The Role of Acculturation in the Mentoring–Career Satisfaction Model for Asian/Pacific Islander American University Faculty

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This study aimed to test the generalizability of the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship from European Americans to Asian/Pacific Islander American (APIA) faculty and to examine acculturation as a possible moderator. Faculty (N = 139) from four large public universities in California completed self-report surveys on mentoring, career satisfaction, and acculturation. Results suggest that the relationship generalizes to APIA faculty and that acculturation plays a role in the model, though not as hypothesized. Although acculturation did not moderate the relationship between mentoring and career satisfaction, it predicted mentoring (via an interaction) and career satisfaction (for participants born overseas) individually. Protégés using particular acculturation strategies reported a greater extent of mentoring from mentors of certain ethnic groups. In addition, participants who were born overseas and are more oriented to their API culture reported greater career satisfaction. Our results suggest that researchers should consider cultural variables, such as acculturation, when studying APIAs or when working with APIAs.

Keywords: acculturation, mentoring, career satisfaction, Asian/Pacific Islander American, university faculty

Asian/Pacific Islander Americans (APIAs), members of one of the fastest growing American ethnic groups (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005), have identified mentoring as a critical tool for career development (Woo, 2000). Yet relatively little research on APIAs has been conducted to determine whether mentoring predicts positive career outcomes, such as career satisfaction. In fact, a PsycINFO search (conducted in April 2006) for mentor and its derivations as a keyword yielded 3,238 publications. In comparison, only 67 of these had Asian or Pacific Islander (or derivations of these words) appear anywhere in them. Moreover, although the link between mentoring and career satisfaction has been established for European Americans, only one of these mentoring or career satisfaction studies on APIAs (a doctoral dissertation) assessed both mentoring and career satisfaction. Additionally, there has been no research on acculturation, an important cultural issue to APIAs, as it relates to mentoring and career satisfaction. Thus, the goal of this study was to examine the role of acculturation in the mentoring–career satisfaction model.

Because most mentoring theories and research findings are based on European Americans (Blake-Beard, 1999), it is uncertain whether they can be generalized to other ethnic groups, many of which have different attitudes, values, beliefs, norms, and behavioral scripts than the dominant European American group (Berry, 2003). Thus, APIAs must be sampled to assess whether current mentoring theories are valid for them (e.g., whether mentoring predicts career satisfaction). However, examining ethnic differences in career development is not sufficient; researchers must consider acculturation because ethnicity differs from culture (Berry, 2003). For example, two Chinese Americans have the same ethnicity, but one may use the assimilation strategy by participating in and endorsing only American culture, whereas the other may use the separation strategy by participating in and endorsing only Chinese culture. As a result, these two individuals may need different mentoring and may vary in their responses to it, which could have implications for career outcomes. To fill these critical gaps in the literature, we explored the role of acculturation in the relationship between mentoring and career satisfaction for APIA faculty.
Mentoring and Career Satisfaction Model

Mentoring

Mentoring is a type of developmental relationship in which a more experienced individual assists a less experienced individual in his or her career and personal development (Kram, 1985). A mentor may engage in career and psychosocial mentoring, such as advising the protégé on organizational practices, intervening on behalf of the protégé, providing encouragement, listening to personal concerns, and so forth. For example, in academia, senior university faculty members pass down unwritten rules regarding standards, valued research, access to grants, criteria weights for tenure, and so forth to junior colleagues (Hall & Sandler, 1983).

APIAs have stressed that mentoring is a critical tool for career advancement (Woo, 2000).

Mentoring and Career Satisfaction

There is strong empirical support for positive career outcomes relating to mentoring, such as greater career satisfaction, in academia and other work settings (e.g., Fagenson, 1989; Wallace, 2001). Career satisfaction is an individual’s evaluation of career factors (e.g., income, advancement, development) relative to his or her own goals and expectations (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). For example, in academia, university faculty who had mentors experienced greater academic success as measured by greater perceived success, higher job satisfaction, higher salary, greater number of publications, and higher rank (Hill, Bahniuk, & Dobos, 1989).

