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You Scratch My Back And I'll Scratch Yours: Mentor-perceived Costs And Benefits And The Functions They Provide Their Proteges

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YOU SCRATCH MY BACK AND I'LL SCRATCH YOURS: MENTOR-PERCEIVED COSTS AND BENEFITS AND THE FUNCTIONS THEY PROVIDE THEIR PROTÉGÉS

by

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring relationships can have both costs and benefits for mentors and their protégés. The present research examined the degree to which mentors' perceived costs and benefits affect the functional and dysfunctional mentoring they provide to their protégés. Additionally, I investigated whether mentor-perceived costs and benefits were associated with the mentors' own goal orientation and the goal orientation of their protégés. Data were collected from 86 protégés and their current supervisory mentors. Consistent with expectations, when mentors reported greater costs of embarrassment associated with their relationship, the protégé reported receiving greater dysfunctional mentoring. Protégés who reported receiving greater functional mentoring tended to have mentors who perceived greater benefits of mentoring them. Both protégé and mentor goal orientations demonstrated significant correlations with mentor-perceived costs and benefits of their relationships. Implications for training and reinforcing functional mentoring will be discussed.

This thesis is dedicated to my grandfather, James B. Leary. I love you Gramps.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Mentors are persons with advanced experience and knowledge that typically provide support for increasing the career advancement of junior individuals (Kram, 1985). Mentoring research predominately focuses on perceptions of the protégé in relation to mentorships without considering the mentor's perceptions. We know that it is important to consider both perspectives because the mentor and protégé can have different reactions, reports, and memories of the same relationship (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2008; Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006). We also must consider both the positive and negative aspects involved with mentorships. To date, only two empirical studies have examined the negative perceptions of the mentorship through the eyes of the mentor (Eby et al., 2008; Eby & McManus, 2004). In their study, Eby, Butts, Lockwood, and Simon (2004) demonstrated several negative relationships between dysfunctional mentoring and protégé outcomes. Removing our rose-colored glasses that paint mentoring in an all positive light, we are able to see the things that can go wrong, thus allowing us to better understand the mentorship.

What exactly is it about the mentorship, or even about the protégé in question that leads mentors to provide functional versus dysfunctional mentoring? If the protégé is already a high performer, will this lead the mentor to provide more mentoring functions over a low performing protégé? Perhaps the mentor will feel threatened by a high performing protégé, thus leading them to engage in negative mentoring behaviors as a way of ensuring *job security*. In instances of supervisory mentoring where the mentor has a type of power over the protégé, (i.e. they may control their pay, performance appraisals, promotions, etc.) it is important to understand mentor

perceptions. Is it their *duty* to better their subordinates? Is this part of the job description, or is this just another organizational citizenship behavior that will get him or her some positive recognition? When mentors stand at the fork in the road, do they take the high road of functional mentoring, or wander down the dark crooked path of dysfunction? Is it all in the name of self-preservation, or can they look beyond that to the betterment of another? In the ever-changing extremely competitive work climate that is corporate America, what does one do? Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) noted a need for further examination of supervisor-subordinate dyadic relationships from the perspective of costs, benefits, and exchange quality, which the current study will examine.

Utilizing the underpinning of Social Exchange Theory (Thibault & Kelley, 1959), mentors should adjust their behavior based on their perceived costs and benefits of mentoring a specific protégé. Consistent with this notion, Eby et al. (2008) found that mentor-perceived benefits related positively to protégé perceptions of the functional mentoring they received (career-related and psychosocial). However, mentor-perceived costs did not contribute unique variance beyond that of benefits. Eby et al. (2008) did not examine relationships between mentor perceptions of negative experiences (costs) and dysfunctional mentoring provided to the protégé. As Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, and de Chermont's (2003) results suggest, "…if researchers do not include both affects in the prediction of attitudes in primary studies, then they at least should match affects and attitudes in terms of positive versus negative valence for optimal prediction" (p. 933). Therefore, it may be that mentor-perceived negative experiences (costs) provide unique variance in the prediction of *dysfunctional* mentoring provided, as both of these variables are negatively valenced. This study extends this previous research by first

investigating whether there is also a link between mentor-perceived costs and dysfunctional mentoring, and mentor-perceived benefits and functional mentoring provided (valence-matched variables). Second, individual difference variables (goal orientations) are investigated that are perhaps antecedents of mentor-perceived costs and benefits.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Mentoring programs have been utilized in organizations for many years, (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006; Allen, McManus, & Russell, 1999; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Sanchez, Bauer, & Paronto, 2006) often to ease the socialization process (Allen et al., 1999; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993; Singleton, Smith-Jentsch, & Feldman, 2007). Mentors are individuals that possess developed knowledge and experience and classically provide protégés (novice individuals) with the support necessary for protégé career advancement (Kram, 1985).

Defining Mentoring from the Protégé's Perspective

Functional

Two main functions of mentoring typically discussed in the literature are career functions/support and psychosocial functions/support. Career functions such as sponsorship, giving challenging assignments, coaching, protection, and exposure are those "aspects of the mentoring relationship that primarily enhance career advancement" (Kram, 1983, p. 614). Psychosocial functions such as acceptance, friendship, confirmation, role modeling, and counseling, are those "aspects of the relationship that primarily enhance sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in the managerial role" (Kram, 1983, p. 614). Scandura (1992) posits role modeling as a distinct third function. In this case, role modeling is broken down further to include behaviors in which the protégé identify with and mimics the behavior of his or her mentor. The mentor is someone who is trusted, respected, holds high standards for the protégé, and is a powerful referent.

Research has discussed numerous mentoring benefits of career and psychosocial support for protégés. In their meta-analysis, Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, and Lima (2004) found that mentoring was positively related to several protégés career benefits (i.e. compensation, salary growth, promotion). Mentoring has also been associated with a decrease in the protégé's stress (Singleton et al., 2007; Ülkü-Steiner, Kurtz-Costes, & Kinlaw, 2000), higher satisfaction (Allen et al., 2004; Seibert, 1999), greater organizational commitment (Aryee & Chay, 1994; Payne & Huffman, 2005) and increased self-esteem (Koberg, Boss, & Goodman, 1998).

Dysfunctional

Mentoring is not necessarily all peaches and cream. Eby and colleagues have continually discussed the enigma of negative mentoring (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2004; Eby et al., 2008; Eby & McManus, 2004; Eby et al., 2000; Scandura, 1998). Eby et al. (2000) found that roughly fifty percent of protégés reported at least one negative mentoring relationship during their careers. They state that negative mentoring was most likely to occur when mentors were perceived by their protégés to have divergent values, beliefs, and attitudes. Over twenty years ago, Kram (1985) warned that when a protégé is paired with a mismatched mentor, he or she can lose important career time, and that mentors associated with poor performing protégés can experience negative repercussions, even if they were not the cause of the poor performance. O'Neill and Sanowsky (2001) even bring up the notion of theoretical abuse, a term introduced in the psychotherapy literature (Basseches, 1997). Theoretical abuse involves the "misuse of one's influence with respect to interpretation of events… that may appear on the surface to be positive interpersonal interactions" (O'Neill & Sanowsky, 2001, p. 207). In other words, the mentor fails

to allow the protégé to make his or her own conclusions about an event and forces his or her interpretations onto the protégé; quite like a tyrant mentor manipulating the protégé with an, 'it's my way or the highway' mentality.

It is important to note the difference here between an ineffective relationship and dysfunctional mentoring. While an ineffective relationship (i.e. poor dyadic fit) can have negative results for both the mentor and protégé (i.e. time lost), dysfunctional mentoring is the *deliberate* sabotage of the relationship (i.e. a mentor deliberately keeping valuable promotion information from the protégé). Eby and McManus (2004) extended Scandura's (1998) work on mentorship dysfunction by categorizing the dysfunctions on a continuum, and describes the dysfunctional relationship as one in which the costs outweigh the benefits. Marginally effective relationship experiences included problems such as protégé performance below expectations and protégé unwillingness to learn. Ineffective relationship experiences include difficulty, spoiling, benign deception, and submissiveness.

To further this categorization, Eby et al. (2000) discussed five metatheses of dysfunctional mentoring, match within the dyad, lack of mentor expertise, general dysfunctionality, distancing behavior, and manipulative behavior. Match within the dyad indicates differing mentor and protégé values, personalities and work styles. Lack of mentor expertise includes a lack of career-related and or interpersonal skills. General dysfunctionality is more related to emotional issues such as personal problems, work-family conflict, or negativity toward the organization. Distancing and manipulative behavior, the key variables for the current study, will be discussed in further detail below. This study chose to focus on these two variables (distancing and manipulative behavior) to go along with Eby and Allen (2002) who suggested

that the five may be represented more parsimoniously by two higher level constructs (manipulative/distancing and poor dyadic fit). The focus of the current study is on dysfunctional mentoring, specifically manipulative and distancing behaviors, so the remainder of the literature review will focus exclusively on this end of the continuum.

Distancing behavior is when the mentor shows a complete lack of interest in the protégé. This can include neglect and exclusion of the protégé (Eby & Allen, 2002). Distancing has been found to be negatively related to protégé learning, and significantly, more so than dyad mismatch (Eby et al., 2004). Research has also shown distancing behavior to be the most frequently reported negative experience in a mentorship (Eby et al., 2000). Eby and Allen (2002) also found that protégés who reported no access to their mentor and reported feeling deliberately excluded from meetings and communications, also reported more stress and intent to turnover, and reported lower job satisfaction. Distancing behavior has also been found to be negatively correlated with career-related support, psychosocial support, and social exchange, and positively related to intent to leave the relationship and depressed mood (Eby et al., 2004).

