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For Better or Worse: An Examination of the Antecedents and Outcomes of Mentor Commitment in Mentoring Relationships

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For Better or Worse: An Examination of the Antecedents and Outcomes of Mentor Commitment in Mentoring Relationships

by

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my Lord, for His faithful love and guidance throughout the journey; to my parents, Victor and Mary Poteat, for their consistent love, prayers, and support; to my brother, Paul Poteat, for his listening ear and helpful advice; and to my family and friends for their loyalty and for encouraging me to press on.

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Abstract

This study examined a model of the antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment to workplace mentoring relationships. The proposed model was based on the investment model of commitment. A total of 180 pairs of mentors and their protégés completed surveys that assessed model constructs. Results indicated that mentor relationship satisfaction and investment size predict mentor commitment, whereas mentor quality of alternatives and perceptions of managerial support for mentoring do not predict mentor commitment. Additionally, mentor commitment is associated with information exchange behaviors engaged in by mentors and protégés. These findings suggest that commitment plays an important role in mentoring relationships, and the investment model provides a useful framework for future research on this topic.

Chapter One

Introduction

Traditionally, workplace mentoring has been defined as a developmental relationship in which a more-experienced individual (the mentor) contributes to the personal and professional growth of a less-experienced individual (the protégé; Kram, 1985). Research has shown workplace mentoring to be associated with a variety of beneficial outcomes for protégés (e.g., see Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004 for a review) and mentors (e.g., Allen, Lentz, & Day, 2006; Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Eby & Lockwood, 2005). As a result, many organizations have sought to encourage the formation of mentoring relationships by implementing formal mentoring programs (Douglas & McCauley, 1999).

Although the goal of mentoring is to enhance the development of the protégé, mentoring relationships vary in their effectiveness. In response to this reality, mentoring researchers have sought to identify the factors that predict relationship effectiveness. One important interpersonal factor that has received limited research attention within the mentoring domain is that of commitment to the relationship. Whereas mentoring researchers have only recently begun to examine the role of this construct in mentoring relationships (e.g., Allen & Eby, 2008; Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006a; Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005; Poteat, Shockley, & Allen, 2009), researchers within the broader domain of interpersonal relationships have long recognized commitment as a "critical property of ongoing relationships" (Rusbult, Coolsen, Kirchner, & Clarke, 2006, p. 630). In support

of this claim, interpersonal relationships researchers have accumulated evidence showing commitment to be associated with important relational processes and outcomes, such as pro-relationship behaviors (e.g., Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, & Lipkus, 1991; Van Lange, Rusbult, Drigotas, Arriaga, Witcher, & Cox, 1997), dyadic adjustment (e.g., Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998), and relationship persistence (e.g., Le & Agnew, 2003; Rusbult et al., 1998). Given these findings demonstrating the critical role of commitment in interpersonal relationships, mentoring researchers have called for a comprehensive examination of this construct in the mentoring domain (e.g., Allen & Eby, 2008).

To date, the limited amount of research examining commitment in mentoring relationships has generated results consistent with the idea that commitment plays an important role in mentorships. For example, research has shown that the mentor's level of commitment to the relationship is positively associated with mentor and protégé reports of relationship satisfaction and quality, as well as mentor and protégé reports of the effectiveness of a formal mentoring program (Allen & Eby, 2008; Allen, Eby, et al., 2006a; Allen, Johnson, Xu, Biga, Rodopman, & Ottinot, 2009; Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005; Poteat et al., 2009). Additionally, Allen et al. (2009) found that protégé reports of mentor commitment were positively correlated with the provision of career-related and psychosocial mentoring support, and negatively correlated with protégé reports of negative mentoring experiences. In a study examining both mentor and protégé commitment to the relationship, Poteat et al. (2009) demonstrated the importance of considering both partners' commitment levels in predicting their satisfaction with the relationship.

Taken together, the research findings from both the interpersonal relationships literature and the mentoring literature suggest that relationship commitment may play a critical role in mentoring relationships. Thus, the purpose of the current study is to add to the limited amount of research on commitment in mentoring relationships by examining the antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment. More specifically, a comprehensive model of the predicted antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment is developed and tested. This model is based on a well-supported commitment model from the interpersonal relationships literature – Rusbult's Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980a). By investigating variables that may predict mentor commitment, as well as possible behavioral outcomes of commitment, the current study aims to make an important contribution to both the theory and practice of mentoring.

Rusbult's Investment Model

Rusbult (1980a) developed the investment model with the goal of identifying the factors that predict commitment. In her model, commitment is conceptualized as a psychological state that influences behavior. More specifically, Rusbult and colleagues (2006) have defined commitment as the "intent to persist in a relationship, including long-term orientation toward the involvement as well as feelings of psychological attachment to it" (p. 618). Based on this definition, several authors have conceptualized commitment as consisting of three components: an affective component, a cognitive component, and a conative component (Arriaga & Agnew, 2001; Finkel, Rusbult, Kumashiro, & Hannon, 2002). The affective component is psychological attachment to the relationship, which refers to the affective bond that develops between committed partners. The cognitive component is long-term orientation toward the relationship,

which refers to the strong belief that the relationship will be maintained into the distant future. The conative, or motivational, component is intention to persist in the relationship, which refers to the intrinsic motivation to continue the relationship.

The investment model is based on principles drawn from interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). According to interdependence theory, dependence is a fundamental property of relationships and refers to the degree to which a partner relies on a relationship to meet his or her needs or to obtain desirable outcomes. Interdependence theory proposes that there are two factors that influence the level of dependence within a relationship: the level of satisfaction with the relationship and the quality of alternatives to the relationship. As satisfaction level increases, and the quality of alternatives decreases, an individual becomes more dependent on the relationship. Relationship satisfaction refers to the extent to which the relationship results in the individual experiencing positive versus negative affect. As the individual's needs are increasingly met through the relationship, his or her level of satisfaction increases. Quality of alternatives reflects an individual's perception of the desirability of alternatives to the relationship, and it increases as the individual perceives that his or her needs could be met outside of the current relationship. Alternatives to the relationship may include other potential partners, friends or family members, or solitude.

When developing the investment model, Rusbult (1980a) expanded upon interdependence theory by adding a third factor believed to influence dependence: the size of investments made in the relationship. Investment size increases as the magnitude and importance of the resources attached to the relationship increases. If the relationship were to end, these resources would be lost or would decline in value, thus increasing the

cost of ending the relationship and enhancing an individual's level of dependence. Investments can be classified as either direct investments into the relationship or indirect investments (Rusbult et al., 2006). Direct investments occur when individuals invest resources directly into the relationship with the intent of improving the relationship. For example, individuals often invest time and effort into their relationships and engage in self-disclosure with their partners. Indirect investments occur when resources that were originally extraneous become attached to the relationship. Examples of indirect investments may include mutual friends, personal identity, or shared memories or possessions (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult et al., 2006).

Rusbult (1980a) further expanded upon interdependence theory by arguing that, whereas dependence is a structural property resulting from the additive effects of the three factors mentioned above (i.e., relationship satisfaction, quality of alternatives, investment size), commitment is the psychological state that emerges from dependence and directly influences behavior. As such, commitment is proposed to mediate the effects of the three bases of dependence on behavior within the relationship (Rusbult et al., 2006).

An important characteristic of both interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978) and the investment model (Rusbult, 1980a) is the distinction made between relationship satisfaction and commitment. According to Rusbult (1980a), satisfaction is defined as the difference between a relationship's outcome value and the individual's expectations regarding the quality of relationships in general (referred to as the individual's comparison level). The outcome value of a relationship refers to the overall quality of the relationship, and it is a function of the relationship's positive and negative

attributes (i.e., rewards and costs) and the subjective importance of these attributes to the individual. An individual evaluates his or her satisfaction with a current relationship by comparing the relationship's outcome value to the standard outcome value (i.e., comparison level) that the individual has come to expect from relationships. Thus, satisfaction can be viewed as a function of the rewards and costs of a current relationship and the individual's expectation level. Satisfaction should increase as rewards increase, costs decrease, and expectations decrease.

On the other hand, Rusbult (1980a) defines commitment as a function of satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. Commitment should increase as satisfaction increases, quality of alternatives decreases, and investment size increases. Rusbult (1983) has also defined commitment as a function of relational rewards, relational costs, quality of alternatives, and investment size. This conceptualization is roughly equivalent to the first, in that it simply replaces satisfaction level with two of its components – relational rewards and costs – and ignores the complications involving comparison level. Thus, commitment is predicted to increase as rewards increase, costs decrease, alternatives decrease, and investments increase.

Numerous studies have examined the investment model and have provided excellent support for the model's predictions (Rusbult et al., 2006). First, researchers have found evidence for the three proposed components of commitment (i.e., psychological attachment, long-term orientation, intent to persist). Arriaga and Agnew (2001) found that all three components are associated with dyadic adjustment and relationship persistence, and fully mediate the associations between the three bases of dependence (i.e., satisfaction, alternatives, investments) and relationship persistence.

Second, research evidence supports the factor structure of the investment model. In three studies, Rusbult et al. (1998) found support for the four distinct components of the model (i.e., satisfaction, alternatives, investments, and commitment).

Third, a great deal of evidence supports the proposition that the three bases of dependence (i.e., satisfaction, alternatives, investments) predict commitment (e.g., Le & Agnew, 2003; Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b, 1983; Van Lange et al., 1997). In a meta-analysis by Le and Agnew (2003), satisfaction, alternatives, and investments were significant predictors of commitment, collectively accounting for over 60% of the variance in commitment. Although satisfaction was the strongest predictor of commitment, alternatives and investments contributed unique variance, suggesting that all three bases of dependence are important.

Fourth, support has been found for the proposed distinction between relationship satisfaction and commitment. For example, Rusbult (1980a, 1980b) found that relational rewards and costs predicted relationship satisfaction, whereas satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicted commitment. Thus, consistent with model predictions, the two constructs appear to be functions of different factors.

Fifth, and consistent with the notion that commitment is a psychological state that directly influences behavior, research has shown commitment to predict various relational processes and outcomes. In their meta-analysis, Le and Agnew (2003) found that commitment accounts for 47% of the variance in relationship persistence (i.e., stay-leave behavior). Other studies have shown that commitment predicts dyadic adjustment (Arriaga & Agnew, 2001; Rusbult et al., 1998) and a variety of pro-relationship

behaviors, such as accommodation, willingness to sacrifice, and tendency to forgive (e.g., Finkel et al., 2002; Rusbult et al., 1991; Van Lange et al., 1997).

Sixth, there is evidence supporting the idea that commitment mediates the associations between the bases of dependence (i.e., satisfaction, alternatives, investments) and relationship behaviors. For example, studies have found commitment to mediate the associations between the bases of dependence and relationship persistence (Arriaga & Agnew, 2001; Rusbult, 1983), accommodation (Rusbult et al., 1991), and willingness to sacrifice (Van Lange et al., 1997).

Finally, researchers have found support for investment model predictions when applying the model to a variety of interpersonal relationships, as well as when applying the model to non-relational domains (e.g., job and organizational commitment; see Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). In terms of interpersonal relationships, the model has been applied to romantic associations, including dating and marital relationships (e.g., Arriaga & Agnew, 2001; Finkel et al., 2002; Rusbult, 1980a, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1991; Rusbult et al., 1998; Van Lange et al., 1997) and to friendships (e.g., Lin & Rusbult, 1995; Rusbult, 1980b). Although the model has been successfully applied to non-relational domains, the majority of research has focused on interpersonal relationships, and a meta-analysis by Le and Agnew (2003) revealed that the bases of dependence were more strongly correlated with commitment in interpersonal relationships than in non-relational domains.

The aim of the current study is to expand our understanding of mentor commitment in mentoring relationships by applying Rusbult's (1980a) investment model to the context of workplace mentoring. To this end, two models have been developed

that incorporate the proposed antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment (see Figures 1 and 2). These models are based on Rusbult's investment model, as well as relevant research from the mentoring domain. As shown in both models, the organizational context variable of "perceived managerial support for mentoring" has been included as an antecedent of mentor commitment. Thus, the current study builds upon Rusbult's model by including a variable relevant to the workplace mentoring context as an additional antecedent of mentor commitment. Furthermore, the current study examines potential behavioral outcomes of mentor commitment. The behavioral outcomes chosen are based on the perspective that mentoring can be viewed as an information exchange in which partners seek and obtain information from one another (Mullen, 1994). Therefore, the current study investigates how mentor commitment relates to mentor information provision and protégé information reception.

A comparison of the two proposed models reveals that, whereas the first model (Figure 1) includes the factor of relationship satisfaction, the second model (Figure 2) replaces this factor with its proposed components: benefits (i.e., rewards) and costs. The decision to develop and test both models is based on early research on the investment model conducted by Rusbult (1980a, 1980b, 1983). As discussed earlier, the investment model makes a distinction between relationship satisfaction and commitment. Whereas relationship satisfaction is proposed to be a function of relational rewards and costs, commitment is proposed to be a function of satisfaction, alternatives, and investments. Alternatively, commitment may be viewed as a function of relational rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments (Rusbult, 1983). In her early work on the investment model, Rusbult (1980a, 1980b, 1983) examined these three propositions by measuring

individuals' levels on each of the variables involved: commitment, relational costs, relational rewards, satisfaction, alternatives, and investments. She consistently found that satisfaction, alternatives, and investments predicted commitment. However, results concerning the proposition that satisfaction is a function of relational rewards and costs were less consistent. For example, in two studies, Rusbult found support for the proposition that relational rewards and costs predict relationship satisfaction (Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b). In contrast, results of a third study showed that whereas rewards contributed significantly to the prediction of satisfaction, costs did not (Rusbult, 1983). Interestingly, further examination of the results of this third study revealed that both rewards and costs predicted satisfaction in later stages of the relationship, but only rewards predicted satisfaction in early stages (Rusbult, 1983). In offering a possible explanation, Rusbult (1983) suggested that perhaps costs are not as apparent during earlier stages of relationships, and thus their effects on satisfaction are not seen until later stages.

Results from Rusbult's early work on the investment model also called into question the role of relational costs in predicting commitment (Rusbult, 1980a, 1983). When examining the prediction of commitment by rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments, Rusbult (1980a) found that the contribution of costs to the prediction of commitment was weaker than the contributions of the other variables. Similarly, in another study, Rusbult (1983) found that rewards, alternatives, and investments significantly predicted commitment, but costs were not significantly related to commitment. In a meta-analysis examining the investment model, Le and Agnew (2003) found that relational costs had consistently smaller associations with the other

components of the investment model compared to relational benefits. Taken together, these results seem to suggest that the role of relational costs in interpersonal relationships may be more complex than originally proposed.

Given that the investment model has not yet been tested in the context of workplace mentoring relationships, and given the inconsistent findings from previous research regarding the role of relational costs in interpersonal relationships, the current study investigates the roles of both relational rewards and costs as they relate to mentor relationship satisfaction and commitment. Thus, whereas the first model (Figure 1) tests the proposition that satisfaction, alternatives, investments, and perceived support for mentoring serve as antecedents of mentor commitment, the second model (Figure 2) replaces satisfaction with relational benefits (i.e., rewards) and costs in order to examine the roles of these variables in predicting mentor commitment. As a result, the second model (Figure 2) allows for a more fine-grained examination of the potential antecedents of mentor commitment. By testing both models, the current study takes an approach that is consistent with Rusbult's early tests of the investment model (e.g., Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b, 1983). This approach is justified given that the investment model has not previously been applied to mentoring relationships, and it would be beneficial to examine how relational costs and benefits function in such relationships. The sections that follow present the study hypotheses and describe research supporting these predictions.

Antecedents of Mentor Commitment

Relationship satisfaction, benefits, and costs. The first set of variables proposed to be antecedents of mentor commitment includes relationship satisfaction, relational benefits, and relational costs. According to the investment model (Rusbult,

1980a), relationship satisfaction is a function of relational benefits and costs, such that satisfaction increases as benefits increase and costs decrease. As described earlier, relationship satisfaction is defined in terms of the degree of positive affectivity associated with the relationship, and it is closely aligned with the gratification of an individual's needs through the relationship (e.g., needs for companionship, security, etc.; Rusbult et al., 2006). Whereas relational benefits are defined as the positive attributes of the relationship and partner, relational costs are defined as the negative attributes of the relationship and partner (Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b). As discussed earlier, Rusbult (1980a, 1980b) has found support for the proposition that benefits and costs contribute significantly to the prediction of relationship satisfaction, although the role of costs has been less consistent than that of benefits (Rusbult, 1983).

Applying these ideas to the mentoring domain leads to the prediction that mentor relationship satisfaction depends on the degree to which the mentor experiences benefits and costs associated with the relationship. Relationship satisfaction is a common outcome in the mentoring research domain, although the majority of studies examining this variable take the perspective of the protégé. There are, however, a growing number of studies investigating mentor relationship satisfaction and related constructs, such as relationship quality and relationship effectiveness (e.g., Allen & Eby, 2003; Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006b; Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2008; Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005; Poteat et al., 2009; Young & Perrewe, 2000).

There is also a growing body of research examining the benefits and costs associated with being a mentor. In terms of mentor benefits, early qualitative research indicated that mentors receive benefits such as a sense of satisfaction from developing

others, feelings of rejuvenation, technical and psychological support from protégés, a loyal base of support, improved job performance due to receiving new perspectives from protégés, and organizational recognition (Kram, 1985; Levinson, Darrow, Levinson, Klein, & McKee, 1978). In a more recent qualitative examination of the mentor's perspective, Allen et al. (1997) identified four main categories of mentor benefits: builds a support network, self-satisfaction, job-related self-focused, and job-related other-focused. The category labeled "builds a support network" includes benefits such as having the opportunity to develop a close relationship and gaining a network of loyal protégés who will help the mentor. The "self-satisfaction" category refers to the sense of satisfaction that the mentor receives from helping others and seeing them succeed. The category labeled "job-related self-focused" includes the benefits of receiving help from protégés on job-related tasks, gaining the opportunity to learn through mentoring, and receiving organizational recognition and visibility. The final category, "job-related other-focused", refers to the opportunity mentors have to pass on their knowledge to others and build a competent workforce. In another recent qualitative study, Eby and Lockwood (2005) identified benefits reported by mentors participating in formal mentoring programs. This study revealed a great deal of overlap with the previous studies examining mentor benefits, with mentors reporting the benefits of having the opportunity to learn, developing a satisfying personal relationship, gaining a sense of personal gratification, enhancing their managerial skills, and having the opportunity to engage in self-reflection.

Based on career and mentoring theory, Ragins and Scandura (1999) developed a measure to assess the expected benefits of mentoring others. Their measure includes

items assessing five major mentor benefits: rewarding experience, improved job performance, loyal base of support, recognition from others, and generativity. The "rewarding experience" factor reflects the belief that mentoring is a positive experience and brings a sense of fulfillment and satisfaction. The factor labeled "improved job performance" refers to the rejuvenating effect that mentoring may have on the mentor's job performance. The "loyal base of support" factor refers to the benefit of gaining support from protégés as trusted allies. The "recognition by others" factor reflects the opportunity for mentors to gain status and positive recognition by mentoring others. The final factor, "generativity", refers to the idea that mentoring others provides a sense of immortality as the mentor is able to relive his or her life through the protégé. Recently, mentoring researchers have started to use the measure developed by Ragins and Scandura (1999) in studies examining the benefits mentors receive (e.g., Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2006, 2008). In these studies, Eby and colleagues make the distinction between instrumental and relational benefits received by mentors. Instrumental benefits are those that directly improve the mentor's performance or stature and include the factors of improved job performance and recognition by others. Relational benefits, on the other hand, are those benefits that reflect the relational, affective bond between the mentor and protégé, and these include the factors of rewarding experience, loyal base of support, and generativity.

Another important distinction to consider, which was clearly defined by Eby, Durley, et al. (2006), is the distinction between the proximal (i.e., short-term) benefits received by mentors and the distal (i.e., long-term) outcomes that may be realized by mentors. Proximal benefits are those benefits that mentors receive directly from the

mentoring relationship, and they include the benefits discussed in the previous paragraphs. In contrast, distal outcomes refer to career outcomes and work attitudes that may be indirectly influenced by the mentor's experience as a mentor. For example, researchers have found serving as a mentor to be associated with objective (e.g., income, promotions) and subjective career success (Allen, Lentz, et al., 2006; Collins, 1994). For the purposes of the current study, the relational benefits variable included in the models refers to those benefits directly associated with the mentoring relationship. Thus, the current study focuses on the proximal benefits that mentors receive.

With regards to relational costs, the mentoring literature has identified several potential costs that may be experienced by mentors. Through interviews with mentors, Allen et al. (1997) uncovered four main costs to serving as a mentor: time requirements, negative reactions from coworkers who think the mentor is showing the protégé favoritism, protégés who abuse the relationship, and feelings of personal failure when the mentorship fails. Based on earlier theoretical work, Ragins and Scandura (1999) developed and tested a measure of the anticipated costs of mentoring others. The resulting measure included items assessing five factors representing anticipated costs. The factor labeled "more trouble than worth" represents the concern that the drawbacks of serving as a mentor outweigh the advantages. The "dysfunctional relationship" factor reflects the fear that the relationship may be unhealthy or exploitative, or that the protégé may backstab or displace the mentor. The "nepotism" factor refers to the situation where others may see the mentor as giving the protégé an unfair advantage. The factor labeled "bad reflection" refers to the possibility that a protégé's poor performance may reflect negatively on the mentor's reputation. The final factor, "energy drain", reflects the time

and energy demands of mentoring; however, this factor had poor internal consistency and was dropped from the analyses. As can be seen, there is some overlap in the costs identified by Allen et al. (1997) and Ragins and Scandura (1999), but there are also some differences.

