

MENTOR-PROTÉGÉ EXPECTATION AGREEMENT, MET EXPECTATIONS, AND
PERCEIVED EFFORT: AN EXAMINATION OF THE EFFECTS ON KEY OUTCOMES FOR
MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

by

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(Under the Direction of Lillian T. Eby)

ABSTRACT

To date, research on mentoring relationships has focused on developing a normative model, outlining key antecedents, processes, and outcomes. In line with Leader-Member Exchange theory, this study examined the unique, idiosyncratic nature of mentoring relationships using data from 106 matched formal mentoring dyads. Contrary to predictions, met expectations did not mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé agreement on expectations for protégé/mentor behaviors and affective outcomes. Instead, perceived effort was the key driver of met expectations and demonstrated direct and indirect effects on relationship quality, protégés' willingness to mentor, and protégés' perception of program effectiveness. Additionally, mentor-protégé agreement on protégé role modeling and friendship behaviors was associated with mentors' affective outcomes. Implications of non-hypothesized findings and suggestions for future research are discussed.

INDEX WORDS: Mentoring program, Mentor, Protégé, Relationship Quality, Program Effectiveness, Met expectations, Mentoring relationships, Career mentoring, Psychosocial mentoring

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DEDICATION

This body of research is dedicated to the following individuals...

My grandparents, who never gave up on me and kept their fingers crossed tightly for years in the hope that I would not give up on myself.

My parents, who have always done everything in their power to prepare me for success in this intellectual pursuit, and for life in general.

My husband, who understood the strains of being a student and was patient during the long journey, injecting fun and laughter whenever possible.

My major professor, Lillian Eby, who exemplifies every aspect of mentoring and took an active role in shaping my journey through graduate school to ensure a happy ending.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring has become widely recognized as a mechanism for career development in organizations. Traditionally, a mentoring relationship is defined as an interpersonal and developmental relationship between a more experienced, more tenured employee (mentor) and a less experienced, more junior employee (protégé), in which the mentor provides support, guidance, and direction regarding personal and professional issues (Kram, 1985). To date, mentoring research has focused primarily on establishing a normative model of mentoring, to include antecedents, processes, and outcomes of mentoring relationships from primarily the protégé perspective. Mentoring research has also addressed the potential for negative mentoring experiences, which has provided a well-rounded, more complete understanding of the construct (Eby & McManus, 2004; Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000; Feldman, 1999; Scandura, 1998). While most empirical research examines informal, or spontaneously developed, mentoring relationships, many employees are involved in formal mentoring programs designed to replicate the benefits experienced in informal mentoring relationships and to attract, develop, and retain high performing employees (Eddy, Tannenbaum, Alliger, D'Abate, & Givens, 2001). Relationship initiation, structure, and duration represent a few of the key factors distinguishing formal and informal mentoring relationships (Ragins & Cotton, 1999); therefore, it is critical to examine formal mentoring as a distinct form of mentoring (Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). Though different definitions abound to describe informal and formal mentoring relationships (Jacobi, 1991), at the core of every definition is the fact that the mentor

and protégé participate in an interpersonal, developmental relationship (Kram, 1985). As such, “distinct interpersonal exchanges and idiosyncratic interaction patterns define and shape the relationship” making each mentorship unique (Eby & Rhodes, in press). Therefore, it is important to explore dyadic effects rather than solely measure mentoring process and outcome variables at the individual level (typically from the perspective of the protégé). A critical next step in the evolution of mentoring research is to examine the unique, idiosyncratic nature of mentoring relationships at the *dyadic* level.

Katz and Kahn (1978) proposed the concept of dyadic organizing in the context of the workplace in order to explicate the important role of workplace relationships, such as the relationship between a supervisor and subordinate. Employees accomplish work by engaging in behaviors aligned to roles associated with these dyadic relationships (Graen, 1976; Katz & Kahn, 1978). In addition, experiences in dyadic relationships are a significant factor in the development of employees’ attitudes and beliefs about the organization. A desire to understand how to foster positive dyadic relationships in the workplace served as an impetus for the development of Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX), which describes relationships between supervisors and subordinates (Blau, 1964). Like leader-member exchange, mentoring is a distinct instance of dyadic organizing within organizations, so it is appropriate to extrapolate from LMX theory to better understand mentoring relationships (McManus & Russell, 1997).

Prior to LMX theory, the study of leadership in organizations, much like the current state of mentoring research, focused on establishing a normative model of leadership behavior in order to render the supervisor-subordinate relationship more predictable. This Average Leadership Style (ALS) approach, assumes that a “leader acts in a relatively uniform way toward all subordinates” (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 622). Grounded in role theory, the LMX approach

advanced leadership theory by recognizing that a leader does not demonstrate a consistent set of behaviors with all subordinates, but rather, there is variability across dyads in which he/she is involved (Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973). According to the LMX model, variability arises from differences in the quality of social exchanges between the leader and work group members (i.e., subordinates) (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). The relationship between a leader and subordinate closely parallels a mentoring relationship in that interactions arise from the input of both members; therefore, it is plausible to expect that mentors, like leaders, behave differently depending on the specific protégé with whom they are paired. The unique nature of mentoring relationships requires dyadic level research in order to advance understanding and not simply to enhance predictability in mentoring relationships.

Though the majority of mentoring research has focused on discovering commonalities *across* mentoring relationships (e.g., mentor behaviors, mentor/protégé benefits), it is equally important to determine key drivers of unique, unexpected mentoring experiences. The normative model for organizational mentoring provides definitional clarity and establishes a standard for a 'typical' mentoring relationship, with a large focus on the 'typical' role of a mentor and the 'typical' benefits received by the protégé. Having said this, what individuals expect from themselves and from their partner in a mentoring relationship is likely a combination of employees' general understanding of mentoring relationships, *coupled with* information specific to the context (e.g., level of manager support for mentoring) and the potential partner (e.g., knowledge about the individual's attitude, level of expertise, leadership style). Further, despite having a fairly established frame of reference for mentoring, individual relationships involve a host of unique deviations away from the set of expectations a potential mentor or protégé may bring to the relationship. Initiation of a mentoring relationship represents "a new intersection of 2

existing systems, with the area of intersection characterized by cycles of behavior that, in some respects, continue the previous history of each system, and in some respects are unique products of their coming together” (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 217). This study examines one potential root cause for why an individual’s actual mentoring experience may differ from what he/she expected. More specifically, this root cause is conceptualized as the degree to which the mentor and protégé agree on his/her own role as well as the role of his/her partner in the mentoring relationship. Agreement between the protégé and mentor in terms of role behaviors should increase the likelihood that the protégé and/or mentor will have expectations for the mentoring relationship met. While it seems intuitive that agreement between a mentor’s and protégé’s expectations would increase the likelihood of met expectations for both members, this relationship has not been studied directly.