Manipulative behavior involves the mentor engaging in behaviors that are "exploitative or politically motivated…" including, "inappropriately delegating work, sabotaging the protégé, and taking credit for the protégé's hard work" (Eby & Allen, 2002, p. 459). Manipulative behavior has been found to be negatively related to psychosocial support, career support, protégé learning, and social exchange, while being positively related to psychological withdrawal, depressed mood, and intent to leave the relationship (Eby et al., 2004).

Defining Mentoring from the Mentor's Perspective

Although most mentoring research has focused on the impact of mentoring on the protégé, researchers have become increasingly interested in the impact of mentoring relationships on the mentor.

Benefits of Mentoring

Mentors often feel a sense of personal and professional accomplishment (Bozionelos, 2004; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Often mentors report satisfaction and fulfillment as being a major benefit and may experience an intrinsic fulfillment because they have the ability to pass on their career experiences and skills to a protégé (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). Mentors also have the opportunity to receive organizational recognition, as volunteer mentoring is often seen as an organizational citizenship behavior, something not directly part of one's job description. Additionally, Bozionelos' (2004) results suggest that not only is receiving mentoring beneficial, but the act of providing mentoring can contribute to the mentor's subjective career success. With this, there is the potential benefit of also taking credit for facilitating a protégé's success.

Costs of Mentoring

There are costs involved with becoming a mentor, but only two empirical studies, to date (Eby et al., 2008; Eby & McManus, 2004) have concentrated on the mentor's perception of the problems that can arise in a mentoring relationship. Eby and colleagues (2008) created an instrument to measure the challenges experienced by mentors and how those experiences impact

process and outcomes of the mentorship. Mentoring obviously takes time and energy away from other tasks, and the sessions with one's protégé are in addition to the mentor's normal job requirements (Ragins & Scandura, 1994). Mentor relationships can also be seen as playing favorites which can adversely affect the mentor's image in the organization (Myers & Humphreys, 1985). In addition, the organizational recognition mentioned above can also be a negative thing for the mentor if the protégé is performing poorly. Research has also looked at the negative side of a protégé in which it is possible for the protégé to be disloyal or even for the possibility of the mentor being displaced by the protégé (Halatin & Knotts, 1962).

Costs and Benefits as Predictors of Mentoring Provided

It is important to note that positives and negatives in a mentoring relationship reside on a continuum (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). The accumulation of positive or negative occurrences determines the overall perception of the mentorship. Support for this idea can be found in various traditional theoretical models pertaining to relationship dynamics. Social Exchange Theory (Thibault & Kelley, 1959) directly relates costs and benefits to mentoring functions by underscoring the notion that mentor and protégé perceived costs and benefits of the mentorship are a necessary condition of how they perceive each other. We start by exploring the associated costs and benefits with the other person. Next, we begin bargaining and try to negotiate which costs and benefits are agreed upon for the relationship. Once this has been accomplished, the exchange of benefits and approval of the costs become stable and greater focus begins to be placed on the actual relationship itself. After some time, we get to the stage of institutionalization where our relationship norms and expectations become firmly established.

Social Exchange Theory posits that we engage in the maintenance of personal relationships when relationship benefits outweigh the costs (Young & Perrewé, 2000), utilizing the Behavioral Psychology concept of reinforcement. When we are rewarded positively for behaviors, we continue to engage in those behaviors. If we receive negative reinforcement for our behaviors, we disengage in those behaviors. "One of the basic tenets of SET is that relationships evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 874), if the rules of exchange are followed. If there becomes an imbalance and the costs begin to outweigh the benefits of the relationship, the relationship can weaken and may even lead to destruction. For example, if a protégé perceives the mentor as treating him or her unfairly, perhaps by withholding pertinent information, the protégé may lash out by engaging in retaliatory measures such as spreading rumors about the mentor and trying to tarnish the mentor's reputation.

Directly related to the concept of Social Exchange Theory, is the idea of a psychological contract. Mentors and protégés go into their mentorship with certain behavioral expectations. A psychological contract is defined as the, "shared understandings and reciprocal contributions for mutual benefit" (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004, p. 52). Dabos and Rousseau note that psychological contracts aid in the reduction of relationship insecurities through their ability to foresee future exchanges between the individuals. Establishing a psychological contract between mentor and protégé can aid in the development of a relationship, especially in formal mentorships.

Along these lines, equity theory stresses fairness in the relationship and deals with one's motivation to perform and engage. Individuals have the highest motivation when they perceive their rewards to be equivalent to their contributions (Adams & Rosenbaum, 1962). If for example,

the mentor begins to feel that she is putting excessive effort into the mentorship, only to be slighted by a lazy protégé who puts forth no time or energy, there will be conflict. When there is inequity, individuals will strive to restore equity. Therefore, the mentor may try to discuss these feelings of inequity with the protégé and determine some effective ways to restore relationship balance. If equity cannot be restored, displaced aggression can be triggered by the injustice. The mentor may react by distancing herself from the protégé and by not providing as much career or psychosocial support as originally provided (i.e. bringing herself down to the level of the protégé's lackadaisical mentality). On the other hand, she may intentionally try to damage the protégé by withholding valuable career information regarding a potential promotion opportunity. It is important to note that dysfunctional mentoring is not simply the absence of functional mentoring, but rather the withdrawal of assistive behaviors and supplying of negative mentoring such as sabotage.

In an attempt to preserve their reputation, or even their job, mentors with high perceptions of mentorship costs should be more likely to engage in dysfunctional mentoring. Mentors will most likely want to distance themselves from a *poor* performing protégé in an attempt to safeguard themselves from potential negative organizational recognition. On the other hand, if the mentor feels that their job security is threatened by a *high* performing, competitive protégé, the mentor may engage in manipulative behaviors such as sabotage of their protégé to avoid job loss.

Hypothesis 1: Mentor-perceived costs will lead to higher protégé-reported dysfunctional mentoring provided.

Other mentors however, may see a high performing protégé as a benefit for positive organizational recognition and thus make sure they are seen with them often. They bask in the

reflected glory of their high performer, and take credit for their success. Additionally, following the old adage, "keep your friends close and your enemies closer," they want to keep their future competitors close to them.

Hypothesis 2: Mentor perceived benefits lead to lower protégé-reported dysfunctional mentoring provided.

Costs and Benefits Related to Functional Mentoring

Eby et al. (2008) found that mentor benefits (instrumental and relational) were significantly related to functional mentoring. Ragins and Scandura (1999) investigated both mentor-perceived costs and benefits in relation to willingness to mentor in the future. They found that intent to mentor in the future was significantly related to greater anticipated benefits and fewer anticipated costs. The current study takes this one-step further and examines these perceived costs and benefits as they relate to a *current* mentorship rather than an anticipated mentorship.

Hypothesis 3: Mentor-perceived benefits lead to higher protégé-reported functional mentoring provided.

Eby et al. (2008) found correlational support that all three dimensions of negative mentoring were significantly and negatively correlated with protégés' reports of functional mentoring received. However, negative mentoring did not account uniquely beyond that accounted for by benefits in the prediction of functional mentoring. In the present study, I will retest this hypothesis using a different population. Based on the arguments I have put forth in the previous section my forth hypothesis stated:

Hypothesis 4: Mentor-perceived costs lead to lower protégé-reported functional mentoring provided.

We do not know the specific antecedents of mentor-perceived costs and benefits, some may be individual differences (i.e. goal orientation), and others may be contextual (i.e. organizational support). Once again, it is necessary to consider both what the mentor brings and what the protégé brings; each has his or her own reactions, reports, and memories of the same relationship (Eby et al., 2008; Wanberg et al., 2006). An individual's personality is only one driving force behind how they interact in the mentorship. The characteristics and personality of the person to whom they are matched can also greatly influence how much he or she is willing to invest in the mentorship.

We know a couple of things about what makes a mentorship work, similarity, choice, etc. However, we do not know much about how the individual difference variables mentors and protégés bring to the mentorship influence mentoring provided. One variable, goal orientation, which is your motivation in achievement contexts, should be directly related to how mentors perceive the costs and benefits of a mentorship. This will be outlined in the following section.

Goal Orientation

Goal orientation is an individual's focus in achievement situations and was originally thought to consist of two dimensions, learning goal orientation (LGO) and performance goal orientation. Performance goal orientation has recently been hypothesized to be comprised of two separate orientations prove performance goal orientation (PPGO), and avoid performance goal orientation (APGO) (VandeWalle, 1993, 1996).

Learning goal orientation (LGO) has been defined as "the desire to develop the self by acquiring new skills, mastering new situations, and improving one's competence" (p. 8). There is

an intrinsic motivation to attain these goals and they are often viewed as a way to improve ones understanding of how to perform. *Prove performance goal orientation (PPGO)* has been defined as "the desire to prove one's competence and to gain favorable judgments about it" (p. 8). There is an extrinsic motivation to attain these goals and they are often viewed as a way to improve how one is evaluated. *Avoid performance goal orientation (APGO)* has been defined as "the desire to avoid the disproving of one's competence and to avoid negative judgments about it" (p. 8). Like PPGO, the motivation to attain these goals is extrinsic and is often viewed as a way to avoid demonstrating one's ability in order to escape negative evaluation by others (VandeWalle, 1996).

The Educational Psychology Literature first introduced the concept of *learning orientation* or *grade orientation* (Eison, 1980, 1981). Learning orientation was defined as the principal mind-set held by students who feel college is an opportunity to obtain comprehension and to gain enlightenment both intellectually and personally. Eison defined another orientation, grade orientation as the principle mind-set held by students who see the goal of college as obtaining high course grades (Eison, 1980). Eison (1980, 1981) further developed The Learning Orientation-Grade Orientation Scale (LOGO) to assess learning and grade orientations believed to exist as opposite ends of a continuum. Further research by Eison and colleagues redefined these orientations as being independent (LOGO II; Eison, Pollio, & Milton, 1982). Almost ten years later, the Approach-Avoid Achievement Goal Framework was developed which first separated approach and avoidance components (Elliot, 1994; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Separating the goal orientation dimensions is often supported in the literature by the theory of referent comparison (Nicholls, 1975, 1976, 1978). Nicholls hypothesized two

conceptions of how individuals define success: task involvement, where individuals compare themselves to their past performance (self-referent), or ego involvement, where individuals compare their performance to others (external referent). Learning goal orientation (LGO) is said to have a self-referent comparison, and prove performance goal orientation (PPGO) and avoid performance goal orientation (APGO) are said to have external referent comparisons.