Also relevant to a discussion of the costs of serving as a mentor is research conducted by Eby and her colleagues examining negative mentoring experiences from the mentor's perspective (Eby & McManus, 2004; Eby et al., 2008). These researchers have identified several relational problems reported by mentors that fall along a continuum ranging from dysfunctional relationship experiences, to ineffective relationship experiences, to marginally effective relationship experiences (Eby & McManus, 2004). The most destructive mentoring experiences fall under the dysfunctional category, which encompasses experiences marked by malice and bad intent. Specific experiences classified in this category include breach of mentor trust, protégé exploitive behavior, protégé sabotage, jealousy and competitiveness, and protégé harassment. The ineffective relationship experiences category involves experiences that reflect interpersonal difficulties, but partners are perceived as having positive intentions. Specific experiences in this category include mentor-protégé conflicts, protégé impression management and gamesmanship, protégé submissiveness, and relationship deterioration. The final category, labeled marginally effective relationship experiences, includes problems that characterize mentoring relationships that fall somewhere in between effective and ineffective. Specific problems falling in this category include protégé performance below expectations, protégé unwillingness to learn, and protégé self-destructive behavior (e.g., substance abuse). Eby and colleagues (2008) have

developed scales to assess the degree to which mentors experience relational problems in each of these three main categories.

In related research, Eby and Lockwood (2005) identified problems reported by mentors in formal mentoring programs. Four of these problems appear to be unique, in that they have not been explicitly identified in previous research on mentoring problems reported by mentors. Specifically, these problems include mentor-protégé mismatches on factors such as interests or personality; scheduling difficulties; geographic distance that hinders the ability to interact and develop a close relationship; and feelings of personal inadequacy on the part of the mentor. It is possible that these problems are more prevalent in formal mentoring relationships, which are developed with organizational assistance, as opposed to informal mentoring relationships, which develop more spontaneously.

As is evident from this brief review, mentoring researchers have identified a number of benefits and costs that mentors may experience. There is a growing recognition that mentoring relationships involve both positive and negative experiences, which influence the processes and outcomes of the relationship (Eby, 2007). In a recent book chapter, Eby (2007) proposed a model, based on Rusbult's (1980a) investment model, that incorporates both positive (i.e., benefits) and negative (i.e., costs) relationship experiences. As explained by Eby (2007), relational interactions yield both benefits and costs, which accumulate over the course of the relationship. The resulting cost-benefit ratio is proposed to affect the individual's overall affective evaluation of the relationship (i.e., the individual's relationship satisfaction). Thus, Eby's model is consistent with

Rusbult's proposition that relationship satisfaction is a function of relational costs and benefits.

There is some empirical evidence from the mentoring research domain that supports the prediction that the relational costs and benefits experienced by a mentor predict the mentor's relationship satisfaction. For example, Eby et al. (2008) found that mentor reports of the instrumental and relational benefits that they experienced were positively correlated with the mentors' reports of relationship quality. Furthermore, mentor reports of negative mentoring experiences were negatively correlated with mentor reports of relationship quality. In another study, Allen and Eby (2003) found a positive association between mentor learning and mentor relationship quality. Additional support comes from a study by Young and Perrewe (2000), in which they examined the role of met expectations in mentoring relationships. Results showed that the extent to which mentors received what they expected to receive from their relationships was positively correlated with their reports of relationship effectiveness. Based on the results of these studies, as well as evidence from the interpersonal relationships literature supporting the predictions of the investment model, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1. Mentor relational benefits are positively associated with mentor relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2. Mentor relational costs are negatively associated with mentor relationship satisfaction.

According to the investment model (Rusbult, 1980a), relationship satisfaction is one of the predictors of commitment. As described earlier, there is ample research evidence supporting this claim (e.g., see meta-analytic review by Le & Agnew, 2003).

Within the mentoring literature, there is also empirical support for the idea that mentor relationship satisfaction is associated with mentor commitment (Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005; Poteat et al., 2009). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3. Mentor relationship satisfaction is positively associated with mentor commitment.

In an alternative conceptualization of the investment model, Rusbult (1983) proposed that relational benefits and costs may serve as predictors of commitment. As previously noted, there is some evidence that relational benefits predict commitment (Rusbult 1980a, 1983). However, evidence concerning the role of relational costs in predicting commitment has been less consistent, with one study finding that costs made a relatively weak contribution to the prediction of commitment (Rusbult, 1980a), and another study finding that costs were not significantly associated with commitment (Rusbult, 1983).

Within the mentoring literature, Eby et al. (2008) obtained results that may lend some support to the idea that the relational benefits and costs experienced by mentors are associated with the mentor's level of commitment. In their study, Eby and colleagues examined mentor intentions to leave the relationship, a variable that shares some conceptual overlap with the variable of mentor commitment. With regards to costs, results of the study showed that mentor reports of negative mentoring experiences were positively correlated with mentor intentions to leave the relationship. Furthermore, negative mentoring experiences added unique variance to the prediction of mentor intentions to leave, above and beyond the contributions of mentor benefits, mentor relationship quality, and mentor fair exchange perceptions. With regards to benefits,

results showed a negative correlation between mentor relational benefits and mentor intentions to leave. Based on these findings and the predictions made by the investment model, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4. Mentor relational benefits are positively associated with mentor commitment.

Hypothesis 5. Mentor relational costs are negatively associated with mentor commitment.

Quality of alternatives. According to Rusbult's (1980a) investment model, another factor that plays a role in the prediction of commitment is the quality of alternatives to the relationship. Quality of alternatives refers to the perceived desirability of alternatives to the current relationship, and it depends on the extent to which the alternatives could fulfill the individual's needs or provide the individual with desirable outcomes (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult et al., 2006). Within the interpersonal relationships literature, researchers have suggested that alternatives may include developing a relationship with a different partner, spending time with family or friends, or spending time alone (Rusbult et al., 2006). The investment model predicts that commitment decreases as the quality of alternatives increases. This prediction has received strong support in the interpersonal relationships literature (e.g., Le & Agnew, 2003).

Applying these ideas to the mentoring domain, a mentor may perceive high quality alternatives to his or her current mentoring relationship. For example, Eby (2007) suggested that a mentor's alternatives may include other individuals who could fulfill the role of protégé. Thus, a mentor may choose to replace the current protégé with another, or may simply divert attention from the current protégé to another protégé that seems to

have the potential to provide more desirable outcomes. However, given the variety of positive outcomes associated with mentoring others (e.g., loyal base of support, sense of satisfaction, improved job performance, organizational recognition), there are other, "non-mentoring" alternatives that a mentor may also consider. For instance, a mentor may seek to obtain some of these positive outcomes by developing meaningful, "non-mentoring" relationships with coworkers or other professional colleagues. Engaging in this type of activity may allow the mentor to broaden his/her support network. As another example, a mentor may gain desirable outcomes by providing less intense forms of help and support to coworkers and colleagues (e.g., coaching or different forms of organizational citizenship behaviors). Such behaviors may give the mentor a sense of satisfaction from helping others. Alternatively, a mentor may devote himself/herself to work-related activities that are rewarded or valued by the organization, or he/she may engage in other learning or developmental opportunities. Taking actions such as these may provide the mentor with organizational recognition or allow the mentor to enhance his/her job performance. Taken together, these ideas suggest that there are many potential alternatives that may be available and desirable to a mentor. Based on investment model predictions and the associated research support, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 6. Mentor quality of alternatives is negatively associated with mentor commitment.

Investment size. The third and final factor proposed to predict commitment in the investment model is that of investment size (Rusbult, 1980a). Investment size refers to the magnitude and importance of resources associated with the relationship. Over the

course of a relationship, individuals invest resources into the relationship, and resources that were originally extraneous become attached to the relationship. If the relationship were to dissolve, these resources would be lost or decline in value, thus increasing the cost of ending the relationship. Therefore, the investment model proposes that commitment increases as investment size increases. Research has provided strong support for this proposition (Le & Agnew, 2003).

Within a mentoring relationship, there is the potential for a mentor to invest a great deal of resources into the relationship. As discussed by Eby (2007), mentors may invest time, physical energy, psychological energy, and money into their relationships with their protégés. In addition to the resources mentioned by Eby (2007), mentors may also engage in self-disclosure with their protégés, perhaps sharing about their own personal struggles and lessons learned. Furthermore, there may be indirect investments associated with the mentoring relationship. For example, the mentor and protégé may share mutual friends, especially if the mentor provided visibility and exposure to the protégé by introducing the protégé to colleagues or individuals in upper-level management. The mentor and protégé may also be involved in joint projects if the mentor invited the protégé to work with him/her on certain projects. It is also possible that the mentoring relationship may become embedded in the mentor's sense of personal identity. All of these investments serve to increase the cost of ending the relationship, and therefore enhance the mentor's commitment to the relationship. Based on this line of reasoning and previous research on the investment model supporting this prediction, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 7. Mentor investment size is positively associated with mentor commitment.

Perceived managerial support for mentoring. In applying Rusbult's (1980a) investment model to workplace mentoring relationships, the current study builds upon the model by adding an organizational context variable as a predictor of mentor commitment: perceived managerial support for mentoring. Within the mentoring literature, there is a limited amount of research examining the role of the organizational environment in mentoring relationships (Allen, 2007). However, researchers have long recognized the importance of considering how organizational factors may influence workplace mentoring. For example, Kram (1985) suggested that organizational characteristics, such as reward systems, the design of work, performance management systems, and organizational culture, may influence the initiation, development, and sustenance of mentoring relationships.

More recent qualitative work has lent support to Kram's (1985) propositions (e.g., Allen et al., 1997; Billet, 2003). Through interviews with mentors, Allen et al. (1997) identified several organizational factors believed to influence mentoring relationships. The most frequently reported factors believed to facilitate mentoring were organizational support for employee learning and development and the availability of company training programs. Other facilitating factors were manager and co-worker support for mentoring, taking a team approach to work, providing mentors with decision-making power, establishing a comfortable work environment (e.g., having an open-door policy within the organization), and having a structured environment (e.g., having clear positions of authority within the organization). In terms of factors believed to inhibit mentoring

relationships, mentors most frequently reported time and work demands and organizational structure (e.g., a flattened managerial structure reduces the number of potential mentors available). Other inhibiting factors included having a competitive or political environment and unclear expectations of the company. In another qualitative investigation, Billet (2003) conducted interviews with mentors and found results consistent with those of Allen et al. (1997). Specifically, mentors reported that the support they received from co-workers and management for their mentoring efforts affected the extent of their engagement in mentoring. Furthermore, there was some evidence that receiving greater support and acknowledgement for their efforts increased the perceived benefits of the mentoring role. Taken together, results of these two studies seem to suggest that having an organizational culture that values employee development and having managerial support for mentoring are important to the development of effective mentoring relationships.

Some mentoring researchers have conducted quantitative research examining the role of organizational reward systems that are linked to employee development (e.g., Allen, 2004; Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1996). For example, Aryee et al. (1996) surveyed managerial-level employees and found that their perceptions of organizational rewards for developing others were positively associated with their motivation to mentor. In another study, Allen (2004) investigated how organizational rewards for developing others are associated with mentor selection of a protégé. Allen predicted that mentors perceiving a stronger link between mentoring and rewards would choose protégés with greater ability and willingness to learn. This prediction was based on the reasoning that linking mentoring to rewards may increase the visibility of mentoring relationships,

which would encourage potential mentors to take steps to increase the likelihood that the relationship would be successful. Thus, potential mentors would choose protégés that they believed to be highly talented and motivated. Allen found some support for this prediction, in that organizational rewards for developing others were associated with the extent to which mentor selection of a protégé was influenced by the protégé's willingness to learn, and was marginally associated with the extent to which mentor selection was influenced by protégé ability. Taken together, the studies by Aryee et al. (1996) and Allen (2004) support the notion that there is an association between offering organizational rewards for developing others and the formation of mentoring relationships.

Recently, Eby, Lockwood, and Butts (2006) made an important contribution to the mentoring literature by examining both mentor and protégé perceptions of workplace support for mentoring. In their research, they addressed two dimensions of perceived support for mentoring: perceived managerial support for mentoring and perceived accountability for mentoring. Perceived managerial support for mentoring was defined as "beliefs that agents of the organization recognize the importance of mentoring, that managerial role models for appropriate mentoring behavior are available, and that mentors are rewarded for their mentoring efforts" (Eby, Lockwood, et al., 2006, p. 270). Perceived accountability for mentoring was defined as the "belief that mentors are held accountable for their behavior and that policies are in place to effectively deal with problems that may arise between mentor and protégé" (Eby, Lockwood, et al., 2006, p. 270). When examining the protégé's perspective, Eby and colleagues found that perceived managerial support for mentoring explained significant incremental variance in

career-related and psychosocial mentoring, whereas perceived accountability for mentoring explained significant incremental variance in three types of negative mentoring experiences (mentor distancing behavior, mentor manipulative behavior, and lack of mentor expertise). Thus, when protégés perceive greater workplace support for mentoring, they tend to report more positive mentoring and fewer negative mentoring experiences.

When examining perceived support for mentoring from the mentor's perspective, Eby, Lockwood, et al. (2006) looked at the outcome variables of relational complementarity, which refers to the extent to which both the mentor and protégé benefit from the relationship, and willingness to mentor in the future. They found that mentor perceptions of managerial support for mentoring were positively associated with relational complementarity, whereas mentor perceptions of accountability for mentoring were negatively associated with willingness to mentor in the future. Thus, although perceived managerial support appeared to be associated with positive relational outcomes, perceived accountability seemed to be associated with the negative outcome of decreased willingness to mentor in the future. Combining these results with findings from the protégé's perspective suggests that managerial support for mentoring may lead to positive outcomes for both mentors and protégés. However, whereas holding mentors accountable for their behavior may have some positive effects, such as decreasing the occurrence of negative mentoring experiences for protégés, this policy may also have the negative consequence of decreasing mentors' willingness to mentor again in the future. Therefore, these results reveal the importance of further investigating the potential influence of workplace support for mentoring on mentoring relationships.

Given the findings from previous research suggesting the importance of considering the role of the organizational context in mentoring relationships, the current study incorporates the variable of perceived managerial support for mentoring as an antecedent of mentor commitment. The current study adopts the definition developed by Eby and colleagues, where perceived managerial support for mentoring was defined as "beliefs that agents of the organization recognize the importance of mentoring, that managerial role models for appropriate mentoring behavior are available, and that mentors are rewarded for their mentoring efforts" (Eby, Lockwood, et al., 2006, p. 270). Mentors who perceive that their efforts are valued and rewarded by the organization and its agents are likely to develop stronger commitment to their mentoring relationships. Furthermore, perceptions of managerial support for mentoring may be associated with greater perceived benefits, fewer perceived costs, and greater satisfaction with the relationship. Based on Eby, Lockwood, et al.'s (2006) definition, mentors who perceive greater managerial support for mentoring believe that managers in their organization value and reward mentoring. Therefore, mentors reporting greater managerial support for mentoring should also report receiving greater benefits from their mentoring relationships. Empirical support for this proposition comes from Eby, Lockwood, et al.'s (2006) finding that mentor perceptions of managerial support for mentoring were positively associated with mentor reports of relational complementarity (i.e., mentor reports that the relationship was mutually beneficial).

Another line of reasoning that supports the idea that perceived managerial support for mentoring is associated with greater benefits, fewer costs, and greater relationship satisfaction comes from Allen (2004). According to Allen (2004), mentors who perceive

that their organizations reward their efforts to develop others are more likely to choose protégés with greater ability and willingness to learn. Choosing protégés with these characteristics is likely to result in greater benefits and fewer costs to the mentor, which results in greater satisfaction with the relationship on the part of the mentor. Furthermore, Allen (2004) suggested that mentoring relationships may be more visible in organizations that reward developing others. This increased visibility may enhance the mentor's desire for the relationship to succeed, and thus increase the mentor's commitment to the relationship. Along similar lines, Eby and McManus (2004) suggested that the public nature of mentoring relationships may affect mentors' decisions to persist or terminate a relationship. For example, mentors may think that ending a relationship would reflect negatively on them, or they may want to avoid having to explain their actions to others. As a result, mentors may be hesitant to end their relationships. Thus, the increased visibility that comes from serving as a mentor in an organization that rewards such efforts may increase the likelihood that mentors remain committed to their mentoring relationships. Taken together, the arguments presented above lead to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8. Perceived managerial support for mentoring is positively associated with mentor commitment.

Hypothesis 9. Perceived managerial support for mentoring is positively associated with mentor relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 10. Perceived managerial support for mentoring is positively associated with mentor relational benefits.

Hypothesis 11. Perceived managerial support for mentoring is negatively associated with mentor relational costs.

Additionally, mentor perceptions of managerial support for mentoring may be positively associated with investment size. Eby, Lockwood, et al. (2006) suggest that when managers support mentoring, they will encourage employees to invest time and energy into mentoring others. Such managers may also understand that devoting time to mentoring may take away time from other work activities. Thus, mentors who perceive greater managerial support for mentoring are likely to make larger investments in their mentoring relationships. This proposition is reflected in the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 12. Perceived managerial support for mentoring is positively associated with mentor investment size.

As reflected in the current study's hypotheses and illustrated in Figures 1 and 2, relational benefits, costs, satisfaction, and investment size are expected to link perceived managerial support for mentoring to mentor commitment. Thus, these factors are predicted to partially mediate the association between perceived managerial support and commitment.

Hypothesis 13. Mentor relationship satisfaction partially mediates the association between perceived managerial support for mentoring and mentor commitment.

Hypothesis 14. Mentor relational benefits partially mediate the association between perceived managerial support for mentoring and mentor commitment.

Hypothesis 15. Mentor relational costs partially mediate the association between perceived managerial support for mentoring and mentor commitment.

Hypothesis 16. Mentor investment size partially mediates the association between perceived managerial support for mentoring and mentor commitment.

Behavioral Outcomes of Mentor Commitment

In addition to examining the antecedents of mentor commitment to the relationship, the current study also investigates possible behavioral outcomes of mentor commitment. As mentioned earlier, research from the interpersonal relationships domain has shown commitment to be associated with pro-relationship behaviors, such as accommodation, willingness to sacrifice, and tendency to forgive (Finkel et al., 2002; Rusbult et al., 1991; Van Lange et al., 1997). Given this evidence supporting the link between commitment and behavior, the current study examines the association between mentor commitment and mentor behavioral outcomes. In addition, the present study investigates the potential association between mentor commitment and protégé behavioral outcomes. Within the interpersonal relationships literature, researchers have examined how an individual's commitment level may influence the individual's partner (e.g., Wieselquist, Rusbult, Foster, & Agnew, 1999). Based on this research, the current study proposes an association between mentor commitment and protégé behavior.

The behavioral outcomes chosen for investigation in the current study are drawn from the perspective that mentoring may be viewed as an information exchange (Mullen, 1994). Recently, mentoring researchers have called for research examining the more specific behaviors that occur within mentoring relationships (Allen, Shockley, & Poteat, 2010), rather than continuing to rely solely on the traditional mentoring functions originally proposed by Kram (1985; i.e., career-related and psychosocial support).

Therefore, the current study answers this call by examining the behaviors involved in the information exchange that takes place between mentors and protégés.

Mentoring as an information exchange. As described by Mullen (1994), the mentoring relationship may be framed as an information exchange, in which mentoring partners seek and obtain information from each other. The traditional view of mentoring would argue that the primary purpose of the relationship is to provide information to the protégé, with the mentor serving as a source of information for the protégé. However, more contemporary views of mentoring recognize that both parties engage in the provision and receipt of information, and thus both parties benefit from the acquisition of information (e.g., Mullen, 1994; Mullen & Noe, 1999). Therefore, the mentoring relationship may best be described as a *reciprocal* exchange of information (Mullen, 1994).

When contemplating the variety of information that may be exchanged within mentoring relationships, it is helpful to consider the informational typologies developed by researchers within the organizational socialization domain. Two of the more popular typologies are those developed by Miller and Jablin (1991) and Morrison (1993a). According to Miller and Jablin, the information sought by organizational newcomers may be categorized into three types: referent information, appraisal information, and relational information. Referent information refers to the requirements of successfully performing one's job. Appraisal information alerts the newcomer of his/her degree of success in performing the job. Relational information involves information associated with the nature of the newcomer's relationships with others.

Morrison (1993a) proposed five types of information that newcomers may seek. The first type, technical information, refers to information about how to perform the tasks required in one's job, and it is similar to Miller and Jablin's (1991) referent information. The second information type proposed by Morrison is referent information, and it refers to information about what is expected of the newcomer in his/her job. Morrison's third type, normative information, involves information about the behaviors and attitudes valued by the organization. This type of information was not included in Miller and Jablin's typology. The final two types of information proposed by Morrison describe specific kinds of feedback. Whereas performance feedback refers to information about others' perceptions and evaluations of the newcomer's job performance, social feedback refers to information about the appropriateness of the newcomer's nontask behavior. Thus, Morrison's performance and social feedback share some similarity with Miller and Jablin's appraisal and relational information categories. Although Morrison developed her informational typology in the context of newcomer socialization, it has been successfully applied to the context of the mentoring information exchange (e.g., Mullen, 1994; Mullen & Noe, 1999).