Behavior of the mentor and protégé represents the critical link driving the relationship between degree of mentor-protégé expectation agreement and met expectations. According to role theory, roles are key determinants of enacted behaviors; therefore, expectations for mentor and protégé roles directly impact individual behavior in mentoring relationships (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Merton, 1957). An individual develops “constructed social roles, which represent the differences in the way people present themselves in different social situations” (Graen & Scandura, 1987, p.187). In line with this argument, this study posits that higher mentor-protégé expectation *agreement* (regardless of mean level of expectations) regarding the roles of each dyad member will be reflected in the mentor’s and protégé’s behavior, leading to met expectations for both members. This approach goes beyond an assessment of individual expectations, to examine the dyadic effect of expectations on the mentoring relationship.

The degree to which members of a dyad perceive that the relationship meets their expectations is likely to play a significant role in the success or failure of a relationship. In fact, when asked about perceived relationship difficulties, 20% of protégés in formal mentoring relationships reported that their mentor or mentoring relationship did not live up to their expectations (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). This finding underscores the importance of met expectations, at least from the protégé perspective. A recent study demonstrated that met expectations mediates the relationship between perceptions of mentoring functions and two important relationship outcomes, trust and relationship effectiveness, for both mentors and protégés (Young & Perrewé, 2000). The premise of their model is that “more (mentoring) should not be the yardstick by which mentoring behaviors are measured, but whether or not each partner perceives *enough* [italics added] support” (p. 616). While Young and Perrewé (2000) recognize that protégés and mentors have varying threshold levels for what constitutes “enough” career and psychosocial functions to meet expectations and that this is the correct amount to target, they do not examine met expectations in the context of the dyad. Young and Perrewé (2000) collected data from mentors and protégés who were not in matched dyads and tested the hypothesized relationships separately for the mentor sample and protégé sample. The present study builds upon Young and Perrewé (2000) by examining the precipitating mechanism of individuals’ met expectations as a dyadic variable (i.e., expectation agreement), which is a more appropriate conceptualization given the relational context (Chao, 1998).

In addition, what matters in the present study is the way in which degree of mentor-protégé expectation agreement impacts the relationship; the level of agreement does not indicate whether or not the expectations for different mentoring functions are high or low at the individual level. For instance, a protégé may expect mentoring focused on improved job

performance, with very little desire to have the mentor serve as a sounding board. Having a mentor who shares the same expectations for the relationship would be more likely to lead to met expectations for the protégé. Alternatively, a mentor may expect to provide a high level of career development support. In this case, expectation agreement would not occur if he/she were matched with a protégé expecting to experience personal development and friendship rather than career development support. The primary difference in perspective is that the majority of past research makes the implicit assumption that met expectations for protégés occurs when mentors provide a high level of mentoring on all dimensions (i.e., psychosocial and career support functions); whereas the present study examines the level of agreement between the mentor's and protégé's expectations as a key driver of met expectations. Further, other than a few recent studies (e.g., Young & Perrewé, 2000), researchers have largely ignored mentors' perceptions of met expectations. The present study examines antecedents of met expectations and relevant mentoring outcomes associated with met expectations (e.g., relationship quality) for the protégé *and* mentor.

In examining the relationship between expectation agreement and met expectations, the present study posits that the level of perceived effort on the part of the partner will moderate this relationship. More specifically, if a mentor and protégé agree on the role behaviors for each member of the dyad, then a mentor or protégé should be more likely to report met expectations to the extent that the partner is putting effort into the relationship. It is beyond the scope of this research to examine antecedents for the amount of effort each member exerts on the relationship; however, past research suggests several possible reasons, to include liking, individual personality characteristics (e.g., proactivity), perceived similarity, or perceived competence of the other party (Allen & Eby, 2003; Burke, McKeen, & McKenna, 1993; Ensher & Murphy, 1997;

Turban, Dougherty, & Lee, 2002; Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, in press). While it is plausible to consider that this moderation effect may not be significant, or even meaningful, for those relationships in which the protégé and mentor expect little to no mentoring, it seems unlikely that a protégé in the workplace would participate in a formal mentoring relationship and expect nothing from the experience. In addition, if a lack of expectation agreement on behalf of one dyad member means a mismatch in mentoring experiences for the other dyad member, then a relationship may still be more beneficial when the mentor and protégé both expect a low level of career and psychosocial support than when their expectations differ (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Sosik, Godshalk, & Yammarino, 2004). Based on these considerations, differential hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of effort will not be proposed for mentoring dyads high in expectation agreement for high versus low levels of mentoring functions.

It is also important to note that this study only examines formal mentoring relationships in the workplace. Formal mentoring relationships involve a third party, namely the organization, which typically assists with selecting eligible mentors and protégés, matching potential protégés and mentors into dyads, setting goals and objectives of the mentoring relationship, and providing ongoing support for the mentoring relationships (e.g., social events, grievance process) (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Russell & Adams, 1997). In contrast, informal mentoring relationships develop based on the mutual attraction, respect, and trust between both members (Kram, 1985). The organization does not play an explicit role in any aspect of informal mentoring relationships. Formal mentoring relationships were chosen as the focus of this study based on the assumption that protégés and mentors will have clearer, more concrete expectations at the outset of a formal mentoring relationship due to the presence of, a) goals and objectives for the program, b) recruitment and other print material describing the program, and c) preparatory activities for

incumbent participants (e.g., training). In addition, informal mentoring relationships do not necessarily have a clear starting point at which to assess initial expectations. Instead, the relationship between two employees may develop over time into what both would define as a mentoring relationship. Therefore, expectations at the outset of an informal mentoring relationship are more likely to result from role negotiation and socialization processes that preceded the mentoring relationship. In contrast, based on the fact that formal mentoring programs are often branded as a career development program, Eby and Lockwood (2005) suggest that individuals may enter a formal mentoring program with inflated expectations regarding how the relationship will affect their career advancement in the short-term. In summary, the role of the organization may heighten the effect of expectation agreement in formal mentoring relationships making mentor-protégé agreement more relevant in predicting outcomes in formal versus informal relationships. Further, the present study is expected to advance knowledge of formal mentoring in the workplace, which has been less frequently examined (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003).

