, K., & Dutton, J. (2003). *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cameron, K. S., & Caza, A. (2004). Introduction: Contributions to the discipline of positive organizational scholarship. *American Behavioral Scientist, 47*(6), 731-739.

Camps, J., Graso, M., & Brebels, L. (2022). When Organizational Justice Enactment Is a Zero-Sum Game: A Trade-Offs and Self-Concept Maintenance Perspective. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 36*(1), 30-49.

Cappelli, P., & Novelli, B. (2010). *Managing the older worker: How to prepare for the new organizational order*. Harvard Business Press.

Cardon, M. S., Gregoire, D. A., Stevens, C. E., & Patel, P. C. (2013). Measuring entrepreneurial passion: Conceptual foundations and scale validation. *Journal of business venturing, 28*(3), 373-396.

Carmeli, A., Meitar, R., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Self-leadership skills and innovative behavior at work. *International journal of manpower*.

Carroll, S. J., Feren, D. B., & Olian, J. D. (1987). Reactions to the new minorities by employees of the future: An experimental study. *Psychological Reports, 60*(3), 911-920.

Carter, J. W., & Youssef-Morgan, C. M. (2019). The positive psychology of mentoring: A longitudinal analysis of psychological capital development and performance in a formal mentoring program. *Human resource development quarterly, 30*(3), 383-405.

Catalyst. (2020a). *CEOs in underrepresented groups*. https://www.catalyst.org/research/ceos-underrepresented-groups

Catalyst. (2020b). *Women in the US workforce.* https://www.catalyst.org/research/women-in-the-workforce-united-states/

Ceci, S. J., & Papierno, P. B. (2005). The rhetoric and reality of gap closing: when the" have-nots" gain but the" haves" gain even more. *American psychologist, 60*(2), 149.

Chaney, K. E., Sanchez, D. T., & Remedios, J. D. (2021). Dual cues: Women of color anticipate both gender and racial bias in the face of a single identity cue. *Group processes & intergroup relations, 24*(7), 1095-1113.

Chao, G. T., Walz, P., & Gardner, P. D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel psychology, 45*(3), 619-636.

Christensen, P. N., Rothgerber, H., Wood, W., & Matz, D. C. (2004). Social norms and identity relevance: A motivational approach to normative behavior. *Personality and social psychology bulletin, 30*(10), 1295-1309.

Chrobot-Mason, D., Hoobler, J. M., & Burno, J. (2019). Lean In versus the literature: An evidence-based examination. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 33*(1), 110-130.

Chua, R., & Jin, M. (2020). Across the great divides: Gender dynamics influence how intercultural conflict helps or hurts creative collaboration. *Academy of Management Journal*, *63*(3), 903-934.

Chun, J. U., Sosik, J. J., & Yun, N. Y. (2012). A longitudinal study of mentor and protégé outcomes in formal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*(8), 1071-1094.

Clark, S. M., & Corcoran, M. (1986). Perspectives on the professional socialization of women faculty: A case of accumulative disadvantage? *The Journal of Higher Education, 57*(1), 20-43.

Clauss-Ehlers, C. S. (2008). Sociocultural factors, resilience, and coping: Support for a culturally sensitive measure of resilience. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 29*(3), 197-212.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 86*(2), 278-321.

Cohen, J. R., Dalton, D. W., Holder-Webb, L. L., & McMillan, J. J. (2020). An analysis of glass ceiling perceptions in the accounting profession. *Journal of business ethics, 164*(1), 17-38.

COHEN, S. (1984). Social support, stress and the buffering hypothesis: A theoretical analysis. *Handbook of Psychology & Health, 4*, 253-267.

Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological bulletin, 98*(2), 310.

Collins, P. M., Kamya, H. A., & Tourse, R. W. (1997). Questions of racial diversity and mentorship: An empirical exploration. *Social Work, 42*(2), 145-152.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the Dimensionality of Organizational Justice: A Construct Validation of a Measure. *Journal of applied psychology, 86*(3), 386-400. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386

Colquitt, J. A. (2012). Organizational justice. In S. W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), *The Oxfrord Handbook of Organizational Psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 526-547). Oxford University Press.

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium : A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of applied psychology, 86*(3), 425-445.

Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2013). What is organizational justice? A historical overview. In *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 3-56). Psychology Press.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Judge, T. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2006). Justice and personality: Using integrative theories to derive moderators of justice effects. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 100*(1), 110-127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.09.001

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., & Wesson, M. J. (2013). Justice at the Millennium, a Decade Later: A Meta-Analytic Test of Social Exchange and Affect-Based Perspectives. *Journal of applied psychology, 98*(2), 199-236. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031757

Colquitt, J. A., & Zipay, K. P. (2015). Justice, fairness, and employee reactions. *Annual review of organizational psychology and organizational behavior, 2*(1), 75-99.

Comas-Diaz, L., & Greene, B. (2013). Psychological health of women of color: Intersections, challenges, and opportunities: Intersections, challenges, and opportunities.

Comas-Díaz, L., & Greene, B. (1994). Women of color with professional status. *Women of color: Integrating ethnic and gender identities in psychotherapy*, 347-388.

Cook, A., & Glass, C. (2013). Glass cliffs and organizational saviors: Barriers to minority leadership in work organizations? *Social Problems, 60*(2), 168-187.

Cook, A., & Glass, C. (2014). Above the glass ceiling: When are women and racial/ethnic minorities promoted to CEO? *Strategic Management Journal, 35*(7), 1080-1089. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.2161

Cooke, F. L., Wang, J., & Bartram, T. (2019). Can a supportive workplace impact employee resilience in a high pressure performance environment? An investigation of the Chinese banking industry. *Applied Psychology, 68*(4), 695-718.

Cooper, J. T., Stanley, L. J., Klein, H. J., & Tenhiälä, A. (2016). Profiles of commitment in standard and fixed-term employment arrangements: Implications for work outcomes. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 25*(1), 149-165.

Cortina, L. M. (2008). Unseen injustice: Incivility as modern discrimination in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 33*(1), 55-75.

Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: incidence and impact. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 6*(1), 64.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *psychometrika, 16*(3), 297-334.

Cropanzano, R., & Ambrose, M. L. (2015). The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace.

Cropanzano, R., Bowen, D. E., & Gilliland, S. W. (2007). The management of organizational justice. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 21*(4), 34-48.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of management, 31*(6), 874-900.

Cugueró-Escofet, N., & Fortin, M. (2014). One Justice or Two? A model of reconciliation of normative justice theories and empirical research on organizational justice. *Journal of business ethics, 124*(3), 435-451. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1881-1

Dachner, A. M., Ellingson, J. E., Noe, R. A., & Saxton, B. M. (2021). The future of employee development. *Human resource management review, 31*(2), 100732.

Davis, K., & Moore, W. E. (1945). Some principles of stratification. *American Sociological Review, 10*(2), 242-249.

de Leon, R. P., & Rosette, A. S. (2022). "Invisible" Discrimination: Divergent Outcomes for the Nonprototypicality of Black Women. *Academy of Management journal, 65*(3), 784-812.

Deanna, R., Merkle, B. G., Chun, K. P., Navarro-Rosenblatt, D., Baxter, I., Oleas, N., Bortolus, A., Geesink, P., Diele-Viegas, L., & Aschero, V. (2022). Community voices: the importance of diverse networks in academic mentoring. *Nature Communications, 13*(1), 1-7.

Deaux, K. (1985). Sex and gender. *Annual review of psychology, 36*(1), 49-81.