Empirical research has supported the notion of viewing the mentoring relationship as an information exchange. For example, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1993) found that newcomers used mentors to acquire information during the organizational socialization process. They found that mentors were particularly helpful in providing information about the organization (e.g., information about organizational climate, culture, politics, etc.). As another example, Mullen and Noe (1999) found support for the idea that mentors seek different types of information from their protégés. Taken together, results

from these studies suggest that mentoring relationships involve a reciprocal exchange of information, where mentors and protégés engage in information sharing and receiving with their partners. Such an exchange of information is important, as it may then lead to important outcomes for both the individuals involved and the organization. Research supports this argument, in that employee information acquisition has been associated with important outcomes. For instance, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found that the amount of information acquired by organizational newcomers was positively associated with newcomer knowledge and socialization outcomes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Similarly, information acquisition by mentors and protégés may result in positive outcomes. Thus, it seems beneficial to increase our understanding of the mentoring information exchange and those factors which may enhance it. The current study addresses these issues by examining the association between mentor commitment and behaviors involved in the information exchange between mentors and protégés. Specifically, it is predicted that mentor commitment is positively associated with the frequency and quality of information provided by the mentor to the protégé. Additionally, mentor commitment is predicted to be positively associated with protégé acceptance of the information provided by the mentor and the frequency of protégé information seeking. The sections that follow elaborate on these predictions and provide theoretical and empirical support.

Mentor behavioral outcomes. The current study proposes that mentor commitment is associated with mentor information-sharing behavior. More specifically, it is proposed that mentors having greater levels of commitment provide more frequent and higher quality information to their protégés. The dimensions of information

frequency and quality have been examined in previous research investigating the information- and feedback-sharing processes within organizations (e.g., Allen et al., 2010; Greller, 1980; Hanser & Muchinsky, 1978; Herold, Liden, & Leatherwood, 1987; Kinicki, Prussia, Wu, & McKee-Ryan, 2004; Steelman, Levy, & Snell, 2004). For the current study, information quality is defined as the usefulness of the information provided by the mentor to the protégé. This definition is consistent with previous research, in which usefulness has been recognized as an important aspect of information quality (e.g., Greller, 1980; Hanser & Muchinsky, 1978; Herold et al., 1987; Steelman et al., 2004). According to Ilgen, Fisher, and Taylor (1979), informational value (or usefulness) depends on the recipient's perception of the extent to which the information provided adds incrementally to the information already possessed by the recipient. In studies examining feedback provision, frequency and quality have been associated with important outcomes, such as productivity and role ambiguity (e.g., Allen et al., 2010; Herold et al., 1987). Therefore, the current study incorporates these dimensions of the information-sharing behavior of mentors.

Theory and empirical evidence from the interpersonal relationships and mentoring research domains support the proposed associations between mentor commitment and the frequency and quality of information the mentor provides to the protégé. Within the interpersonal relationships literature, research examining the link between commitment and willingness to sacrifice supports these associations (e.g., Van Lange et al., 1997). Willingness to sacrifice refers to the tendency to relinquish immediate self-interest and act in a way that promotes the welfare of a partner or a relationship. Sacrifice may involve passive sacrifice (i.e., giving up desirable behaviors) or active sacrifice (i.e.,

engaging in what may be considered undesirable behaviors). According to interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978), when faced with a noncorrespondent situation (defined as a situation in which partners' preferences are in conflict), individuals must choose between self-interest and sacrifice. A *transformation of motivation* occurs when individuals depart from self-interest and behave in ways consistent with broader goals (e.g., in ways that promote the relationship or partner). Van Lange et al. (1997) found empirical support for their proposition that commitment promotes pro-relationship transformation and willingness to sacrifice, in that commitment was positively associated with willingness to sacrifice in a series of studies. Applying this to the context of mentoring relationships, this suggests that mentors who are more committed to their relationships may be more willing to make sacrifices for the good of their relationships and protégés. For example, a highly committed mentor may sacrifice time that could be spent on other activities in order to spend time coaching a protégé. Thus, one would expect mentor commitment to be positively associated with the provision of mentoring support. There is some empirical evidence from the mentoring literature supporting this proposition. For example, Allen et al. (2009) found protégé reports of mentor commitment to be positively correlated with protégé reports of career-related and psychosocial support. Applying these ideas and findings to the current study, this suggests that mentors who are more committed may take the time to provide more frequent and higher quality information to their protégés. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 17. Mentor commitment is positively associated with the frequency of information provided by the mentor to the protégé.

Hypothesis 18. Mentor commitment is positively associated with the quality of information provided by the mentor to the protégé.

Protégé behavioral outcomes. In addition to the proposed association between mentor commitment and mentor information-sharing behavior, the current study also proposes an association between mentor commitment and protégé information exchange behavior. Specifically, it is predicted that mentor commitment positively relates to protégé acceptance of the information provided by the mentor and protégé information seeking behavior. Within the interpersonal relationships domain, researchers have investigated how an individual's level of commitment to a relationship may affect the individual's partner (e.g., Drigotas, Rusbult, & Verette, 1999; Wieselquist et al., 1999). Wieselquist and colleagues (1999) have developed a model of mutual cyclical growth, which describes how a committed individual's pro-relationship maintenance behaviors may influence the partner. According to these researchers, it is beneficial for individuals to attend to partners' commitment levels, because commitment and dependence make individuals vulnerable. This vulnerability can be reduced to the extent that partners are equally vulnerable and mutually committed. Wieselquist and colleagues propose that *trust* is an implicit gauge of a partner's commitment. Therefore, when an individual perceives that a partner is committed because the partner has engaged in pro-relationship behavior, the individual is more likely to trust the partner. Wieselquist et al. found empirical support for this idea, in that there was a positive association between individuals' trust level and their partners' commitment level.

Applying Wieselquist et al.'s (1999) ideas to the mentoring context, this suggests that mentor commitment is positively associated with protégé trust. Taking this a step

further, it follows that mentor commitment may also be associated with protégé trust-related behaviors. As the current study is focused on the behaviors involved in information exchange, two constructs were chosen from the information- and feedback-sharing literatures that have been found to be associated with trust: information acceptance and information seeking. Thus, mentor commitment is proposed to be positively associated with protégé information acceptance and seeking.

Within the feedback literature, there are two streams of research: (1) viewing individuals as passive recipients of feedback (e.g., Ilgen et al., 1979), and (2) viewing individuals as active seekers of feedback (e.g., Ashford & Cummings, 1983). The current study incorporates ideas from both streams by including the constructs of information acceptance and information seeking. The concept of "information acceptance" is based on the feedback acceptance construct, which has been examined in research investigating individuals' responses to feedback (e.g., Brett & Atwater, 2001; Kinicki et al., 2004). As conceptualized by Ilgen et al., feedback acceptance refers to feedback recipients' beliefs in the accuracy of the feedback received from a given source. Feedback acceptance has been found to be an important predictor of individuals' responses to feedback, which ultimately lead to behavioral change and potential performance improvements (Kinicki et al., 2004). In the context of the current study, protégé information acceptance is defined as the extent to which the protégé believes the information from the mentor to be accurate. Given the results from the feedback literature, this appears to be an important construct to consider, as it may influence the effectiveness of mentoring in facilitating a protégé's development. For example, unless a protégé accepts the information provided

by a mentor as accurate, he/she is unlikely to use this information to improve performance.

Based on the combination of research from the feedback and interpersonal relationships literatures, it is predicted that mentor commitment is positively associated with protégé information acceptance. As discussed earlier, research suggests that protégés will be more likely to trust mentors who are more committed to the relationship (Wieselquist et al., 1999). Research on feedback has demonstrated a positive association between the trustworthiness of a feedback source and a recipient's acceptance of the feedback (e.g., Ilgen et al., 1979; Kinicki et al., 2004). Taken together, these findings suggest that protégés are more likely to trust, and therefore accept the information provided by, mentors who are more committed.

Additional support for an association between mentor commitment and protégé information acceptance may be drawn from research examining the expertise component of source credibility. In the context of providing feedback, expertise refers to the source's ability to accurately evaluate behavior, which requires familiarity with both the task being performed and the recipient's performance (Ilgen et al., 1979). Research has shown a positive association between source expertise and feedback acceptance (e.g., Ilgen et al., 1979; Kinicki et al., 2004). Applying these ideas to the current study, it is likely that mentors who are more committed to their protégés are also more familiar with their protégés' behavior (an aspect of source expertise). As a result, protégés are more likely to accept the information provided by committed mentors.

A final piece of support for the proposed association between mentor commitment and protégé information acceptance comes from research by Fedor, Eder, and Buckley

(1989). These researchers examined how perceptions of a source's intentions in providing feedback influence recipients' responses to feedback. Results of their study indicated that perceptions of constructive intentions (defined as providing personal support and high quality feedback to help goal attainment) were associated with more positive feedback reactions and greater motivation to improve one's performance based on the feedback received. With respect to the current study, protégés may be more likely to trust the intentions of a committed mentor, and thus respond more favorably to the information provided by the mentor. Taken together, the research evidence presented above provides strong support for the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 19. Mentor commitment is positively associated with protégé acceptance of information provided by the mentor.

The second protégé behavior examined in the current study is protégé information seeking. Although the concept of information seeking originated in the feedback and organizational socialization literatures, it has also been successfully applied to the context of mentoring (e.g., Allen et al., 2010; Mullen, 1994; Mullen & Noe, 1999). According to the feedback and socialization literatures, there are two primary information seeking strategies: inquiry and monitoring (Ashford, 1986; Morrison, 1993a). Inquiry refers to directly asking a source for information, whereas monitoring involves observing the environment for informational cues. Research findings suggest that individuals try to maximize benefits and minimize costs when seeking information (Morrison, 2002), and the perceived benefits and costs may influence the choice of information seeking strategy (e.g., Fedor, Rensvold, & Adams, 1992). For example, individuals may use less overt strategies, such as monitoring, to minimize the potential social costs associated with

information seeking (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993a). On the other hand, using more direct tactics may result in higher quality information and reduce the possibility of misinterpretation (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993a). For the purposes of the current study, the information seeking strategy of inquiry appears to be most relevant, and is therefore the focus of the ideas that follow. More specifically, the present study examines the frequency with which the protégé uses the inquiry strategy to seek information from the mentor. Given the amount of research demonstrating an association between information seeking and various outcomes, such as adjustment, satisfaction, and performance (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Morrison, 1993a, 1993b, 2002), protégé information seeking seems to be an important factor to consider in the mentoring information exchange.

There are several findings from the information- and feedback-seeking literatures that support the proposed association between mentor commitment and protégé information seeking frequency. The first line of evidence comes from research examining the association between source credibility and information seeking, and it is similar to the arguments presented earlier for the proposed association between mentor commitment and protégé information acceptance. As previously discussed, findings from the interpersonal relationships literature suggest that protégés are more likely to trust mentors who are more committed (Wieselquist et al., 1999). One of the dimensions of source credibility is source trustworthiness (Ilgen et al., 1979), and research has demonstrated a positive association between source credibility and recipient feedback seeking (e.g., Steelman et al., 2004). Therefore, combining these findings suggests that protégés are more likely to trust and seek information from committed mentors.

Furthermore, committed mentors are likely to be more familiar with their protégés' behavior than less committed mentors. Because source familiarity with recipient performance is another aspect of source credibility (Ilgen et al., 1979), this provides additional support for the proposed association between mentor commitment and protégé information seeking.

A second base of support for the predicted relationship between mentor commitment and protégé information seeking comes from theoretical and empirical work on the social costs of information seeking. Potential social costs of information seeking include the risk of harming the seeker's public image, appearing insecure or incompetent, annoying the information source, or drawing attention to the seeker's deficiencies (Ashford, 1986; Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993a). If an individual anticipates such costs may occur, then he/she is less likely to engage in information seeking, especially the inquiry strategy. Empirical research has supported this idea. For example, Fedor et al. (1992) found a negative association between perceived social costs of feedback seeking and engaging in feedback inquiry. Applying this to the context of mentoring, it is possible that a protégé may be concerned about the potential social costs involved in eliciting information from his/her mentor, and may therefore engage in less information seeking. However, these perceived social risks may be alleviated to the extent that the mentor is committed to the relationship. For instance, protégés who know that their mentors are committed to the long-term success of their relationship may be less fearful of experiencing social rejection from their mentors. Thus, protégés with committed mentors may engage in more frequent information seeking due to reduced perceptions of social costs.

The final set of findings lending support to the proposed association between mentor commitment and protégé information seeking comes from research examining the characteristics of informational sources. Three such characteristics are discussed here. First, researchers have found that the quality of the relationship between the source and the seeker positively affects the seeker's likelihood of asking for feedback (Vancouver & Morrison, 1995). One explanation for this finding is that the source is less likely to react negatively to an informational request and is more likely to provide feedback in a constructive manner when the source and seeker have a high quality relationship (Vancouver & Morrison, 1995). As a result, the seeker will likely perceive fewer social costs, and thus be more likely to seek information from the source. In terms of the current study, it is likely that mentoring relationships in which the mentor is more committed are of higher quality than those in which the mentor is less committed. Therefore, based on the association between relationship quality and information seeking, protégés with more committed mentors should elicit information from their mentors more frequently.

The second source characteristic relevant to the current study is that of source supportiveness. Researchers have found empirical support for the idea that source supportiveness of feedback seeking enhances feedback seeking behavior (Williams, Miller, Steelman, & Levy, 1999). One possible explanation for this finding is that source supportiveness reduces the social threats associated with seeking feedback (Williams et al., 1999). In the mentoring context, it could be argued that mentors who are more committed to their protégés are more likely to communicate supportiveness of the

protégés' information seeking behaviors, thereby encouraging the protégé to seek information more frequently.

The third source characteristic found to enhance information seeking in previous research is source accessibility (Vancouver & Morrison, 1995). Source accessibility refers to the ease of obtaining information from a given source (Steelman et al., 2004; Vancouver & Morrison, 1995). It is likely that protégés perceive committed mentors as being more accessible than less committed mentors. Thus, protégés may seek information from committed mentors more frequently. In sum, the findings from the information- and feedback-seeking literatures discussed above support the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 20. Mentor commitment is positively associated with the frequency of protégé information seeking.

Mediating role of mentor commitment. As shown in Figures 1 and 2, the models proposed in the current study incorporate the antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment. Mentor commitment is argued to serve as a mediator between the antecedents and outcomes. Support for this argument comes from the interpersonal relationships literature and research on Rusbult's investment model, in which commitment is proposed to mediate the effects of the three bases of dependence (i.e., satisfaction, alternatives, investments) on behavior in the relationship (Rusbult et al., 2006). Specifically, researchers have found support for commitment as a mediator of the association between the three bases of dependence and the pro-relationship behaviors of willingness to sacrifice and accommodation (Rusbult et al., 1991; Van Lange et al., 1997). These findings provide support for the mediating role of mentor commitment in

the association between the proposed antecedents and mentor behavioral outcomes. With regards to the proposed protégé behavioral outcomes, support for the mediating role of mentor commitment may be drawn from research by Wieselquist and colleagues (1999). These researchers found support for their mutual cyclical growth model, in which commitment is portrayed as a mediator between the bases of dependence and partner trust. Applied to the current study, this suggests that mentor commitment may serve as a mediator between the proposed antecedents and protégé trust-related behavioral outcomes. Based on this research evidence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 21. Mentor commitment mediates the association between the antecedent variables and behavioral outcomes.

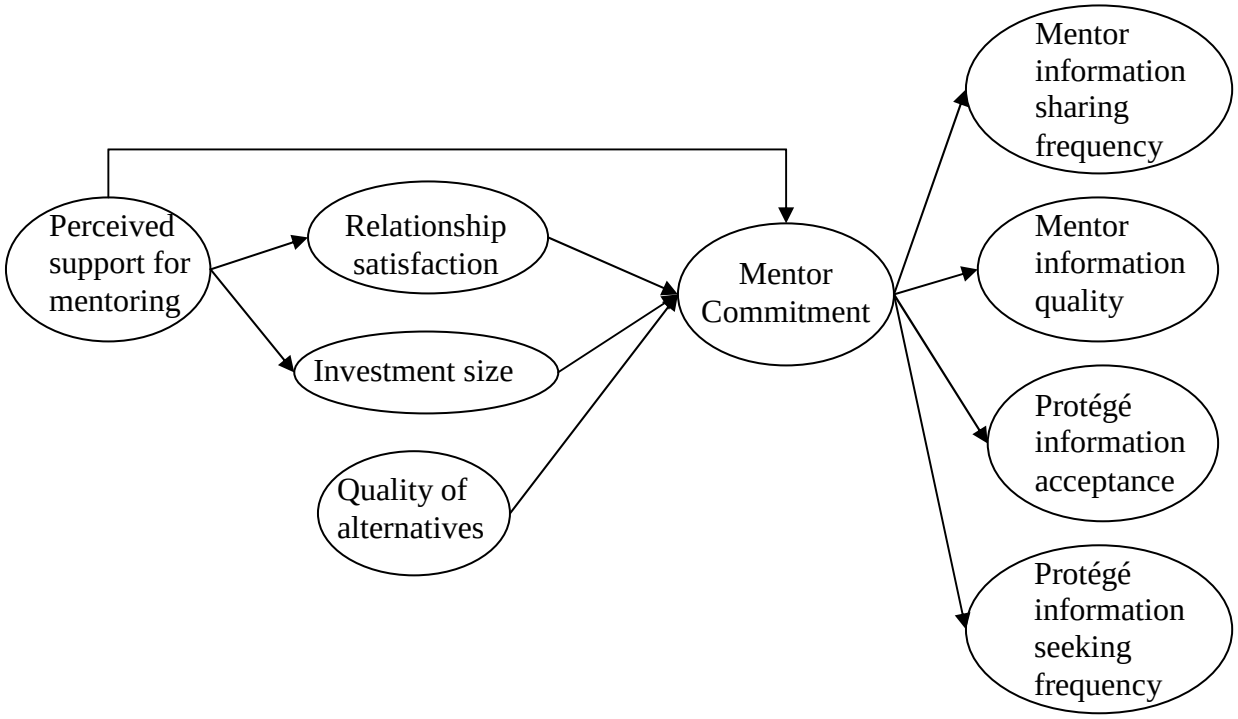

Figure 1. Proposed model of the antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment: Model 1.

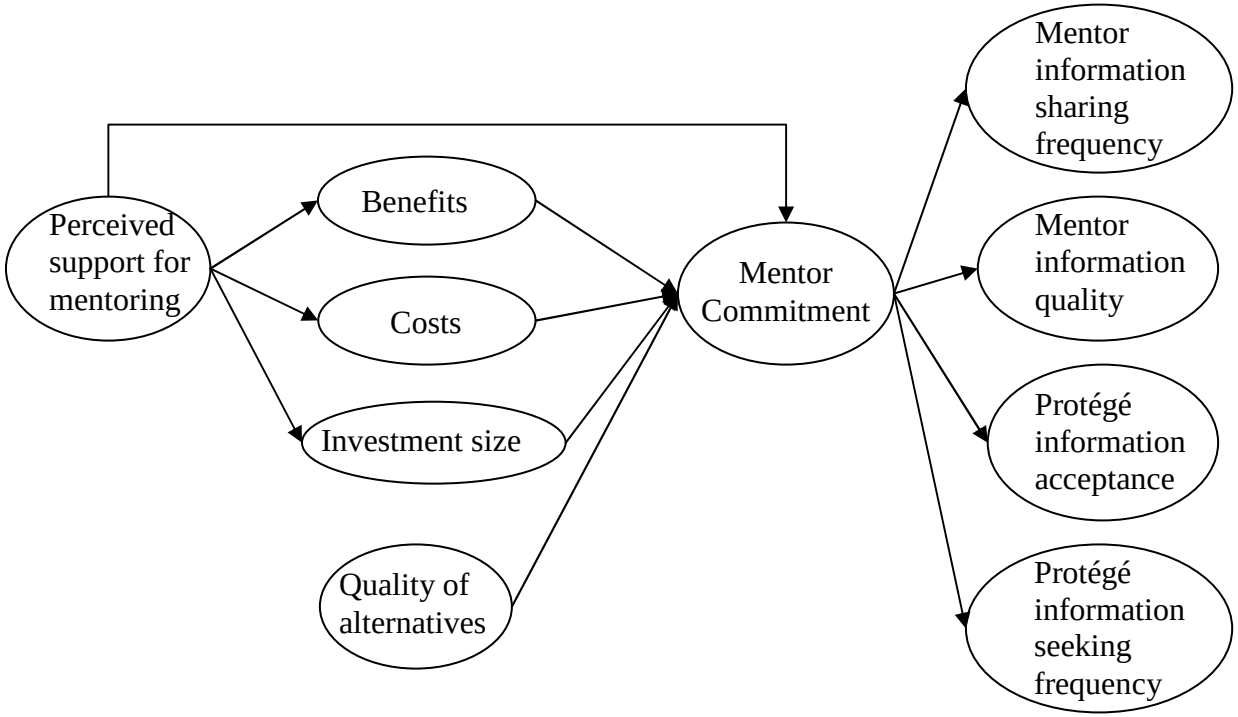

Figure 2. Proposed model of the antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment: Model 2.