Although these positive mentoring–career outcome relationships have been established empirically for European Americans, researchers have only begun to explore them for ethnic minorities (e.g., Alleman, Newman, Huggins, & Carr, 1987; Blake-Beard, 1999; Turner, 2000). To gather more support for the generalizability of the mentoring–positive career outcome (specifically career satisfaction) relationship for ethnic minorities, we measured APIA faculty’s mentoring and career satisfaction, and we hypothesized that mentoring would significantly predict career satisfaction (Research Question 1). We also examined Research Question 1 controlling for years in academia because more satisfied faculty may stay in academia longer, or, based on cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959), faculty who have invested more time in academia may be more likely to report satisfaction with their career.

Acculturation as a Moderator

Acculturation

When researchers study APIAs in an organizational context, it is critical to explore cultural variables (Helms & Piper, 1994; Leong, 2001), such as acculturation. Acculturation is the process by which individuals change and adapt to the cultural context in which they live (Berry, 2003). It has two independent dimensions: the dominant or host (e.g., American) cultural orientation and the nondominant or ethnic minority (e.g., API) orientation. Thus, it follows that APIAs may involve themselves in American culture without relinquishing their API culture. These two cultural orientations create four acculturation strategies: assimilation (high American orientation and low API orientation), separation (low American orientation and high API orientation), integration (high American and API orientations), and marginalization (low American and API orientations; Berry, 2003).

American Orientation in the Mentoring–Career Satisfaction Model

Because of the lack of research on APIAs’ careers, Leong and Chou (1994) made several propositions regarding the moderating role of an American orientation in APIAs’ career development in an attempt to promote and guide research in this area, but thus far, only Leong (2001) has empirically explored some of these propositions. Leong and Chou (1994) proposed that highly American-oriented APIAs would receive career rewards, such as promotions (which may lead to higher career satisfaction), for behaving (as a protégé) in a manner acceptable in dominant American culture. Moreover, they may have expectations of mentoring and mentoring outcomes that are similar to their mentors, the majority of whom are European Americans (Thomas, 1990). Because highly American-oriented APIAs may be more similar to European Americans in how they participate in mentoring relationships and in what they expect from their mentors and their mentoring relationships, we hypothesized that the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship found in European American samples would generalize better to more American-oriented APIAs than to less American-oriented APIAs. In other words, we hypothesized that an American orientation would moderate the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship, such that the relationship would be stronger for those higher on an American orientation than for those lower on an American orientation (Research Question 2).

API Orientation in the Mentoring–Career Satisfaction Model

Because there has been no empirical research on the relationships among acculturation, mentoring, and career satisfaction, whether and how an API orientation would moderate the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship is uncertain. One possible argument is that the relationship would be stronger for those higher on an API orientation than for those lower on an API orientation. Highly API-oriented individuals are more likely to hold values of vertically collectivistic cultures, such as valuing hierarchical relationships, rewarding mentors for their guidance, and encouraging the transmittal of power, information, and other career resources (which may lead to career satisfaction; Ragins, 1995). As a result, they may actually receive more mentoring and greater benefits from mentoring, such as career satisfaction.

Alternatively, the relationship might be stronger for those lower on an API orientation than for those higher on an API orientation. Highly API-oriented individuals may adhere to an API definition of mentoring, which is very different from the mentoring that occurs in the United States (Goto, 1999). (For example, API mentoring is more formal and hierarchical than American mentoring. In addition, unlike mentors in the United States, API mentors are expected to initiate and maintain the relationship.) In accordance with an API definition of mentoring, highly API-oriented individuals may limit interactions with mentors to only formal exchanges and may minimize interactions with mentors in order not to burden them. Because of these API-congruent (and
American-incongruent) protégé behaviors, they may not receive the American-defined career outcomes associated with mentoring (e.g., career satisfaction). Because these two competing hypotheses seem reasonable and neither has been tested empirically, we had no specific hypothesis regarding whether and how an API orientation would moderate the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship for APIA faculty (Research Question 3).

In addition to these major research questions, we also planned to examine how acculturation may be related to mentoring and career satisfaction individually, especially if neither an American nor an API orientation acts as a moderator to the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship. That is, we would investigate the relationships between (a) acculturation and mentoring and (b) acculturation and career satisfaction separately.