Additionally, Bandura and Dweck (1985) developed the Implicit Theory of Intelligence which also played a role in the development of the goal orientation frameworks. Their theory focused on two ideas, persons are likely to believe intelligence and performance are fixed (likely to adopt performance goals) if they possess an entity theory of intelligence. Persons are likely to believe intelligence and performance can be improved through increased effort (likely to adopt learning goals) if they possess an incremental theory of intelligence. This theory posited that it was impossible for an individual to adopt both an entity theory and an incremental theory simultaneously, thus once again, the two goals and subsequent goal orientations were initially hypothesized to exist at opposite ends of an underlying continuum.

Finally, goal orientation's relationship to personality traits, academic traits, and academic scores has been frequently studied (e.g. Ames, & Archer, 1988; Brdar, Rijavec, & Loncaric, 2006; Giota, 2006). Recent meta-analyses conducted on goal orientation (Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007; Rawsthorne & Elliot, 1999; Utman, 1997) found that LGO is positively related to constructs such as need for achievement, the Big Five, and general self-efficacy, whereas APGO is generally negatively related, and PPGO is often unrelated to these constructs.

GO and Mentoring

Ragins (1997) stresses the point that mentorship composition leads to "unique behaviors and perceptual processes" (p. 502). Individuals with high levels LGO or PPGO approach situations, but they approach situations for different reasons. Three theories have been proposed by others to explain the differences between learning, avoid, and prove goal orientations. The first is an individual's belief in the malleability/stability of performance, the second is the tendency to approach or avoid situations, and the third is the tendency to use one's self or others as a referent for judging one's success in learning situations.

Individuals with higher levels of LGO approach situations in which they can improve relative to their past behavior due to their belief in the malleability of skill. This would explain why avoid performance and learning orientations are always negatively related and show consistent relations (positive for learning, and negative for avoid) with self-efficacy, feedback seeking, and self-regulatory behavior. LGO mentors will see the mentorship as not only a learning opportunity for the protégé, but also a learning opportunity for themselves. Given what we know about goal orientation, mentors high on LGO should intrinsically approach the mentorship as a reciprocal learning experience and an opportunity to acquire new skills. They should emphasize greater benefits when evaluating their mentorships, and not weigh costs as highly, with a focus on their own personal growth, and the growth of their protégés. LGO mentors will see the mentorship as beneficial to the protégé's learning and growth, as well as an opportunity to learn and improve their own performance as well, viewing the mentorship as a reciprocal learning opportunity. LGO mentors on the other hand see performance as malleable and approach situations with a motivation to learn. They will most likely weigh the benefits of

entering the mentorship and not worry about the costs of competition and embarrassment. They will provide mentoring regardless if circumstance.

Hypothesis 5: Mentor LGO will be positively related to mentor-perceived benefits.

Protégés high in LGO will be equally invested in the relationship, and when paired with high LGO mentors, should have the highest quality mentorship because of the constant mutual investment in the growth and learning attainment from the experience. Additionally, perhaps protégés high in LGO are perceived as *worth* the investment because they are good company and show a motivated interested in their personal growth. High performers will be seen as beneficial to the mentor's own self-image (success by association). Thus, mentors should perceive greater benefits to mentoring a protégé who is high on LGO because that protégé is more likely to reflect positively on their reputation and because that protégé is more likely to facilitate the mentor's own learning.

Hypothesis 6: Protégé LGO will be positively related to mentor-perceived benefits.

In contrast, a prove performance orientation is positively correlated with both avoid and learning goal orientations. Perhaps prove oriented individuals share the external or "other" referent with avoid oriented individuals, and share the approach dimension with learning oriented individuals. Rather than avoiding situations in which they might fail, they approach situations in which they can demonstrate competence and are motivated to find situations in which they can present themselves positively to others.

Mentors high on PPGO will likewise focus on what can be gained personally from their mentorships, but with an extrinsic motive in mind, 'Well, if I am a mentor, I will appear more competent,' mentality. It is suspected that high PPGO mentors will weigh the benefits of positive

recognition and be concerned about preserving their reputations. PPGO mentors should spend more time with high performing protégés that will make them look good, in order to preserve their status and may even take credit for the protégé's performance, even if they had nothing to do with it.

Hypothesis 7: Mentor PPGO will be positively related to the mentor-perceived benefits.

PPGO mentors will also be concerned with the cost of possible competition with the protégé and embarrassment. Because PPGO individuals are concerned with how they appear to others, they will fear embarrassment by a poor performing protégé.

Hypothesis 8: Mentor PPGO will be positively related to mentor-perceived costs (a) competition and (b) embarrassment.

In that same vein, a protégé that is high in PPGO could take advantage of their high performing mentor and take credit for their accomplishments. Just as a high PPGO mentor, the high PPGO protégé will see it as advantageous for their own self-image to spend as much time as possible associating with their mentor in order to increase their reputation by association. Additionally, this could cause potential competition between mentor and protégé when determining who is responsible and deserves credit.

Hypothesis 9: Protégé PPGO will be positively related to mentor perceived cost (competition).

Lastly, APGO suggests a desire to avoid situations in which a person's performance will not compare favorably to others and a lack of motivation to try to improve given that they do not believe their performance can be changed. If a mentor is high in APGO, they will not want to associate with a poor performing protégé because of the potential for unfavorable feedback from others.

Hypothesis 10: Mentor APGO will be positively related to the mentor-perceived cost embarrassment.

Additionally, protégés high in APGO are not likely to be seen as a value to mentors. In a recent meta-analysis, APGO was found to be negatively related to conscientiousness, openness, extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, and both task and job performance (Payne et al., 2007).

Hypothesis 11: Protégé APGO will be negatively related to mentor-perceived benefits.

Summary

In summary, this study will examine the influence of mentors' goal orientation and the goal orientation of their protégés on the mentor-perceived costs and benefits of this relationship, and in result on the functional and/or dysfunctional mentoring provided. The aim of this paper is to expand our understanding of the mentorship dynamic by incorporating inputs and perspectives of both mentors and protégés, and by examining both functional and dysfunctional mentoring provided as a result. Mentoring functions provided can be influenced by both whom the mentor is and whom his or her protégé is. I argue that the costs and benefits a mentor perceives in a particular relationship vary as a function of their goal orientation and their protégé's goal orientation. Perceptions of costs and benefits are likely influenced by individual difference variables as well as contextual variables, such as the person you are paired with in the mentorship.

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

Participants

To test my experimental hypotheses, I used an archival data set including 86 individuals who reported having a current supervisory mentor (Bencaz, 2008). Participants were employees recruited by way of a personalized e-mail sent by the head of Human Relations. Employees were from five locations, across the United States, of a Marketing Communications business sector (associated with a large national corporation). The e-mail informed employees of the purpose of the study, the principal investigator's third party affiliation, and supplied employees with a link to complete the proposed survey. The preliminary survey for protégés was sent to 470 employees stationed at all five locations. Eighty-six of these reported having current supervisory mentors.

Prior research examining the outcomes of protégés in functional and dysfunctional mentoring relationships generally produce small to medium effect sizes (see Allen et al., 2004; Eby & Allen, 2002; Harvey et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000). Schmidt (1971) recommends a minimum *n*-to-*k* ratio ranging in value from 15-to-l to 25-to-1. In the current study, the *n*-to-*k* ratio is 86-to-9, which translates to about 10-to-1.

Protégés

The ages of participating protégés ranged from a minimum of 20 years to a maximum of 68 years (M = 36 years). Of the protégé participants, 36 reported to be male, 48 reported to be female, and 2 did not disclose their gender. Sixty-four Caucasians made up the majority of the racial makeup. Subsequently, there were 11 African Americans, 4 Hispanics, 4 Asians, and 3 participants selected "Other." Demographics were also collected concerning education level. 27

individuals reported their highest education attained as high school, 10 reported an Associate's Degree, 35 reported a Bachelor's Degree, 11 reported a Master's Degree, one reported a Doctoral Degree, and two did not provide a response. Participants' organizational tenure (amount of time with the company) ranged from two months to 230 months (M = 40.62 months, Mdn = 23 months), and job tenure (amount of time in one's current position) ranged from one month to 123 months (M = 27.34 months, Mdn = 18 months).

Mentors

Mentors had from one to five protégés, and forty percent of mentors had more than one protégé. The ages of participating mentors ranged from a minimum of 24 years to a maximum of 67 years (M = 42.5 years). Of the mentor participants, 36 reported to be male, 27 reported to be female, and 1 did not disclose his or her gender. Sixty Caucasians made up the majority of the racial makeup. Subsequently, there were 2 Hispanics, 1 African American, 1 Asian, and 1 participant selected "Other." Demographics were also collected concerning education level. Ten individuals reported their highest education attained as high school, seven reported an Associate's Degree, twenty-eight reported a Bachelor's Degree, twenty reported a Master's Degree, one reported a Doctoral Degree, and one did not provide a response. Mentors' organizational tenure ranged from seven months to 252 months (M = 81.51 months, Mdn = 79 months), and job tenure ranged from one month to 135 months (M = 36.89 months, Mdn = 24 months).

Materials

Mentors and protégés were asked to provide *demographic information* including their education, age, gender (1 = male, 2 = female), and race. Next, they were asked to provide their job title, department, organizational tenure in months, and the location of their company.