Mentoring: Overview

According to role theory, the organization is comprised of a set of roles, or “expected activities associated with the occupancy of a given position” (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 200). While the roles typically studied in organizations relate to an individual’s job or position within the organization, organizational members serve in a variety of roles outside of their specific job. The roles of mentor and protégé represent the two roles of interest that employees may serve in addition to their specific job role. Implicit in the definition of mentoring is that the mentor takes a more proactive, giving role in the relationship, whereas the protégé plays a more passive, receiving role. This dichotomy has shaped much of the mentoring research to focus on benefits

to the protégé and how the mentor should behave in order to drive these benefits. More specifically, as compared to non-protégés, protégés experience a faster rate of promotions and higher compensation (Chao, Walz, & Garner, 1992; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1992). In terms of subjective outcomes, protégés have reported increased socialization, job satisfaction, and career satisfaction (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Chao et al., 1992; Fagenson, 1989; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). More recent research has examined benefits for the mentor, to include self-satisfaction, protégé loyalty, recognition by others in the organization (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997), work-related information (Mullen, 1998; Mullen & Noe, 1999), learning (Allen & Eby, 2003; Allen et al., 1997), objective and subjective career success (Bozionelos, 2004), and higher pay (Collins, 1994). Increased awareness of mentoring benefits has led organizations to develop formal mentoring programs in order to enhance and extend the accessibility of these benefits to more employees (Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Mullen, 1998).

Mentoring as a Psychological Contract

The prevalence of mentoring relationships in several different contexts (e.g., academic institutions, communities, workplace) has led to increased familiarity of the socially constructed roles for mentors and protégés. Employees typically recognize the terms, mentor and protégé, and a set of behaviors probably come to mind because these roles are so familiar and entrenched in the vernacular of the workplace (Chao, 1997; Eby & Rhodes, in press). That is not to say that employees will have an equivalent definition or level of understanding for these roles. On the contrary, employees' understanding of the roles are developed from past relationship experience, vicarious experience, and other sources of information (e.g., mentoring program material), which leads to a unique understanding of the roles. In addition, the mentor and protégé in a given dyad have specific developmental areas that need to be met based on their unique work experiences,

dispositional attributes, and career goals (Kram, 1985). These widely understood roles give rise to a mentor's and protégé's expectations regarding the behaviors of both members in the mentoring relationship; expectations that, when compared, should have a combination of common and idiosyncratic elements.

The set of expectations each member has for his/her own role and the other member's role can be considered a psychological contract between the mentor and protégé. Rousseau (2001) defined a psychological contract as "subjective beliefs regarding an exchange agreement between an individual and, in organizations typically, the employing firm and its agents" (p. 512). While this concept is more prevalent in research involving the relationship between new employees and an organization (Rousseau, 2001), the notion of a psychological contract is relevant to any formalized relationship between two parties, to include formal mentoring relationships. More specifically, mentoring relationships and psychological contracts share common antecedents, namely, schemas and promises (Rousseau, 2001). A schema is an individual's representation of a complex concept; in this case, a role in a relationship. Supporting the unique aspect of dyadic relationships, "some elements of a schema may be widely shared by people who work in the same setting or occupation...others may be idiosyncratic, tied to particular individual experiences with their current employer", or in this case a mentor or protégé (Rousseau, 2001, p. 513). Promises in the context of a mentoring relationship would be any terms that the mentor and protégé agreed to at the beginning of the relationship and any promises *perceived* by either member based on the organization's communication about the mentoring program. For instance, an organization may describe its formal mentoring relationships as lasting one year, which could be considered an implicit promise to both members that the relationship will last 1 year, no more and no less.

Alternatively, a mentor may agree to increase the visibility of the protégé, a commitment that would certainly become a part of the psychological contract from the protégé's perspective (i.e., behaviors relevant to increasing visibility expected from the mentor role in that particular relationship).

To summarize, expectations that each dyad member brings to the relationship is a unique profile of the role behaviors defined in the normative model, as well as expectations based on individualized schemas or situation-specific promises that may fall outside the boundaries of role behaviors established in the normative model. The next section describes the impact of these expectations on the set of exchanges, or interactions, that occur during the course of the mentoring relationship.

Mentoring as a Series of Exchanges

A relevant framework for understanding how expectations influence relationship initiation and development is offered by social exchange theory (Buss, 1983; Foa & Foa, 1980). While exchange theory has its roots in economics and the study of money-merchandise exchanges, social scientists have applied the tenets of this theory to describe interpersonal exchanges. For example, interpersonal behavior can be viewed as driven by, “the rewards, cost, or expectations of rewards and costs” (Hinde, 1997, p.334), such that an individual will consider whether or not the required effort and potential costs of a given interaction is justifiable given the expected “rewards”. Buss (1983) described categories of social rewards, which are relevant to interpersonal exchanges (i.e., process awards, content awards). Process awards are inherent to the social contract (e.g., listening, acknowledgement), and content rewards are the type of response one person offers another (e.g., praise, sympathy, liking) (Koper & Jaasma, 2001). What is known about mentoring functions and benefits indicate that certain process and content

rewards are most likely exchanged in these relationships; therefore it seems particularly relevant to apply social exchange theory to the context of mentoring (Olian, Carroll, & Giannantonio, 1993).

Accordingly, a mentor or protégé will invest time into the relationship (cost) to the extent that he or she receives expected benefits (sense of satisfaction). That is not to say, however that the desired ratio of expected benefits to costs is equivalent for the protégé and mentor; in fact, the protégé's desired ratio of expected benefits to costs is likely larger than that of the mentor due to the fact that the purpose of mentoring relationships is to develop protégés. Nonetheless, mentors expect relational benefits as well. Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) examined mentors' reported motivations for serving as a mentor and found that mentors have self-focused reasons for expending the time and effort (e.g., personal learning) in addition to other-focused, more altruistic reasons (e.g., desire to help others succeed, desire to build a competent workforce). Interestingly, mentors' reports of self-focused reasons for participating as a mentor map onto mentors' reports of benefits (learning, gratification seeing others succeed, respect from others), therefore it appears that their desired, expected rewards manifest in many mentoring relationships (Allen & Eby, 2003; Allen et al., 1997). Thus, while mentors may differ in terms of the degree to which other-focused or self-focused motivations serve as primary motivators, it appears that mentors may indeed have some level of expected payback for their investment in the relationship and that these motivations, or expectations, are often realized during the relationship.