DeBlaere, C., Brewster, M. E., Bertsch, K. N., DeCarlo, A. L., Kegel, K. A., & Presseau, C. D. (2014). The protective power of collective action for sexual minority women of color: An investigation of multiple discrimination experiences and psychological distress. *Psychology of women quarterly, 38*(1), 20-32.

Deitch, E. A., Barsky, A., Butz, R. M., Chan, S., Brief, A. P., & Bradley, J. C. (2003). Subtle yet significant: The existence and impact of everyday racial discrimination in the workplace. *human relations, 56*(11), 1299-1324.

Dhanani, L. Y., & LaPalme, M. L. (2019). It's not personal: A review and theoretical integration of research on vicarious workplace mistreatment. *Journal of Management, 45*(6), 2322-2351. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318816162

DiPrete, T. A., & Eirich, G. M. (2006). Cumulative advantage as a mechanism for inequality: A review of theoretical and empirical developments. *Annu. Rev. Sociol., 32*, 271-297.

Doty, D. H., & Glick, W. H. (1998). Common methods bias: does common methods variance really bias results?. *Organizational research methods*, *1*(4), 374-406.

Dreher, G. F., & Ash, R. A. (1990). A Comparative Study of Mentoring Among Men and Women in Managerial, Professional, and Technical Positions. *Journal of applied psychology, 75*(5), 539-546. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.5.539

Dutton, J. E., & Heaphy, E. D. (2003). The power of high-quality connections. *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*, *3*, 263-278.

E. Baloochi, M. (2020). Resilience Does Matter: A Meta-Analysis of Trait Resilience Outcomes in the Organizational Setting. Academy of Management Proceedings,

Eagly, A. H. (1987). *Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation*Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological review, 109*(3), 573.

Eagly, A. H., Nater, C., Miller, D. I., Kaufmann, M., & Sczesny, S. (2020). Gender stereotypes have changed: A cross-temporal meta-analysis of US public opinion polls from 1946 to 2018. *American psychologist, 75*(3), 301.

Eagly, A. H., & Steffen, V. J. (1984). Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 46*(4), 735.

Eby, L. T., Allen, T. D., Evans, S. C., Ng, T., & DuBois, D. L. (2008). Does mentoring matter? A multidisciplinary meta-analysis comparing mentored and non-mentored individuals. *Journal of vocational behavior, 72*(2), 254-267.

Eby, L. T., Butts, M. M., Hoffman, B. J., & Sauer, J. B. (2015). Cross-Lagged Relations Between Mentoring Received From Supervisors and Employee OCBs: Disentangling Causal Direction and Identifying Boundary Conditions. *Journal of applied psychology, 100*(4), 1275-1285. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038628

Eby, L. T. d. T., Allen, T. D., Hoffman, B. J., Baranik, L. E., Sauer, J. B., Baldwin, S., Morrison, M. A., Kinkade, K. M., Maher, C. P., & Curtis, S. (2013). An interdisciplinary meta-analysis of the potential antecedents, correlates, and consequences of protégé perceptions of mentoring. *Psychological bulletin, 139*(2), 441.

Enayat, T., Ardebili, M. M., Kivi, R. R., Amjadi, B., & Jamali, Y. (2022). A Computational Approach to Homans Social Exchange Theory. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications, 597*, 127263.

Ensher, E. A., & Murphy, S. E. (1997). Effects of race, gender, perceived similarity, and contact on mentor relationships. *Journal of vocational behavior, 50*(3), 460-481.

Ensher, E. A., & Murphy, S. E. (2011). The Mentoring Relationship Challenges Scale: The impact of mentoring stage, type, and gender. *Journal of vocational behavior, 79*(1), 253-266. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.11.008

Epstein, S. (1980). The stability of behavior: II. Implications for psychological research. *American psychologist, 35*(9), 790.

Erskine, S. E., & Bilimoria, D. (2019). White Allyship of Afro-Diasporic Women in the Workplace: A Transformative Strategy for Organizational Change. *Journal of leadership organizational studies, 26*(3), 319-338. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051819848993

Essed, P. (1991). *Understanding everyday racism: An interdisciplinary theory* (Vol. 2). Sage.

Faul, F. (2020). *G*Power Software.* In (Version 3.1.9.7)

Fernández, R. (2013). Cultural Change as Learning: The Evolution of Female Labor Force Participation over a Century. *American Economic Review, 103*(1), 472-500. https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.103.1.472

Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *human relations, 7*(2), 117-140.

Folger, R., & Bies, R. J. (1989). Managerial responsibilities and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 2*(2), 79-90.

Fox, S., & Stallworth, L. E. (2005). Racial/ethnic bullying: Exploring links between bullying and racism in the US workplace. *Journal of vocational behavior, 66*(3), 438-456.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *The American psychologist, 56*(3), 218-226. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.3.218

Fredrickson, B. L., Tugade, M. M., Waugh, C. E., & Larkin, G. R. (2003). What good are positive emotions in crises? A prospective study of resilience and emotions following the terrorist attacks on the United States on september 11th, 2001. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 84*(2), 365-376.

Fryxell, G. E., & Gordon, M. E. (1989). Workplace justice and job satisfaction as predictors of satisfaction with union and management. *Academy of management Journal*, *32*(4), 851-866.

Funston, F., & Wagner, S. (2010). *Surviving and thriving in uncertainty: Creating risk intelligent enterprise*. John Wiley & Sons.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-Analytic review of leader–member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of applied psychology, 82*(6), 827.

Ghosh, R., & Reio Jr, T. G. (2013). Career benefits associated with mentoring for mentors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of vocational behavior, 83*(1), 106-116.

Giauque, D., Anderfuhren-Biget, S., & Varone, F. (2019). Stress and turnover intents in international organizations: social support and work–life balance as resources. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 30*(5), 879-901.

Gilligan, C. (1977). In a different voice: Women's conceptions of self and of morality. *Harvard educational review, 47*(4), 481-517.

Gilliland, S. W. (1993). The perceived fairness of selection systems: An organizational justice perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 18*(4), 694-734.

Godin, G., & Kok, G. (1996). The theory of planned behavior: a review of its applications to health-related behaviors. *American journal of health promotion, 11*(2), 87-98.

Graso, M., Reynolds, T., & Grover, S. L. (2020). Allegations of mistreatment in an era of harm avoidance: taboos, challenges, and implications for management. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 34*(1), 1-27.

Green, S. B., & Salkind, N. J. (2014). Using SPSS for windows and macintosh: Analyzing and understanding data [Kindle DX version]. *Retrieved from Amazon. com*.

Greenberg, J. (1986). Determinants of perceived fairness of performance evaluations. *Journal of applied psychology, 71*(2), 340.

Greenberg, J. (1987). A Taxonomy of Organizational Justice Theories. *The Academy of Management review, 12*(1), 9-22. https://doi.org/10.2307/257990

Greenberg, J., & Colquitt, J. A. (2013). How Should Organizational Justice Be Measured? In *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp. 134-173). Psychology Press. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203774847-12

Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates*.

Greenhaus, J. H., Parasuraman, S., & Wormley, W. M. (1990). Effects of race on organizational experiences, job performance evaluations, and career outcomes. *Academy of Management journal, 33*(1), 64-86.

Grissom, A. R. (2018). Workplace diversity and inclusion. *Reference & User Services Quarterly, 57*(4), 242-247.

Guan, A., Thomas, M., Vittinghoff, E., Bowleg, L., Mangurian, C., & Wesson, P. (2021). An investigation of quantitative methods for assessing intersectionality in health research: A systematic review. *SSM-population health*, *16*, 100977.

Guimaraes, T., Igbaria, M., & Lu, M. T. (1992). The determinants of DSS success: an integrated model. ***Decision Sciences***, *23*(2), 409-430.