Chapter Two

Method

Participants

The final sample consisted of 180 pairs of mentors and protégés who were currently involved in a workplace mentoring relationship. Given the nature of the variables under investigation, mentoring partners had to be employed within the same organization and had to be in a mentoring relationship of at least 4 weeks in duration. To encourage individuals to participate, the researcher made a donation to charity for each completed study survey ($2 for each completed survey, or $5 for each pair of completed surveys). Participants were recruited from several sources, which are described below.

The majority of participants (*n* = 120 mentoring pairs) were employees at 26 universities located in the United States. A total of 36 mentoring pairs came from three different engineering consulting firms located in the United States. Eleven mentoring pairs were obtained through a pool of undergraduate psychology students at a large southeastern university. These students met the criteria for participating in this study (i.e., they were currently employed and involved in a workplace mentoring relationship at their place of employment), and they received course credit for their participation in this study.

Four mentoring pairs were recruited by contacting business professionals who were involved in a university-sponsored mentoring program that pairs local business professionals with first-generation college students. Those business professionals who

met the inclusion criteria for the current study (i.e., professionals who were currently involved in a workplace mentoring relationship with someone employed within their organization) were asked to participate in the study. Thus, the mentoring relationship that the business professionals reported on for the current study was not the relationship with the first-generation college student, but rather it was a separate mentoring relationship that the business professional had with a fellow co-worker within their organization.

Three mentoring pairs came from a company providing medical equipment and management solutions for health practitioners. Two mentoring pairs were recruited through a professional association for engineers. One mentoring pair was obtained through a mentoring program for women in the military. One mentoring pair came from an office products company. One mentoring pair came from a mid-sized regional hospital. One mentoring pair was obtained through the researcher's network of personal colleagues.

Of the 180 mentors included in the final sample, there were 85 males and 93 females (2 mentors did not report their gender). The majority of the mentors were white (n = 151), and the mean age was 50.13 (SD = 11.45; 11 mentors did not report age). The median level of education for the mentors was a graduate degree. The mean number of hours worked per week by the mentors was 49.66 (SD = 11.88). Mean organizational tenure of the mentors was 12.60 years (SD = 8.86), and mean job tenure was 10.06 years (SD = 9.16). A variety of job titles and industries were represented, with the majority of mentors working in the education or health services industry (n = 121), followed by the professional or business services industry (n = 49).

Of the 180 protégés included in the final sample, there were 53 males and 122 females (5 protégés did not report their gender). The majority of the protégés were white (n = 125), and the mean age was 36.20 (SD = 9.66; 5 protégés did not report age). The median level of education for the protégés was a graduate degree. The mean number of hours worked per week by the protégés was 46.39 (SD = 14.15). Mean organizational tenure of the protégés was 4.52 years (SD = 5.24), and mean job tenure was 3.35 years (SD = 4.58). A variety of job titles and industries were represented, with the majority of protégés working in the education or health services industry (n = 115), followed by the professional or business services industry (n = 44).

Demographic characteristics were also examined at the level of the dyad. In terms of mentor and protégé gender, there were 35 male mentor – male protégé pairs, 73 female mentor – female protégé pairs, 47 male mentor – female protégé pairs, and 18 female mentor – male protégé pairs. There were 7 pairs in which only one mentoring partner reported gender. In terms dyad racial composition, there were 114 pairs in which both the mentor and protégé belonged to the racial majority group (i.e., white); 13 pairs in which the mentor and protégé belonged to a racial minority group (i.e., non-white); 35 pairs in which the mentor belonged to the racial majority and the protégé belonged to the racial minority; and 8 pairs in which the mentor belonged to the racial minority and the protégé belonged to the racial majority. There were 10 pairs in which only one mentoring partner reported race.

Mentors and protégés reported several key characteristics describing their current mentoring relationship. The description that follows is based on mentor reports of these relationship characteristics. Mean duration of the mentoring relationship was 2.16 years

(*SD* = 2.23). In terms of the current phase of the relationship, 15.6% of the relationships were in the initiation phase, 46.1% were in the cultivation phase, 10.0% were in the separation phase, and 28.3% were in the redefinition phase. Ninety-seven (53.9%) of the relationships were classified as formal relationships, whereas 83 (46.1%) were classified as informal. In most cases, the mentor was not the protégé's supervisor, with 71.7% of the relationships classified as non-supervisory and 28.3% classified as supervisory. With regard to partner proximity, 86.7% of mentors reported being located in the same city as their protégé, whereas 13.3% reported being in a different city. In terms of interaction frequency, mentors reported spending an average of 13.44 hours per month (*SD* = 28.55) with their protégé in person, and an average of 5.82 hours per month (*SD* = 17.23) with their protégé through other forms of communication (e.g., phone, email).

Procedure

Participants were asked to complete either an online or a paper version of a survey consisting of scales assessing the study variables. There were separate mentor and protégé versions of the survey. A numerical code was assigned to each mentoring pair and was used to match the responses of each mentor with the responses of his/her protégé. All survey responses were submitted to the researcher and were kept confidential.

Surveys were sent to a total of 328 mentors and 338 protégés. Of these, a total of 222 mentors and 229 protégés completed the survey and met all of the participation inclusion criteria (e.g., currently involved in an intra-organizational workplace mentoring relationship of at least 4 weeks in duration). There were several cases in which only one partner of a mentoring pair completed the survey. For the current study, responses were

needed from both partners. The total number of mentoring pairs in which both the mentor and the protégé participated was 180.

Measures

The mentor version of the survey included measures that assess mentor commitment, mentor relationship satisfaction, mentor relational benefits, mentor relational costs, mentor quality of alternatives, mentor investment size, mentor perceived managerial support for mentoring, protégé information acceptance, protégé information seeking frequency, and relationship and demographic characteristics. The protégé version of the survey included measures that assess mentor information sharing frequency, mentor information quality, and relationship and demographic characteristics. The specifics of each measure are described below. In all cases (except relationship and demographic characteristics), scale scores were calculated by averaging item responses, with higher scores indicating greater standing on the variable. For a list of scale items, please see the Appendices.

Mentor commitment. To assess the mentor's level of commitment to the relationship, a modified version of the scale developed by Rusbult et al. (1998) was used, similar to the one used by Ortiz-Walters and Gilson (2005) in their study on student-faculty mentoring. For the current study, items were reworded to refer to workplace mentoring relationships. Mentors were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with four items using a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "I am committed to maintaining an effective relationship with this protégé". Rusbult et al. found evidence for the reliability and

validity of their measure of commitment, and Ortiz-Walters and Gilson obtained an acceptable level of reliability with their modified measure ($\alpha = .83$).

Mentor relationship satisfaction. To assess the level of mentor satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, mentors completed an adapted version of Poteat et al.'s (2009) three-item measure of relationship satisfaction. Responses were made on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "I am satisfied with the relationship with this protégé". Poteat et al. found support for the reliability of their measure ($\alpha = .94$).

Mentor relational benefits. Within the mentoring literature, researchers have identified several benefits that mentors may experience through their mentoring relationships (e.g., Allen et al., 1997; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). For the current study, the interest is in the overall beneficial value of the relationship, rather than in the specific benefits obtained. Therefore, a three-item, general measure of the benefits received by the mentor from the relationship was created. One of the items is based on an item developed by Rusbult (1980b), whereas the other two items were written for the current study. Mentors responded to each item based on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "This mentoring relationship provides many rewards."

Mentor relational costs. Mentoring researchers have identified several potential costs associated with mentoring others (e.g., Allen et al., 1997; Eby et al., 2008; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). For the purposes of the current study, the interest is in the overall costliness of the mentoring relationship to the mentor, rather than in the specific costs incurred. Therefore, a three-item, general measure of relational costs incurred by the

mentor was created. One of the items is based on an item developed by Rusbult (1980b); another item is based on an item developed by Ragins and Scandura (1999); and the final item was written for the current study. Mentors responded to each item based on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "This relationship has been costly for me to maintain."

Mentor quality of alternatives. Mentors reported the desirability of alternatives to their current mentoring relationship using a modified version of Rusbult et al.'s (1998) measure of quality of alternatives. Items were reworded to fit the mentoring context. Mentors indicated their extent of agreement with five items based on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "The people other than my protégé with whom I might develop relationships are very appealing." Rusbult et al. found evidence for the reliability and validity of their measure of quality of alternatives, with reliability ranging from $\alpha = .82$ to $\alpha = .88$.

Mentor investment size. Mentors indicated the size of their investment in their mentoring relationships using a modified version of Rusbult et al.'s (1998) measure of investment size. Items were reworded to reflect the workplace mentoring context. Mentors indicated their level of agreement with five items based on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "I have put a great deal into our relationship that I would lose if the relationship were to end." Rusbult et al. found evidence for the reliability and validity of their measure, with reliability ranging from $\alpha = .82$ to $\alpha = .84$.

Mentor perceived managerial support for mentoring. To assess mentor perceptions of managerial support for mentoring, the measure developed by Eby,

Lockwood, et al. (2006) was used. This scale consists of six items, and responses were based on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "Top management in my organization serves as a role model for mentors." Eby, Lockwood, et al. found evidence for the scale's validity and reliability (e.g., $\alpha = .86$).

Mentor information sharing frequency. In order to assess the frequency of information provided by the mentor to the protégé, the current study adopts the informational typology proposed by Morrison (1993a). As described earlier, Morrison's (1993a) typology identifies five types of information: technical, referent, normative, performance feedback, and social feedback. Some of the wording from Morrison's (1993a, 1993b) measure of information seeking frequency was used to develop the current study's measure of mentor information sharing frequency. The resulting scale consists of five items assessing the frequency with which the mentor provides each of the five information types to the protégé. Protégés responded to these items using a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). A sample item is "How frequently has your mentor provided you with information about how to perform specific aspects of your job?"

Mentor information quality. To assess the quality of the information provided by the mentor to the protégé, a modified version of Steelman et al.'s (2004) measure of feedback quality was used. Their scale measures the usefulness of feedback received from supervisors and coworkers. Therefore, to adapt this measure to the current context, items were reworded such that references to supervisors and coworkers as sources of information were replaced with references to the mentor, and references to feedback

information were replaced with the more general term "information". Protégés indicated their extent of agreement with each of the five items using a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "My mentor gives me useful information." Steelman et al. found evidence supporting the reliability and validity of their measure, reporting an internal consistency reliability of $\alpha = .92$.

Protégé information acceptance. In the current study, protégé information acceptance is defined as the extent to which the protégé believes the information from the mentor to be accurate, and it is similar to the construct of feedback acceptance. Although the majority of researchers examining feedback acceptance have used self-report measures (i.e., feedback recipients report their own acceptance levels), some researchers have used other-report measures (i.e., feedback givers report recipients' receptivity to feedback; e.g., Allen et al., 2010; Ryan, Brutus, Greguras, & Hakel, 2000; Smither, London, & Richmond, 2005). For the current study, mentors rated the extent to which their protégés accept the information they provide. A four-item scale was created based on previously developed measures of feedback acceptance (namely, measures developed by Allen et al., 2010; Anseel & Lievens, 2009; Brett & Atwater, 2001; McCarthy & Garavan, 2007; Nease, Mudgett, & Quinones, 1999; Ryan et al., 2000; and Smither et al., 2005). Responses were made on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample item is "My protégé sees the information I provide as accurate."

Protégé information seeking frequency. In order to assess protégé information seeking frequency, the current study again adopts Morrison's (1993a) informational typology. Mentors indicated the frequency with which their protégés ask them for each

of the five types of information. The wording of the items is based on Morrison's (1993a, 1993b) measure of information seeking frequency. Most of the previous research on feedback- and information-seeking has used self-report measures of seeking. However, some researchers have incorporated both self- and other-reports and have found the two to be correlated (e.g., Fedor et al., 1992; Morrison, 1993a). For the current study, mentors responded to the five items assessing protégé information seeking frequency using a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). A sample item is "How frequently has your protégé asked you about how to perform specific aspects of his/her job?" Mullen and Noe (1999) used a similar measure to assess the extent to which mentors sought the five types of information from their protégés, and their scale had an acceptable level of reliability ($\alpha = .89$).

Relationship characteristics. Mentors and protégés responded to items that assessed various relationship characteristics. First, participants were provided with the definition of a mentor, adapted from Ragins and Cotton (1999), and asked to indicate whether they were currently involved in a mentoring relationship as either a mentor or protégé. Next, participants were presented with a series of items regarding their mentoring relationship. Specifically, they were asked to provide information regarding the duration of their relationship; the current mentoring phase (using an item adapted from Eby, Butts, Lockwood, & Simon, 2004); whether the relationship is characterized as formal or informal (using definitions adapted from Ragins & Cotton, 1999); whether the relationship is intra- or inter-organizational (i.e., are the partners employed within the same organization); whether the relationship is supervisory or non-supervisory (i.e., is the

mentor the protégé's supervisor); the proximity of their partner (i.e., located in same office, city); their interaction frequency; and their previous mentoring experience.

Demographic information. Participants were also asked to respond to items regarding their demographic characteristics, including their gender, age, race, education, organizational and job tenure, job title, industry, and hours worked per week. Additionally, participants were asked to provide information regarding the demographic characteristics of their mentoring partner (specifically, partner gender, age, and race).

Chapter Three

Results

Means, standard deviations, coefficient alphas, and intercorrelations among study variables were calculated. All of the coefficient alphas were greater than .80, indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability, with the exception of the coefficient alpha for mentor relational costs ($\alpha = .76$). However, removing the second item from the mentor relational costs scale resulted in a coefficient alpha of .84. Thus, this item was removed from further analyses. An examination of the intercorrelations among study variables revealed high correlations among some of the variables. Thus, the decision was made to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to examine the underlying factor structure of the survey items.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine the underlying factor structure of the survey items, using maximum likelihood estimation procedures. The proposed CFA model related each of the survey items to the assumed underlying factor, and the factors were allowed to correlate. Before conducting the CFA, the data were screened for independence, linearity, and multivariate normality. The assumption of independence was met based on the design of the study's procedures. Inspecting the correlations among the items and plotting a sample of item pairs revealed the presence of linear relationships among items. To check the assumption of multivariate normality, univariate normality was assessed by examining the stem-and-leaf displays, box-plots,

and skewness and kurtosis indices of each item. This examination revealed a lack of normality for items designed to assess mentor relationship satisfaction, mentor relational costs, mentor information quality, and protégé information acceptance. However, by removing four outliers and introducing a logarithmic transformation on the raw data, these items were made more normal. Specifically, items assessing mentor relational costs were transformed by taking the log, and items assessing mentor relationship satisfaction and mentor information quality were transformed by reflecting and then taking the log. After removing the outliers and performing the logarithmic transformation, measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis were computed ($b_{1,p}$ = 774.48; $b_{2,p}$ = 2490.38), and revealed a lack of multivariate normality. However, the degree of non-normality did not appear substantial, so the decision was made to proceed with the analysis.

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the survey items included in the CFA. Results from the initial CFA revealed relatively poor model fit ($\chi^2(979) = 1743.72$, RMSEA = .067, TLI = .87, CFI = .88, ECVI = 12.31). An examination of the model residuals revealed that the relationships among the items assessing mentor perceptions of managerial support for mentoring were not being adequately explained by the model. The scale measuring perceived managerial support consisted of three positively worded items and three negatively worded items. An examination of the correlations among these items revealed lower correlations between items with opposite wording direction and higher correlations between items with the same wording direction. These findings suggested a two-factor structure for the perceived managerial support items, with positively and negatively worded items loading on separate factors. When the perceived managerial support items were related to

separate factors in this manner, the fit of the initial CFA model improved ($\chi^2(968) = 1615.53$, RMSEA = .062, TLI = .89, CFI = .90, ECVI = 11.75). Such a two-factor structure, in which oppositely worded items load on separate factors, is likely artifactual and produced by participant response patterns to oppositely worded items (Spector, Van Katwyk, Brannick, & Chen, 1997). Thus, the decision was made to remove the three negatively worded items from the perceived managerial support scale. The resulting three-item scale sufficiently captured the content of the original six-item scale for the purposes of the present study. In addition, the three-item scale exhibited good reliability ($\alpha = .84$; reliability of the original six-item scale was $\alpha = .83$).

Upon removing the three negatively worded items from the perceived managerial support scale, the fit of the resulting CFA model was reasonable ($\chi^2(847) = 1406.36$, RMSEA = .061, TLI = .90, CFI = .91, ECVI = 10.24). An examination of the parameter estimates for the CFA model revealed that the standardized path coefficients for two of the items on their underlying factors were low. Specifically, the standardized path coefficient relating item 4 of the mentor investment size scale to its underlying factor was $\lambda = .37$, and the standardized path coefficient relating item 5 of the mentor information quality scale to its underlying factor was $\lambda = .45$. Furthermore, removing these items resulted in improved internal consistency reliability (i.e., coefficient alpha increased from .84 to .87 when item 4 of the mentor investment size scale was removed, and coefficient alpha increased from .87 to .97 when item 5 of the mentor information quality scale was removed). Therefore, the decision was made to remove these two items. Thus, the final CFA model excluded the three negatively worded items from the perceived managerial support scale, item 4 from the mentor investment size scale, and item 5 from the mentor

information quality scale. The resulting CFA model demonstrated reasonable fit ($\chi^2(764) = 1273.11$, RMSEA = .062, TLI = .90, CFI = .92, ECVI = 9.38).

Figure 3 depicts the final CFA model and reports the standardized path coefficients and R^2 values. Table 2 reports the unstandardized parameter estimates and their standard errors, and Table 3 reports the correlations among the factors. Each of the paths relating each item to its underlying factor was significant, providing evidence for convergent validity. In order to assess discriminant validity, the correlations among the factors were examined (see Table 3). Although there were some high correlations between some of the factors, the confidence intervals (± two standard errors) around the correlations did not include 1.0, providing evidence for discriminant validity. An additional test of discriminant validity was performed for those factors showing the highest correlations (i.e., benefits – satisfaction, benefits – commitment, satisfaction – commitment, investment – commitment, and information sharing frequency – information quality). Five alternative CFA models were specified, one for each pair of highly-correlated factors. In each alternative model, the items from two highly-correlated factors were related to a single factor, rather than to separate factors. For example, the first alternative model related the items assessing benefits and satisfaction to the same, single factor. The fit of each of the alternative models was assessed, and the fit indices are presented in Table 4. As shown in Table 4, each of the alternative models demonstrated poor fit, providing additional support for the factor structure specified in the final CFA model (depicted in Figure 3). Therefore, all remaining analyses were conducted based on the factors and items included in this final CFA model.

Hypothesis Testing

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics for the study variables, and Table 6 presents the intercorrelations among the study variables. Hypotheses 1 and 2 predicted associations between mentor relationship satisfaction and mentor relational benefits and costs. These hypotheses were tested by examining zero-order correlations. Both hypotheses were supported, as there was a positive association between mentor relationship satisfaction and mentor relational benefits ($r = .79$, $p < .0001$) and a negative association between mentor relationship satisfaction and mentor relational costs ($r = -.32$, $p < .0001$).

The remaining hypotheses predicted the associations illustrated in the proposed models (see Figures 1 and 2). Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test these hypotheses, using maximum likelihood estimation procedures. For both of the proposed models, the survey items served as the indicators of the latent factors, and the exogenous factors were allowed to covary (i.e., perceived support for mentoring and quality of alternatives). Both of the proposed models were tested using the two-step approach presented by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). Specifically, the measurement model was estimated first, followed by the structural model. Post hoc power analyses were conducted using the approach described by MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996). Results of these power analyses revealed adequate power for tests of model fit (power = 1.00). Results of the SEM analyses conducted for proposed Model 1 and Model 2 are presented below.

Model 1. Prior to using SEM to test Model 1, the data were screened for independence, linearity, and multivariate normality. The data screening procedures used

were similar to those used for the CFA discussed earlier. Thus, based on the same evidence provided earlier for the CFA, the assumptions of independence and linearity were met. The normality assessment revealed a lack of normality, which was addressed by removing the same four outliers and performing the same logarithmic transformations as were described earlier for the CFA. Measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis were computed, based on the variables included in Model 1 ($b_{1,p}$ = 401.62; $b_{2,p}$ = 1531.89), and revealed a lack of multivariate normality. However, the degree of non-normality did not appear substantial, so the decision was made to proceed with the analysis.

First, the measurement model for Model 1 was estimated, which related each item to its underlying construct and allowed the constructs to correlate. Results revealed reasonable model fit ($\chi^2(593) = 998.44$, RMSEA = .063, TLI = .91, CFI = .92, ECVI = 7.31). All of the path coefficients were significant ($t > 1.96$), and none of the confidence intervals around the factor correlations included 1.0, thus providing support for convergent and discriminant validity.

Next, the hypothesized structural model for Model 1 was estimated. The initial analysis produced a negative variance estimate for the error term associated with item 3 of the relationship satisfaction scale ($\theta\varepsilon$ = -.00025, *SE* = .0025). However, as explained by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), this was likely due to sampling error in conjunction with a true parameter value close to zero, as the confidence interval around the negative estimate included positive values. Thus, the error variance was fixed at .001 for all subsequent analyses. After making this respecification, the structural model was estimated and revealed relatively poor fit ($\chi^2(619) = 1171.41$, RMSEA = .071, TLI = .88,

CFI = .89, ECVI = 7.92). However, an examination of the model residuals and modification indices suggested that the model under-explained the association between mentor information sharing frequency and mentor information quality. Thus, the decision was made to allow the disturbance terms associated with these factors to covary. Given that these two constructs both represent aspects of information sharing, it seems reasonable to expect the two constructs to correlate. Further, it seems reasonable to expect that their correlation would not be completely explained by the proposed antecedent of mentor commitment. It is likely that there are other reasons for the covariation between the two constructs that are not included in the current model.