Goal orientation was assessed with a 13-item instrument developed and validated by VandeWalle (1997). Four items ($\alpha_{protégé} = .92$, $\alpha_{mentor} = .97$) measure a learning-goal orientation (i.e. "I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge"), four items ($\alpha_{protégé} = .86$, $\alpha_{mentor} = .86$) measure the prove dimension of a performance goal orientation (i.e. "I Prefer to work on projects where I can prove my abilities to others"), and four items ($\alpha_{protégé} = .88$, $\alpha_{mentor} = .86$) measure the avoid dimension of a performance-goal orientation (i.e. "I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly"). All items were measured with a six-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). Higher scores indicate higher levels of the goal orientation dimension.

Mentor-perceived costs and benefits were measured using a modified version (Appendix A) of the instrument developed by Ragins and Scandura (1994, 1999). Four items, "This protégé's performance and/or behavior reflects positively on my reputation or competency," "Mentoring this protégé has a positive impact on my own performance," "Choosing to mentor this protégé reflects positively on my judgment," and "I am likely to receive positive recognition for developing the talent of this protégé" ($\alpha = .84$) made up the benefits subscale. Two items, "This protégé may one day compete with me for a job or important assignment" and "This protégé may one day become a professional adversary" ($\alpha = .77$) made up the competition cost subscale. Two items, "Choosing to mentor this protégé reflects negatively on my judgment" and

"This protégé's performance and/or behavior reflects negatively on my reputation or competency" (α = .73) made up the embarrassment cost subscale. All items were measured using a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicate higher perceptions of benefits and costs. Due to the relationship between variables, all four benefit items were combined to create one scale, and the cost items were separated into two subscales.

Dysfunctional mentoring was measured with two subscales from the Eby, Butts, Lockwood, and Simon's (2004) measure of negative mentoring experience (Appendix C & D), specifically manipulative behaviors (nine items, α = 0.94) and distancing behaviors (seven items, α = 0.94). All of these alphas were reported in the previous study (Bencaz, 2008). An example of a manipulative behavior item is, "My mentor pulls rank on me." An example of a distancing behavior item is, "When I interact with my mentor he/she does not give me his/her full attention." Protégé participants described their mentor and all items were measured using a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

Functional mentoring was measured with twenty-one items (14 items for psychosocial, α = 0.94; 7 items for career development, α = 0.89) from Noe's (1988) Mentor Function Scale, specifically (psychosocial and career development) provided (Appendix E). All of these alphas were reported in the previous study (Bencaz, 2008). An example of a psychosocial mentoring item is, "My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems." An example of a career development mentoring, "My mentor has encouraged me to prepare for advancement." All items were measured using a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (no extent) to 6 (great extent).

Procedure

This study was conducted using an online survey sent to participants via email. The email contained a link to the survey website. Once individuals opened the survey link, an online informed consent (see Appendix B) was presented to protégé participants. Participants agreed to the consent form via an electronically signature. This allowed protégés to be matched later on to their specified mentor. After agreeing to participate, protégés were given a demographic survey, and the goal orientation measure (VandeWalle, 1997). After these initial measures were completed, participants were given a definition of a mentor,

> "A mentor is a person of greater experience who is committed to the personal and professional development and support of a less experienced individual (i.e. "protégé"). These relationships can be informal or formal (i.e. protégé is assigned to a mentor by the organization), and you may have more than one mentor at a time. Furthermore, mentoring relationships are not always 100% positive. Like other types of relationships, they can have their ups and downs."

Participants were then asked to determine if their current supervisor fit the mentoring definition. Participants who answered yes to currently having a mentor employed in the organization were asked to select their mentor from a drop-down menu. This list was created by consulting Human Resources and determining who was qualified as a "people manager." If their mentor was not on this list, participants were given the option of typing in the name of their mentor. This selection allowed the protégé to be matched electronically with their mentor for study purposes. After the selection was made, participants were again reminded of the complete confidentiality of the study. They were told that neither their mentor nor anyone at their organization would ever see their responses to the questionnaires. Especially in the case of having a supervisory mentor, someone who has potential control over performance appraisals and other job-related responsibilities, confidentiality was of utmost important to ensure accurate and truthful

responding of the protégés. Next, protégé participants were given a series of measures that asked about their specific interactions, and overall relationship with the selected mentor concerning dysfunctional mentoring received (Appendix C & D), functional mentoring received (Appendix E), and trait goal orientation (VandeWalle, 2007).

After the adequate number of response participants was collected, the mentor-protégé dyads were compiled. This list was used to send an email to all of the mentors that participants had reported. This email was not sent through Human Resources in order to keep confidentiality. The personalized email notified mentors that they had been specified as such and named the individual(s) who perceived them as a mentor. A link to the study's survey website ended the email. Mentors were given the informed consent to participate (Appendix B). If they agreed, they completed the demographics questionnaire. After completion of the demographics, mentors were given the definition of a mentor (the same that was presented to protégé participants). Next mentor participants were asked to give the name of their protégé (if they had multiple protégés they were asked to just provide the name of their first protégé) and asked to specify if the protégé was a current subordinate. Next, mentors received the trait goal orientation (VandeWalle, 2007), and the perceived costs and benefits measure (Appendix A). After the completion of the measures, mentors were given the opportunity to rate any additional protégés they had (just as they had previously done). If not, the survey was completed.

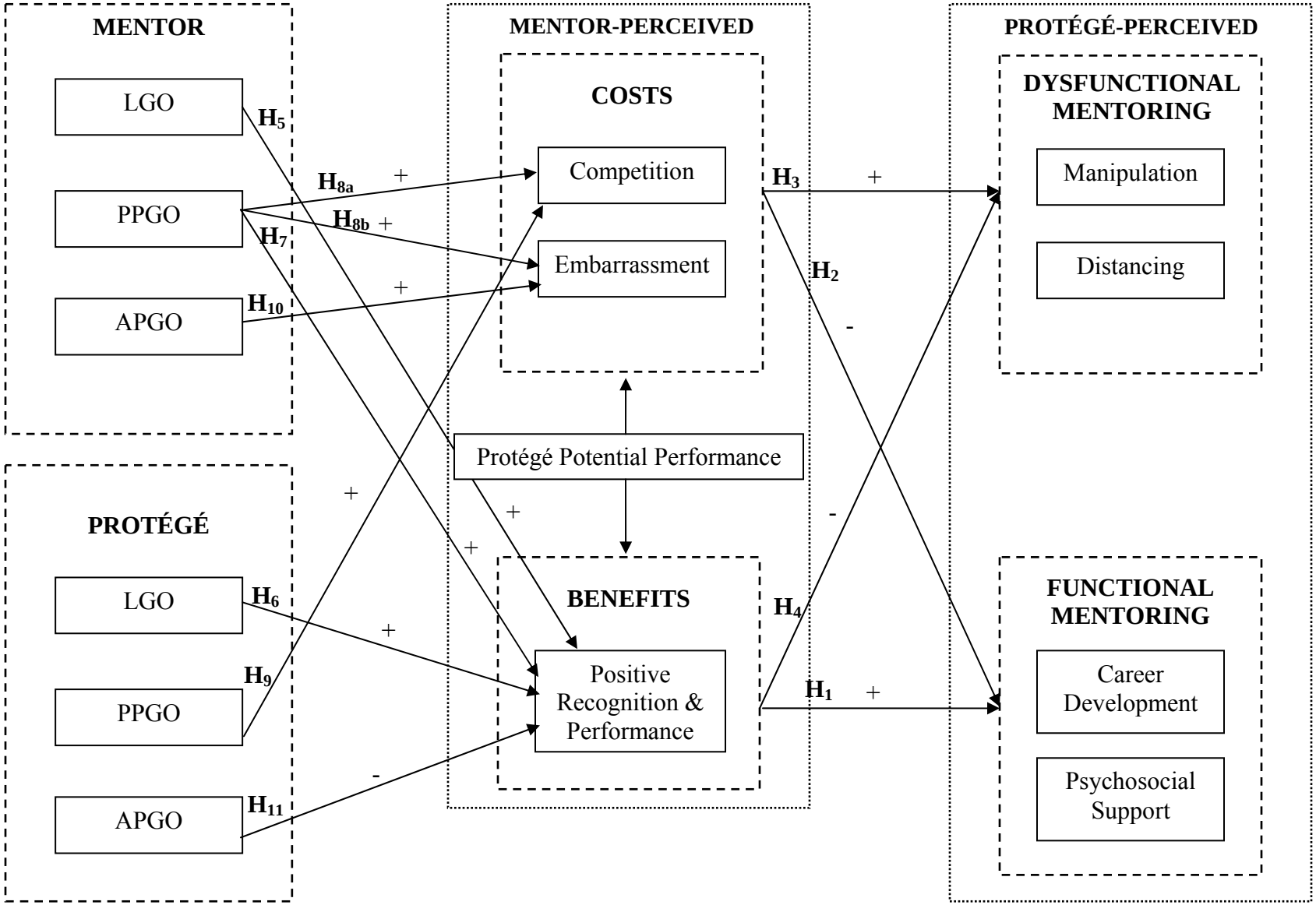

Figure 1. Hypothesized Model

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

SPSS 16.0 for Windows was used to test all study hypotheses using an alpha level of .05. Pearson product-moment correlations results and descriptive statistics are reported in Table 1. Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM), which allows one to test multilevel data, was used to test all hypotheses; protégés were nested in mentors. "Hierarchical relationships occur when variables at one level of analysis influence, or are influenced by, variables at another level of analysis" (Hofman, 1997, p. 724). The use of multilevel models allows us to estimate relationships that can occur within levels or across levels while at the same time accounting for possible sources of variance at the different levels (Watson, Chemers & Preiser, 2001). In this study, there was a significant effect for mentor. The results of each hypothesis test are summarized in Tables 2-4. Where appropriate, covariates (i.e. gender, potential for advancement) were included to remove potential bias and to control for possible spurious effects.