Method

Participants

Using university faculty directories (which did not include graduate students working as teaching assistants), we identified and obtained contact information for all faculty with API surnames at four large public universities in California. Participants (N = 139), solicited for participation via a letter, ranged in age from 31 to 81 years (M = 46.33, Md = 44.00, Mo = 38.00, SD = 10.07). The sample was 37.41% female and 21.74% American born (one participant did not indicate country of birth). Those born overseas had lived in the United States for a mean of 24.68 years (Md = 23.00, Mo = 19.00, SD = 12.89). Most (92.98%) participants spoke at least one API language.

In the sample, 89.21% had a doctoral degree, 91.30% were full-time faculty, and 79.86% were tenured or tenure-track faculty. Participants reported working a mean of 13.18 years (full-time faculty, and 79.86% were tenured or tenure-track faculty. Most of those mentored, 72.66% had male mentors, 65.04% European American mentors, and 62.5% had their most influential mentor during graduate school. See Table 1 for more demographic information.

Measures

Career Satisfaction Scale. Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley’s (1990) career satisfaction scale comprises five items regarding satisfaction with success and progress in terms of goals, income, advancement, and development (e.g., “I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals”). The items are rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). We computed the mean score as an index of career satisfaction, with a higher score indicating a higher level of career satisfaction. Internal consistency reliability for the career satisfaction scale in this sample was good (α = .88). In addition, previous studies have supported the scale’s convergent and concurrent validity with regard to intention to turn over, annual salary, number of promotions received, perceived opportunities for advancement, and job discretion (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001; Wallace, 2001).

General Ethnicity Questionnaire (abridged). Tsai, Ying, and Lee’s (2000) General Ethnicity Questionnaire (abridged; GEQ) is a measure of cultural orientations (or acculturation). It comprises 75 items: 37 items in each of the two parallel subscales (dominant and nondominant) and one bilingualism item (i.e., “Are you bilingual?”). Each subscale measures six domains of acculturation: (a) language use and proficiency (e.g., “How fluently do you read your Asian/Pacific Islander language?”); (b) social affiliation (e.g., “Now, my friends are American”); (c) participation in cultural activities (e.g., “I engage in Asian/Pacific Islander forms of recreation”); (d) cultural pride (e.g., “I am proud of American culture”); (e) language preference in media/cultural exposure (e.g., “When I was growing up, I was exposed to Asian/Pacific Islander culture”); and (f) food preference (e.g., “At home, I eat American food”). Out of respect for faculty members’ time and to encourage participation, we shortened the GEQ to 25 items by retaining the bilingualism item and the two highest loading items for each of the six domains for each subscale based on the reported factor loadings (Tsai et al., 2000). The items are rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree or not at all) to 5 (strongly agree or very much). We computed the mean score for each subscale as

Table 1

Frequencies by Ethnicity, University, Academic Field, Composition of Mentoring Dyad

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>University</th>
<th>Academic Field</th>
<th>Composition of mentoring dyad with most influential mentor</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Group</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Korean</td>
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<td>B</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>D</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwanese</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Multietnic API</td>
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</table>
indices of cultural orientations (American and API), with a higher score indicating a higher orientation to each culture. The bilingualism item was neither scored nor included in either subscales; it was considered a demographic question, with the purpose of being purely descriptive. In this study, the GEQ American ($\alpha = .83$) and GEQ API ($\alpha = .77$) subscales had acceptable reliability. There was evidence of concurrent validity for the GEQ subscales from Tsai et al.’s (2000) study: the subscales had expected correlations with demographic predictors of acculturation, such as age of arrival in the United States, length of residence in the United States, and generational status.

**Mentoring measure.** Dreher and Ash’s (1990) mentoring measure assesses the extent of mentoring that participants received. This global mentoring measure comprises 18 items (e.g., “To what extent has a mentor given or recommended you for assignments that required personal contact with academics in different parts of the university and/or career field?”). Instead of defining “mentor,” we suggested that possible mentors could be other faculty and academic colleagues in the field. We also specified that some people may have more than one mentor, so responses need not be in reference to the same mentor(s). We modified the wording of items to make them more relevant to university faculty. Specifically, we replaced “managers” with “academics” and “company” with “university and/or career field.” All items are rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (to a very large extent). We computed the mean score as an index of the extent of mentoring received. Internal consistency of the mentoring measure in this sample was excellent ($\alpha = .96$). In addition, previous studies have supported the scale’s convergent and concurrent validity with regard to annual salary, number of promotions received, and perceived career success (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Turban & Dougherty, 1994).