Upon allowing the disturbance terms associated with mentor information sharing frequency and quality to covary, the fit of the structural model improved ($\chi^2(618) = 1109.39$, RMSEA = .067, TLI = .90, CFI = .90, ECVI = 7.58). Wald test results suggested that removing the paths from perceived support for mentoring to relationship satisfaction, investment size, and mentor commitment would not significantly affect model fit (i.e., the χ^2 value would not increase significantly). In addition, the path coefficients associated with these paths were not significant. Therefore, the decision was made to remove these paths from the model. By removing these paths, the factors representing relationship satisfaction and investment size became exogenous variables, and could therefore be allowed to covary with other exogenous variables and with each other. Based on theory and previous research, we would expect the exogenous variables included in the model to correlate. For example, the Investment Model describes relationship satisfaction, investment size, and quality of alternatives as the three bases of dependence, and previous research has shown them to be correlated (e.g., see meta-

analysis by Le and Agnew, 2003). Therefore, the decision was made to allow the exogenous variables in the modified model to covary (i.e., the latent variables representing relationship satisfaction, investment size, quality of alternatives, and perceived support for mentoring). The resulting model demonstrated reasonable fit ($\chi^2(616) = 1063.74$, RMSEA = .064, TLI = .91, CFI = .91, ECVI = 7.35).

Figure 4 depicts the final model and reports the standardized path coefficients, correlations, and R^2 values. Table 7 reports the unstandardized parameter estimates and their standard errors. As shown in Figure 4, Hypotheses 3 and 7 were supported, in that mentor relationship satisfaction was positively associated with mentor commitment (γ = .44, $p < .05$), and mentor investment size was positively associated with mentor commitment (γ = .55, $p < .05$). Contrary to Hypothesis 6, results of the SEM analysis showed a positive association between mentor quality of alternatives and mentor commitment (γ = .10, $p < .05$). However, it should be noted that the size of the path coefficient was relatively small in magnitude, and the zero-order correlation between quality of alternatives and mentor commitment was not significant (r = .07, *ns*; see Table 6).

Hypotheses 8, 9, and 12 predicted that perceived managerial support for mentoring would be positively associated with mentor commitment, mentor relationship satisfaction, and mentor investment size, respectively. None of these hypotheses were supported, as the paths from perceived support for mentoring to these three variables were not significant and were removed from the final model. Furthermore, the zero-order correlations between perceived support and these three variables were not significant (r = -.05 for commitment; r = -.04 for satisfaction, and r = -.01 for investment; see Table 6).

Hypotheses 13 and 16 predicted partial mediation of the association between perceived managerial support for mentoring and mentor commitment. However, given that perceived support was not significantly associated with mentor commitment, relationship satisfaction, or investment size, the conditions for partial mediation were not met and these hypotheses were not supported.

Hypotheses 17 and 18 predicted associations between mentor commitment and mentor information-sharing behavior. Both hypotheses were supported, in that mentor commitment was positively associated with the frequency and quality of information provided by the mentor to the protégé ($\beta = .51$, $p < .05$, and $\beta = .48$, $p < .05$, respectively). Hypotheses 19 and 20 predicted associations between mentor commitment and protégé information exchange behavior. In support of these hypotheses, results showed mentor commitment to be positively associated with protégé acceptance of information provided by the mentor ($\beta = .55$, $p < .05$) and positively associated with the frequency of protégé information seeking ($\beta = .66$, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 21 predicted that mentor commitment would mediate the association between the antecedent variables and the behavioral outcomes. To test this hypothesis, two models were compared. The first model was the final Model 1 (depicted in Figure 4), in which mentor commitment acted as a mediator between the antecedents and outcomes. The second model was a direct path model, which included all of the paths from final Model 1, plus direct paths from each antecedent to each outcome. (Please note that the direct path model did not include direct paths from perceived support for mentoring to the outcomes, because perceived support was not associated with mentor commitment, and was thus no longer considered an antecedent). The fit of the two

models was compared to determine if adding the direct paths represented an improvement over the mediated model. Table 8 presents the fit indices for both models. Using an alpha level of .01, the chi-square difference test between the two models was not significant, χ^2difference(12) = 23.27, p = .026. This finding indicates that there is not a significant difference in the fit of the two models, and the more parsimonious model should be selected. Comparing the other fit indices for the two models also revealed little difference in the fit of the two models (see Table 8). Therefore, the more parsimonious mediated model depicted in Figure 4 is the preferred model. This provides support for Hypothesis 21 that mentor commitment mediates the association between the antecedents and outcomes.

Model 2. SEM was used to test proposed Model 2, which is depicted in Figure 2. As with Model 1, the data were first screened for independence, linearity, and multivariate normality. The assumptions of independence and linearity were met, based on evidence presented in earlier discussions of data screening. Non-normality was addressed by removing the same four outliers and performing the same logarithmic transformations as were described earlier for the CFA. Based on the variables included in Model 2, measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis were computed ($b_{1,p}$ = 436.11; $b_{2,p}$ = 1664.09), and revealed a lack of multivariate normality. However, the degree of non-normality did not appear substantial, so the decision was made to proceed with the analysis.

The measurement model for Model 2 was estimated first, followed by the structural model. In the measurement model, each item was related to its underlying construct and the constructs were allowed to correlate. Results revealed reasonable fit for

the measurement model ($\chi^2(657) = 1089.23$, RMSEA = .061, TLI = .91, CFI = .92, ECVI = 8.05). Support for convergent and discriminant validity was found, in that all of the path coefficients were significant ($t > 1.96$), and none of the confidence intervals around the factor correlations included 1.0.

Next, the hypothesized structural model for Model 2 was estimated and revealed relatively poor fit ($\chi^2(689) = 1313.74$, RMSEA = .072, TLI = .87, CFI = .88, ECVI = 8.86). However, an examination of the model residuals and modification indices suggested that the model under-explained the association between mentor information sharing frequency and mentor information quality. This was also the case in the initial test of Model 1. Therefore, based on the same line of reasoning presented earlier for Model 1, the decision was made to allow the disturbance terms associated with these two constructs to covary.

Allowing the disturbance terms associated with mentor information sharing frequency and quality to covary resulted in improved, but still not satisfactory, model fit ($\chi^2(688) = 1249.72$, RMSEA = .068, TLI = .88, CFI = .89, ECVI = 8.50). However, Wald test results suggested the removal of the paths emanating from perceived support for mentoring to benefits, costs, investment size, and mentor commitment. In addition, these paths were not significant. Thus, the decision was made to remove these paths from the model. As a result of removing these paths, the factors representing benefits, costs, and investment size became exogenous variables, and could be allowed to covary with other exogenous variables and with each other. Theory and previous research support allowing exogenous variables to covary (e.g., see meta-analysis by Le and Agnew, 2003). Therefore, the decision was made to allow the exogenous variables in the

modified model to covary (i.e., the latent variables representing benefits, costs, investment size, quality of alternatives, and perceived support for mentoring). The resulting model demonstrated reasonable fit ($\chi^2(683) = 1147.62$, RMSEA = .062, TLI = .90, CFI = .91, ECVI = 7.99).

Figure 5 shows the final model and reports the standardized path coefficients, correlations, and R^2 values. Table 9 reports the unstandardized parameter estimates and their standard errors. As shown in Figure 5, Hypotheses 4, 5, and 7 were supported, in that both mentor relational benefits and mentor investment size were positively associated with mentor commitment ($\gamma = .40$, $p < .05$, and $\gamma = .52$, $p < .05$, respectively), and mentor relational costs were negatively associated with mentor commitment ($\gamma = -.18$, $p < .05$). On the other hand, Hypothesis 6 was not supported, as the path coefficient relating mentor quality of alternatives to mentor commitment was not significant ($\gamma = .08$, *ns*).

Hypotheses 8, 10, 11, and 12 predicted that perceived managerial support for mentoring would be associated with mentor commitment, mentor relational benefits, mentor relational costs, and mentor investment size, respectively. However, results of the SEM analysis did not support these hypotheses, as the paths from perceived support for mentoring to each of these four variables were not significant and were removed from the final model. An examination of the zero-order correlations also suggested that perceived support was not associated with these variables ($r = -.05$ for commitment; $r = -.00$ for benefits; $r = -.09$ for costs; and $r = -.01$ for investment; see Table 6). Hypotheses 14 through 16 predicted partial mediation of the association between perceived managerial support for mentoring and mentor commitment. However, given that perceived support

was not significantly associated with mentor commitment, benefits, costs, or investment size, the conditions for partial mediation were not met and these hypotheses were not supported.

As was the case with Model 1, results of the test of Model 2 supported Hypotheses 17 through 20, which predicted that mentor commitment would be associated with both mentor and protégé information exchange behaviors. Specifically, mentor commitment was positively associated with the frequency and quality of information provided by the mentor to the protégé ($\beta = .50$, $p < .05$, and $\beta = .46$, $p < .05$, respectively). Likewise, mentor commitment was positively associated with protégé acceptance of information provided by the mentor ($\beta = .54$, $p < .05$) and the frequency of protégé information seeking ($\beta = .66$, $p < .05$).

In order to test Hypothesis 21, which predicted that mentor commitment would mediate the association between the antecedents and outcomes, two models were compared. The first model was the final Model 2 (see Figure 5), in which mentor commitment acted as a mediator between the antecedents and outcomes. The second model was a direct path model, which included all of the paths from final Model 2, plus direct paths from each antecedent to each outcome. (Please note that the direct path model did not include direct paths from perceived support for mentoring to the outcomes, because perceived support was not associated with mentor commitment, and was therefore no longer considered an antecedent). The fit of the two models was compared to determine if adding the direct paths represented an improvement over the mediated model. Table 8 presents the fit indices for both models. The chi-square difference test between the two models was not significant, χ^2difference(16) = 13.07, $p = .67$, indicating

that there was not a significant difference in the fit of the two models. A comparison of the models' other fit indices also revealed little difference in the fit of the two models (see Table 8). Therefore, the more parsimonious mediated model, shown in Figure 5, was the preferred model, providing support for Hypothesis 21.

Comparison of Model 1 and Model 2. As discussed earlier, the current study proposed and tested two models incorporating the predicted antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment. These two models were identical, with the exception that Model 2 replaced the factor of relationship satisfaction with two of its proposed components: relational benefits and costs. As may be expected, the final structures of the two models were relatively consistent with one another (see Figures 4 and 5). For example, in both models, the originally proposed paths emanating from perceived managerial support for mentoring were not significant and were removed from the final models. On the other hand, one difference between the final models was that, whereas the path from quality of alternatives to mentor commitment was significant in Model 1, this path was not significant in Model 2. However, the remaining paths in both models functioned as originally hypothesized.

In terms of the proportion of variance accounted for in the endogenous variables, there was also a great deal of consistency across the two models. A relatively large proportion of the variance in mentor commitment was accounted for in both models (R^2 = .75 in Model 1; R^2 = .80 in Model 2). The proportion of variance accounted for in the behavioral outcome variables was also consistent across models, ranging in size from .21 to .44.

In terms of model fit, both models achieved reasonable levels of fit to the data (see Table 8 for fit indices). Furthermore, the degree of fit for both models was relatively similar.

In early research on the investment model, Rusbult (1980a, 1980b, 1983) examined the roles of relational benefits and costs in predicting relationship satisfaction and commitment. Because the investment model has not been previously applied to mentoring relationships, the current study took a similar approach by examining how relational benefits and costs were associated with mentor relationship satisfaction and commitment. In order to investigate how benefits and costs were associated with mentor commitment, the current study replaced relationship satisfaction with benefits and costs in the test of Model 2. This approach was consistent with Rusbult's earlier work, in which she examined commitment as a function of relational benefits, costs, alternatives, and investments. However, it should be noted that Rusbult's conceptual definition of relationship satisfaction incorporates not only the benefits and costs of a current relationship, but also the individual's comparison level. Thus, replacing satisfaction with benefits and costs ignores the complications involving comparison level, and may therefore be considered a simplified representation of satisfaction. In the current study, this approach was justified, as the main purpose in testing Model 2 was to examine whether relational benefits and costs functioned in a similar manner in mentoring relationships as in other types of relationships to which the investment model has been previously applied. However, if one is interested in comparing Model 1 and Model 2 from the current study to determine which model is optimal, it could be argued that Model 1 is a closer approximation to reality than is Model 2, due to the simplified

representation of satisfaction used in Model 2. Therefore, Model 1 may arguably be considered the preferred model.

Supplemental Multiple Group Analysis

A multiple group analysis was conducted to assess whether the associations among the commitment model constructs were similar for formal mentoring relationships versus informal mentoring relationships. In other words, does the model apply similarly to both types of mentoring relationship? Tests were conducted based on Model 1 (see Figure 1).

First, a joint unconstrained measurement model was estimated for both groups (i.e., formal and informal relationships). In this two-group model, each item was related to its underlying construct and the constructs were allowed to correlate. Additionally, all of the parameters were allowed to vary freely across the two groups. Next, a joint constrained measurement model was estimated, in which the factor loadings (i.e., the parameters relating each item to its construct) were constrained to be equal across the two groups. The fit of the unconstrained measurement model ($\chi^2(1186) = 1792.58$, RMSEA = .077, TLI = .87, CFI = .89) was then compared to the fit of the constrained measurement model ($\chi^2(1223) = 1823.71$, RMSEA = .075, TLI = .88, CFI = .89). A chi-square difference test between the two models was not significant, $\chi^2\text{difference}(37) = 31.13$, $p = .74$, indicating that there was not a significant difference in the fit of the two models. Therefore, the imposed equality constraints were plausible, which implies that the two groups did not differ in their factor loadings.

After comparing the measurement model across the two groups, the structural model was then compared to determine if there were any differences in the structural

paths between the two groups. First, a joint "unconstrained" structural model was estimated, based on the final structural model depicted in Figure 4. In this two-group model, the factor loadings were constrained to be equal across groups (based on results from the measurement model comparison), but all other parameters were allowed to vary freely across groups. Next, a joint constrained structural model was estimated, in which the factor loadings and the structural paths were constrained to be equal across groups. The fit of the "unconstrained" model ($\chi^2(1260) = 1905.22$, RMSEA = .077, TLI = .87, CFI = .88) was then compared to the fit of the constrained model ($\chi^2(1267) = 1912.50$, RMSEA = .077, TLI = .87, CFI = .88). A chi-square difference test between the two models was not significant, χ^2difference$(7) = 7.28$, $p = .40$, indicating that there was not a significant difference in the fit of the two models. Based on these results, the imposed equality constraints on the structural paths appeared plausible, implying that the two groups did not differ in their structural path coefficients. Therefore, results of the multiple group analysis suggested that the final structural model applied similarly to both formal and informal mentoring relationships.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among Survey Items

Item	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Ben1	4.94	1.02	-														
2. Ben2	4.81	1.06	.85*	-													
3. Ben3	5.03	1.00	.86*	.82*	-												
4. Cost1[a]	.56	.50	-.32*	-.34*	-.32*	-											
5. Cost3[a]	.36	.45	-.37*	-.35*	-.43*	.72*	-										
6. Sat1[b]	.41	.47	-.65*	-.67*	-.78*	.29*	.38*	-									
7. Sat2[b]	.35	.42	-.55*	-.55*	-.68*	.31*	.39*	.84*	-								
8. Sat3[b]	.39	.45	-.63*	-.62*	-.78*	.32*	.42*	.93*	.92*	-							
9. Inv1	3.45	1.43	.38*	.40*	.39*	.01	-.10	-.35*	-.33*	-.33*	-						
10. Inv2	2.34	1.23	.36*	.33*	.32*	-.08	-.01	-.27*	-.24*	-.23*	.64*	-					
11. Inv3	3.64	1.42	.50*	.55*	.55*	-.06	-.12	-.51*	-.51*	-.51*	.70*	.56*	-				
12. Inv4	2.16	1.19	.01	.05	.09	.12	.12	-.11	-.11	-.08	.26*	.35*	.30*	-			
13. Inv5	3.45	1.42	.32*	.35*	.39*	.10	-.00	-.42*	-.36*	-.37*	.59*	.43*	.72*	.37*	-		
14. Alt1	4.11	1.30	.20*	.18*	.19*	.01	.03	-.09	-.13	-.12	.11	.01	.15	.04	.05	-	
15. Alt2	3.88	1.41	.17*	.15*	.17*	-.02	-.06	-.07	-.06	-.08	-.01	.05	.03	-.05	.00	.70*	-
16. Alt3	4.30	1.24	.10	.14	.02	-.06	-.08	.01	-.04	-.02	.01	-.03	.07	-.01	-.05	.30*	.48*
17. Alt4	4.00	1.34	.00	-.02	-.03	.06	.10	.06	.01	.06	-.08	-.10	-.05	-.03	-.04	.54*	.65*
18. Alt5	4.01	1.43	-.10	-.10	-.05	.03	.04	.11	.08	.11	-.23*	-.30*	-.15	-.04	-.19*	.32*	.35*
19. Supp1	3.32	1.58	.00	.04	-.05	.06	.04	.12	.13	.08	.08	.10	.12	.05	.00	.14	.15
20. Supp2	4.29	1.31	-.06	.01	-.08	-.04	-.08	.05	.06	.02	-.11	-.06	-.02	.01	-.10	.10	.19*
21. Supp3	4.06	1.36	.00	.03	-.02	-.06	-.06	.02	.05	-.02	-.05	-.06	.02	.03	-.01	.09	.13
22. Supp4[c]	3.04	1.42	.24*	.21*	.14	-.11	-.10	-.12	-.05	-.12	.07	.06	.14	-.15*	.01	.07	.08
23. Supp5[c]	2.86	1.39	.10	.09	.02	-.09	-.04	-.04	.04	-.01	.08	.07	.13	-.07	.01	.03	.06
24. Supp6[c]	3.44	1.46	.17*	.08	.06	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.00	-.03	.02	-.01	.08	-.01	.01	.08	.09
25. Com1	4.71	1.14	.58*	.54*	.62*	-.26*	-.35*	-.54*	-.50*	-.55*	.39*	.32*	.58*	.22*	.47*	.23*	.20*
26. Com2	5.11	.85	.60*	.59*	.65*	-.32*	-.37*	-.59*	-.60*	-.60*	.33*	.23*	.51*	.14	.37*	.20*	.11
27. Com3	4.30	1.30	.61*	.61*	.67*	-.22*	-.29*	-.60*	-.58*	-.61*	.48*	.44*	.69*	.24*	.51*	.21*	.19*
28. Com4	4.20	1.39	.52*	.53*	.56*	-.20*	-.29*	-.55*	-.52*	-.54*	.55*	.44*	.60*	.34*	.48*	.10	.01
29. Freq1	3.61	1.07	.29*	.28*	.34*	-.11	-.12	-.39*	-.34*	-.36*	.11	.12	.28*	.17*	.28*	.13	.07
30. Freq2	3.55	1.16	.31*	.28*	.34*	-.09	-.08	-.38*	-.32*	-.35*	.12	.19*	.35*	.17*	.37*	.13	.15*
31. Freq3	3.44	1.16	.28*	.24*	.26*	-.06	-.06	-.28*	-.27*	-.23*	.09	.20*	.26*	.10	.27*	.14	.13
32. Freq4	3.36	1.16	.35*	.32*	.36*	-.09	-.15	-.40*	-.36*	-.37*	.18*	.13	.33*	.16*	.35*	.08	.08
33. Freq5	2.38	1.24	.17*	.10	.14	-.08	-.01	-.15*	-.14	-.14	.09	.11	.17*	-.02	.10	.18*	.20*
34. Qual1[b]	.32	.43	-.30*	-.29*	-.35*	.12	.16*	.35*	.37*	.33*	-.18*	-.18*	-.32*	-.14	-.31*	-.10	-.08
35. Qual2[b]	.33	.44	-.26*	-.25*	-.32*	.09	.16*	.35*	.39*	.34*	-.13	-.15*	-.28*	-.14	-.30*	-.10	-.10

Item	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
36. Qual3[b]	.30	.43	-.25*	-.23*	-.31*	.05	.09	.31*	.38*	.32*	-.17*	-.18*	-.32*	-.15	-.34*	-.13	-.12

Table 1 (continued)

Item	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
37. Qual4[b]	.39	.50	-.33*	-.33*	-.42*	.11	.15*	.39*	.40*	.38*	-.20*	-.14	-.38*	-.12	-.35*	-.16*	-.10
38. Qual5[bc]	.39	.56	-.15*	-.16*	-.21*	.03	.06	.19*	.19*	.18*	-.11	-.09	-.10	-.02	-.10	-.03	.00
39. Acc1	5.07	.64	.29*	.33*	.37*	-.17*	-.19*	-.41*	-.43*	-.43*	.27*	.20*	.40*	.11	.34*	.16*	.15*
40. Acc2	5.22	.63	.42*	.42*	.47*	-.20*	-.26*	-.49*	-.53*	-.53*	.17*	.12	.36*	-.02	.24*	.17*	.16*
41. Acc3	4.90	.73	.35*	.33*	.37*	-.20*	-.25*	-.39*	-.42*	-.43*	.14	.13	.28*	.09	.21*	.12	.18*
42. Acc4	5.24	.68	.40*	.37*	.43*	-.21*	-.26*	-.47*	-.53*	-.50*	.21*	.13	.38*	.03	.29*	.15	.10
43. Seek1	3.40	1.05	.41*	.46*	.47*	-.09	-.16*	-.43*	-.36*	-.40*	.33*	.16*	.48*	.03	.46*	.10	-.01
44. Seek2	3.33	1.03	.38*	.40*	.43*	-.10	-.15	-.43*	-.38*	-.41*	.32*	.14	.46*	.07	.41*	.07	-.00
45. Seek3	3.14	1.06	.40*	.41*	.41*	-.10	-.17*	-.39*	-.35*	-.37*	.31*	.19*	.44*	.12	.36*	.07	.08
46. Seek4	2.87	1.16	.40*	.41*	.46*	-.03	-.21*	-.39*	-.34*	-.38*	.41*	.20*	.43*	.11	.39*	.11	.06
47. Seek5	2.15	1.08	.28*	.25*	.22*	-.03	-.13	-.21*	-.13	-.19*	.26*	.18*	.36*	.09	.31*	.06	.06

Note. $N = 176$. Ben = benefits; Sat = relationship satisfaction; Inv = investment size; Alt = quality of alternatives; Supp = perceived support for mentoring; Com = mentor commitment; Freq = mentor info-sharing frequency; Qual = mentor info quality; Acc = protégé info acceptance; Seek = protégé info-seeking frequency.