Note that hypothesized relationships were first tested with the overall functional and dysfunctional measures and then were analyzed further utilizing the subscales for functional (career development and psychosocial support) and for dysfunctional (manipulation and distancing) in order to provide a more accurate picture.

Correlational Results

Table 1 contains the means, standard deviations, and interclass correlations among study variables. While the combined mentor-perceived costs were not related to protégé-reported dysfunctional mentoring provided, the higher the mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment was, the more protégés reported mentor distancing ($r = .27$, $p < .05$) and overall dysfunctional mentoring ($r = .27$, $p < .05$), thus providing partial support for Hypothesis 1. In support of

Hypothesis 2, when mentors perceived more benefits, protégés reported less overall dysfunctional mentoring (r = -.24, p < .10) and manipulation (r = -.27, p < .05). Additionally, in support of Hypothesis 3, when mentors perceived more benefits, protégés reported more overall functional mentoring (r = .43, p < .01). Additionally, the higher the mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment, the more protégés reported being manipulated by their mentors (r = .25, p < .10). Thus, hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Demographics

Older mentors tended to have higher levels of LGO (r = .30, p < .05) and lower levels of APGO (r = -.34, p < .01). Older mentors also saw a higher potential for advancement in their protégés (r = .35, p < .01) and reported more intrinsic satisfaction as a motive to mentor (r = .25, p < .05). In relation to gender, females were more likely to report intrinsic satisfaction as a motive to mentor (r = .25, p < .05).

Goal Orientation

As typically is found in goal orientation research, LGO and APGO were negatively related for protégés (r = -.35, p < .01) and for mentors (r = .78, p < .01). Interestingly, mentor APGO and protégé APGO were negatively related (r = -.33, p < .05) and so were mentor PPGO and protégé PPGO (r = -.23, p < .10).

Goal Orientation, Costs, and Benefits

Contrary to Hypothesis 5, mentor LGO was not found to be significantly related to mentor-perceived benefits, however, in support of Hypothesis 6, when their *protégés* were higher

in LGO, mentors perceived more benefits ($r = .27$, $p < .05$). Additionally, in support of Hypothesis 7, mentors higher in PPGO reported higher benefits ($r = .48$, $p < .01$). Contrary to Hypotheses 8a, 8b, and 9, mentor PPGO was not significantly related to mentor-perceived costs, nor was protégé PPGO related to the mentor-perceived cost of competition. Also contrary to Hypothesis 10, mentors higher in avoid performance goal orientation (APGO) reported less costs of embarrassment ($r = -.22$, $p < .10$). Finally, in support of Hypothesis 11, when protégés were high in APGO, their mentors perceived less benefits ($r = -.22$, $p < .10$).

Goal Orientation and Mentoring Functions

Protégé perceptions of mentoring functions received were examined, and because there was access to mentor perceptions of functional mentoring provided, this was examined as well. Mentors higher in LGO reported giving more career development to their protégés ($r = .28$, $p < .05$), and mentors higher in PPGO reported giving more psychosocial support to their protégés ($r = .31$, $p < .05$). Mentor goal orientation was not found to be related to any of the protégé-perceived functional or dysfunctional mentoring received. However, protégés higher in PPGO reported receiving less functional mentoring ($r = .22$, $p < .10$).

Costs, Benefits, and Mentoring Functions

When protégés reported higher career development received ($r = .26$, $p < .05$), and when mentors reported more career development provided ($r = .38$ $p < .01$), mentors had higher perceived costs of competition. When mentors had higher perceived costs of embarrassment, protégés reported receiving less career development ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$) and mentors reported providing less psychosocial support ($r = -.28$, $p < .05$). However, when mentors perceived higher

benefits, protégés reported receiving more career development ($r = .39$, $p < .01$) and psychosocial support ($r = .48$, $p < .01$) and mentors reported providing more career development ($r = .43$, $p < .01$) and psychosocial support ($r = .47$, $p < .01$).

Although not hypothesized, it is interesting to point out a few noteworthy relationships. When mentors felt their protégés had a higher potential for advancement, they perceived higher costs of competition ($r = .57$, $p < .01$), but less costs of embarrassment ($r = -.45$, $p < .01$). When protégé potential for advancement was greater, mentors perceived greater benefits ($r = .40$, $p < .01$), protégés reported more functional mentoring received ($r = .37$, $p < .01$) and mentors reported more functional mentoring provided ($r = .31$, $p < .05$).

Tests of Nested Hypotheses

The focus this study was on supervisory mentors, forty percent of which had multiple protégés. Because mentors completed measures multiple times for different subordinate protégés, potential nested effects were examined to see if mentors accounted for unique variance (see Table 2).

Predictors of Dysfunctional Mentoring

Analyses were first run using overall dysfunctional mentoring, and then the same equations were run using the dysfunctional mentoring subscales (i.e. distancing and manipulation). Similar results were found for both the overall measure and the subscales. Results showed that the random factor of mentor was significant for protégé-perceived overall dysfunctional mentoring received (*Wald's Z* = 2.49, $p < .01$), protégé-perceived distancing received (*Wald's Z* = 2.48, $p < .01$), and protégé-perceived manipulation received (*Wald's Z* =

2.19, $p < .05$). Mentor-perceived benefits, ($t = -0.09$, $p > .05$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = 3.00$, $p < .01$) and mentor-perceived costs of competition ($t = -1.74$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto protégé-perceived overall dysfunctional mentoring received. Specifically, the mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment accounted for unique variance in protégé-reported overall dysfunctional mentoring received beyond the mentor nested effect, but mentor-perceived benefits and mentor-perceived cost of competition did not. Thus, the nested test of hypothesis 1 was partially supported and the nested test of hypothesis 2 was not supported in relation to overall dysfunctional mentoring.

Next, mentor-perceived benefits ($t = 0.21$, $p > .05$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = 3.08$, $p < .01$) and competition ($t = -1.85$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto protégé-perceived distancing received. Once again, the mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment accounted for unique variance in protégé-reported distancing received beyond the mentor nested effect, but mentor-perceived benefits and mentor-perceived cost of competition did not.

Finally, mentor-perceived benefits ($t = -1.70$, $p < .05$, 1-tailed), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = 1.63$, $p < .05$, 1-tailed) and competition ($t = -0.67$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto protégé-perceived manipulation received. This time, mentor-perceived benefits and the mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment provided unique variance in protégé-reported manipulation received beyond the mentor nested effect, but mentor-perceived cost of competition did not.

Predictors of Functional Mentoring from the Protégé's Perspective

Analyses were first run using overall functional mentoring, and then the same equations were run using the functional mentoring subscales (i.e. career development and psychosocial

support). Results showed that the random factor of mentor was not significant for protégé-reported overall functional mentoring received (*Wald's Z* = 1.20, $p > .05$), nor for protégé-reported career development received (*Wald's Z* = 0.28, $p > .05$). I was unable to compute a test statistic for the dependent variable protégé-reported psychosocial support received due to a failure of the Hessian matrix to be positive definite, although convergence criteria were satisfied. Mentor-perceived benefits ($t = 2.38$, $p < .05$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = -3.31$, $p < .01$) and competition ($t = 1.07$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto protégé-reported functional mentoring received. Specifically, the mentor-perceived benefits accounted for unique variance in protégé-reported functional mentoring received beyond the mentor nested effect thus supporting Hypothesis 1, and mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment accounted for unique variance in protégé-reported functional mentoring received beyond the mentor nested effect, mentor-perceived cost of competition did not, thus providing partial support for the nested test of Hypothesis 2.

Next, mentor-perceived benefits ($t = 2.13$, $p < .05$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = -2.89$, $p < .01$) and competition ($t = 1.90$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto protégé-reported career development received. Specifically, the mentor-perceived benefits and mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment did account for unique variance in protégé-reported career development received beyond the mentor nested effect; however, mentor-perceived cost of competition did not.

Finally, mentor-perceived benefits ($t = 2.12$, $p < .05$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = -3.30$, $p < .01$) and competition ($t = -0.38$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto protégé-reported psychosocial support received. Specifically, the mentor-perceived benefits and mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment provided unique variance in protégé-reported

psychosocial support received, beyond the mentor nested effect. As the previous analyses, mentor-perceived cost of competition did not.

Predictors of Functional Mentoring from the Mentor Perspective

Analyses were first run using overall functional mentoring, and then the same equations were run using the functional mentoring subscales (i.e. career development and psychosocial support). Results (Table 3) showed that the random factor of mentor was significant for mentor-reported functional mentoring provided (*Wald's Z* = 3.06, $p < .01$), and for mentor-reported psychosocial supported provided (*Wald's Z* = 3.49, $p < .01$), but not for mentor-reported career development provided (*Wald's Z* = 1.44, $p > .05$). Mentor-perceived benefits ($t = 3.31$, $p < .01$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = -0.78$, $p > .05$) and competition ($t = 1.04$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto mentor-reported functional mentoring provided. Specifically, mentor-perceived benefits accounted for unique variance in mentor-reported functional mentoring provided beyond the mentor nested effect, but mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment and mentor-perceived cost of competition did not.

Next, mentor-perceived benefits ($t = 2.67$, $p < .01$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = -0.45$, $p > .05$) and competition ($t = 2.05$, $p < .05$) were regressed onto mentor-reported career development provided. Specifically, the mentor-perceived benefits and mentor-perceived cost of competition both accounted for unique variance in mentor-reported career development provided beyond the mentor nested effect, but mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment did not.