Gündemir, S., Carton, A. M., & Homan, A. C. (2019). The impact of organizational performance on the emergence of Asian American leaders. *Journal of applied psychology, 104*(1), 107.

Guo, G. C., Al Ariss, A., & Brewster, C. (2020). Understanding the global refugee crisis: Managerial consequences and policy implications. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 34*(4), 531-545.

Guttman, L. (1954). Some necessary conditions for common-factor analysis. *psychometrika, 19*(2), 149-161.

Hall, E. V., Hall, A. V., Galinsky, A. D., & Phillips, K. W. (2019). MOSAIC: A Model of Stereotyping Through Associated and Intersectional Categories. *The Academy of Management review, 44*(3), 643-672. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2017.0109

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R., Tatham, R., & Black, W. (1998). Multivariate Data Analysis. NJ: Prentice-Hall, 3

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed, a silver bullet. Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 19(2), 139-152.

Hair, J. F.Jr., Black, W. C, Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E. (2018). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Annabel Ainscow.

Harrison, D. A., Newman, D. A., & Roth, P. L. (2006). How Important Are Job Attitudes? Meta-Analytic Comparisons of Integrative Behavioral Outcomes and Time Sequences. *Academy of Management journal, 49*(2), 305-325. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2006.20786077

Hartmann, S. (2018). The Power of We: The Effects of Mutuality and Team Reflexivity on Team Resilience in the Workplace. Academy of Management Proceedings,

Heaphy, E. D., Byron, K., Ballinger, G. A., Gittell, J. H., Leana, C., & Sluss, D. M. (2018). Introduction to special topic forum: The changing nature of work relationships. *Academy of Management Review, 43*(4), 558-569.

Heaphy, E. D., & Dutton, J. E. (2008). Positive social interactions and the human body at work: Linking organizations and physiology. *Academy of Management Review, 33*(1), 137-162.

Hebl, M., Cheng, S. K., & Ng, L. C. (2020). Modern discrimination in organizations. *Annual review of organizational psychology and organizational behavior, 7*, 257-282.

Heilman, M. E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. *Research in organizational behavior, 32*, 113-135.

Helms, J. E. (1994). The conceptualization of racial identity and other" racial" constructs. *Human diversity: Perspectives on people in context* 285–311.

Herrman, H., Stewart, D. E., Diaz-Granados, N., Berger, E. L., Jackson, B., & Yuen, T. (2011). What is resilience?. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, *56*(5), 258-265.

Hill, E. T., Matta, F. K., & Mitchell, M. S. (2021). Seeing the Glass as Half Full or Half Empty: The Role of Affect-Induced Optimistic and Pessimistic States on Justice Perceptions and Outcomes. *Academy of Management journal, 64*(4), 1265-1287. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2018.1282

Hillebrandt, A., & Barclay, L. J. (2013). Integrating organizational justice and affect: New insights, challenges, and opportunities. *Social Justice Research*, *26*, 513-531.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of general psychology, 6*(4), 307-324.

Hodge, R. W. (1973). Toward a theory of racial differences in employment. *Social Forces, 52*(1), 16-31.

Holder, A. M. B., Jackson, M. A., & Ponterotto, J. G. (2015). Racial Microaggression Experiences and Coping Strategies of Black Women in Corporate Leadership.

Qualitative psychology (Washington, D.C.), 2(2), 164-180.

https://doi.org/10.1037/qup0000024

Holtz, B. C., & Harold, C. M. (2013). Interpersonal justice and deviance: The moderating effects of interpersonal justice values and justice orientation. *Journal of management, 39*(2), 339-365.

Homans, G. C. (1961). Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms, Brace & World. *Inc.. New York^ eHarcourt Harcourt*.

Hu, Z., Li, J., & Kwan, H. K. (2022). The effects of negative mentoring experiences on mentor creativity: The roles of mentor ego depletion and traditionality. *Human Resource Management, 61*(1), 39-54.

Hunt, D. M., & Michael, C. (1983). Mentorship: A career training and development tool. *Academy of management Review*, *8*(3), 475-485.

Ibarra, H. (1992). Homophily and differential returns: Sex differences in network structure and access in an advertising firm. *Administrative science quarterly*, 422-447.

Ibarra, H. (1993). Personal networks of women and minorities in management: A conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review, 18*(1), 56-87.

Ibarra, H. (1995). Race, opportunity, and diversity of social circles in managerial networks. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(3), 673-703. https://doi.org/10.2307/256742

Ilgen, D. R., & Youtz, M. A. (1984). Factors Affecting the Evaluation and Development of Minorities in Organizations.

Ivey, G. W., & Dupré, K. E. (2022). Workplace mentorship: A critical review. *Journal of Career Development, 49*(3), 714-729.

Janssen, S., Tahitu, J., van Vuuren, M., & de Jong, M. D. (2018). Coworkers' perspectives on mentoring relationships. *Group & organization management, 43*(2), 245-272.

Janssen, S., Van Vuuren, M., & De Jong, M. D. (2016). Informal mentoring at work: A review and suggestions for future research. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 18*(4), 498-517.

Jepsen, D. M., & Rodwell, J. (2012). Female Perceptions of Organizational Justice. *Gender, work, and organization, 19*(6), 723-740. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0432.2010.00538.x

Jepsen, D. M., & Rodwell, J. (2012). Female perceptions of organizational justice. *Gender, Work & Organization, 19*(6), 723-740.

Jerald Greenberg, & Cohen, R. L. (1982). *Equity and Justice Social Behavior*. Academic Press INC.

Jeung, C. W. (2011). The concept of employee engagement: A comprehensive review from a positive organizational behavior perspective. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 24*(2), 49-69.

Johnson, L. N., & Thomas, K. M. (2012). A similar, marginal place in the academy: contextualizing the leadership strategies of black women in the United States and South Africa. *Advances in developing human resources, 14*(2), 156-171. https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422311436305

Jones, J. M. (1991). Psychological models of race: What have they been and what should they be?

Jones, M. K., Leath, S., Settles, I. H., Doty, D., & Conner, K. (2022). Gendered racism and depression among Black women: Examining the roles of social support and identity. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 28*(1), 39.

Jordan, S. L., Ferris, G. R., & Lamont, B. T. (2019). A framework for understanding the effects of past experiences on justice expectations and perceptions of human resource inclusion practices. *Human resource management review, 29*(3), 386-399.

Judge, T. A., & Colquitt, J. A. (2004). Organizational justice and stress: the mediating role of work-family conflict. *Journal of applied psychology, 89*(3), 395.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). Some effects of proportions on group life: Skewed sex ratios and responses to token women. *The American Journal Of Sociology, 82*(5), 965-990. https://doi.org/10.1086/226425

Kao, K.-Y., Rogers, A., Spitzmueller, C., Lin, M.-T., & Lin, C.-H. (2014). Who should serve as my mentor? The effects of mentor's gender and supervisory status on resilience in mentoring relationships. *Journal of vocational behavior, 85*(2), 191-203.

Katherine, G., & Mary, C. M. (2002). Leveling the playing field for women of color in corporate management: Is the business case enough? *Journal of business ethics, 37*(1), 103-119. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1014786313354

Kernan, M. C., & Hanges, P. J. (2002). Survivor reactions to reorganization: Antecedents and consequences of procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. *Journal of applied psychology, 87*(5), 916.

Kiang, L., Huynh, V. W., Cheah, C. S., Wang, Y., & Yoshikawa, H. (2017). Moving beyond the model minority. *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 8*(1), 1.