In the interest of determining the processes, or exchanges, that drive protégé benefits, research to date provides insight into the typical behaviors associated with the role of the mentor. In the context of organizations, research has established that there are two primary behavioral

dimensions that occur in the normative models of mentoring relationships: career development and psychosocial functions (Kram, 1985, Noe, 1988; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). Behaviors related to career development functions enhance the protégé's career development and advancement (e.g., challenging assignments, coaching); whereas behaviors comprising psychosocial functions enhance the protégé's sense of self-efficacy and identity (e.g., acceptance-and-confirmation, friendship, counseling) (Kram, 1985). These functions define a set of behaviors that are related to important mentoring outcomes and that protégés in effective relationships typically report that their mentors demonstrate. More specifically, career and psychosocial functions describe behaviors that are enacted by the mentor and are considered to be the key drivers of benefits for the protégé. The taxonomy for career and psychosocial functions was validated to a large extent in a recent study on mentoring functions using interview data from 24 matched mentoring dyads (Fowler & O'Gorman, 2005).

As a result, Kram's (1985) well-established conceptualization of mentoring functions is considered to describe relevant mentor behaviors, and therefore serves as the definition for the mentor's role.

In contrast to the role of the mentor, very little research has focused on the behaviors associated with the role of the protégé. As Feldman (1999) notes, researchers have not "examined the extent to which protégés uphold their end of the bargain and how protégé behaviors influence the actions of mentors" (p.252). This is most likely due to the fact that the goal of a mentoring relationship is protégé development (Kram, 1985). Despite the fact that mentoring relationships are predicated on an unequal 'exchange rate', with more benefits provided to the protégé than to the mentor, protégés play an active role in the relationship and as discussed previously, mentors can, in fact, benefit (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997;

Bozionelos, 2004; Mullen & Noe, 1999). As a result, mentoring relationships can be described as reciprocal, yet asymmetrical (Eby & Rhodes, in press). Broadly speaking, mentors benefit to the extent that protégés actively engage in the relationship, whether this means following through on a developmental assignment or providing information to the mentor regarding a different area of the business or new technology.

Though research on mentor benefits allows for inferences regarding the protégé role, Young and Perrewé (2000) directly examined role behaviors associated with the protégé role using a multi-dimensional definition of mentoring (i.e., career and psychosocial mentoring) as a framework. By recognizing that a protégé is “not merely the passive recipient of the mentor’s support” (p. 615), these authors took an important first step in defining the protégé role. According to Young and Perrewé (2000), protégé role behaviors support the mentoring process by enabling the receiving side of the exchange, the mirror image of the mentor’s role in the relationship. To illustrate, consider networking, a mentor behavior associated with career support functions (Kram, 1985). The mentor’s role is to provide protégés with other contacts in the organization that can be utilized as a resource for career advancement. The mirror image of this behavior could include the protégé following up with contacts, demonstrating effective interpersonal skills, and leveraging those relationships appropriately for career development or advancement. Alternatively, consider acceptance-and-confirmation, a mentor behavior associated with psychosocial mentoring (Kram, 1985). Protégé behaviors that could be considered the mirror image would include, validating the mentor’s guidance and feedback as important and helpful to his/her career development or advancement. The premise of Young and Perrewé’s (2000) conceptualization of the protégé role as being a mirror image is consistent with

the dyadic perspective of relationships and social exchange theory (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Rousseau, 1998).

Support for this conceptualization of the protégé role can be found in a recent study that directly applied social exchange theory to LMX (Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000). This study found that if an exchange behavior associated with giving (e.g., delegation) initiates an appropriate type of receipt in response (e.g., the individual completes the delegated task), then exchanges continue in the relationship (Uhl-Bien et al., 2000). Exchange is less likely to continue when the receipt response is either insufficient or demonstrates incompetence. Applying this logic to the context of mentoring would indicate that, when a mentor gives a protégé an assignment and the protégé's response is successful task completion, then the mentor is more likely to continuing driving relationship exchanges. Therefore, even in a relationship where one individual serves in a giver role and the other individual serves in a receiver role, both parties play an active part in sustaining the relationship and achieving relationship objectives.

In summary, though mentoring research has primarily focused on the protégé as the beneficiary of mentoring benefits, the few studies that have focused on the protégé role demonstrate that, a) protégés take an active role in the relationship (Young & Perrewé, 2000), b) mentors have expectations for protégés' behaviors (Allen et al., 1997; Eby & McManus, 2004), and c) the degree to which these expectations are met affect the social exchange (Uhl-Bien et al., 2000). Consistent with Young & Perrewé (2000), the protégé role in the present study will be defined as appropriate responses to mentor behaviors associated with psychosocial and career mentoring functions (Kram, 1985; Scandura & Ragins, 1993).

Expectation Agreement as a Construct

At the heart of an employee/employer relationship, or any relationship between co-workers, especially those formalized by the organization, some degree of expectation agreement regarding the role of each member is important for the parties to achieve interdependent goals for the relationship. Expectation agreement in the context of psychological contracts has been referred to as “mutuality”, or “shared understanding”, defined as “the extent to which workers and employers share beliefs regarding specific terms of the exchange” (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004, p. 52). Recent research on psychological contract theory demonstrates that shared understanding between parties can be measured as a construct, rather than utilizing perceptions by one member of the relationship as a proxy variable for agreement (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004).

Dyadic research comparing mentor and protégé perceptions has primarily focused on perceptions of mentoring behaviors, as defined by career support and psychosocial functions. A recent study (Sosik, Godshalk, & Yammarino, 2004) explored the appropriate level of analysis for protégé and mentor learning goal orientation, the mentor’s transformational leadership, and expectations for the protégé’s career success. Findings indicate that these variables could be aggregated and interpreted at the dyadic level (i.e., acceptable level of agreement within dyads versus between dyads) (Sosik, et al., 2004). Taking a slightly different approach to mentor-protégé agreement, Raabe and Beehr (2003) examined mentors’ and protégés’ perceptions of the level of career support (provided by the mentor), psychosocial functions (assessment of own behaviors and attitudes), and role modeling (demonstrated by the protégé) using 61 matched pairs. Results indicate that mentors’ responses did not correlate with protégés’ responses at the scale level for career functions, psychosocial functions, or role modeling. A comparison of means revealed that mentors and protégés reported significantly different levels of mentor

behaviors for all 3 scales (e.g., mentors reported giving more career development than protégés reported receiving). These results led Raabe and Beehr (2003) to conclude that, “the lack of agreement between mentor and protégé perceptions of their relationship thus could be a signal of an underdeveloped mentoring relationship” (p.284).