[a] Item was transformed by taking the log. [b] Item was transformed by reflecting and taking the log. Please note that reflecting the item affected the sign of the item's correlation with the other items. [c] Item was reverse-coded.

*$p < .05$.

Table 1 (continued)

Item	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
16. Alt3	-																
17. Alt4	.51*	-															
18. Alt5	.46*	.64*	-														
19. Supp1	.21*	.04	.01	-													
20. Supp2	.09	.08	.14	.61*	-												
21. Supp3	.13	.10	.16*	.55*	.78*	-											
22. Supp4[c]	.05	-.08	-.09	.27*	.17*	.15*	-										
23. Supp5[c]	.09	.04	.08	.36*	.29*	.41*	.61*	-									
24. Supp6[c]	.07	.02	.10	.50*	.43*	.48*	.45*	.67*	-								
25. Com1	.13	-.02	-.13	-.00	-.08	.00	.17*	-.01	.06	-							
26. Com2	.08	.01	-.07	-.06	-.08	-.04	.09	-.05	.02	.74*	-						
27. Com3	.11	.02	-.11	-.00	-.04	-.02	.15*	.06	.08	.73*	.64*	-					
28. Com4	.02	-.08	-.15	.03	-.14	-.13	.06	-.10	-.03	.64*	.59*	.70*	-				
29. Freq1	.05	.04	.06	.03	.05	-.00	.05	.04	.08	.26*	.33*	.28*	.32*	-			
30. Freq2	.08	.13	-.02	.02	.02	-.01	-.02	-.03	-.03	.34*	.37*	.38*	.28*	.76*	-		
31. Freq3	.04	.12	.02	-.00	-.03	-.01	.01	.01	-.03	.24*	.30*	.30*	.22*	.66*	.72*	-	
32. Freq4	.02	-.01	-.08	.00	.02	-.03	-.01	.01	.06	.33*	.41*	.40*	.31*	.61*	.62*	.58*	-
33. Freq5	.12	.13	.09	.07	.05	-.01	.12	.16*	.11	.15*	.18*	.17*	.10	.42*	.47*	.52*	.47*
34. Qual1[b]	-.04	-.08	-.06	.05	.02	.02	-.02	-.07	-.06	-.29*	-.33*	-.42*	-.31*	-.58*	-.57*	-.47*	-.52*
35. Qual2[b]	-.08	-.09	-.07	.09	.06	.07	.04	.00	.00	-.26*	-.31*	-.39*	-.30*	-.59*	-.58*	-.48*	-.53*
36. Qual3[b]	-.10	-.10	-.07	.14	.11	.09	.04	.04	.01	-.31*	-.32*	-.39*	-.28*	-.57*	-.59*	-.52*	-.48*
37. Qual4[b]	-.05	-.05	-.10	.08	.05	.11	-.03	.03	-.01	-.38*	-.40*	-.45*	-.36*	-.65*	-.62*	-.49*	-.56*
38. Qual5[bc]	.01	.01	-.11	.10	.04	.10	.16*	.11	.07	-.07	-.11	-.18*	-.19*	-.27*	-.21*	-.21*	-.24*
39. Acc1	.14	.07	.02	.04	.10	.05	-.02	-.02	.02	.30*	.33*	.33*	.36*	.37*	.32*	.24*	.28*
40. Acc2	.11	.10	.01	.02	.05	.00	.02	.00	.05	.37*	.42*	.37*	.36*	.43*	.41*	.30*	.35*
41. Acc3	.15*	.08	.07	.02	.08	.05	.12	.06	.09	.32*	.29*	.32*	.29*	.29*	.30*	.30*	.24*
42. Acc4	.08	.08	.03	.03	.08	.03	.05	.04	.13	.37*	.42*	.35*	.38*	.41*	.38*	.30*	.34*
43. Seek1	-.05	-.06	-.11	.08	.04	-.01	.07	-.04	.08	.48*	.49*	.43*	.41*	.46*	.46*	.31*	.44*
44. Seek2	-.02	-.01	-.08	-.01	.03	.03	-.01	-.04	.03	.45*	.49*	.45*	.39*	.41*	.44*	.31*	.42*
45. Seek3	.12	.04	-.02	.05	.07	.00	-.06	-.07	.04	.38*	.46*	.45*	.37*	.37*	.40*	.29*	.37*
46. Seek4	.05	-.01	-.05	.10	.03	.00	.12	.10	.09	.37*	.41*	.43*	.37*	.45*	.38*	.28*	.43*
47. Seek5	.06	-.07	-.12	.12	.06	.01	.13	.08	.09	.34*	.26*	.42*	.27*	.18*	.21*	.15	.26*

Table 1 (continued)

Item	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
33. Freq5	-														
34. Qual1[b]	-.24*	-													
35. Qual2[b]	-.24*	.90*	-												
36. Qual3[b]	-.25*	.84*	.91*	-											
37. Qual4[b]	-.29*	.79*	.82*	.84*	-										
38. Qual5[bc]	.03	.41*	.42*	.44*	.44*	-									
39. Acc1	.21*	-.37*	-.37*	-.42*	-.41*	-.14	-								
40. Acc2	.23*	-.37*	-.37*	-.37*	-.44*	-.16*	.73*	-							
41. Acc3	.26*	-.27*	-.24*	-.27*	-.31*	-.01	.71*	.67*	-						
42. Acc4	.21*	-.37*	-.37*	-.37*	-.41*	-.13	.73*	.88*	.64*	-					
43. Seek1	.18*	-.42*	-.38*	-.43*	-.53*	-.13	.43*	.39*	.33*	.42*	-				
44. Seek2	.16*	-.34*	-.33*	-.36*	-.44*	-.09	.35*	.34*	.31*	.37*	.76*	-			
45. Seek3	.21*	-.26*	-.29*	-.33*	-.35*	-.18*	.27*	.28*	.24*	.29*	.60*	.77*	-		
46. Seek4	.22*	-.35*	-.37*	-.34*	-.44*	-.24*	.38*	.34*	.32*	.30*	.52*	.57*	.57*	-	
47. Seek5	.15*	-.20*	-.22*	-.22*	-.24*	-.11	.13	.05	.06	.10	.42*	.51*	.55*	.54*	-

Table 2

Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model: Unstandardized Path Coefficients and Standard Errors

Factor and item	Unstandardized path coefficient	*SE*
Benefits		
Item 1	.94	.060
Item 2	.94	.064
Item 3	.95	.057
Costs		
Item 1	.38	.037
Item 3	.41	.033
Relationship satisfaction		
Item 1	.43	.027
Item 2	.39	.024
Item 3	.45	.025
Investment size		
Item 1	1.09	.095
Item 2	.76	.087
Item 3	1.32	.084
Item 5	1.09	.094
Quality of alternatives		
Item 1	.88	.092
Item 2	1.11	.095
Item 3	.73	.091
Item 4	1.16	.087
Item 5	.92	.102
Perceived support for mentoring		
Item 1	1.03	.112
Item 2	1.23	.084
Item 3	1.13	.091
Mentor commitment		
Item 1	.96	.071
Item 2	.68	.055
Item 3	1.13	.079
Item 4	1.09	.090
Mentor info-sharing frequency		
Item 1	.91	.067
Item 2	1.03	.070
Item 3	.92	.075
Item 4	.85	.078
Item 5	.67	.091
Mentor information quality		
Item 1	.40	.025
Item 2	.43	.025
Item 3	.40	.024

Table 2 (continued)

Factor and item	Unstandardized path coefficient	*SE*
Item 4	.44	.030
Protégé information acceptance		
Item 1	.51	.041
Item 2	.60	.037
Item 3	.53	.048
Item 4	.63	.039
Protégé info-seeking frequency		
Item 1	.85	.067
Item 2	.93	.062
Item 3	.87	.067
Item 4	.79	.080
Item 5	.64	.077

Note. $N = 176$. Logarithmic transformations were performed on items assessing costs, relationship satisfaction, and mentor information quality.

Table 3

Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model: Correlations Among Factors

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Benefits	-									
2. Costs	-.46* (.068)	-								
3. Relationship satisfaction	.76* (.034)	-.45* (.067)	-							
4. Investment size	.59* (.055)	-.10 (.084)	.52* (.060)	-						
5. Quality of alternatives	.08 (.083)	.04 (.086)	.002 (.082)	-.03 (.085)	-					
6. Perceived support	-.05 (.081)	-.07 (.084)	-.02 (.079)	-.03 (.083)	.17* (.083)	-				
7. Mentor commitment	.79* (.035)	-.41* (.073)	.71* (.043)	.76* (.041)	.08 (.085)	-.08 (.083)	-			
8. Mentor info-sharing frequency	.40* (.070)	-.12 (.084)	.40* (.068)	.37* (.073)	.14 (.084)	.02 (.083)	.46* (.068)	-		
9. Mentor info quality	.35* (.070)	-.15 (.080)	.37* (.067)	.35* (.072)	.13 (.081)	-.08 (.080)	.44* (.067)	.70* (.044)	-	
10. Protégé info acceptance	.49* (.062)	-.30* (.077)	.56* (.055)	.40* (.070)	.15 (.082)	.07 (.081)	.49* (.064)	.48* (.064)	.43* (.065)	-
11. Protégé info-seeking frequency	.54* (.060)	-.20* (.082)	.47* (.063)	.57* (.059)	.01 (.085)	.05 (.083)	.63* (.054)	.55* (.061)	.45* (.065)	.43* (.068)

Note. Numbers in parentheses represent standard errors. $N = 176$. Logarithmic transformations were performed on items assessing costs, relationship satisfaction, and mentor information quality. The logarithmic transformation of relationship satisfaction and mentor information quality involved reflection; however, the signs of the above correlations have been altered to clarify interpretation, such that higher values represent greater standing on the factor.

*$p < .05$.

Table 4

Fit Indices for Alternative Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models

Model	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	ECVI
1. Model relating benefits and satisfaction items to a single factor	1566.69	774	.077	.85	.87	10.91
2. Model relating benefits and commitment items to a single factor	1441.11	774	.070	.88	.89	10.19
3. Model relating satisfaction and commitment items to a single factor	1564.76	774	.076	.85	.87	10.90
4. Model relating investment and commitment items to a single factor	1421.37	774	.069	.88	.89	10.08
5. Model relating info-sharing frequency and information quality items to a single factor	1521.99	774	.074	.86	.88	10.65
6. Final CFA Model	1273.11	764	.062	.90	.92	9.38

Note. *N* = 176. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; ECVI = expected cross-validation index.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Variable	Number of items	Coefficient alpha	Mean	*SD*	Observed minimum	Observed maximum
1. Benefits	3	.95	4.89	1.03	1.00	6.00
2. Costs	2	.84	1.80	.93	1.00	6.00
3. Relationship satisfaction	3	.95	5.33	.87	1.00	6.00
4. Investment size	4	.87	3.18	1.18	1.00	5.50
5. Quality of alternatives	5	.83	4.05	1.04	1.40	6.00
6. Perceived support	3	.84	3.90	1.23	1.00	6.00
7. Mentor commitment	4	.89	4.54	1.06	1.50	6.00
8. Mentor info-sharing frequency	5	.88	3.23	.97	1.00	5.00
9. Mentor info quality	4	.97	5.37	.98	1.00	6.00
10. Protégé info acceptance	4	.92	5.06	.70	1.75	6.00
11. Protégé info-seeking frequency	5	.88	2.94	.90	1.00	5.00

Note. $N = 180$. Item responses made on a 6-point scale for all variables, except mentor info-sharing frequency and protégé info-seeking frequency, which used a 5-point scale.

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Benefits	-										
2. Costs	-.35**	-									
3. Relationship satisfaction	.79**	-.32**	-								
4. Investment size	.52**	-.00	.47**	-							
5. Quality of alternatives	.08	-.01	-.01	-.05	-						
6. Perceived support	-.00	-.09	-.04	-.01	.16*	-					
7. Mentor commitment	.72**	-.29**	.69**	.66**	.07	-.05	-				
8. Mentor info-sharing frequency	.40**	-.09	.44**	.34**	.14	.01	.42**	-			
9. Mentor info quality	.43**	-.08	.48**	.36**	.10	-.09	.42**	.65**	-		
10. Protégé info acceptance	.50**	-.22**	.60**	.39**	.15*	.05	.52**	.46**	.51**	-	
11. Protégé info-seeking frequency	.51**	-.12	.47**	.52**	.02	.04	.59**	.50**	.50**	.45**	-

Note. $N = 180$.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 7

Final Model 1: Unstandardized Parameter Estimates and Standard Errors

Variable 1	Variable 2	Unstandardized parameter estimate	*SE*
	Measurement component – path coefficients		
Satisfaction item 1	Relationship satisfaction	1.00	-
Satisfaction item 2	Relationship satisfaction	.89	.039
Satisfaction item 3	Relationship satisfaction	1.05	.032
Investment item 1	Investment size	1.00	-
Investment item 2	Investment size	.70	.084
Investment item 3	Investment size	1.20	.095
Investment item 5	Investment size	.99	.095
Alternatives item 1	Quality of alternatives	1.00	-
Alternatives item 2	Quality of alternatives	1.26	.145
Alternatives item 3	Quality of alternatives	.85	.123
Alternatives item 4	Quality of alternatives	1.34	.145
Alternatives item 5	Quality of alternatives	1.07	.142
Support item 1	Perceived support	1.00	-
Support item 2	Perceived support	1.17	.127
Support item 3	Perceived support	1.10	.118
Commitment item 1	Mentor commitment	1.00	-
Commitment item 2	Mentor commitment	.71	.059
Commitment item 3	Mentor commitment	1.19	.087
Commitment item 4	Mentor commitment	1.14	.098
Frequency item 1	Mentor info-sharing frequency	1.00	-
Frequency item 2	Mentor info-sharing frequency	1.15	.078
Frequency item 3	Mentor info-sharing frequency	1.03	.082
Frequency item 4	Mentor info-sharing frequency	.94	.085
Frequency item 5	Mentor info-sharing frequency	.74	.100
Quality item 1	Mentor information quality	1.00	-
Quality item 2	Mentor information quality	1.08	.044
Quality item 3	Mentor information quality	1.02	.045
Quality item 4	Mentor information quality	1.11	.060
Acceptance item 1	Protégé information acceptance	1.00	-
Acceptance item 2	Protégé information acceptance	1.18	.080
Acceptance item 3	Protégé information acceptance	1.04	.100
Acceptance item 4	Protégé information acceptance	1.25	.086
Seeking item 1	Protégé info-seeking frequency	1.00	-
Seeking item 2	Protégé info-seeking frequency	1.11	.082
Seeking item 3	Protégé info-seeking frequency	1.04	.085
Seeking item 4	Protégé info-seeking frequency	.92	.099
Seeking item 5	Protégé info-seeking frequency	.77	.094

Table 7 (continued)

Variable 1	Variable 2	Unstandardized parameter estimate	*SE*
	Structural component – path coefficients		
Mentor commitment	Relationship satisfaction	.97	.134
Mentor commitment	Investment size	.47	.063
Mentor commitment	Quality of alternatives	.11	.056
Mentor info-sharing frequency	Mentor commitment	.49	.078
Mentor information quality	Mentor commitment	.20	.032
Protégé information acceptance	Mentor commitment	.30	.044
Protégé info-seeking frequency	Mentor commitment	.59	.073
	Covariances		
Relationship satisfaction	Investment size	.24	.045
Relationship satisfaction	Quality of alternatives	-.00	.031
Relationship satisfaction	Perceived support	-.01	.036
Investment size	Quality of alternatives	-.03	.081
Investment size	Perceived support	-.04	.095
Quality of alternatives	Perceived support	.15	.080
Mentor info-sharing frequency disturbance term	Mentor information quality disturbance term	.16	.028

Note. $N = 176$. Dashes indicate the standard error was not estimated. Logarithmic transformations were performed on items assessing relationship satisfaction and mentor information quality. These transformations involved reflection; however, the signs of the above parameters have been altered to clarify interpretation, such that higher values represent greater standing on the factor.

Table 8

Fit Indices for Model 1 and Model 2

Model	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	ECVI
			Model 1			
1. Measurement Model 1	998.44	593	.063	.91	.92	7.31
2. Final Structural Model 1 (mediated model)	1063.74	616	.064	.91	.91	7.35
3. Direct Path Model 1	1040.47	604	.064	.91	.91	7.39
			Model 2			
4. Measurement Model 2	1089.23	657	.061	.91	.92	8.05
5. Final Structural Model 2 (mediated model)	1147.62	683	.062	.90	.91	7.99
6. Direct Path Model 2	1134.55	667	.063	.90	.91	8.16

Note. *N* = 176. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; ECVI = expected cross-validation index.

Table 9

Final Model 2: Unstandardized Parameter Estimates and Standard Errors

Variable 1	Variable 2	Unstandardized parameter estimate	*SE*
	Measurement component – path coefficients		
Benefits item 1	Benefits	1.00	-
Benefits item 2	Benefits	1.00	.050
Benefits item 3	Benefits	.97	.044
Costs item 1	Costs	1.00	-
Costs item 3	Costs	1.04	.131
Investment item 1	Investment size	1.00	-
Investment item 2	Investment size	.70	.084
Investment item 3	Investment size	1.20	.095
Investment item 5	Investment size	1.00	.095
Alternatives item 1	Quality of alternatives	1.00	-
Alternatives item 2	Quality of alternatives	1.26	.143
Alternatives item 3	Quality of alternatives	.84	.121
Alternatives item 4	Quality of alternatives	1.33	.143
Alternatives item 5	Quality of alternatives	1.06	.141
Support item 1	Perceived support	1.00	-
Support item 2	Perceived support	1.18	.129
Support item 3	Perceived support	1.10	.118
Commitment item 1	Mentor commitment	1.00	-
Commitment item 2	Mentor commitment	.71	.058
Commitment item 3	Mentor commitment	1.18	.084
Commitment item 4	Mentor commitment	1.13	.096
Frequency item 1	Mentor info-sharing frequency	1.00	-
Frequency item 2	Mentor info-sharing frequency	1.15	.078
Frequency item 3	Mentor info-sharing frequency	1.03	.082
Frequency item 4	Mentor info-sharing frequency	.94	.085
Frequency item 5	Mentor info-sharing frequency	.74	.100
Quality item 1	Mentor information quality	1.00	-
Quality item 2	Mentor information quality	1.08	.044
Quality item 3	Mentor information quality	1.01	.045
Quality item 4	Mentor information quality	1.11	.060
Acceptance item 1	Protégé information acceptance	1.00	-
Acceptance item 2	Protégé information acceptance	1.18	.080
Acceptance item 3	Protégé information acceptance	1.04	.100
Acceptance item 4	Protégé information acceptance	1.25	.086
Seeking item 1	Protégé info-seeking frequency	1.00	-
Seeking item 2	Protégé info-seeking frequency	1.11	.082
Seeking item 3	Protégé info-seeking frequency	1.04	.086
Seeking item 4	Protégé info-seeking frequency	.93	.099
Seeking item 5	Protégé info-seeking frequency	.77	.094

Table 9 (continued)

Variable 1	Variable 2	Unstandardized parameter estimate	*SE*
	Structural component – path coefficients		
Mentor commitment	Benefits	.40	.076
Mentor commitment	Costs	-.44	.146
Mentor commitment	Investment size	.45	.066
Mentor commitment	Quality of alternatives	.08	.054
Mentor info-sharing frequency	Mentor commitment	.47	.077
Mentor information quality	Mentor commitment	.19	.032
Protégé information acceptance	Mentor commitment	.29	.043
Protégé info-seeking frequency	Mentor commitment	.59	.072
	Covariances		
Benefits	Costs	-.17	.038
Benefits	Investment size	.62	.106
Benefits	Quality of alternatives	.07	.070
Benefits	Perceived support	-.04	.081
Costs	Investment size	-.04	.037
Costs	Quality of alternatives	.01	.030
Costs	Perceived support	-.03	.035
Investment size	Quality of alternatives	-.03	.082
Investment size	Perceived support	-.04	.094
Quality of alternatives	Perceived support	.15	.080
Mentor info-sharing frequency disturbance term	Mentor information quality disturbance term	.17	.028

Note. $N = 176$. Dashes indicate the standard error was not estimated. Logarithmic transformations were performed on items assessing costs and mentor information quality. The transformation of mentor information quality involved reflection; however, the signs of the above parameters have been altered to clarify interpretation, such that higher values represent greater standing on the factor.