**Demographics survey.** We collected personal information from participants, including age, sex, ethnicity, country of birth (and year of immigration if applicable), education, part-time or full-time status, tenure status, number of years in academia, academic department, academic institution, number of mentors (“mentors” not defined for participants), sex and race or ethnicity of the “most influential mentor,” and when participants had his or her “most influential mentor.”

### Procedure

We hand-delivered survey packets to potential participants’ respective academic departments. In a cover letter, we specified that the participants be APIA and requested that the completed surveys be mailed back to us. All identities and responses were kept confidential. Participants spent approximately 15 min completing the survey packets. In an attempt to increase response rate, we e-mailed 1-week and 2-week reminders to potential participants. Of 659 APIA faculty members contacted, 139 who self-identified as APIA volunteered to participate (21.09% response rate). There were no material incentives for participation.

### Data analysis

This study employed a correlational design. We first examined Research Question 1 by using a simple regression with career satisfaction as the criterion variable and the centered mentoring variable as the predictor. Second, to examine Research Question 1 controlling for years in academia, we conducted a separate regression analysis with years in academia (centered) entered in the first step and mentoring (centered) entered in the second step. We examined Research Questions 2 and 3 in one analysis using hierarchical regression. With career satisfaction as the criterion variable, we entered the centered mentoring and cultural orientation (American for Research Question 2 and API for Research Question 3) variables in the first step, the three two-way interaction terms in the second step, and the three-way interaction term in the third step. An alpha level of .05 was used in all analyses. To ensure that all scale items loaded appropriately on their respective measures, we conducted principal axis factoring with a varimax rotation before conducting the regression analyses. The results suggested four factors that correspond to the measures used: mentoring measure, GEQ American, career satisfaction scale, and GEQ API.

### Results

**Descriptive Statistics**

The means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities for all continuous variables appear in Table 2. Congruent with previous findings (e.g., Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Dreher & Ash, 1990;...
McGuire, 1990), there was a small, nonsignificant effect of gender (female: $M = 3.29$, $SD = 0.83$; male: $M = 3.05$, $SD = 0.96$) on the extent of mentoring received by protégés, such that women received slightly more mentoring than men. $t(134) = 1.49$, $p = .14$, $d = 0.26$. In addition, we investigated possible differences among Asian American Indians, Chinese Americans, Korean Americans, and Japanese Americans (sample sizes for other ethnic groups were too small). Ethnic groups did not differ on career satisfaction [$F(3, 117) = 1.53$, $p = .21$, $\eta^2 = .04$] or mentoring [$F(3, 117) = 0.47$, $p = .71$, $\eta^2 = .01$].

As other researchers have found (e.g., Tsai et al., 2000), cultural orientations were significantly correlated with length of residence in the United States (American: $r = .29$, $p = .004$; API: $r = -.24$, $p = .02$) and country of birth (overseas vs. United States), with participants born overseas being less American oriented ($r = -.40$, $p = 2 \times 10^{-6}$) and more API oriented ($r = .37$, $p = 9 \times 10^{-6}$) than those born in the United States. An analysis of covariance suggested that there were no ethnic group differences on an American orientation even after controlling for length of residence in the United States [$F(3, 80) = 0.52$, $p = .67$, $\eta^2 = .02$] and country of birth [$F(3, 113) = 1.52$, $p = .21$, $\eta^2 = .04$]. However, there were ethnic group differences on an API orientation even after controlling for length of residence in the United States [$F(3, 80) = 2.74$, $p = .05$, $\eta^2 = .09$] and country of birth [$F(3, 113) = 3.24$, $p = .03$, $\eta^2 = .08$]. Japanese Americans ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 0.55$) were significantly less API oriented than Asian American Indians ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 0.46$) and Chinese Americans ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 0.56$).

Research Question 1: Mentoring and Career Satisfaction

Mentoring was a significant predictor of career satisfaction [$R^2 = .03$, $\beta = .18$, $r(133) = 2.11$, $p = .04$]. Furthermore, the effect of mentoring on career satisfaction was suppressed by the number of years that participants had been a faculty member (i.e., years in academia). After controlling for years in academia, mentoring remained a significant predictor of career satisfaction (see Table 3).