Kim, A., Moon, J., & Shin, J. (2019). Justice perceptions, perceived insider status, and gossip at work: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Business Research, 97*, 30-42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.12.038

Kim, M., Kim, A. C. H., Newman, J. I., Ferris, G. R., & Perrewé, P. L. (2019). The antecedents and consequences of positive organizational behavior: The role of psychological capital for promoting employee well-being in sport organizations. *Sport management review, 22*(1), 108-125.

Kim, Y., Jeong, S. S., Yiu, D. W., & Moon, J. (2020). Frequent CEO Turnover and firm performance: The resilience effect of workforce diversity. *Journal of business ethics, 173*(1), 185-203. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-020-04534-0

King, D. D., Fattoracci, E. S., Hollingsworth, D. W., Stahr, E., & Nelson, M. (2022). When thriving requires effortful surviving: Delineating manifestations and resource expenditure outcomes of microaggressions for Black employees. *Journal of applied psychology*.

King, D. D., Newman, A., & Luthans, F. (2016). Not if, but when we need resilience in the workplace. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37*(5), 782-786. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2063

King James, (1996). Life Application Study Bible King James Version. Tyndale House Publisher.

Koberg, C. S., Boss, R. W., Chappell, D., & Ringer, R. C. (1994). Correlates and consequences of protégé mentoring in a large hospital. *Group & organization management, 19*(2), 219-239.

Koch, A. J., D'Mello, S. D., & Sackett, P. R. (2015). A meta-analysis of gender stereotypes and bias in experimental simulations of employment decision making. *Journal of applied psychology, 100*(1), 128.

Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A. H., Mitchell, A. A., & Ristikari, T. (2011). Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms. *Psychological bulletin, 137*(4), 616.

Koopman, J., Lin, S.-H., Lennard, A. C., Matta, F. K., & Johnson, R. E. (2020). My coworkers are treated more fairly than me! a self-regulatory perspective on justice social comparisons. *Academy of Management Journal, 63*(3), 857-880. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2016.0586

Koopman, J., Scott, B. A., Matta, F. K., Conlon, D. E., & Dennerlein, T. (2019). Ethical leadership as a substitute for justice enactment: An information-processing perspective. *Journal of applied psychology, 104*(9), 1103.

Kossek, E. E., & Perrigino, M. B. (2016). Resilience: A review using a grounded integrated occupational approach. *The Academy of Management Annals, 10*(1), 729-797. https://doi.org/10.1080/19416520.2016.1159878

Kraimer, M. L., Greco, L., Seibert, S. E., & Sargent, L. D. (2019). An investigation of academic career success: The new tempo of academic life. *Academy of Management learning & education, 18*(2), 128-152.

Kraimer, M. L., Seibert, S. E., Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., & Bravo, J. (2011). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational support for development: The critical role of career opportunities. *Journal of applied psychology, 96*(3), 485-500. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021452

Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*(4), 608-625. https://doi.org/10.2307/255910

Kram, K. E. (1988). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. University Press of America.

Kram, K. E., & Isabella, L. A. (1985). Mentoring alternatives: The role of peer relationships in career development. *Academy of Management journal, 28*(1), 110-132.

Kropp, B., & McRae, E. R. (2022). 11 trends that will shape work in 2022 and beyond. *Harvard business review*. https://hbr.org/2022/01/11-trends-that-will-shape-work-in-2022-and-beyond

Lamm, K. W., Sapp, R., & Lamm, A. J. (2017). The Mentoring Experience: Leadership Development Program Perspectives. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, *58*(2), 20-34.

Lang, J., Bliese, P. D., Lang, J. W., & Adler, A. B. (2011). Work gets unfair for the depressed: cross-lagged relations between organizational justice perceptions and depressive symptoms. *Journal of applied psychology, 96*(3), 602.

Latané, B., & Wolf, S. (1981). The social impact of majorities and minorities. *Psychological review, 88*(5), 438.

Lee, C., & Farh, J. L. (1999). The effects of gender in organizational justice perception. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 20*(1), 133-143.

Leigh, A., & Desai, S. D. (2022). What's Race Got to Do with It? The Interactive Effect of Race and Gender on Negotiation Offers and Outcomes. *Organization Science*.

Leigh, A., & Melwani, S. (2019). # BlackEmployeesMatter: Mega-threats, identity fusion, and enacting positive deviance in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 44*(3), 564-591.

Leslie, L. M. (2019). Diversity initiative effectiveness: A typological theory of unintended consequences. *Academy of Management Review, 44*(3), 538-563.

Lester, J. N., Cho, Y., & Lochmiller, C. R. (2020). Learning to do qualitative data analysis: A starting point. *Human resource development review*, *19*(1), 94-106.

Leventhal, G. S., Karuza, J., & Fry, W. R. (1980). Beyond fairness: A theory of allocation preferences. *Justice and social interaction, 3*(1), 167-218.

Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgments as pivotal cognitions in organizational relations. *Advances in organizational justice*, *56*(8), 56-88.

Lindell, M. K., & Whitney, D. J. (2001). Accounting for common method variance in cross-sectional research designs. *Journal of applied psychology, 86*(1), 114.

Linnabery, E., Stuhlmacher, A. F., & Towler, A. (2014). From whence cometh their strength: Social support, coping, and well-being of Black women professionals. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 20*(4), 541.

Luthans, F. (2002a). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 23*(6), 695-706.

Luthans, F. (2002b). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(6), 695-706. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.165

Luthans, F. (2002c). Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 16*(1), 57-72.

Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Norman, S. M., & Combs, G. M. (2006). Psychological capital development: toward a micro-intervention. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(3), 387-393. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.373

Luthans, F., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Lester, P. B. (2006). Developing the psychological capital of resiliency. *Human Resource Development Review, 5*(1), 25-44.

Manning, M. R., Jackson, C. N., & Fusilier, M. R. (1996). Occupational stress, social support, and the costs of health care. *Academy of Management journal, 39*(3), 738-750.

Masten, A. S. (2018). Resilience theory and research on children and families: Past, present, and promise. *Journal of Family Theory & Review, 10*(1), 12-31.

Mayer, D. (2012) A positive lens on organizational justice: Toward amoral, constructive, and balanced approach to reactions to third-party (in)justice. In: Cameron, K.S. & Spreitzer, G.M. (Eds.). TheOxford handbook of positive organizational scholarship. OxfordUniversity Press, pp. 316–324

McCluney, C. L., & Rabelo, V. C. (2019). Conditions of visibility: An intersectional examination of Black women's belongingness and distinctiveness at work. *Journal of vocational behavior, 113*, 143-152.

McConahay, J. B. (1986). Modern racism, ambivalence, and the Modern Racism Scale. In J. R Dovidio & S. L. Gaertner (Eds.), *Prejudice, discrimination, and racism* (pp. 91-125). Academic Press.

McCord, M. A., Joseph, D. L., Dhanani, L. Y., & Beus, J. M. (2018). A meta-analysis of sex and race differences in perceived workplace mistreatment. *Journal of applied psychology, 103*(2), 137.

McDonald, M. L., & Westphal, J. D. (2013). Access denied: Low mentoring of women and minority first-time directors and its negative effects on appointments to additional boards. *Academy of Management Journal, 56*(4), 1169-1198. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0230

McKinsey, C., & LeanIn. (2022). *Women in the workplace*. https://womenintheworkplace.com

McLarnon, M. J., & Rothstein, M. G. (2013). Development and initial validation of the Workplace Resilience Inventory. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 12*(2), 63.

Meade, A. W., & Craig, S. B. (2012). Identifying careless responses in survey data. *Psychological methods, 17*(3), 437.

Menges, C. (2016). Toward improving the effectiveness of formal mentoring programs: Matching by personality matters. *Group & Organization Management, 41*(1), 98-129. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601115579567

Merton, R. K. (1988). The Matthew effect in science, II: Cumulative advantage and the symbolism of intellectual property. *isis, 79*(4), 606-623.