Finally, mentor-perceived benefits ($t = 2.65$, $p < .01$), mentor-perceived costs of embarrassment ($t = -1.48$, $p > .05$) and competition ($t = 0.10$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto

mentor-reported psychosocial support provided. Specifically, the mentor-perceived benefits provided unique variance in mentor-reported psychosocial support provided, beyond the mentor nested effect. Mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment and mentor-perceived cost of competition did not.

Protégé Goal Orientation, Mentor Goal Orientation, and Mentor-Perceived Benefits

Results (Table 2) showed that the random factor of mentor was significant for mentor-perceived benefits (*Wald's Z* = 2.88, $p < .01$). Protégé LGO ($t = -1.17$, $p > .05$), Protégé PPGO ($t = 1.07$, $p > .05$), Protégé APGO ($t = 0.59$, $p > .05$), Mentor LGO ($t = 0.45$, $p > .05$), Mentor PPGO ($t = 4.09$, $p < .01$), and Mentor APGO ($t = -0.38$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto mentor-perceived benefits. Mentor-reported protégé potential for advancement was included as a covariate ($t = 6.35$, $p < .01$) and accounted for unique variance in mentor-perceived benefits. Additionally, mentor PPGO accounted for unique variance in mentor-perceived benefits, supporting the nested test of Hypothesis 7, but Protégé LGO, APGO, and Mentor LGO did not, thus the nested tests of Hypotheses 5, 6, and 11 were not supported.

Protégé Goal Orientation, Mentor Goal Orientation, and Mentor-Perceived Costs

Results showed that the random factor of mentor was not significant for mentor-perceived costs (*Wald's Z* = 0.93, $p > .05$). Protégé LGO ($t = 0.54$, $p > .05$), Protégé PPGO ($t = 1.13$, $p > .05$), Protégé APGO ($t = -1.36$, $p > .05$), Mentor LGO ($t = -0.48$, $p > .05$), Mentor PPGO ($t = 0.82$, $p > .05$), and Mentor APGO ($t = -1.31$, $p > .05$) were regressed onto mentor-perceived costs. Mentor-reported protégé potential for advancement was included as a covariate ($t = 4.24$, $p < .01$) and accounted for unique variance in mentor-perceived costs. Mentor gender (t

= -0.24, $p > .05$) and protégé gender ($t = -0.15$, $p > .05$) were also included as covariates, but they did not account for unique variance in mentor-perceived costs. Results indicated that mentor-reported protégé potential for advancement accounted for unique variance in mentor-perceived costs beyond the mentor nested effect, but Protégé PPGO, and Mentor PPGO and APGO did not, thus the nested tests of Hypotheses 8a, 8b, 9, and 10 were not supported.

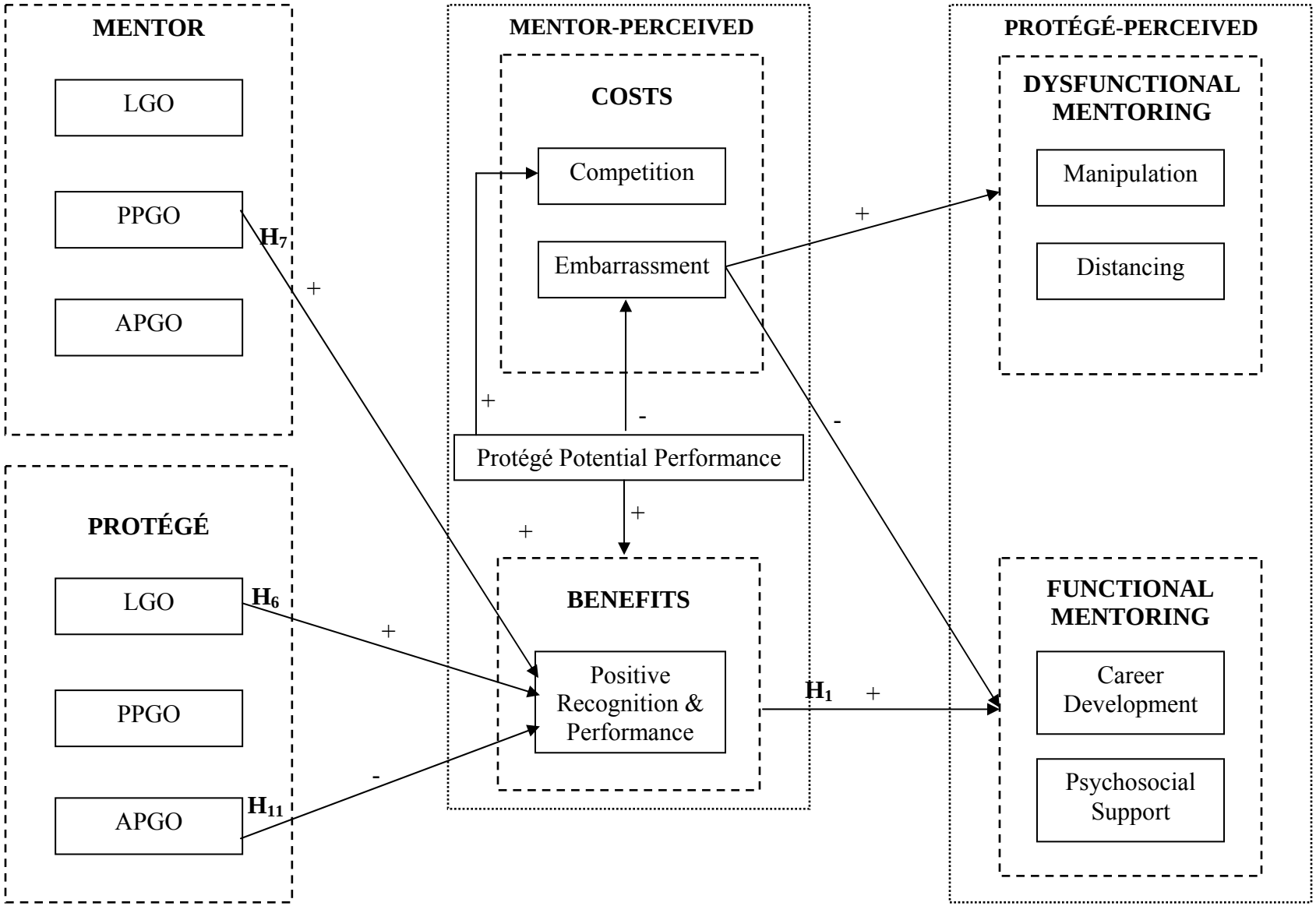

Figure 2. Final Model

Table 1. Table 1 Zero Order Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations among Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Protégé Gender	--	-0.11	**0.57****	-0.02	-0.03	0.02	0.02	-0.14	0.11	0.07	0.12
2. Protégé Age		--	**-0.24~**	-0.02	-0.13	-0.12	0.09	0.02	0.10	-0.09	-0.03
3. Mentor Gender			--	0.05	0.05	0.07	-0.16	-0.13	0.19	0.20	0.19
4. Mentor Age				--	-0.00	-0.12	0.02	**0.30***	0.17	**-0.34****	**0.35****
5. Protégé LGO					--	0.16	**-0.35****	-0.22	0.01	0.01	0.20
6. Protégé PPGO						--	**0.28***	-0.21	**-0.23~**	-0.08	-0.06
7. Protégé APGO							--	-0.21	-0.18	**-0.33***	0.05
8. Mentor LGO								--	-0.19	**-0.78****	-0.02
9. Mentor PPGO									--	0.11	-0.09
10. Mentor APGO										--	0.06
11. Protégé Potential for Advancement											--

Note: ~$p < .10$, *$p < .05$, $p^{**} < .01$.

Table 1 *(continued)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12. Mentor-Perceived Costs: Competition	0.05	**-0.30***	0.12	0.19	0.20	-0.01	-0.11	-0.00	-0.05	-0.00	**0.57****
13. Mentor-Perceived Costs: Embarrassment	-0.07	-0.10	**-0.23~**	0.02	0.02	0.00	-0.11	0.17	0.14	**-0.22~**	**-0.45****
14. Mentor-Perceived Costs (combined)	-0.02	-0.10	-0.17	0.19	0.17	0.01	-0.15	0.13	0.04	-0.20	0.07
15. Mentor-Perceived Benefits	0.21	-0.01	**0.29***	**0.22~**	**0.27***	-0.16	**-0.22~**	0.20	**0.48****	-0.01	**0.40****
16. Mentor-Perceived Functional: Psychosocial Support	**0.24~**	-0.13	**0.36****	**0.28***	0.03	-0.02	-0.06	0.04	**0.31***	0.08	0.14
17. Mentor-Perceived Functional: Career Development	0.11	-0.14	0.16	-0.02	0.03	-0.07	0.04	**0.28***	0.15	-0.13	**0.45****
18. Mentor-Perceived Functional (combined)	0.19	-0.14	**-0.28***	-0.08	0.04	-0.04	-0.02	0.16	0.24	-0.02	**0.31***
19. Protégé-Perceived Functional: Psychosocial Support	-0.06	-0.17	0.08	0.12	0.17	-0.16	-0.17	0.07	.08	0.04	**0.32***
20. Protégé-Perceived Functional: Career Development	-0.08	-0.12	0.11	**0.23~**	0.18	-0.20	0.04	0.09	0.17	-0.00	**0.61****
21. Protégé-Perceived Functional (combined)	-0.09	-0.18	0.12	0.18	0.19	**-0.22~**	-0.12	0.11	0.13	0.01	**0.37****
22. Protégé-Perceived Dysfunctional: Distancing	-0.18	0.22	-0.17	-0.14	-0.07	0.11	0.20	0.05	-0.09	-0.08	-0.20
23. Protégé-Perceived Dysfunctional: Manipulation	-0.15	0.17	-0.00	-0.13	-0.12	0.13	0.22	-0.05	-0.05	0.06	-0.22
24. Protégé-Perceived Dysfunctional (combined)	-0.20	0.21	-0.11	-0.14	-0.11	0.13	0.23	0.01	-0.09	-0.03	-0.22