Research Questions 2 and 3: Acculturation in the Mentoring–Career Satisfaction Model

Neither an American nor an API cultural orientation moderated the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship (see Table 3). Therefore, just as more mentoring predicts higher career satisfaction for European Americans (e.g., Fagenson, 1989; Wallace, 2001), mentoring also predicts career satisfaction for APIAs, regardless of their levels of American and API cultural orientations. Although acculturation (or cultural orientations) may not moderate the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship, it may still play a role in the mentoring–career satisfaction model. To explore ways in which acculturation may relate to mentoring and career satisfaction individually, we conducted separate sets of analyses in the next two sections.

Acculturation and mentoring. To investigate whether acculturation strategies (operationalized as the interaction between the two dichotomized cultural orientation variables) moderated the relationship between mentor’s ethnicity and the extent of mentoring received, we conducted a 2 (dichotomized via median-split American cultural orientation) × 2 (dichotomized via median-split API cultural orientation) × 3 (ethnicity of “most influential mentor”: European American, API, other ethnic minority) ANOVA. There was a medium, significant three-way interaction [$F(2, 107) = 4.41$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .08$] and a qualified, small-to-medium, significant two-way interaction between American and API cultural orientations [$F(1, 107) = 4.18$, $p = .04$, $\eta^2 = .04$]. Post hoc analyses revealed that APIA faculty using the integration strategy (high American and API orientations) as compared to those using the assimilation strategy (high American orientation, low API orientation) reported receiving a significantly greater extent of mentoring in general (integration: $M = 3.39$, $SD = 0.90$; assimilation: $M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.90$; $p = .04$) and specifically from APIA mentors (integration: $M = 3.96$, $SD = 0.44$; assimilation: $M = 2.27$, $SD = 1.02$; $p = .004$). Moreover, highly API-oriented faculty ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 0.81$) as compared to less API-oriented faculty ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 0.90$) reported receiving more mentoring from APIA mentors ($p = .02$). In addition, APIA faculty using the assimilation strategy reported receiving a significantly greater extent of mentoring from European American mentors ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 0.82$) as compared to APIA mentors ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 1.02$; $p = .02$). After finding that acculturation predicted mentoring via an interaction, we wanted to examine whether acculturation predicted career satisfaction.

Acculturation and career satisfaction. To explore the predictive ability of cultural orientations for career satisfaction, we entered the centered cultural orientation variables in the first step and the interaction term in the second step of the regression analysis with career satisfaction as the criterion variable. Because these exploratory analyses yielded different results for American-born versus overseas-born participants, we present the two separate sets of results here. For American-born participants, the model from the first step did not account for a significant portion of the variance in career satisfaction ($R^2 = .03$, $p = .65$). Conversely, for participants born overseas, the model from the first step did account for a significant portion of the variance in career satisfaction ($R^2 = .06$, $p = .05$), because an API cultural orientation significantly predicted career satisfaction. (See Table 3 for a summary of these regression analyses.)

Discussion

In this study, we sought to improve the understanding of the careers of APIA faculty by examining the generalizability of the mentoring–career satisfaction model and exploring the role of acculturation in this model. Results suggest that the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship previously demonstrated for European Americans is generalizable to APIA faculty. This finding replicates Turner’s (2000) findings for APIAs and is congruent with previous research regarding the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship for other ethnic groups (Alleman et al., 1987; Blake-Beard, 1999; Fagenson, 1989; Turban & Dougherty, 1994; Wallace, 2001). Because of the correlational nature of our data, there are several possible explanations for these findings. For instance, a causal link between mentoring and career satisfaction is possible, such that more mentoring leads to greater career satisfaction. However, a third variable, such as personality, may predict both mentoring and career satisfaction, such that highly agreeable individuals are more
likely to be mentored and report higher career satisfaction. More research is needed to understand the mechanisms by which mentoring influences career satisfaction for APIA faculty.