Meyers, M. C., Adams, B. G., Sekaja, L., Buzea, C., Cazan, A.-M., Gotea, M., Stefenel, D., & van Woerkom, M. (2019). Perceived organizational support for the use of employees' strengths and employee well-being: a cross-country comparison. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 20*(6), 1825-1841.

Mithani, M. A. (2020). Adaptation in the Face of the New Normal. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 34*(4), 508-530. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2019.0054

Mobasseri, S., Srivastava, S. B., & Kray, L. J. (2021). A brief social-belonging intervention in the workplace: Evidence from a field experiment. *Academy of Management Discoveries, 7*(1), 85-103.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of applied psychology, 76*(6), 845.

Mor Barak, M. E. (2015). Inclusion is the key to diversity management, but what is inclusion? *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance*, *39*(2), 83-88.

Mor Barak, M. E., Cherin, D. A., & Berkman, S. (1998). Organizational and personal dimensions in diversity climate: Ethnic and gender differences in employee perceptions. *The Journal of applied behavioral science, 34*(1), 82-104.

Näswall, K., Malinen, S., Kuntz, J., & Hodliffe, M. (2019). Employee resilience: Development and validation of a measure. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*.

Neville, H. A., Lilly, R. L., Duran, G., Lee, R. M., & Browne, L. 2000. Construction and initial validation of the color-blind racial attitudes scale (CoBRAS). ***Journal of counseling psychology***, 47(1): 59.

Nielsen, K., & Taris, T. W. (2019). Leading well: Challenges to researching leadership in occupational health psychology–and some ways forward. *Work & Stress, 33*(2), 107-118.

Nishii, L. H. (2013). The benefits of climate for inclusion for gender-diverse groups. *Academy of Management journal, 56*(6), 1754-1774.

Nkomo, S. M. (1992). The Emperor Has No Clothes: Rewriting'Race in Organizations. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review, 17*(3), 487.

Noe, R. A. (1988a). An investigation of the determinants of successful assigned mentoring

    relationships. *Personnel psychology, 41*(3), 457-479.

Noe, R. A. (1988b). Women and mentoring: A review and research agenda. *Academy of*

    Management Review, 13(1), 65-78.

Noy, S., & Ray, R. (2012). Graduate students' perceptions of their advisors: Is there systematic

    disadvantage in mentorship?. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *83*(6), 876-914.

O'brien, K. E., Biga, A., Kessler, S. R., & Allen, T. D. (2010). A meta-analytic investigation of

    gender differences in mentoring. *Journal of management, 36*(2), 537-554.

O'Leary, V. E. (1998). Strength in the face of adversity: Individual and social thriving. *Journal*

    of social issues, 54(2), 425-446.

O'Leary, V. E., & Ickovics, J. R. (1995). Resilience and thriving in response to challenge: an

    opportunity for a paradigm shift in women's health. *Women's health (Hillsdale, NJ), 1*(2),

    121-142.

Offermann, L. R., Basford, T. E., Graebner, R., Jaffer, S., De Graaf, S. B., & Kaminsky, S. E.

    (2014). See no evil: Color blindness and perceptions of subtle racial discrimination in the

    workplace. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 20*(4), 499.

Omi, M., & Winant, H. (2014). *Racial formation in the United States*. Routledge.

Özbek, M. F., Yoldash, M. A., & Tang, T. L.-P. (2016). Theory of justice, OCB, and

    individualism: Kyrgyz citizens. *Journal of business ethics, 137*(2), 365-382.

Pan, X., Chen, M., Hao, Z., & Bi, W. (2017). The effects of organizational justice on positive

    organizational behavior: Evidence from a large-sample survey and a situational

    experiment. *Frontiers in Psychology, 8*, 2315-2315.

    https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02315

Parker, P. S. (2004). *Race, gender, and leadership: Re-envisioning organizational leadership from the perspectives of African American women executives*. Routledge.

Parker, R. J., & Kohlmeyer III, J. M. (2005). Organizational justice and turnover in public accounting firms: A research note. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *30*(4), 357-369.

Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., Walker, L. S., & Woehr, D. J. (2014). Gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness: A meta-analysis of contextual moderators. *Journal of applied Psychology, 99*(6), 1129-1145. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036751

Penley, L. E., & Hawkins, B. (1985). Studying interpersonal communication in organizations: A leadership application. *Academy of Management journal, 28*(2), 309-326.

Perc, M. (2014). The Matthew effect in empirical data. *Journal of The Royal Society Interface, 11*(98), 20140378.

Perkins, K., & Wiley, S. (2014). Minorities. 1192-1195. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-5583-7_188

Perryman, A. A., Fernando, G. D., & Tripathy, A. (2016). Do gender differences persist? An examination of gender diversity on firm performance, risk, and executive compensation. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(2), 579-586. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.05.013

Phelps, R. E. (1992). University and college counseling centers: One option for new professionals in counseling psychology. *The Counseling Psychologist, 20*(1), 24-31.

Phipps, S. T. A., & Prieto, L. C. (2020). Leaning in: A historical perspective on influencing women's leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-020-04566-6

Pierce, C. M. (1995). Stress Analogs of Racism and Sexism: Terrorism, Torture, and Disaster. *Mental Health Racism And Sexism*, 277.

Pillemer, J., & Rothbard, N. P. (2018). Friends without benefits: Understanding the dark sides of workplace friendship. *Academy of Management Review, 43*(4), 635-660.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual review of psychology*, *63*, 539-569.

Prasad, A. (2022). THE MODEL MINORITY AND THE LIMITS OF WORKPLACE INCLUSION. *Academy of Management Review*(ja).

Prilleltensky, I. (2012). Wellness as fairness. *American journal of community psychology, 49*(1), 1-21.

Pritchard, R. D. (1969). Equity theory: A review and critique. *Organizational behavior and human performance, 4*(2), 176-211.

Purdie-Vaughns, V., & Eibach, R. P. (2008). Intersectional invisibility: The distinctive advantages and disadvantages of multiple subordinate-group identities. *Sex Roles, 59*(5), 377-391.

Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified mentoring relationships in organizations: A power perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 22*(2), 482-521.

Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1991). Easier said than done: Gender differences in perceived barriers to gaining a mentor. *Academy of Management journal, 34*(4), 939-951.

Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: a comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of applied psychology, 84*(4), 529.

Randel, A. E., Galvin, B. M., Gibson, C. B., & Batts, S. I. (2021). Increasing career advancement opportunities through sponsorship: An identity-based model with illustrative application to cross-race mentorship of African Americans. *Group & organization management, 46*(1), 105-142. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601120978003

Ray, E. B., & Miller, K. I. (1994). Social support, home/work stress, and burnout: Who can help? *The Journal of applied behavioral science, 30*(3), 357-373.

Regorz, A. (2020, January 18). *How to interpret a Collinearity Diagnostics table in SPSS*. How to interpret a collinearity diagnostics table in SPSS. http://www.regorz-statistik.de/en/collinearity_diagnostics_table_SPSS.html#:~:text=If%20there%20are%20only%20a,look%20at%20the%20collinearity%20diagnostics.

Remaker, D. N., Gonzalez, M. M., Houston-Armstrong, T., & Sprague-Connors, G. (2021). Women of color and mentorship in graduate training. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 15*(1), 70.

Resnick, B. (2018). The relationship between resilience and motivation. *Resilience in aging: Concepts, research, and outcomes*, 221-244.

Reuter, E. B. (1945). Racial theory. *American journal of sociology, 50*(6), 452-461.