Note: ~$p < .10$, *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Table 1 *(continued)*

Variables	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
12. Mentor-Perceived Costs: Competition	--	-0.19	**0.54****	**0.30***	0.11	**0.38****	**0.26***	0.08	**0.26***	0.17	-0.11	-0.11	-0.12
13. Mentor-Perceived Costs: Embarrassment		--	**0.70****	**-0.25***	**-0.28***	-0.19	-0.25	**-0.48****	**-0.47****	**-0.53****	**0.27***	**0.25~**	**0.27***
14. Mentor-Perceived Costs (combined)			--	-0.01	-0.17	0.16	-0.02	**-0.32***	-0.17	**-0.28***	0.10	0.08	0.10
15. Mentor-Perceived Benefits				--	**0.47****	**0.43****	**0.49****	**0.40****	**0.39****	**0.43****	-0.18	**-0.27***	**-0.24~**
16. Mentor-Perceived Functional: Psychosocial Support					--	**0.71****	**0.93****	**0.30***	**0.23~**	**0.29***	-0.13	-0.15	-0.17
17. Mentor-Perceived Functional: Career Development						--	**0.91****	**0.29***	**0.36****	**0.37****	-0.17	-0.22	-0.21
18. Mentor-Perceived Functional (combined)							--	**0.32***	**0.32***	**0.35****	-0.15	-0.19	-0.19
19. Protégé-Perceived Functional: Psychosocial Support								--	**0.72****	**0.93****	**-0.56****	**-0.62****	**-0.61****
20. Protégé-Perceived Functional: Career Development									--	**0.92****	**-0.48****	**-0.56****	**-0.54****
21. Protégé-Perceived Functional (combined)										--	**-0.55****	**-0.64****	**-0.62****
22. Protégé-Perceived Dysfunctional: Distancing											--	**0.84****	**0.96****
23. Protégé-Perceived Dysfunctional: Manipulation												--	**0.95****
24. Protégé-Perceived Dysfunctional (combined)													--

Note: ~$p < .10$, *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Table 1 *(continued)*

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1. Protégé Gender	1.57	0.50	84
2. Protégé Age	36.39	11.26	76
3. Mentor Gender	1.43	0.50	63
4. Mentor Age	42.50	11.23	62
5. Protégé LGO	5.20	0.87	86
6. Protégé PPGO	4.10	1.28	85
7. Protégé APGO	2.52	1.14	81
8. Mentor LGO	4.80	1.34	64
9. Mentor PPGO	4.10	1.28	85
10. Mentor APGO	2.51	0.97	64
11. Protégé Potential for Advancement	4.45	1.21	56
12. Mentor-perceived cost: Competition	2.66	1.42	62
13. Mentor-perceived cost: Embarrassment	1.81	0.89	61
14. Mentor-perceived costs (combined)	2.15	0.75	61
15. Mentor-perceived benefits	3.88	1.01	62
16. Mentor-perceived functional: Psychosocial Support	4.61	0.93	60
17. Mentor-perceived functional: Career Development	4.50	0.99	62
18. Mentor-perceived functional (combined)	4.59	0.89	62
19. Protégé-perceived functional: Psychosocial Support	4.82	0.88	69
20. Protégé-perceived functional: Career Development	4.50	1.01	70
21. Protégé-perceived functional (combined)	4.67	0.86	68
22. Protégé-perceived dysfunctional: Distancing	1.96	1.10	69
23. Protégé-perceived dysfunctional: Manipulation	1.51	0.67	68
24. Protégé-perceived dysfunctional (combined)	1.71	0.82	67

Table 2. HLM of Mentor-perceived Costs and Mentor-perceived Benefits

Variables		Mentor-Perceived Costs						Mentor-Perceived Benefits		
		Competition			Embarrassment					
Effect		*df*	*SE*	*t*	*df*	*SE*	*t*	*df*	*SE*	*t*
Fixed	Protégé LGO	27.00	0.27	0.54	24.72	0.17	1.48	18.19	0.10	-1.17
	Protégé PPGO	39.60	0.18	1.13	39.05	0.11	-0.51	29.58	0.07	1.07
	Protégé APGO	31.02	0.19	-1.36	28.35	0.12	-0.59	20.84	0.07	0.59
	Mentor LGO	24.27	0.25	-0.48	27.35	0.17	-0.80	29.43	0.14	0.45
	Mentor PPGO	24.33	0.21	0.82	28.30	0.14	0.89	30.36	0.11	**4.09****
	Mentor APGO	28.75	0.34	-1.31	30.93	0.23	-1.62	31.22	0.18	-0.38
	Protégé Potential for Advancement	38.37	0.17	**4.24****	42.00	0.10	**-4.12****	37.48	0.07	**6.35****
	Protégé Gender	34.70	0.44	-0.15						
	Mentor Gender	31.71	0.47	-0.24						
			SE	*Wald Z*	*SE*	*Wald Z*		*SE*	*Wald Z*	
Random	Mentor		0.44	0.93	0.18	1.76		0.11	**2.88****	
Model Fit	-2 log likelihood		165.52		128.86			106.53		
	AIC		169.52		132.86			110.53		

Note: **p* < .05, *p*** < .01. Similar to other researchers (see Bencaz, 2008; Bloom, 1999; Trevor & Wazeter, 2006), results were presented in conventional regression format to facilitate readability. AIC = Akaike's Information Criterion.

Table 3. HLM Results of Protégé-perceived Overall Functional Mentoring and Mentor-Perceived Overall Functional Mentoring

	Variables	Protégé-Perceived Overall Functional Mentoring			Mentor-Perceived Overall Functional Mentoring		
Effect		*df*	*SE*	*t*	*Df*	*SE*	*t*
Fixed	Mentor-perceived Cost: Embarrassment	43.00	0.11	**-3.31****	50.85	0.11	-0.78
	Mentor-perceived Cost: Competition	36.88	0.07	1.07	42.43	0.07	1.04
	Mentor-perceived Benefits	37.65	0.11	**2.38***	56.56	0.35	**3.31****
		SE		*Wald Z*	*SE*		*Wald Z*
Random	Mentor	0.15		1.20	0.17		**3.06****
Model Fit	-2 log likelihood		98.02			141.20	
	AIC		102.02			145.20	

Note: *$p < .05$, $p^{**} < .01$. AIC = Akaike's Information Criterion.

Table 4. HLM Results of Protégé-perceived Overall Dysfunctional Mentoring

	Variables	Protégé-Perceived Overall Dysfunctional Mentoring		
Effect		*df*	*SE*	*t*
Fixed	Mentor-perceived Cost: Embarrassment	40.04	0.11	**3.00****
	Mentor-perceived Cost: Competition	38.40	0.07	-1.74
	Mentor-perceived Benefits	42.26	0.11	-0.09
			SE	*Wald Z*
Random	Mentor		0.12	**2.49****
Model Fit	-2 log likelihood		98.70	
	AIC		102.70	

Note: *$p < .05$, $p^{**} < .01$. AIC = Akaike's Information Criterion.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Summary of Results

These results illustrate the importance of considering a mentor's perceptions, specifically looking at a mentor's individual differences, and his or her perceived costs and benefits associated with taking on a protégé, and the amount of mentoring function mentors provide.

Costs and Benefits and Functional Mentoring Provided

A key finding of this study is the influence mentor-perceived costs and benefits have on the mentoring functions provided. There was a significant nested effect for mentor on mentor-reported overall functional mentoring provided, but not for protégé-reported overall functional mentoring received. Although Eby et al. (2008) did not find costs as a predictor of functional mentoring the current study found that mentor-perceived benefits accounted for unique variance in functional mentoring, thus supporting Hypothesis 1, and mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment accounted for unique variance in functional mentoring, which is consistent with Hypothesis 3. The correlational results also support this idea. Mentor-perceived benefits were significantly and positively related to both mentor and protégé reports of functional mentoring provided, including the overall measure and both career development and psychosocial support. Furthermore, Mentor-perceived benefits were negatively related to protégé reports of overall dysfunctional mentoring provided, and both distancing and manipulation.

Additionally, mentor-perceived costs were significantly and negatively related to protégé-perceived overall functional mentoring received and psychosocial support. Mentor perceptions of embarrassment were also significantly and negatively related to both mentor and protégé reports

of functional mentoring provided, including the overall measure and both career development and psychosocial support.

The mentor-perceived cost of competition did not account for unique variance in protégé-reported career development received, however, the correlational results show that as perceptions of competition increase, protégé-reported career development received, *and* mentor-perceived career development provided increase. This could be because supervisory mentors were investigated and they have more visibility in organizations because they are in positions of power. Additionally, it could be that after the career development has been provided, mentors may fear they have given too much to their protégés, thus increasing their fear of potential competition, especially if they have shared insider knowledge. However, because of the cross-sectional design of this study, future research will need to examine this relationship further using a longitudinal design.

Mentor-Perceived Costs and Dysfunctional Mentoring

There was a significant nested effect for mentor on protégé-reported dysfunctional mentoring received. Additionally, mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment accounted for unique variance in protégé-reported distancing received, manipulation received and protégé-reported overall dysfunctional mentoring received above the mentor nested effect. This goes along with the idea that a mentor would want to avoid a protégé who has the potential to reflect poorly on them. This suggests that mentors have a type of survival instinct to protect themselves from harm.