Although acculturation did not moderate the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship in our study, acculturation predicted mentoring (via an interaction) and career satisfaction (for participants born overseas) individually. With regard to the extent of mentoring received, there was an interaction between acculturation strategies and mentor’s ethnicity. First, APIA faculty who used the integration strategy received more mentoring, especially from APIA mentors, than those who used the assimilation strategy. In addition, more highly API-oriented faculty received more mentoring from APIA mentors than less API-oriented faculty. The high API cultural orientation of both APIA and American faculty might have felt obligated to report that their protegee was behaving in API-congruent ways, such as complaining less and being grateful. That is, mentors enjoy working with individuals who do not complain and are grateful (characteristics of those who are highly API oriented). Alternatively, highly API-oriented faculty might have felt obligated to report that their mentor(s) provided a large extent of mentoring regardless of the actual extent of mentoring received, in accordance with the API values of gratitude, indebtedness, and reciprocity (Johnson, 1977), or to avoid shame for themselves and/or to save face for their mentors (Ha, 1995). Moreover, an APIA mentor may prime (or activate) API values, which would lead APIA faculty to behave in API-congruent ways, such as reporting a large

### Table 3
**Summary of Regression Analyses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>(\beta)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring predicting career satisfaction, controlling for years in academia ((N = 134)) Step 1: (R^2 = .06^{**})</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>.24^{**}</td>
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<td>0.22</td>
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<td>.27^{**}</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>American cultural orientation</td>
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<td>API cultural orientation</td>
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<td>API cultural orientation</td>
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<td>Mentoring × American cultural orientation</td>
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<td>American cultural orientation</td>
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<td>Step 3: (\Delta R^2 = .002) Mentoring</td>
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<td>API cultural orientation</td>
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<td>American cultural orientation × API cultural orientation</td>
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<td>American cultural orientation × API cultural orientation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>API cultural orientation</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 2: (\Delta R^2 = .02) American cultural orientation</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>API cultural orientation</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American cultural orientation × API cultural orientation</td>
<td>−0.39</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. API = Asian/Pacific Islander.

\* \(p < .05\), \*\* \(p < .01\), \*\*\* \(p < .001\).*
Extent of mentoring received (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martínez, 2000). These explanations are more plausible alternatives than acquiescence because Asians and APIAs tend to respond to Likert-type scales using the middle rather than extreme scores (Chen, Lee, & Stevenson, 1995; Lee, Jones, Mineyama, & Zhang, 2002).

Second, AAPI faculty who used the assimilation strategy received more mentoring from European American than AAPIA mentors, and this may be explained by their high American cultural orientation, as Leong and Chou (1994) proposed. That is, highly American-oriented faculty may have behaved as a protégé in a manner acceptable in dominant American culture and have expectations of mentoring that are similar to European American mentors. Moreover, being highly American oriented and less API oriented, these faculty members may be more compatible with European American than AAPIA mentors. However, this interpretation should be taken with caution because we did not measure the mentors’ acculturation status. Another possible explanation is that AAPI faculty using the assimilation strategy perceived European American mentors as more competent, and thus providing more mentoring, than AAPIA mentors (Linnehan, Weer, & Uhl, 2005). In summary, the reported extent of mentoring received varied according to the interaction among AAPIA protégés’ cultural orientations (or acculturation strategy) and mentors’ ethnicity, but the reasons for these differences remain to be investigated.

Acculturation also played a role in understanding career satisfaction. For those born overseas, an AAPI cultural orientation predicted higher career satisfaction. This may be because they actually felt more satisfied, or because they reported higher career satisfaction due to the API values of contentment (being satisfied with what one has) or fatalism (accepting things as they are; Yeh, Inman, Kim, & Okubo, 2006). In addition, highly API-oriented individuals tend to pursue financially secure and prestigious careers (Tang, Fouad, & Smith, 1999), and a university faculty position meets these expectations (in this study, we operationalized career satisfaction as met expectations or goals), therefore possibly explaining why highly API-oriented faculty reported higher career satisfaction. As mentioned earlier, acquiescence is also not a plausible explanation for this finding.