Richard, O. C. (2000). Racial diversity, business strategy, and firm performance: A resource-based view. *Academy of Management journal, 43*(2), 164-177.

Richez, M. (2014). Resilience-building strategies for nurses in transition. *The Journal of continuing education in nursing, 45*(2), 54-55. https://doi.org/10.3928/00220124-20140124-12

Rigney, D. (2010). *The Matthew effect: How advantage begets further advantage*. Columbia University Press.

Roberson, Q. (2020). Access to justice as a human right, organizational entitlement and

   precursor to diversity and inclusion. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International*

   Journal.

Roberson, Q., Ryan, A. M., & Ragins, B. R. (2017). The evolution and future of diversity at

   work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(3), 483-499.

   https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000161

Roberson, Q. M. (2019). Diversity in the Workplace: A Review, Synthesis, and Future Research

   Agenda. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology And Organizational Behavior,*

   6(1), 69-88. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012218-015243

Rodell, J. B., Colquitt, J. A., & Baer, M. D. (2017). Is adhering to justice rules enough? The role

   of charismatic qualities in perceptions of supervisors' overall fairness. *Organizational*

   behavior and human decision processes, 140, 14-28.

   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2017.03.001

Rosen, C. C., Dimotakis, N., Cole, M. S., Taylor, S. G., Simon, L. S., Smith, T. A., & Reina, C.

   S. (2020). When challenges hinder: An investigation of when and how challenge stressors

   impact employee outcomes. *Journal of applied psychology, 105*(10), 1181.

Rosette, A. S., & Livingston, R. W. (2012). Failure is not an option for Black women: Effects of

   organizational performance on leaders with single versus dual-subordinate identities.

   Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 48(5), 1162-1167.

   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2012.05.002

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes

   and task design. *Administrative science quarterly*, 224-253.

Sanchez-Hucles, J. V., & Davis, D. D. (2010). Women and women of color in leadership: Complexity, identity, and intersectionality. *American psychologist, 65*(3), 171.

Sardžoska, E. G., & Tang, T. L.-P. (2015). Monetary intelligence: Money attitudes—unethical intentions, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, and coping strategies across public and private sectors in Macedonia. *Journal of business ethics, 130*(1), 93-115.

Sarfraz, M., Qun, W., Abdullah, M., & Alvi, A. (2018). Employees' Perception of corporate social responsibility impact on employee outcomes: mediating role of organizational justice for small and medium enterprises (SMEs). *Sustainability, 10*(7), 2429. https://doi.org/10.3390/su10072429

Scandura, T. A. (1992). Mentorship and career mobility: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*(2), 169-174.

Scandura, T. A. (1997). Mentoring and organizational justice: An empirical investigation. *Journal of vocational behavior, 51*(1), 58-69.

Scandura, T. A., & Ragins, B. R. (1993). The effects of sex and gender role orientation on mentorship in male-dominated occupations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 43*(3), 251-265. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1993.1046

Scheepers, C. B., Douman, A., & Moodley, P. (2018). Sponsorship and social identity in advancement of women leaders in South Africa. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*.

Schulz, N., Rupp, D. E., Shao, R., & Skarlicki, D. (2019). Gendered reactions to organizational justice: A meta-analysis. Academy of Management Proceedings,

Sherf, E. N., Venkataramani, V., & Gajendran, R. S. (2019). Too busy to be fair? The effect of workload and rewards on managers' justice rule adherence. *Academy of Management journal, 62*(2), 469-502.

Shin, J., Taylor, M. S., & Seo, M.-G. (2012). Resources for change: The relationships of organizational inducements and psychological resilience to employees' attitudes and behaviors toward organizational change. *Academy of Management journal, 55*(3), 727-748.

Silver, R. (2017, Feb 6). Healthcare leadership's diversity paradox. *Leadersh Health Serv (Bradf Engl), 30*(1), 68-75. https://doi.org/10.1108/LHS-02-2016-0007

Simpson, P. A., & Kaminski, M. (2007). Gender, Organizational Justice Perceptions, and Union Organizing. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 19*(1), 57-72. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-006-9032-9

Singh, B., & Winkel, D. E. (2012). Racial differences in helping behaviors: The role of respect, safety, and identification. *Journal of business ethics, 106*(4), 467-477.

Sinha, I., & Batra, R. (1999). The effect of consumer price consciousness on private label purchase. *International journal of research in marketing, 16*(3), 237-251.

Skodol, A. E. (2018). Impact of personality pathology on psychosocial functioning. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 21*, 33-38.

Singh, S., & Vanka, S. (2020). Mentoring is essential but not sufficient: sponsor women for leadership roles. *Development and Learning in Organizations: An International Journal, 34*(6), 25-28. https://doi.org/10.1108/DLO-05-2019-0100

Smith, A. N., Watkins, M. B., Ladge, J. J., & Carlton, P. (2019). Making the invisible visible: Paradoxical effects of intersectional invisibility on the career experiences of executive

black women. *Academy of Management Journal, 62*(6), 1705-1734.

https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2017.1513

Smith, B. W., Dalen, J., Wiggins, K., Tooley, E., Christopher, P., & Bernard, J. (2008). The brief

resilience scale: Assessing the ability to bounce back. *International Journal of*

Behavioral medicine, 15(3), 194-200. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705500802222972

Smith, R. A. (2002). Race, gender, and authority in the workplace: Theory and research. *Annual*

review of sociology, 509-542.

Spangler, E., Gordon, M. A., & Pipkin, R. M. (1978). Token women: An empirical test of

Kanter's hypothesis. *American journal of sociology, 84*(1), 160-170.

Spector, P. E. (2019). Do not cross me: Optimizing the use of cross-sectional designs. *Journal of*

Business and Psychology, *34*(2), 125-137.

Spreitzer, G., Myers, C. G., Kopelman, S., & Mayer, D. M. (2021). The conceptual and

empirical value of a positive lens: An invitation to organizational scholars to develop

novel research questions. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 35*(3), 517-534.

Spreitzer, G., Sutcliffe, K., Dutton, J., Sonenshein, S., & Grant, A. M. (2005). A socially

embedded model of thriving at work. *Organization Science, 16*(5), 537-549.

Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work-related performance: A meta-

analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*(2), 240-261. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-

2909.124.2.240

Stoverink, A. C., Kirkman, B. L., Mistry, S., & Rosen, B. (2020). Bouncing back together:

Toward a theoretical model of work team resilience. *The Academy of Management*

review, 45(2), 395-422. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2017.0005

Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A., Nadal, K. L., & Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: implications for clinical practice. *American psychologist, 62*(4), 271.

Swalhi, A., Zgoulli, S., & Hofaidhllaoui, M. (2017). The influence of organizational justice on job performance: The mediating effect of affective commitment. *Journal of Management Development*.

Sweeney, P. D., & McFarlin, D. B. (1997). Process and outcome: Gender differences in the assessment of justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 18*(1), 83-98.

Tadesse, T., Gillies, R., & Campbell, C. (2018). Testing Models and Measurement Invariance of the Learning Gains Scale. *Education sciences, 8*(4), 192. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci8040192

Tata, J., & Bowes-Sperry, L. (1996). Emphasis on distributive, procedural, and interactional justice: Differential perceptions of men and women. *Psychological Reports, 79*(3_suppl), 1327-1330.

Tekleab, A. G., Takeuchi, R., & Taylor, M. S. (2005). Extending the chain of relationships among organizational justice, social exchange, and employee reactions: The role of contract violations. *Academy of Management journal, 48*(1), 146-157.

Tepper, B. J. (1995). Upward maintenance tactics in supervisory mentoring and nonmentoring relationships. *Academy of Management journal, 38*(4), 1191-1205.