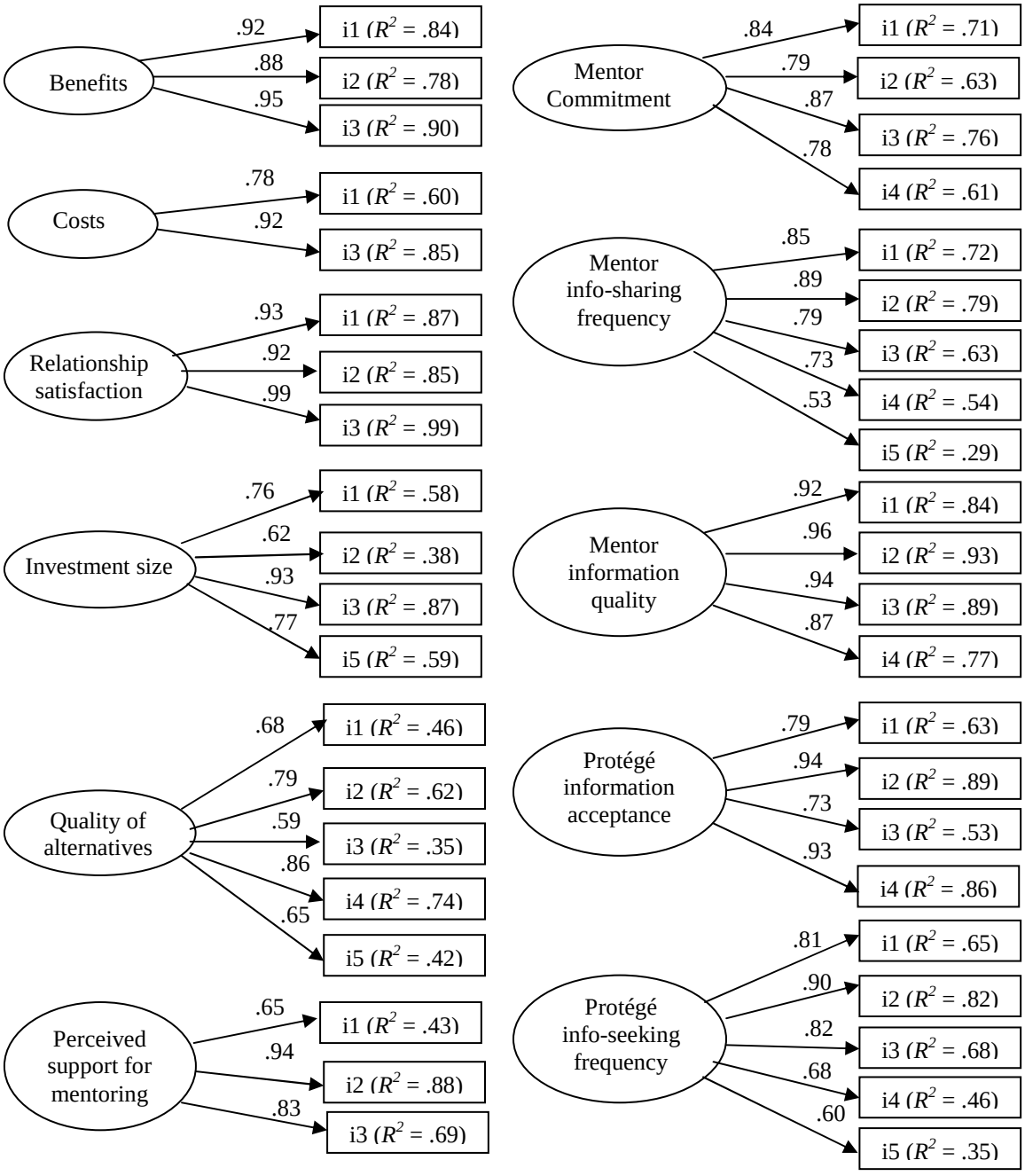

Figure 3. Final confirmatory factor analysis model: Standardized path coefficients and R^2 values (N = 176). All coefficients are statistically significant (α = .05). Error terms and covariances among exogenous variables are not shown for simplification of presentation. Logarithmic transformations were performed on items assessing costs, relationship satisfaction, and mentor information quality.

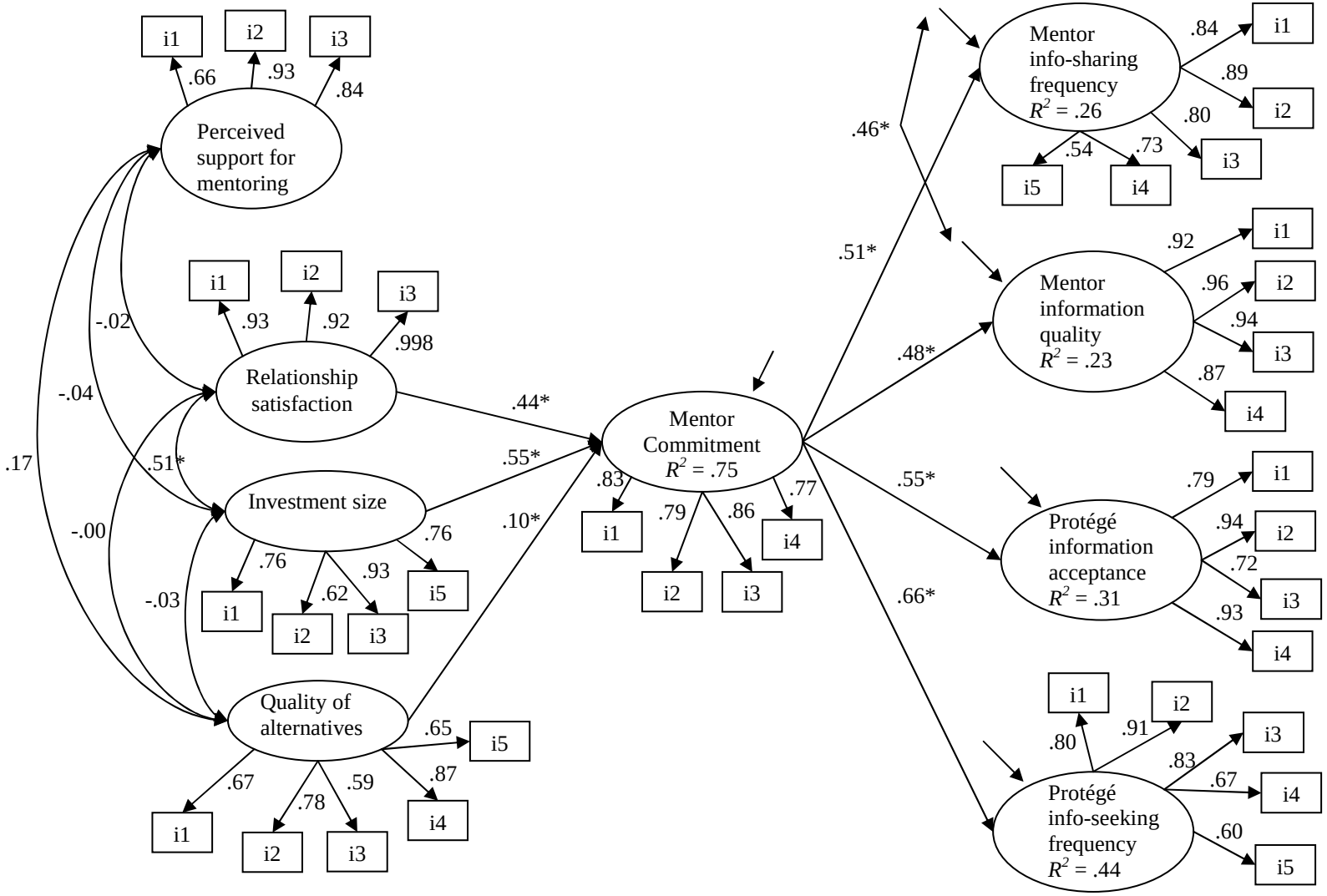

Figure 4. Final Model 1: Standardized path coefficients, correlations, and R^2 values (N = 176). Estimates denoted with a * are significant at p < .05. Error terms are not shown for simplification of presentation. Log transformation of satisfaction and information quality involved reflection; however, signs of above parameters have been altered to clarify interpretation, such that higher values represent greater standing on the factor.

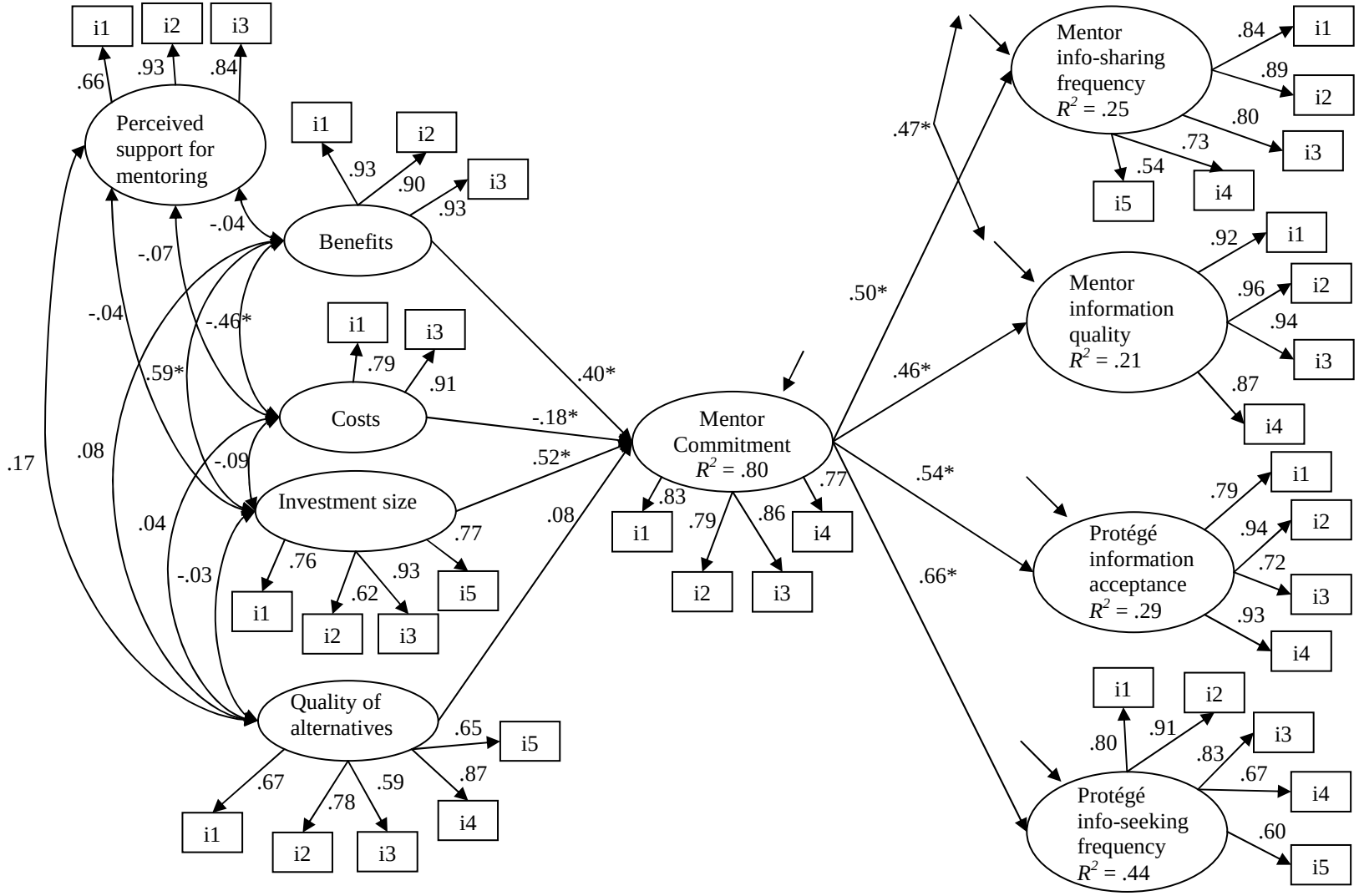

Figure 5. Final Model 2: Standardized path coefficients, correlations, and R^2 values (N = 176). Estimates denoted with a * are significant at p < .05. Error terms are not shown for simplification of presentation. Log transformations were performed on costs and information quality. Log transformation of information quality involved reflection; however, signs of above parameters have been altered to clarify interpretation, such that higher values represent greater standing on the factor.

Chapter Four

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to address the call for research on commitment in mentoring relationships by examining some potential antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment. This was accomplished by applying and building upon a well-supported model of commitment from the interpersonal relationships literature – Rusbult's Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980a). Overall, results provide support for some of the proposed antecedents and strong support for the proposed behavioral outcomes of mentor commitment. Additionally, findings support the mediating role of mentor commitment. Results are discussed in more detail in the sections that follow.

Antecedents of Mentor Commitment

The first set of variables proposed as antecedents of mentor commitment included mentor relationship satisfaction, relational benefits, and relational costs. According to Rusbult (1980a), relationship satisfaction is a function of relational benefits and costs. Previous research has supported this claim, although the role of costs in predicting satisfaction has been somewhat less consistent (Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b, 1983). In the current study, results suggest that mentor relationship satisfaction is a function of both benefits and costs. More specifically, mentors reporting greater satisfaction receive more benefits and incur fewer costs from their relationships than mentors reporting less satisfaction. Thus, this finding is consistent with Rusbult's (1980a) conceptualization of relationship satisfaction.

Results from the current study are also consistent with the investment model proposition that relationship satisfaction serves as an antecedent of commitment. Specifically, mentors who are more satisfied with their relationships are more committed to their relationships than are mentors who are less satisfied. Furthermore, results reveal that mentor relational benefits and costs serve as predictors of mentor commitment, such that mentors reporting greater benefits and fewer costs are more committed to their relationships than mentors reporting fewer benefits and greater costs. Taken together, these findings suggest that investment model predictions concerning relationship satisfaction, and two of its components (benefits and costs), may be applied to the context of mentoring relationships.

The next variable examined in the present study as a theoretical antecedent of mentor commitment was the mentor's quality of alternatives to the current mentoring relationship. Based on investment model predictions and findings from previous research, it was hypothesized that mentors perceiving higher quality alternatives are less committed to their current relationship than mentors perceiving lower quality alternatives. However, results do not support this prediction. Instead, it appears that the quality of alternatives is not associated with mentor commitment. Although this finding is not consistent with investment model predictions, it may fall in line with results from a study conducted by Lin and Rusbult (1995). These researchers found that quality of alternatives was negatively associated with commitment in dating relationships, but was not associated with commitment in friendships. They suggested that this difference may be due to the greater exclusivity of dating relationships. In other words, dating relationships tend to be monogamous to a degree, whereas individuals can have multiple,

simultaneous friendships. As a result, there may be less incentive to terminate a friendship when attractive alternatives are available. If this reasoning is applied to the mentoring context, it could be argued that, because it is possible to have multiple, simultaneous mentoring partners, there is less incentive to terminate a mentorship when high-quality alternatives are available. Thus, the presence of high quality alternatives may be irrelevant when it comes to determining a mentor's level of commitment. Additional research is needed to determine whether results from the current study will replicate and to address possible explanations for these findings.

According to the investment model, a third proposed antecedent of commitment is investment size (Rusbult, 1980a), and previous research has provided strong support for this proposition (Le & Agnew, 2003). Thus, in the current study, a positive association was hypothesized between mentor investment size and mentor commitment to the relationship. Results support this hypothesis, such that mentors reporting greater investments in their current relationship are more committed to the relationship than mentors reporting smaller investments. It may be that, as a mentor invests greater resources into a mentoring relationship, the perceived cost of ending the relationship increases, resulting in increased feelings of commitment. Such an explanation is consistent with investment model reasoning (Rusbult, 1980a).

In an effort to build upon the investment model, an additional antecedent of mentor commitment was proposed in the current study: perceived managerial support for mentoring. This variable was chosen to address the need for more research that examines the role of the organizational environment in mentoring relationships (Allen, 2007). Furthermore, previous research has found this variable to be associated with important

mentoring outcomes (e.g., relational complementarity, provision of mentoring functions; Eby, Lockwood, et al., 2006). In the current study, it was predicted that perceived managerial support for mentoring would be positively associated with mentor commitment, both directly and indirectly through its association with other antecedents (e.g., relationships satisfaction, investment size). However, results do not support this prediction, as perceptions of support are not associated with mentor commitment, relationship satisfaction, investment size, relational benefits, or costs. These findings are surprising, given the results of previous research (e.g., Eby, Lockwood, et al., 2006). However, it may be that the organizational context variable of perceived managerial support for mentoring is too broadly defined to expect a clear association with mentor commitment. In other words, perhaps it is unreasonable to expect the mentor's perception of the organization's support for mentoring in general to predict how committed the mentor is to a particular mentoring relationship. Perhaps a better predictor of mentor commitment would be the mentor's perception of the organization's expectations for persisting in one's mentoring relationships at work. Perceptions of this type are more closely aligned with the "social prescriptions" examined in the interpersonal relationships literature (e.g., Cox, Wexler, Rusbult, & Gaines, 1997). In this literature, social prescriptions are defined as an individual's belief that significant members of the individual's social network support persistence in a relationship (Cox et al., 1997). It is thought that, if members of the social network support persistence in a relationship, the individual will feel an obligation to persist in order to preserve important network relationships (e.g., to gain or maintain network approval; Cox et al., 1997). Thus, social prescriptions have been proposed as a predictor of relationship commitment,

and researchers have found some support for this proposition (e.g., Cox et al., 1997). Applying this to the mentoring context, it is possible that "social prescriptions" for persisting in a mentoring relationship may be a stronger predictor of mentor commitment than more general perceptions of managerial support for mentoring.

Alternatively, it may be that the role of the organizational environment in mentoring relationships is simply more complex than originally hypothesized. For example, perhaps the influence that managerial support for mentoring has on the mentor depends on how important the source of the support is to the mentor. It is possible that support coming from organizational members who are more significant to the mentor may carry more weight than support coming from organizational members that the mentor sees as less central. For instance, support coming from the mentor's direct supervisor may have a greater impact than a general sense of support from top-level management. Thus, mentors who perceive that their supervisors support and value mentoring may demonstrate greater commitment to their current mentoring relationships, whereas a perception of a general sense of support from the organization as a whole may have little effect on a mentor's commitment level. Such questions are outside the scope of the current study, but deserve the attention of future research if we are to enhance our understanding of how the organizational environment may influence mentoring relationships.

Behavioral Outcomes of Mentor Commitment

In the current study, the association between mentor commitment and behavioral outcomes was examined. The proposed behavioral outcomes under investigation included mentor and protégé behaviors involved in the information exchange between

partners. In terms of mentor behaviors, study hypotheses stated that mentor commitment is positively associated with the frequency and quality of information provided by the mentor to the protégé. Results support these predictions, such that mentors who are more committed to their relationships take the time and effort to provide more frequent and higher quality information to their protégés than mentors who are less committed. These findings are consistent with previous research that has shown commitment to be associated with willingness to sacrifice for the good of one's relationship and partner (e.g., Van Lange et al., 1997).

In terms of protégé behaviors, it was predicted that mentor commitment is positively associated with protégé acceptance of information provided by the mentor and protégé information seeking behavior. Results support these hypotheses, revealing that protégés are more likely to accept information and seek information more frequently from mentors who are more committed than from mentors who are less committed. These findings are consistent with a combination of research from the interpersonal relationships and information- and feedback-sharing literatures. Specifically, Wieselquist et al. (1999) found that individuals are more likely to trust partners who are more committed to the relationship. This suggests that protégés are more likely to trust mentors who are more highly committed to the relationship than mentors who are less committed to the relationship. It then follows that protégés with committed mentors are more likely to engage in trust-related behaviors. Both information acceptance and information seeking are behaviors that have been found to be associated with trust in the information- and feedback-sharing research literatures (e.g., Ilgen et al., 1979; Kinicki et

al., 2004; Steelman et al., 2004). Taken together, this line of reasoning provides one possible explanation for the results found in the current study.

According to the investment model, commitment mediates the association between the bases of dependence (i.e., satisfaction, alternatives, investments) and behavior in the relationship (Rusbult et al., 2006). Results from the current study are consistent with this proposition, revealing that mentor commitment mediates the association between the proposed antecedents and behavioral outcomes under investigation.

Implications for Research, Theory, and Practice

Results of the current study suggest that commitment plays an important role in mentoring relationships, as it is associated with key information exchange behaviors enacted by both mentors and protégés. Therefore, it would be beneficial to enhance our understanding of the factors influencing commitment by conducting further research on this construct. As demonstrated in the current study, the majority of investment model propositions appear to hold in mentoring relationships, which suggests that this commitment model may provide a useful framework upon which mentoring researchers may build.