Limitations and Future Directions

The first limitation of this study is the representativeness of the sample to the general AAPI population. Faculty members may have a higher American orientation than AAPIAs because past research has shown a positive relationship between education and American orientation (e.g., Mariño, Stuart, & Minas, 2000; Sodowsky, Lai, & Plake, 1991). Moreover, participants lived in California, which has a higher percentage of AAPIAs than the rest of the United States. Because of these limitations, generalization of our results to AAPIA faculty in other parts of the country should be done with caution. Researchers should examine the relationships among acculturation, mentoring, and career satisfaction with AAPIAs at other colleges and universities, in other professions, and in other parts of the United States. Although we deemed it reasonable to study AAPIAs as a composite group within the dominant cultural context (APIAs share their minority status within the United States and usually are perceived by the dominant culture as homogeneous), we also recommend that future studies recognize and explore differences among AAPIA subgroups.

Second, contrary to previous research and to the current representation of AAPI faculty in academic departments, there were more AAPI faculty from the social sciences than from any other field in this sample. Perhaps faculty members who conduct similar research to this study were most willing to participate. Some faculty members may be skeptical of survey research methods because of lack of familiarity, cultural beliefs, or other reasons, such as concerns about confidentiality. Perceived lack of confidentiality may have stemmed from the demographics survey, which contained possibly identifying information, especially in a department with few AAPI faculty. Consequently, the perceived lack of confidentiality may account for the low response rate, another limitation in this study. Despite our attempts to increase the response rate via e-mail reminders, our response rate of 21.09% is lower than that for university-wide surveys of ethnicity minority faculty (e.g., 29%; Smith & Calasanti, 2005) and for university-wide surveys of all faculty (ranging from 35% to 85%; e.g., Brown, Clarke, Gortmaker, & Robinson-Keilig, 2004; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). To address this limitation, researchers should take additional measures to ensure strict confidentiality and to increase response rates.

Third, other study designs should be used and other possible moderators should be examined to better understand the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship. Because of the correlational and cross-sectional nature of our data, we cannot make any conclusions about causality. We recommend conducting a longitudinal study to measure the effect of mentoring on career satisfaction for AAPI faculty. In addition, we have not eliminated third variables (e.g., personality) as possible predictors of mentoring and career satisfaction. Researchers should also examine the moderating role of other cultural variables, such as power distance and the role of seniors, in the mentoring–career satisfaction relationship. Finally, to examine the causal link between mentor’s ethnicity and extent of mentoring received, researchers should conduct an experiment blocking on cultural orientation, randomly assigning participants to mentors of different ethnic groups, and measuring the reported extent of mentoring received.

Relatedly, our data were collected using self-report, retrospective measures; therefore, variables (e.g., extent of mentoring received) may be biased by perceptions, hindsight, and so forth. However, this was the most feasible method of measuring acculturation (a lifelong process), mentoring (a long and complex relationship), and career satisfaction (an evaluative construct). To address the methodological limitations of survey studies, researchers should employ interviews as supplemental measures of acculturation and mentoring.

Another limitation of our study is the possibility of committing a Type I error because we conducted a large number of analyses. Therefore, interpretation of our results should focus more on effect sizes rather than significance levels, especially given our relatively small sample size.

Finally, to understand why acculturation strategies moderated the relationship between mentor’s ethnicity and the extent of
mentoring received, researchers should examine cultural values such as collectivism, gratitude and indebtedness, and face-saving in addition to protégés behaviors, mentors’ acculturation status, mentors’ and protégés’ expectations of mentoring, and the perceived compatibility of mentors and protégés. In an effort to understand the relationship between API cultural orientation and career satisfaction, researchers should also assess cultural values such as contentment and career variables such as choice, interest, and expectations.

Implications

Based on our findings, mentoring should be encouraged for all APIA university faculty. It also may be important to make note of and reach out to faculty who do not receive a large extent of mentoring because they may have low career satisfaction. In addition, when forming mentoring dyads, some APIAs may benefit more from APIA mentors and others from European American mentors; it is misleading to assume that mentors and protégés of the same ethnicity always form the ideal dyad. To optimize mentoring, it may be helpful for mentors and protégés to communicate their expectations of the relationship, each member’s roles and behaviors, and desired mentoring benefits and outcomes because these expectations may vary across cultures and/or cultural orientations. Researchers should explore the role of acculturation when examining the careers and vocational behavior of APIAs in future studies. In summary, the current study fills the literature gap on the careers of APIAs and suggests possible research directions in this important area.

References


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