Tepper, B. J. (2001). Health consequences of organizational injustice: Tests of main and interactive effects. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 86*(2), 197-215.

Thibaut, J. W., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. L. Erlbaum Associates.

Tilcsik, A., & Marquis, C. (2013). Punctuated generosity: How mega-events and natural disasters affect corporate philanthropy in US communities. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *58*(1), 111-148.

Thomas, D. A. (1993). Racial dynamics in cross-race developmental relationships. *Administrative science quarterly*, 169-194.

Thompson, M., & Heron, P. (2005). The difference a manager can make: organizational justice and knowledge worker commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 16*(3), 383-404.

Tonkin, K., Malinen, S., Näswall, K., & Kuntz, J. C. (2018). Building employee resilience through wellbeing in organizations. *Human resource development quarterly, 29*(2), 107-124.

Tourse, R. W., Hamilton-Mason, J., & Wewiorski, N. J. (2018). Systemic racism in the United States. *Cham, Switzerland: Springer International*.

Triana, M. d. C., Jayasinghe, M., & Pieper, J. R. (2015). Perceived workplace racial discrimination and its correlates: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 36*(4), 491-513.

Tumin, M. M. (1953). Some principles of stratification: A critical analysis. *American Sociological Review, 18*(4), 387-394.

Turillo, C. J., Folger, R., Lavelle, J. J., Umphress, E. E., & Gee, J. O. (2003). Erratum to "Is virtue its own reward? Self-sacrificial decisions for the sake of fairness." *Organizational*

behavior and human decision processes, 91(2), 340-340. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978(03)00065-7

Unger, R. K. (1979). Toward a redefinition of sex and gender. *American psychologist, 34*(11), 1085.

Usmani, S., & Jamal, S. (2013). Impact of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, temporal justice, spatial justice on job satisfaction of banking employees. *Review of integrative business and economics research, 2*(1), 351-383.

Van den Bos, K. (2003). On the subjective quality of social justice: the role of affect as information in the psychology of justice judgments. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 85*(3), 482.

Van Emmerik, H. (2004). For better and for worse: adverse working conditions and the beneficial effects of mentoring. *Career Development International*, *9*(4), 358-373.

Vu, K. P. L., Proctor, R. W., & Hung, Y. H. (2021). Website design and evaluation. *Handbook of human factors and ergonomics*, 1016-1036.

Wanberg, C. R., Welsh, E. T., & Hezlett, S. A. (2003). Mentoring research: A review and dynamic process model. *Research in personnel and human resources management, 22*, 39-124.

Warne, R. T., & Larsen, R. (2014). Evaluating a proposed modification of the Guttman rule for determining the number of factors in an exploratory factor analysis. *Psychological test and assessment modeling, 56*(1), 104.

Waters, L. (2004). Protégé–mentor agreement about the provision of psychosocial support: The mentoring relationship, personality, and workload. *Journal of vocational behavior, 65*(3), 519-532.

Watkins, M. B., Simmons, A., & Umphress, E. (2019). It's Not Black and White: Toward a

    Contingency Perspective on the Consequences of Being a Token. *Academy of*

    Management Perspectives, 33(3), 334-365. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2015.0154

Watson, T. J. (2008). Managing identity: Identity work, personal predicaments and structural

    circumstances. *Organization, 15*(1), 121-143.

Webster, J. R., Adams, G. A., Maranto, C. L., Sawyer, K., & Thoroughgood, C. (2018).

    Workplace contextual supports for LGBT employees: A review, meta-analysis, and

    agenda for future research. *Human Resource Management, 57*(1), 193-210.

Weick, K. E. (1993). The collapse of sensemaking in organizations: The Mann Gulch disaster.

    Administrative science quarterly, 628-652.

West, C., & Zimmerman, D. H. (1987). Doing gender. *Gender & Society, 1*(2), 125-151.

Whisenant, W., Lee, D. L., & Dees, W. (2015). Role congruity theory: Perceptions of fairness

    and sexism in sport management. *Public organization review, 15*(4), 475-485.

White, M. S., Burns, C., & Conlon, H. A. (2018). The impact of an aging population in the

    workplace. *Workplace health & safety, 66*(10), 493-498.

Whitman, D. S., Caleo, S., Carpenter, N. C., Horner, M. T., & Bernerth, J. B. (2012). Fairness at

    the collective level: A meta-analytic examination of the consequences and boundary

    conditions of organizational justice climate. *Journal of applied psychology*, *97*(4), 776.

Williams-Nickelson, C. (2009). Mentoring women graduate students: A model for professional

    psychology. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 40*(3), 284.

Williams, D. R., Yu, Y., Jackson, J. S., & Anderson, N. B. (1997). Racial differences in physical

    and mental health: Socio-economic status, stress and discrimination. *Journal of health*

    psychology, 2(3), 335-351.

Wingfield, A. H., & Chavez, K. (2020). Getting in, getting hired, getting sideways looks: Organizational hierarchy and perceptions of racial discrimination. *American Sociological Review, 85*(1), 31-57.

Wolfe, S. E., & Lawson, S. G. (2020). The organizational justice effect among criminal justice employees: A meta-analysis. *Criminology, 58*(4), 619-644.

Wright, T. A. (2003). Positive organizational behavior: an idea whose time has truly come. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*(4), 437-442. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.197

Wu, X., Lyu, Y., Kwan, H. K., & Zhai, H. (2019). The impact of mentoring quality on protégés' organization-based self-esteem and proactive behavior: The moderating role of traditionality. *Human Resource Management, 58*(4), 417-430.

Yangin, D., & Elma, C. (2017). The Relationship among Interactional Justice, Manager Trust and Teachers' Organizational Silence Behavior. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 5*(3), 325-333.

Yardan, E. D., Köse, A. P. D. S. D., & Köse, A. P. D. T. (2014). The Effect of Employees' Perceptions of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior: An Applicationin Turkish Public Hospital. *Journal of Human Resources Management and Labor Studies, 2*(2), 129-148.

Yip, J., & Walker, D. O. (2021). Leaders mentoring others: the effects of implicit followership theory on leader integrity and mentoring. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-31.

Young, A. M., & Perrewe, P. L. (2000). What did you expect? An examination of career-related support and social support among mentors and protégés. *Journal of management, 26*(4), 611-632.

Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2007). Positive Organizational Behavior in the Workplace: The

    Impact of Hope, Optimism, and Resilience. *Journal of management, 33*(5), 774-800.

    https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307305562

Zapata, C. P., Carton, A. M., & Liu, J. T. (2016). When justice promotes injustice: Why minority

    leaders experience bias when they adhere to interpersonal justice rules. *Academy of*

    Management journal, 59(4), 1150-1173.

Zinn, M. B., & Dill, B. T. (1994). Difference and domination. *Women of color in US society,*

    12(4), 3-12.

APPENDIX A

EMPLOYEE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR SURVEY

This questionnaire is part of a doctoral research study by the University of North Carolina Charlotte to investigate employee perception of interactional justice and psychosocial mentorship on employee resilience within organizations. The questions below have no right or wrong answers – we are interested in your opinions. Your response will assist in the further development of organizational behavior research and understanding. All responses are confidential. The data collected will be secured and used purely for academic purposes.

Section 1:

Question 1: Do you have an individual (i.e., a mentor) you rely on for career advice? O **Yes** or O **No**

Question 2: Is this person in your current organization?   O **Yes** or O **No**

Question 3: Is this person your direct supervisor?   O **Yes** or O **No**

Section 2: This section includes questions related to your experiences with your mentor (the person you identified above). A mentor is that one person with experience whom you trust for advice. Mentorship could occur through a formal or informal relationship. The following questions in this section relate to your mentor. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below regarding that one person (1 = Strongly disagree; 5= Strongly agree).