While these studies (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Raabe & Beehr, 2003; Sosik et al., 2004) represent an important step toward empirically testing the dyadic nature of mentoring relationships, the conceptualization of shared perceptions, or agreement, is problematic given that their data analysis strategies do not allow for inferences about “agreement”. Instead, results from these studies illustrate the degree of *consistency* between mentors and protégés on the occurrence of career, psychosocial, and role modeling behaviors in their relationship *on average*. The present study breaks new ground in mentoring research by examining the level of mentor-protégé expectation agreement using data from matched dyads. This study also furthers mentoring research by measuring variability of expectation agreement as a construct using an appropriate agreement index. In short, this study operationalizes and analyzes level of expectation agreement as a dyadic variable, which is the most appropriate level of analysis when assessing the level of shared perceptions (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004); and is therefore, the first study to appropriately examine the role of expectations in mentoring relationships.

By measuring protégé and mentor perceptions at the individual level in order to operationalize a dyadic construct, this study explicitly proposes a composition model for the expectation congruence construct. Chan (1998) explains that composition models “specify the functional relationships among phenomena or constructs at different level of analysis...that references essentially the same content but that are qualitatively different at different levels” (p. 234). The current typology of composition models outlines five separate models, and while

within-group agreement is an important factor in three of these models, only one will be discussed due to its relevance to the current study (Chan, 1998). The purpose of within-group agreement in the present study aligns to the dispersion model in which “the degree of within-group agreement of scores from the lower-level units or attributes...[is] a focal construct as opposed to merely a statistical prerequisite for aggregation” (Chan, 1998, p. 239). Therefore, in the dispersion model, the degree of within-group agreement is interpreted as an indicator of a group-level attribute. To illustrate, Klein, Conn, Smith, and Sorra (2001) recently tested a dispersion model with respect to the variability of responses on dimensions of work environment. The primary purpose of the study was to determine antecedents driving the variability in perceptions of the work environment; therefore, within-group variability on the work environment surveys served as the operationalization of the dependent variable. Within-group variability was measured using the average within-group standard deviation for each item of the three work environment scales, such that a larger group average for within-group standard deviation indicated greater variability in group members’ responses to the items (Klein et al., 2001). Results indicate that higher levels of social interaction and work interdependence are associated with less variability in perceptions of the work environment; and thus demonstrates that dispersion of responses can be just as meaningful to examine as the presence or absence of agreement. The present study also utilizes the dispersion model, however, level of agreement (i.e., dispersion) is measured using weighted kappa (Cohen, 1968) and the variability of interest is in the perceptions between the mentor and protégé regarding expected protégé role behaviors and expected mentor role behaviors.

Cohen’s (1960) kappa is considered to be the most popular coefficient of rater agreement, because it provides information about the extent of agreement between two raters above and

beyond agreement that would occur due to chance (von Eye & von Eye, 2005). Given the fact that participants rate items using ordered categories, weighted kappa (Cohen, 1968) is measured to allow for “differential weighting of disagreement” (Schuster, 2004, p. 243).

Expectation Agreement and Met Expectations

This study examines mentor-protégé expectation agreement as an antecedent of met expectations, and therefore extends Young and Perrewé’s (2000) model. In their study, level of proteges’ career support was an antecedent of met expectations for mentors and level of mentors’ psychosocial support was an antecedent of met expectations for protégés. These findings suggest differential antecedents for mentors and protégés and reinforces the need to assess expectation congruence as a driver of met expectations rather than simply the amount of perceived mentoring support provided by the other member. In the context of psychological contract research, Dabos and Rousseau (2004) found that leader-subordinate agreement on three sets of psychological contract obligations (transactional, balanced, and relational) explained unique variance in outcomes, over and above the individual perceptions that each party held regarding the terms of the psychological contract. Of particular importance to the current study is that agreement on balanced obligations, which, like mentoring, “balance or blend features of both relational and transactional arrangements” (p. 55), significantly predicted *met expectations*. Dabos and Rousseau (2004) provide the following description for the way in which expectation agreement may lead to met expectations:

Joint perception of the two sides of the psychological contract can provide important insights into the outcomes an exchange relationship yields...when parties develop shared understandings...psychological contracts can become construed as self-fulfilling prophecies reflecting anticipated future exchanges, making both individuals and organizations more productive and their interactions more mutually supportive and constructive. (p. 55)

Thus, the following relationships are expected and displayed in Figure 1 (for mentors) and Figure 2 (for protégés):

H1: Mentor-protégé expectation agreement on protégé role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) will be positively related to met expectations for the mentor.

H2: Mentor-protégé expectation agreement on mentor role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) will be positively related to met expectations for the protégé.

Moderating Effect of Perceived Effort

Underlying mentoring and LMX theories is the assumption that effort is exerted by both members of the relationship in order for a true exchange to occur (i.e., effort to initiate and effort to reciprocate) (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). Depending on the specific exchange, effort from the mentor or protégé could range from attending a meeting to disclosing personal experiences. As discussed previously, effort by one or both members of the dyad is required for an exchange to occur, and this is true for both psychosocial and career-related behaviors. Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) took a more fine-grained approach to LMX by examining perceived effort as a specific social exchange commodity that drives relationship development. Their findings indicate that perceived effort by the dyad partner is positively associated with LMX and met expectations of relationship quality. Similar to Young and Perrewé's (2000) argument regarding an emphasis on amount of mentoring functions versus enough mentoring functions, more effort on the part of the dyad partner may not always have the same degree of positive impact. For example, consider a situation in which the mentor and protégé have a high level of agreement on expected role behaviors. It is likely that if the mentor perceives a high level of effort on the part of protégé, the association between expectation agreement and met expectations will be stronger, because effort on the part of the protégé allows for the manifestation of these agreed upon role behaviors and

met expectations for the mentor. Alternatively, if the mentor perceives that the protégé invests a low level of effort, then the manifestation of agreed upon role behaviors may occur to a lesser degree, leading the mentor to report a lower level of met expectations.

The present study considers the interaction of the perceptions of the *other* member's level of effort in the relationship and expectation agreement in predicting met expectations for both the mentor and protégé.

H3: The positive relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement regarding protégé role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and mentors' met expectations will be moderated by perceived other effort, such that higher levels of perceived protégé effort will strengthen this relationship and lower levels of perceived protégé effort will weaken this relationship for the mentor.

H4: The positive relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement regarding mentor role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and protégés' met expectations will be moderated by perceived other effort, such that higher levels of perceived mentor effort will strengthen this relationship and lower levels of perceived mentor effort will weaken this relationship for the protégé.