Results of the current study also demonstrate the value of examining the specific behaviors that occur within mentoring relationships, rather than relying solely on broad mentoring functions. As explained by Allen et al. (2010), focusing on specific behaviors not only provides a more fine-grained understanding of mentoring processes, but it may also have practical value, in that behaviors may be potentially trained and changed. Given the dyadic nature of mentoring, it is important to consider the behaviors of both

partners and the ways in which partners may influence each other's behaviors. The current study incorporates both mentor and protégé information exchange behaviors, and reveals how mentor commitment may be associated not only with the mentor's behavior, but also with the protégé's behavior. In addition, the current study used both mentor and protégé reports of behavior, thereby capturing the perspectives of both partners. Research of this type is needed in order to gain a more comprehensive view of the mentoring relationship.

In the current study, results did not support the proposed role of perceived managerial support for mentoring as an antecedent of mentor commitment. However, previous research has suggested that the organizational environment may influence workplace mentoring relationships (e.g., Allen et al., 1997; Eby, Lockwood, et al., 2006). Therefore, it is important to conduct further research that will expand our understanding of how various organizational factors may affect mentoring relationships. Research of this type would have great practical value, as it would provide guidance to organizations that wish to develop and maintain a strong "mentoring culture".

Results of the current study have some practical implications. First, findings provide some insight for those currently involved in a workplace mentoring relationship. Specifically, mentors and protégés would benefit from understanding how their attitudes and actions may affect their mentoring partner. For example, protégés seeking to enhance a mentor's commitment may be advised to act in ways that increase the mentor's perceptions of the relationship's beneficial value and decrease the mentor's perceptions of the relationship's costs. On the other hand, mentors seeking to enhance the quality of the information exchange may benefit from realizing that their own level of commitment

to the relationship may affect the protégé's likelihood of seeking out information from the mentor. In making these practical suggestions, it is important to keep in mind that the design of the current study does not permit causal inferences. Although constructs under investigation in the current study were found to be associated with one another, it is beyond the scope of this study to imply that one construct exerts causal effects on another. Therefore, the practical suggestions described above are based solely on the associations obtained in the current study, and additional research is needed to draw any causal conclusions.

Results from the current study also have implications for those organizations with formal mentoring programs. For example, the findings suggest the importance of selecting mentors who are committed to the success of the mentoring relationship. This may be particularly important in cases where the protégé is struggling, as such relationships may provide fewer benefits, and may thus be less satisfying for the mentor. Given the strength of the association between mentor relationship satisfaction and mentor commitment, relationships that involve struggling protégés may require extra effort on the part of mentoring program administrators to help both partners persist and work through challenges.

Study Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There are some limitations to the current study that should be noted. First, the cross-sectional nature of the research design does not allow for testing the causal direction of the associations under investigation. Thus, although certain constructs are proposed as antecedents of mentor commitment and others are proposed as outcomes, and although the model contains directional paths, the design of the study does not allow

for testing the actual causal direction. Additional research is needed to address this limitation and provide greater confidence in the causal direction of the associations.

Another potential limitation of the current study is that those individuals in less effective mentoring relationships may have opted not to participate in the study. This is one possible explanation for the skewed data obtained for some of the study variables. Specifically, the variables of mentor relationship satisfaction, mentor information quality, and protégé information acceptance exhibited negative skew, whereas the variable of mentor relational costs exhibited positive skew. In other words, there was a larger proportion of participants reporting positive mentoring experiences, and a smaller proportion of participants reporting negative mentoring experiences, than was expected. Another possible explanation for this finding is that participants were not comfortable responding to items in such a way as to make their mentoring relationship appear too negative, and so they were overly positive in their responses. An effort was made to reduce both of these possibilities by assuring participants that their responses would be kept completely confidential and that any identifying information would not be stored with their responses. However, it is still possible that individuals involved in negative relationships may have opted out or put a positive spin on their responses, so results should be interpreted with this limitation in mind.

A third limitation of the current study is the ability to generalize the results to individuals having different characteristics than those represented in the study sample. For example, the current sample consisted of individuals tending to be white, having a high level of education, and coming primarily from the education/health or professional/business services industries. It is unknown whether similar results would be

found for individuals having different characteristics. In addition, the current study focused on workplace mentoring relationships, so it is unknown whether the results would generalize to different types of mentoring relationships (e.g., student-faculty mentoring relationships). Further research is needed to confirm whether results obtained in the current study apply to various types of individuals and mentoring relationships.

In addition to the suggestions already provided for future research, there are other avenues that may be worth pursuing. First, given the importance of mentor commitment to the relationship, it would be beneficial to identify additional predictors of mentor commitment. For example, researchers may wish to examine whether certain mentor characteristics and dispositions are associated with mentor commitment. Within the interpersonal relationships literature, researchers have investigated dispositional factors such as partner perspective taking (Lin & Rusbult, 1995; Rusbult et al., 1991), neuroticism (Kurdek, 1997), narcissism (Campbell & Foster, 2002), and attachment (Simpson, 1990). In addition, researchers have examined personal prescriptions (personal beliefs that one ought to persist in a relationship) as a predictor of commitment (e.g., Cox et al., 1997). It may be fruitful to examine these and other personal characteristics as predictors of mentor commitment.

Another direction that mentoring researchers may wish to take is continuing to examine the more specific behavioral processes that occur within mentoring relationships. The current study focused on behaviors involved in the information exchange, but researchers may wish to examine other behaviors. As an example, mentors and protégés may engage in help seeking or help provision behaviors. For instance, a

protégé who has been given a difficult assignment or a difficult deadline to meet may seek help from a mentor in order to finish the assignment on time.

Finally, future research should examine not only the antecedents and outcomes of mentor commitment, but also the antecedents and outcomes of protégé commitment. As demonstrated in previous research (e.g., Poteat et al., 2009), it is important to consider the commitment levels of both partners, as both play a role in the development of an effective mentoring relationship.

Conclusion

The current study represents an important contribution to our understanding of commitment in mentoring relationships. The findings provide further support for the claim that commitment plays a critical role in these valuable developmental relationships. Specifically, results of the current study reveal that mentor commitment is associated with the behaviors involved in the information exchange that takes place between mentors and protégés. Given the accumulated evidence from both the mentoring and interpersonal relationships research domains showing the importance of commitment, it would be particularly beneficial to identify the factors that enhance mentor commitment to the relationship. The current study takes an important first step by testing the propositions of Rusbult's (1980a) investment model in the context of workplace mentoring relationships. Results support the majority of these propositions, providing initial evidence for the applicability of this model to mentoring relationships. As we move forward, mentoring researchers may wish to use the investment model as a framework for advancing our knowledge of commitment in mentoring relationships.

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Appendix A: Mentor Commitment Items

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your current mentoring relationship. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

Please note: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the items used in the current study to assess mentor commitment are not listed here. The items used in the current study were based on the items developed by Ortiz-Walters and Gilson (2005). Please refer to Ortiz-Walters and Gilson for their list of items. In the current study, item wording was slightly modified to make the items appropriate for the workplace mentoring context.

Appendix B: Mentor Relationship Satisfaction Items

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your current mentoring relationship. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

____1. I am satisfied with the relationship with this protégé.

____2. We have a good relationship.

____3. All things considered, I am happy with this relationship.

Appendix C: Mentor Relational Benefits Items

Like all relationships, mentoring relationships have both costs and benefits associated with them. Think about the overall costs and benefits of your current mentoring relationship when answering the following questions.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your current mentoring relationship. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

____1. This mentoring relationship provides many rewards.

____2. Being a mentor to this protégé provides many benefits.

____3. All things considered, this relationship is very rewarding.

Appendix D: Mentor Relational Costs Items

Like all relationships, mentoring relationships have both costs and benefits associated with them. Think about the overall costs and benefits of your current mentoring relationship when answering the following questions.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your current mentoring relationship. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

____1. This relationship has been costly for me to maintain.

____2. Being a mentor to this protégé is more trouble than it's worth.

____3. All things considered, this relationship is costly.

Appendix E: Mentor Quality of Alternatives Items

A mentoring relationship may provide a mentor with a variety of positive outcomes (e.g., a sense of personal satisfaction, improved job performance, positive organizational recognition, a loyal base of support). However, it is possible that the mentor may be able to gain similar outcomes through alternative relationships or activities (e.g., through another protégé, colleagues, or other work-related activities).

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding the quality of alternatives to your current mentoring relationship. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

Please note: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the items used in the current study to assess mentor quality of alternatives are not listed here. The items used in the current study were based on the items developed by Rusbult et al. (1998). Please refer to Rusbult et al. for their list of items. In the current study, item wording was modified to make the items appropriate for the workplace mentoring context.

Appendix F: Mentor Investment Size Items

A mentor may invest a variety of resources into a mentoring relationship. For example, a mentor may invest time and energy into the relationship, or share personal information with the protégé. Additionally, mentors and protégés may share mutual friends, or a mentor's sense of personal identity may become linked to the protégé.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your current mentoring relationship. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

Please note: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the items used in the current study to assess mentor investment size are not listed here. The items used in the current study were based on the items developed by Rusbult et al. (1998). Please refer to Rusbult et al. for their list of items. In the current study, item wording was modified to make the items appropriate for the workplace mentoring context.

Appendix G: Mentor Perceived Managerial Support for Mentoring Items

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements. These items refer to the organization in which you and your protégé are currently employed. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

Please note: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the items used in the current study to assess mentor perceived managerial support for mentoring are not listed here. The items used in the current study were developed by Eby, Lockwood, et al. (2006). Please refer to Eby, Lockwood, et al. for the list of items.

Appendix H: Mentor Information Sharing Frequency Items (Protégé-reported)

Please indicate how frequently, in general, your mentor has provided you with different types of information. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	**Rarely**	**Occasionally**	**Often**	**Very often**

Please note: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the items used in the current study to assess mentor information sharing frequency are not listed here. The items used in the current study borrowed wording from Morrison's (1993a, 1993b) information-seeking scales. Specifically, items in the current study used the wording developed by Morrison to describe the different types of information. Please refer to Morrison for the wording used to describe the informational types. The sample item presented earlier in the current manuscript provides an example of how Morrison's wording was incorporated into the current study's items.

Appendix I: Mentor Information Quality Items (Protégé-reported)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements regarding your current mentoring relationship. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

Please note: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the items used in the current study to assess mentor information quality are not listed here. The items used in the current study were based on the items developed by Steelman et al. (2004). Please refer to Steelman et al. for their list of items. In the current study, item wording was modified such that references to supervisors and coworkers as sources of information were replaced with references to the mentor, and references to feedback information were replaced with the more general term "information".

Appendix J: Protégé Information Acceptance Items (Mentor-reported)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**

____1. My protégé sees the information I provide as accurate.

____2. My protégé is receptive to the information I provide.

____3. My protégé agrees with the information I provide.

____4. My protégé is open to the information I provide.

Appendix K: Protégé Information Seeking Frequency Items (Mentor-reported)

Please indicate how frequently, in general, your protégé has asked you for different types of information. Use the scale below to mark your responses to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	**Rarely**	**Occasionally**	**Often**	**Very often**

Please note: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the items used in the current study to assess protégé information seeking frequency are not listed here. The items used in the current study borrowed wording from Morrison's (1993a, 1993b) information-seeking scales. Specifically, items in the current study used the wording developed by Morrison to describe the different types of information. Please refer to Morrison for the wording used to describe the informational types. The sample item presented earlier in the current manuscript provides an example of how Morrison's wording was incorporated into the current study's items.

Appendix L: Relationship Characteristics Items (Mentor Survey Version)

General Instructions:
If you are currently involved in more than one workplace mentoring relationship in which you are the mentor, please pick one relationship and respond to the survey questions based on that relationship. The relationship you pick should be with a protégé who is employed within the same organization as you, and you must have been in a mentoring relationship with this protégé for at least 4 weeks. If you have more than one relationship meeting these criteria, please pick the relationship that is most recent.

Definition of Mentor (adapted from Ragins & Cotton, 1999):
A mentor is generally defined as a higher ranking, influential individual in the protégé's work environment who has advanced experience and knowledge and provides upward mobility and support to the protégé's career. A mentor may or may not be the protégé's immediate supervisor.

Current Relationship Status:

1. Are you currently involved in a workplace mentoring relationship in which you are the mentor?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Relationship Duration:

2. For how long have you been involved in this mentoring relationship?
   _____ Years _____ Months

Mentoring Phase:

3. *Please note*: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the item used in the current study to assess mentoring phase is not listed here. Please refer to Eby et al. (2004) for the item.

Mentorship Type: Formal vs. Informal (adapted from Ragins & Cotton, 1999)

4. In order to assist individuals in their development and advancement, some organizations have established formal mentoring programs, where mentors and protégés are linked in some way. This may be accomplished by assigning mentors or by just providing formal opportunities aimed at developing the relationship. Other types of mentoring relationships develop on their own without organizational intervention.

   To recap: Formal mentoring relationships are developed with *organizational assistance*. Informal mentoring relationships are developed *spontaneously*, without organizational assistance. Which of the following best describes your current mentoring relationship?
   _____ I am involved in a formal mentoring relationship.
   _____ I am involved in an informal mentoring relationship.

Appendix L (Continued)

Mentorship Type: Intra- vs. Inter-organizational

5. Are you and your protégé currently employed by the same organization?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Mentorship Type: Supervisory vs. Non-supervisory

6. Are you currently your protégé's immediate supervisor?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Partner Proximity:

7. Are you and your protégé located in the same office?
   _____ Yes _____ No

8. Are you and your protégé located in the same city?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Interaction Frequency:

9. On average, how many hours do you spend with your protégé <u>each month</u>…
   …in person? _____
   …through other communication (e.g., telephone, email)? _____

Previous Mentoring Experience:

10. Prior to the current mentoring relationship, how many individuals had you mentored? _____
11. Prior to the current mentoring relationship, how many mentors had you had? _____
12. Overall, how would you rate the quality of the mentoring relationships you had prior to the current relationship? (Include relationships in which you were the mentor and relationships in which you were the protégé).

Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good	Excellent

13. Have you previously participated in this study?
    _____ Yes _____ No

Appendix M: Relationship Characteristics Items (Protégé Survey Version)

General Instructions:
If you are currently involved in more than one workplace mentoring relationship in which you are the protégé, please pick one relationship and respond to the survey questions based on that relationship. The relationship you pick should be with a mentor who is employed within the same organization as you, and you must have been in a mentoring relationship with this mentor for at least 4 weeks. If you have more than one relationship meeting these criteria, please pick the relationship that is most recent.

Definition of Mentor (adapted from Ragins & Cotton, 1999):
A mentor is generally defined as a higher ranking, influential individual in the protégé's work environment who has advanced experience and knowledge and provides upward mobility and support to the protégé's career. A mentor may or may not be the protégé's immediate supervisor.

Current Relationship Status:

1. Are you currently involved in a workplace mentoring relationship in which you are the protégé?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Relationship Duration:

2. For how long have you been involved in this mentoring relationship?
   _____ Years _____ Months

Mentoring Phase:

3. *Please note*: In order to avoid copyright infringements, the item used in the current study to assess mentoring phase is not listed here. Please refer to Eby et al. (2004) for the item.

Mentorship Type: Formal vs. Informal (adapted from Ragins & Cotton, 1999)

4. In order to assist individuals in their development and advancement, some organizations have established formal mentoring programs, where mentors and protégés are linked in some way. This may be accomplished by assigning mentors or by just providing formal opportunities aimed at developing the relationship. Other types of mentoring relationships develop on their own without organizational intervention.

   To recap: Formal mentoring relationships are developed with *organizational assistance*. Informal mentoring relationships are developed *spontaneously*, without organizational assistance. Which of the following best describes your current mentoring relationship?
   _____ I am involved in a formal mentoring relationship.
   _____ I am involved in an informal mentoring relationship.

Appendix M (Continued)

Mentorship Type: Intra- vs. Inter-organizational

5. Are you and your mentor currently employed by the same organization?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Mentorship Type: Supervisory vs. Non-supervisory

6. Is your mentor currently your immediate supervisor?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Partner Proximity:

7. Are you and your mentor located in the same office?
   _____ Yes _____ No

8. Are you and your mentor located in the same city?
   _____ Yes _____ No

Interaction Frequency:

9. On average, how many hours do you spend with your mentor <u>each month</u>…
   …in person? _____
   …through other communication (e.g., telephone, email)? _____

Previous Mentoring Experience:

10. Prior to the current mentoring relationship, how many mentors had you had?
    _____
11. Prior to the current mentoring relationship, how many individuals had you mentored? _____
12. Overall, how would you rate the quality of the mentoring relationships you had prior to the current relationship? (Include relationships in which you were the mentor and relationships in which you were the protégé).

Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good	Excellent

13. Have you previously participated in this study?
    _____ Yes _____ No

Appendix N: Demographic Characteristics Items (Mentor Survey Version)

Please answer the following questions about yourself.

Mentor Gender:

1. What is your gender?
   _____ Male _____ Female

Mentor Age:

2. What is your age? _____

Mentor Race:

3. What is your race?
   ___ Caucasian/White
   ___ African American/Black
   ___ Hispanic
   ___ Asian
   ___ Native American
   ___ Other (please specify) _____

Mentor Education:

4. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?
   ___ High school degree or less
   ___ Some college
   ___ Associate/2-year degree
   ___ Four year degree
   ___ Graduate work
   ___ Graduate degree

Please answer the following questions about your current work situation. If you are employed by more than one organization, please answer the questions based on the job you have in the organization in which your protégé is also employed.

Mentor Organizational Tenure:

5. How long have you worked for your present organization?
   _____ Years _____ Months

Mentor Job Title:

6. What is your current job title? _____

Mentor Job Tenure:

7. How long have you been employed in your current job?
   _____ Years _____ Months

Appendix N (Continued)

Mentor Industry:

8. Which of the following best describes the industry in which you are currently employed? (please select only one)
   ___ Construction
   ___ Education or health services
   ___ Financial activities (e.g., finance, insurance, real estate, leasing)
   ___ Information (e.g., publishing, broadcasting, telecommunications, data processing)
   ___ Leisure or hospitality (e.g., arts, entertainment, accommodation, food services)
   ___ Manufacturing
   ___ Natural resources or mining
   ___ Other services (e.g., repair, laundry services, religious and civic organizations; does not include Public Administration)
   ___ Professional or business services (e.g., scientific, technical services, management, administrative services)
   ___ Trade, transportation, or utilities (e.g., retail trade, wholesale trade, transportation and warehousing, utilities)

Mentor Hours Worked per Week:

9. How many hours do you typically spend on work per week (include work done outside of the office): _____

Please answer the following questions about your protégé.

Protégé Gender:

10. What is your protégé's gender?
    _____ Male _____ Female

Protégé Age:

11. What is your protégé's age (estimate if not sure)? _____

Protégé Race:

12. What is your protégé's race?
    ___ Caucasian/White
    ___ African American/Black
    ___ Hispanic
    ___ Asian
    ___ Native American
    ___ Other (please specify) _____

Appendix O: Demographic Characteristics Items (Protégé Survey Version)

Please answer the following questions about yourself.

Protégé Gender:

1. What is your gender?
   _____ Male _____ Female

Protégé Age:

2. What is your age? _____

Protégé Race:

3. What is your race?
   ___ Caucasian/White
   ___ African American/Black
   ___ Hispanic
   ___ Asian
   ___ Native American
   ___ Other (please specify) _____

Protégé Education:

4. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?
   ___ High school degree or less
   ___ Some college
   ___ Associate/2-year degree
   ___ Four year degree
   ___ Graduate work
   ___ Graduate degree

Please answer the following questions about your current work situation. If you are employed by more than one organization, please answer the questions based on the job you have in the organization in which your mentor is also employed.

Protégé Organizational Tenure:

5. How long have you worked for your present organization?
   _____ Years _____ Months

Protégé Job Title:

6. What is your current job title? _____

Protégé Job Tenure:

7. How long have you been employed in your current job?
   _____ Years _____ Months

Appendix O (Continued)

Protégé Industry:

8. Which of the following best describes the industry in which you are currently employed? (please select only one)
   ___ Construction
   ___ Education or health services
   ___ Financial activities (e.g., finance, insurance, real estate, leasing)
   ___ Information (e.g., publishing, broadcasting, telecommunications, data processing)
   ___ Leisure or hospitality (e.g., arts, entertainment, accommodation, food services)
   ___ Manufacturing
   ___ Natural resources or mining
   ___ Other services (e.g., repair, laundry services, religious and civic organizations; does not include Public Administration)
   ___ Professional or business services (e.g., scientific, technical services, management, administrative services)
   ___ Trade, transportation, or utilities (e.g., retail trade, wholesale trade, transportation and warehousing, utilities)

Protégé Hours Worked per Week:

9. How many hours do you typically spend on work per week (include work done outside of the office): _____

Please answer the following questions about your mentor.

Mentor Gender:

10. What is your mentor's gender?
    _____ Male _____ Female

Mentor Age:

11. What is your mentor's age (estimate if not sure)? _____

Mentor Race:

12. What is your mentor's race?
    ___ Caucasian/White
    ___ African American/Black
    ___ Hispanic
    ___ Asian
    ___ Native American
    ___ Other (please specify) _____

About the Author

Laura F. Poteat earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology from the University of Central Florida in 2004. She earned a Master of Arts degree in Industrial-Organizational Psychology from the University of South Florida in 2009. She has presented and published research in the areas of mentoring, work-family interactions, job attitudes, and careers/career development. Additionally, she has professional experience in areas such as job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, workplace mentoring programs, performance appraisal, workforce and succession planning, workforce metrics, survey development, program evaluation, and report writing.