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
Given or recommended you for challenging assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills?	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Given or recommended you for assignments that required personal contact with managers in different parts of the company?	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Given or recommended you for assignments that increase your contact with higher level managers?	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Gone out of his/her way to promote your career interests	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Encouraged you to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from your work?	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems?	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Difference in how people feel, their previous knowledge and experience, and their environment can affect choices. To help us understand how people make decisions, we are interested in whether you actually take the time to read the directions. To show that you have read the instructions, please select "1" as your response.	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts?	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
Encouraged you to prepare for advancement?	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**
The price of national brands of food products are really unfair.	1	2	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section 3: This section includes statements about how you approach challenges within your organization. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below (1 = Strongly disagree; 5= Strongly agree).

	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree

I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times	1	2	3	4	5
I have a hard time making it through stressful events.	1	2	3	4	5
It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.	1	2	3	4	5
It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens.	1	2	3	4	5
I usually come through difficult times with little trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
Most modern theories of decision making recognize that decisions do not take place in a vacuum. Individual preferences and knowledge along with situational variables can greatly impact the decision process. To demonstrate that you've read this much, please select "3" as your response.	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to take a long time to get over setbacks in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
The price of national brands of food products are unacceptably high	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4: This section includes statements about perceptions of your feelings towards your direct supervisor. while at work. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below (1 = Strongly disagree; 5= Strongly agree).

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5
Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
Has (he/she) treated you with respect?	1	2	3	4	5
People are very busy these days and many do not have time to follow what goes on in the workplace. Some do pay attention but do not read questions carefully. To show that you've read this much, please select "5" as your response.	1	2	3	4	5
Has (he/she) treated you refrained from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5
Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5
Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5
Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5
Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5
Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures been applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures been free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5
Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?	1	2	3	4	5
Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?	1	2	3	4	5
Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?	1	2	3	4	5
The price of national brands of food products are "rip-offs".	1	2	3	4	5

Section 5: In this next section we are interested in demographic information pertaining to you.
Please specify your age, in years _____
Please specify your gender:
o Male

o Female
o Non-binary

Please specify your race:
o American Indian/Indigenous
o Asian/Pacific Islander
o Black/African American
o Hispanic/ Latina
o White
o Multi-Racial
o Other

Tenure with your organization, in years _____

Please specify your position level within your organization:
o Employee (no supervisory responsibility)
o Frontline manager/Supervisor
o Middle manager
o Senior manager/Executive

Please specify the form of mentorship You received:
o Formal (part of a formal organization program/ assigned mentor)
o Informal (mutual, spontaneous relationship without the organization's involvement)
o None

Please specify your highest level of education:
o Associate degree or below
o Bachelor's degree
o Master's degree
o Graduate degree or above

Please specify your **mentor's gender**:
o Male
o Female
o Non-binary

Please specify your **mentor's race:**
o American Indian/Indigenous
o Asian/Pacific Islander
o Black/African American
o Hispanic/ Latina
o White
o Multi-Racial
o Other

~~~~~~

Thank you for your time and responses. We very much appreciate your participation into this research!

Cassandra E. Burney, University of North Carolina at Charlotte, Belk College of Business

9209 Mary Alexander Road

Charlotte, NC 28262

E-mail: cburney3@uncc.edu

APPENDIX B

Table 11: Scale Measurements (b)

Measurement Construct	Survey Items	Reference
(DV) Resilience	• I tend to bounce back quicky after hard times. • I have a hard time making it through stressful events. • It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event. • It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens. • I usually come through difficult times with little trouble. • I tend to take a long time to get over setbacks in my life	Smith, B. W., Dalen, J., Wiggins, K., Tooley, E., Christopher, P., & Bernard, J. (2008). The brief resilience scale: assessing the ability to bounce back. International journal of behavioral medicine, 15(3), 194-200. **Alpha:** .91 **Citation:** 3804
(IV) Perceptions of interactional justice	• Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner? • Has (he/she) treated you with dignity? • Has (he/she) treated you with respect? • Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you? • Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly? • Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable? • Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner? • Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs? • Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures? • Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures? • Have those procedures been applied consistently? • Have those procedures been free of bias? • Have those procedures been based on accurate information? • Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures? • Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	Colquitt, Jason A, (2001). On the Dimensionality of Organizational Justice: A Construct Validation of a Measure. Journal of applied psychology, Vol. 86 (3), 386-400 **Alpha:** 79 **Citation:** 7492

	• Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work? • Is your outcome appropriate for the work you have completed? • Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization? • Does your (outcome) justified, given your performance?	
(IV) Psychosocial Mentorship	• Given or recommended you for challenging assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills? • Given or recommended you for assignments that required personal contact with managers in different parts of the company? • Given or recommended you for assignments that increase your contact with higher level managers? • Gone out of his/her way to promote your career interests? • Encouraged you to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from your work? • Shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems? • Discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts? • Encouraged you to prepare for advancement?	Dreher, George F; Ash, Ronald A (Dreher & Ash, 1990). A Comparative Study of Mentoring Among Men and Women in Managerial, Professional, and Technical Positions. Journal of Applied Psychology,1990 -10, Vol.75(5), p.539 -546 **Alpha:** .95 **Citation:** 1833
(Marker Variable) Perceived Price unfairness in National Brands	• The price of national brands of food products are really unfair. • The price of national brands of food products are unacceptably high. • The price of national brands of food products are "rip- offs".	Sinha, I., & Batra, R. (1999). The effect of consumer price consciousness on private label purchase. International journal of research in marketing, Vol. 16, p. 237- 251. **Alpha:** 0.83 **Citation:** 663

Table 11: Model Measurements (c)

Measurement Construct	Measurement	Reference
(Moderator) Gender Female Status	1 = Male, 2 = Female	(Allen & Eby, 2008). Mentor commitment in formal mentoring relationships. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 72 (2008) 309 -316 Citation: 152
(Moderator) Race Minority Status	1 = non-Minority, 2 =Minority	Collins, P. M., Kamya, H. A., & Tourse, R. W. (1997). Questions of racial diversity and mentorship: An empirical exploration. Social Work, 42(2), 145-152. Citation: 152
(Control Variable) Mentors Gender	1 = Male, 2 = Female	(Allen & Eby, 2008). Mentor commitment in formal mentoring relationships. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 72 (2008) 309 -316 Citation: 152
(Control Variable) Mentors Race	1 = non-Minority, 2 =Minority	Collins, P. M., Kamya, H. A., & Tourse, R. W. (1997). Questions of racial diversity and mentorship: An empirical exploration. Social Work, 42(2), 145-152. Citation: 152
(Control Variable) Organization Tenure	Years	Hu, Z., Li, J., & Kwan, H. K. (2022). The effects of negative mentoring experiences on mentor creativity: The roles of mentor ego depletion and traditionality. Human Resource Management, 61(1), 39-54. Citation: 5

Sample survey items

Please specify your gender:
o Male
o Female
o Non-binary

Please specify your race:
o American Indian/Indigenous
o Asian/Pacific Islander
o Black/African American
o Hispanic/ Latina
o White
o Multi-Racial

ↄ Other
Please specify your **mentor's gender**:
ↄ Male
ↄ Female
ↄ Non-binary

Please specify your **mentor's race:**
ↄ American Indian/Indigenous
ↄ Asian/Pacific Islander
ↄ Black/African American
ↄ Hispanic/ Latina
ↄ White
ↄ Multi-Racial
ↄ Other

Tenure with your organization, in years _____