Relational Outcomes of (Un)met Expectations

Much of the research on outcomes of unmet expectations is in the context of psychological contract theory and includes, reduced job satisfaction, reduced organizational trust, increased turnover, reduced willingness to participate in organizational citizenship behaviors, and decreased work performance (Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien, 1992; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). The present study also examines individual-level affective outcomes for the

mentor and protégé: relationship quality, willingness to mentor in the future, program effectiveness, and affective organizational commitment (protégé only).

The extent of mentor-protégé expectation agreement directly impacts the interactions between mentor and protégé; therefore, relationship quality is expected to be an important outcome for both members. Relationship quality specifically refers to satisfaction with the relationship, equitable benefits accrual, and interpersonal depth (Allen & Eby, 2003).

Mentoring relationships are inherently interpersonal in nature; therefore, it is appropriate to extrapolate from the literature on personal relationships in order to better understand outcomes of met expectations for the protégé and mentor. Research on workplace friendship finds that conflicting expectations between friends regarding how they should behave toward each other is one of the primary themes used to describe friendship deterioration (Sias, Heath, Perry, Silva, & Fix, 2004). In response to unmet expectations, individuals utilized disengagement strategies (e.g., avoidance of nonwork topics in conversation, nonverbal distancing), all of which served to depersonalize the relationship and reduce closeness. If a protégé or mentor does not perceive that their expectations are being met in the relationship, then negative behaviors could manifest that parallel the process of friendship dissolution in the workplace, and negatively impact the quality of the relationship (Campbell & Campbell, 2000).

Implications for unmet expectations in the friendship literature shares key aspects with the effects of certain negative mentoring experiences categorized as ineffective relationship experiences (Eby & McManus, 2004; Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000), which are reported by both protégés and mentors. Overall, these negative mentoring experiences arise as a result of differences between the mentor and protégé that cause “interpersonal difficulties” (p. 268), but are not due to malice or negative intentions of either dyad member (Eby & McManus,

2004). For instance, one theme of negative mentoring experiences, relationship difficulty, involves disagreements between the mentor and protégé that may be due to differing perspectives or, alternatively, “from unclear or incompatible expectations for the relationship” (Eby & McManus, 2004, p. 268).

Finally, Allen and Eby (2003) examined relational quality from the mentor’s perspective and found that perceptions of similarity in terms of values, interests, and personality were positively related to mentor reports of relationship quality. In addition, the correlation between perceived similarity and relationship quality was greater for relationships shorter in duration (Allen & Eby, 2003). This is particularly important given that the current study examines formal mentoring relationships, which are typically shorter in duration than informal mentoring relationships.

H5: Mentors’ reports of met expectations will mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement on protégé role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and mentors’ perceptions of relationship quality.

H6: Protégés’ reports of met expectations will mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement on mentor role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and protégés’ perceptions of relationship quality.

A key outcome variable for mentors and protégés that is important to the sustainability of a mentoring program is willingness to mentor in the future. The longevity of any formal mentoring program hinges on participation of organizational leaders as mentors; therefore organizations depend on current mentors and protégés being willing to mentor others in the future. Researchers have proposed that mentors’ experiences in past mentoring relationships could either deter or encourage them to mentor in the future (Feldman, 1999; Scandura &

Hamilton, 2001). In addition, Bozionelos (2004) found that an individual who has been mentored in the past is more likely to provide mentoring in the future. One reason for this might be that protégés who have experienced positive mentoring relationships might be more likely to role model the behaviors of their mentor(s) and serve in this capacity later in their career (Bozionelos, 2004). An alternative explanation is provided by the finding that employees who have had a mentor may anticipate more rewards from serving as a mentor than those employees who have not received mentoring (Ragins & Scandura, 1999).

H7: Mentors' reports of met expectations will mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement on protégé role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and mentors' willingness to mentor in the future.

H8: Protégés' reports of met expectations will mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement on mentor role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and protégés' willingness to mentor in the future.

It is predicted that met expectations will positively relate to mentors' and protégés' ratings of mentoring program effectiveness. To this researcher's knowledge, empirical research has not examined the impact of perceived program effectiveness on organizational outcomes; however, it seems clear that a key indicator validating the program's existence can be found in 'customer' satisfaction. The most proximal customers are obviously the mentors and protégés participating in the mentoring program; though more distal customers could include the protégés' managers as well as the protégés' and mentors' work teams. While it is difficult to determine a monetary return on investment related to mentoring programs, customer satisfaction should be critical to the value and sustainability of the program (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006).

Mentors and protégés are most likely to attribute what occurs in the relationship, at least in part, to the program's level of effectiveness. For instance, if mentors and protégés do not agree on the behaviors associated with each role, then they may fault the matching process or mentor training and consider the program less effective overall. The program component is a third party in formal mentoring, which can become an easy scapegoat for relationship problems, regardless of whether or not this root cause assessment is accurate.

H9: Mentors' reports of met expectations will mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement on protégé role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and mentors' perceptions of program effectiveness.

H10: Protégés' reports of met expectations will mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement on mentor role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and protégés' perceptions of program effectiveness.

Affective organizational commitment refers to "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.67). Affective OC is associated with employees' *desire* to remain in the organization versus a belief that they *ought to* (normative commitment) or *need to* remain in the organization (continuance commitment). Past research has shown that an organization's ability to meet one's expectations regarding the organization prior to entry is an antecedent of affective organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1988).

A few recent studies examined the relationship between mentoring and affective organizational commitment. Aryee and Chay (1994) examined the impact of career support functions on protégés' level of affective organizational and found that sponsorship, coaching, and challenging assignments predicted affective OC. Non-mentored associates also reported

significantly less affective OC than protégés (Aryee & Chay, 1994). Payne and Huffman (2005) extended this line of research to include psychosocial functions and replicated the finding that non-protégés reported less affective commitment than protégés. Results also demonstrate that protégés in more formalized mentoring relationships (i.e., mentor was also their supervisor) did report a higher level of affective commitment than those protégés whose mentor was not their supervisor (Payne & Huffman, 2005). These results provide initial evidence that protégés' met expectations, particularly in the context of formalized relationships, may relate to protégés' reported level of affective organizational commitment (Heimann & Pittenger, 1996).

H11: Protégés' reports of met expectations will mediate the relationship between mentor-protégé expectation agreement on mentor role behaviors (career-related and psychosocial) and protégés' affective organizational commitment.