Goal Orientation and Mentor-Perceived Benefits

Because supervisory mentors were the focus of this study, mentors filled out measures for as many as five subordinate protégés. Consequently, I found a significant nested effect for mentor on mentor-perceived benefits. Mentor PPGO accounted for unique variance in mentor-perceived benefits. In support of Hypothesis 7, mentors high on PPGO tended to report greater benefits of mentoring their protégés. However, no other mentor or protégé goal orientation accounted for unique variance in mentor-perceived benefits. It is theorized that the low number of benefits items in the archival data used and the high amount of predictors with a small sample size affected this finding. Future research should investigate this relationship further using a more detailed measure of mentor-perceived benefits. Furthermore, theory would say that protégé LGO should account for unique variance because individuals high in LGO have a greater potential for advancement, but protégé LGO was *negatively* related to mentor-perceived benefits and protégé potential for advancement was *positively* related to mentor-perceived benefits. Further research is needed to investigate this phenomenon.

Goal Orientation and Mentor-Perceived Costs

There was not significant mentor nested effect on mentor-perceived costs. Contrary to hypotheses 8a, 8b, 9, and 10, mentor PPGO and mentor APGO did not account for unique variance in mentor perceptions of embarrassment, and protégé PPGO was not a unique predictor of mentor-perceived costs of competition. Mentor-reported protégé potential for advancement accounted for unique variance in mentor-perceived cost of embarrassment and in mentor-perceived cost of competition beyond the mentor nested effect. Again, contrary to what was hypothesized, protégé PPGO did not account for unique variance in competition, even with

potential for advancement as a covariate. While the HLM results did not support these hypotheses, the correlational results did show a positive relationship between mentor LGO and benefits that approached significance that was consistent with Hypothesis 5. A significant positive relationship between protégé LGO and mentor-perceived benefits was also found that was consistent with Hypothesis 6, and a significant positive mentor PPGO and mentor-perceived benefits was found that was consistent with Hypothesis 7. Additionally, there was a negative relationship found between protégé APGO and mentor-perceived benefits that approached significance, which was consistent with Hypothesis 11. Because the current study was limited by the use of archival data, these relationships should be reexamined in future studies using a larger sample and a more comprehensive measure of mentor-perceived costs and benefits.

Theoretical Implications

This study's results provide support for Thoresen et al.'s (2003) suggestion regarding the matching of negatively valenced variables and the matching of positively valenced variables in the prediction of attitudes. Mentor-perceived costs accounted for unique variance in protégé reports of dysfunctional mentoring (both negatively valenced) and mentor-perceived benefits accounted for unique variance in protégé reports of functional mentoring provided (both positively valenced). This also emphasizes Eby and colleagues suggestions for mentoring researchers to include both positive *and* negative aspects of mentoring in order to encapsulate the full nomological network. In addition, the nested effect of the mentor on mentoring functions provided indicates that mentors are consistent across protégés and there is something going on that is unique to the mentor that we have yet to capture. These findings illustrate the notion of equity theory in that mentors, who feel they are getting more benefits, will be more willing to

provide functional mentoring to their protégés. While this illustrates important theoretical concerns, the results also have practical implications for the implementation and maintenance of mentorships.

Practical Implications

Future research must investigate organizational tools and policies that decrease a mentor's need to worry about potential protégé embarrassment. Particularly if the goal is to mentor low performers, organizations must refrain from making mentoring a personal cost. Perhaps organizations could reward mentors for protégé *improvement* rather than overall performance. Additionally, organizations have the ability to screen out mentors after one or two bad relationships because they can be expected to continue this behavior in the future. It is likely that in the case of supervisory mentorships, protégés may fear reporting dysfunctional behavior and should be given support resources, particularly if they are involved with a dysfunctional supervisory mentor who has control over their evaluations, promotions, etc.

Furthermore, dysfunctional mentoring behaviors such as distancing and manipulation have extreme negative outcomes the protégé and the organization. Distancing can lead to depressed mood and intent to leave (Eby et al., 2004), increased stress, turnover intentions, and lowered job satisfaction (Eby & Allen, 2002). Manipulative behavior can lead to psychological withdrawal, depressed mood, and intent to leave (Eby et al., 2004). In the case of supervisory mentorships which can have a direct impact on the organization, companies should invest in the proper education and training of both mentors and protégés to ensure success. While it is not likely that we can change the competitive nature of the American corporate ladder, it is possible

to educate and train supervisors and subordinates on the best ways to adjust and communicate with one another in order to stave off potential malevolent behavior.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although the results of this study are enlightening, some study limitations should be addressed. First, data were collected cross-sectionally, thereby preventing any inference of causality. However, analyses were run utilizing *mentor*-perceived costs and benefits and *protégé* reports of functional and dysfunctional mentoring, and both mentor and protégé goal orientation, thus mono-method bias was partially alleviated. Mentors and protégés provided responses at just one point in time and many of the items were subjective in nature and could potentially be impacted by participant mood. Future research should investigate the potential dynamic nature of perceived-costs and benefits overtime by using longitudinal techniques and collecting mood measures. In addition, this study specifically investigated supervisory mentorships, relationships between a supervisory and his or her subordinate. Because of the special nature of this relationship, (i.e. more mentor visibility, more frequent contact between mentor and protégé, power of protégés, etc.) future research should investigate other types of mentoring relationships such as informal, formal, and peer. The results also provide a springboard for future research on the relationship of mentor and protégé perceptions and behaviors, and goal orientation.

Conclusion

In summary, this study examined the influence of both mentors' goal orientation and protégés' goal orientation on mentor-perceived costs and benefits of this relationship, which in turn affects the functional and/or dysfunctional mentoring provided. This paper expands our understanding of the dynamic nature of mentoring relationships by incorporating inputs and

perspectives of both mentors and protégés, and by examining both functional and dysfunctional mentoring provided as a result. Not only are the characteristics of the mentor influential in the mentorship, but the mentor's perception is impacted by protégé characteristics and behavior. The costs and benefits a mentor perceives in a particular relationship vary as a function of his or her goal orientation and his or her protégé's goal orientation. Additionally, these perceived costs and benefits are influenced by the protégé's potential for advancement. Perceptions of costs and benefits are influenced by individual difference variables as well as contextual variables, such as the person you are paired with in the mentorship.

This study also illustrates that it is important to understand mentor perceptions involved with supervisory mentoring where the mentor has a type of power over the protégé. Our current economy breeds intense job competition. If the protégé is a high performer, mentors may engage in manipulative behaviors to sabotage their protégés as a way of ensuring job security. Additionally, mentors with poor performing protégés will engage in distancing behaviors in order to avoid being associated with the negative publicity. This study furthers the work of Eby and colleagues in the investigation of both positive and negative mentoring functions. It is time for researchers to head the advice posited over 20 years ago by Kram (1985) that we need to be aware of the potential dangers of mentorship dysfunction.

APPENDIX A: MODIFIED EXPECTED COSTS & BENEFITS TO BEING A MENTOR INSTRUMENT

Modified Expected Costs and Benefits to Being a Mentor Instrument
(Ragins & Scandura, 1999)

Cost items:

Competition Subscale Items

1. This protégé may one day compete with me for a job or important assignment.
2. This protégé may one day become a professional adversary.

Embarrassment Subscale Items

1. Choosing to mentor this protégé reflects negatively on my judgment.
2. This protégé's performance and/or behavior reflects negatively on my reputation or competency.

Benefit items:

Positive Recognition & Performance Subscale Items

1. This protégé's performance and/or behavior reflects positively on my reputation or competency.
2. Mentoring this protégé has a positive impact on my own performance.
3. Choosing to mentor this protégé reflects positively on my judgment.
4. I am likely to receive positive recognition for developing the talent of this protégé.

APPENDIX B: DYSFUNCTIONAL MENTORING / MANIPULATIVE BEHAVIOR

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

All items were presented with a 6-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree = 1; Strongly Agree = 6)

1. My mentor “pulls rank” on me.
2. I am intimidated by my mentor.
3. My mentor asks me to do his/her “busy work.”
4. My mentor has intentionally hindered my professional development.
5. My mentor has lied to me.
6. My mentor has undermined my performance on tasks or assignments.
7. My mentor has deliberately misled me.
8. When I am successful, my mentor takes more credit than he/she deserves.
9. My mentor takes credit for my hard work.
10. My mentor has taken credit for work that I have done.

APPENDIX C: DYSFUNCTIONAL MENTORING / DISTANCING BEHAVIOR

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following. **All items were presented with a 6-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree = 1; Strongly Agree = 6)**

1. My mentor is reluctant to talk about things that are important to me.
2. My mentor seems to have "more important things to do" than to meet with me.
3. When I interact with my mentor, he/she does not give me their full attention.
4. My mentor is more concerned about his/her own career than helping me develop in mine.
5. My mentor is preoccupied with his/her own advancement.
6. My mentor does not include me in important meetings.
7. My mentor keeps me "out of the loop" on important issues.

APPENDIX D: FUNCTIONAL MENTORING

Please report the extent to which the following took place during your mentoring relationship.
All items were presented with a 6-point Likert scale (No Extent = 1; Great Extent = 6)

1. My mentor shared the history of their career with me. (CD)
2. My mentor has encouraged me to prepare for advancement. (CD)
3. My mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving on the job. (PS)
4. I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values regarding work. (PS)
5. I respect and admire my mentor. (PS)
6. I will try and be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career. (PS)
7. My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversations. (PS)
8. My mentor has discussed my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors and work/family conflicts. (PS)
9. My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems. (PS)
10. My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work. (PS)
11. My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her. (PS)
12. My mentor has kept feeling and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence. (PS)
13. My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual. (PS)
14. My mentor reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of me remaining in the organization or getting a promotion. (CD)
15. My mentor helped me finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete. (CD)
16. My mentor helped me meet new colleagues. (CD)
17. My mentor gave me assignments that increased my visibility within the organization. (CD)
18. My mentor assigned responsibilities that increased my contact with those who may judge my potential for future advancement. (CD)
19. My mentor gave me assignments or tasks that prepared me for a higher job. (CD)
20. My mentor gave me assignments that presented opportunities to learn new skills. (CD)
(CD = career development item; PS = psychosocial support item)

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