To summarize, the present study examines the interaction between mentor-protégé expectation agreement and perceived effort as an antecedent of protégés' and mentors' affective outcomes as mediated by met expectations.

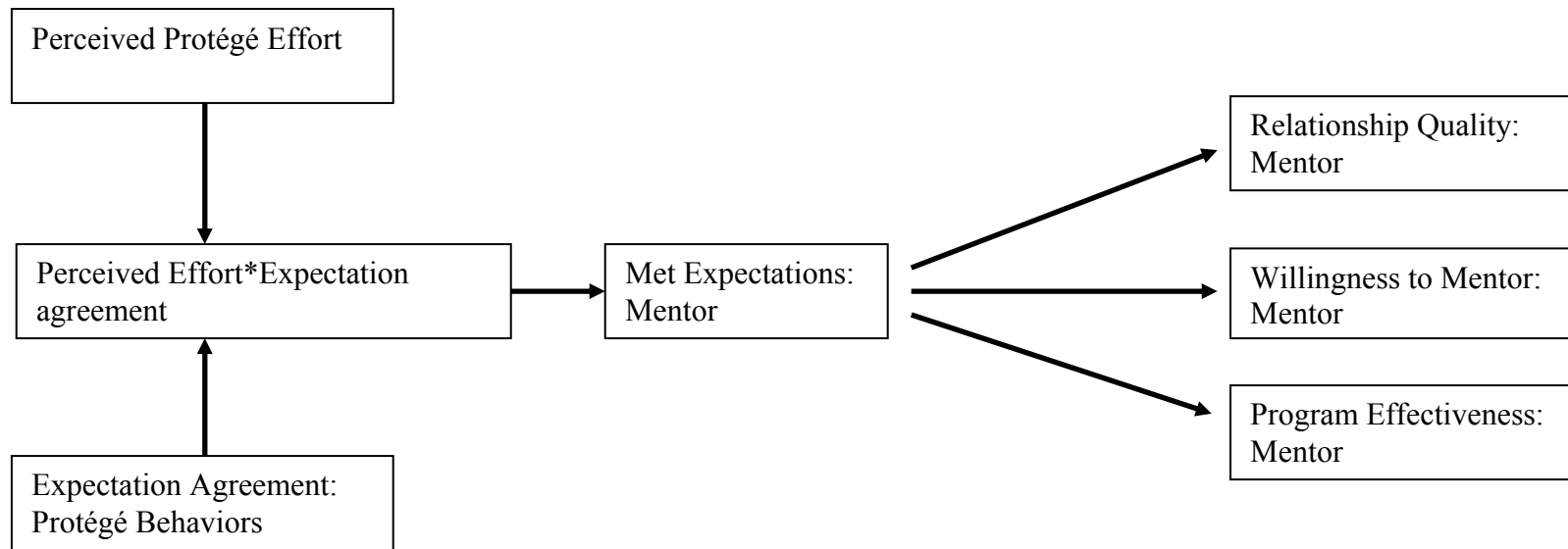


Figure 1. Conceptual Model of the Relationship between Expectation Agreement and Affective Outcome Variables for Mentors.

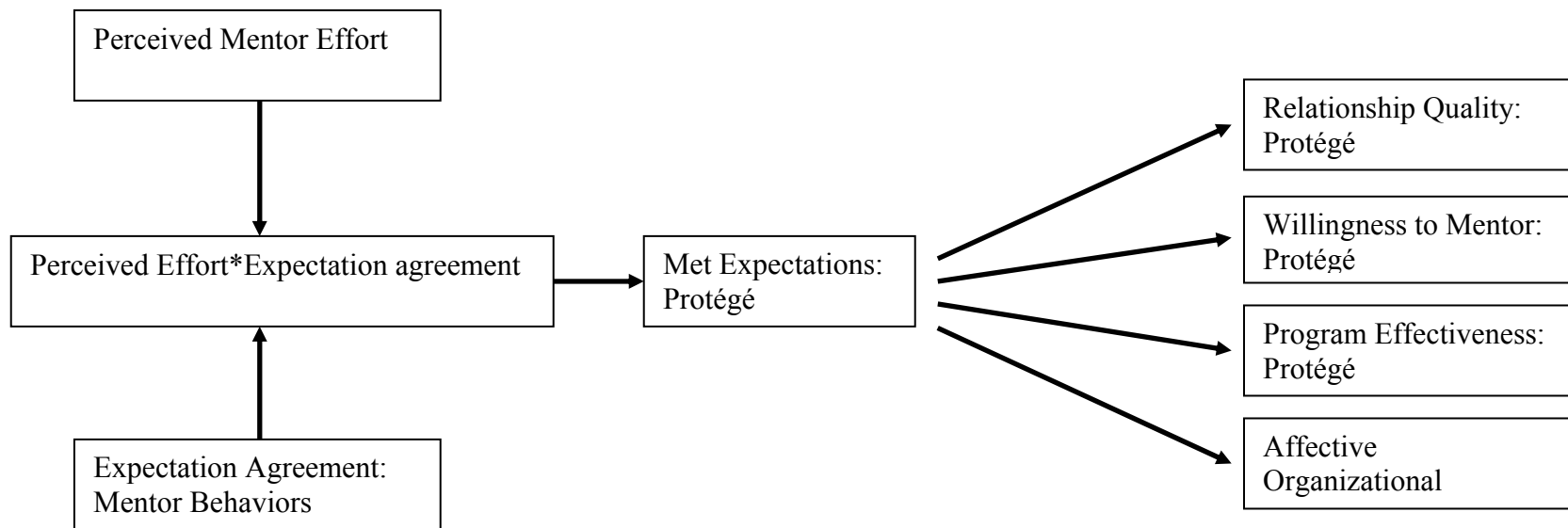


Figure 2. Conceptual Model of the Relationship between Expectation Agreement and Affective Outcome Variables for Protégés.

CHAPTER 2

PILOT STUDY

Since very little research exists on protégé and mentor role behaviors, a pilot study was conducted in order to determine the applicability of Kram's (1985) classification of mentoring functions (i.e., career support and psychosocial support) to an examination of mentors' and protégés' expectations for mentor and protégé role behaviors in an organizational setting.

Method

Survey participants included 20 protégés (40% male, 60% female) and 10 mentors (30% male, 70% female) who responded to an invitation to participate in a formal mentoring program, but were not yet assigned a mentoring partner. This sample represents 31% of all protégés and 14% of all mentors who agreed to participate in the formal mentoring program. Participants were employed in a large, retail company in the home improvement market, and all participants were either employed in the Human Resources or Operations & Logistics department.

Of the 20 protégés, 75% were Caucasian, 20% were Asian, and 5% were African American; whereas 90% of the mentors were Caucasian and 10% were Asian. As expected, most of the protégés were in non-managerial jobs (90%), while the mentors were split more evenly between manager (40%), senior manager (20%), and director level (40%) positions. In terms of education level, 60% of mentors had a bachelor's degree or higher, while the minimum education level for protégés was a high school degree (10%); however, a similar percentage of mentors (30%) and protégés (35%) held a MS/MBA degree. This is most likely due to the fact

that minimum job requirements for education level have increased over the last 5 years, and employees in non-managerial positions often have advanced degrees.

Participants filled out an online survey that took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Two items were included on the mentoring program's online questionnaire to assess employees' expectations for the mentor and protégé role ("What roles and responsibilities do you expect the mentor to have in the relationship?" and "What roles and responsibilities do you expect the protégé to have in the relationship?"). Completion of certain items listed on the questionnaire were required for participation in the mentoring program, however, these 2 items were optional and solicited a lower response rate. Participants responded to these open-ended questions using a text box that appeared directly below the question, and response length was unlimited.

As part of the formal mentoring program, letters were sent to employees who met the eligibility requirements, which were high performance ratings and organizational tenure of at least 6 months. The letter congratulated participants on their eligibility and invited them to sign up for the mentoring program using an online form. As part of the sign-up process, participants were asked to answer 7 questions for the explicit purpose of gathering information to use when matching protégés with mentors. Two open-ended questions were included to capture data relevant for the pilot. Data from these items were content analyzed to determine key themes for, a) expected protégé behaviors from the mentor perspective, b) expected protégé behaviors from the protégé perspective, c) expected mentor behaviors from the mentor perspective, and d) expected mentor behaviors from the protégé perspective.

Results and Discussion

Results of the content analysis are shown in Table 1. By and large, expected behaviors reported by the mentors and protégés are consistent with Kram's (1985) original taxonomy.

Themes related to protégé and mentor role behaviors (as reported by protégés and mentors) mapped onto the two broad categories of mentoring functions: career-related support and psychosocial support.

In terms of expected career-related mentor behaviors, *professional development* was the most frequently cited theme (19% of protégés, 15% of mentors), while the least frequently cited themes were *goal-setting* (2% of protégés, 5% of mentors) and *accept feedback* (2% of protégés, 0% of mentors). In terms of expected psychosocial mentor behaviors, *provide honest feedback* and *general guidance* were frequently cited by protégés (15% and 9% respectively) and by mentors (10% and 15% respectively). The least frequently cited theme was *maintain confidentiality* (2% of protégés, 5% of mentors).

The most frequently mentioned themes for career-related protégé behaviors describe being responsive (*responsive to professional development*, 28% of protégés; *responsive to development*, 24% of mentors) and demonstrating *commitment to the relationship* (15% of protégés, 28% of mentors). Protégés mentioned the theme, *share professional experiences*, the least (9%); whereas mentors made no comments related to that theme. Similarly, protégés did not make any comments relevant to the theme representing mentors' fewest comments about protégé career-related support (*clearly communicate relationship goals*, 20%). In terms of psychosocial protégé behaviors, both mentors and protégés mentioned the theme, *accept feedback*, most frequently (11% of protégés, 16% of mentors). Protégés also mentioned *open, honest communication* with the highest frequency (11%). The least frequently cited theme across mentors and protégés was *maintain confidentiality* (2% of protégés, 4% of mentors).

Themes for expected protégé and mentor role behaviors were fairly consistent across protégés and mentors; however, several qualitative differences exist which indicate that there

may be disagreements on expectations between a mentor and protégé in a given dyad. An examination of themes for expected mentor behaviors reveals three key differences between protégés' and mentors' responses. First, protégés emphasized sharing in the context of career-related support (e.g., "I would like for my mentor to share with me the successes and pitfalls encountered while reaching and maintaining current status") and psychosocial support (e.g., "I would like the mentor to share his/her perspective"); whereas mentors mentioned sharing only in the context of work-related experiences and information (e.g., "provide insight and institutional knowledge"). Second, only mentors mentioned the theme, *exposure/networking* (12%), which refers to exposing protégés to other resources, individuals, and departments in the organization that could provide value to protégés' development. Finally, only 5% of the mentors mentioned career development and advancement as compared to 15% of the protégés. In addition, mentors' comments related to this theme were qualitatively much more general (i.e., "career pathing", "career guidance") than protégés' comments (e.g., "to assess my qualities as a professional to determine career opportunities", "navigate the corporate structure").

When comparing protégés' and mentors' responses regarding expected protégé behaviors, it is clear that both groups make comments related to communication and commitment to the relationship, though qualitative differences do exist. Similar to findings for expected mentor behaviors, protégés discuss sharing in the context of both career-related and psychosocial support; in contrast, mentors do not indicate that they would expect the protégé to share professional or personal experiences. Rather, mentors report that they expect protégés to clearly communicate, especially regarding goals and expectations for the relationship (e.g., "ability to clearly define what he or she wants from a career", "clearly drive expectations for the relationship"). In terms of commitment to the relationship, protégés' comments did not differ

between expected protégé behaviors and expected mentor behaviors. For both roles, protégés described keeping and attending meetings, being available to meet, etc. In contrast, mentors in this sample expect protégés to take initiative and manage the relationship (e.g., “to manage the administration of the relationship (e.g., scheduling meetings)”, “driving the relationship”, “plan meetings and be prompt”); whereas, they expect those in the mentor role to hold up their end of the bargain – one that the protégé develops and drives (e.g., “be prompt for meetings”, “provide uninterrupted time and attention to the protégé”).

Overall, these results demonstrate a close approximation to Kram’s (1985) taxonomy of mentoring functions, providing justification for adapting Young and Perrewé’s (2000) measure on expected protégé and mentor role behaviors for use in the primary study. In addition, the findings of this pilot study guided scale revision in order to ensure that items comprehensively addressed all expected behaviors for protégé and mentor roles.

Table 1

Themes for Expected Mentor and Protégé Behaviors from the Perspective of Mentors and Protégés. N indicates the total number of distinct comments in that category. () indicates number of distinct comments for that theme.

	Protégés' Responses	Mentors' Responses
Expected Mentor Behavior	<u>Career-Related Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Professional development 19% (10) ▪ Career development & advancement 15% (8) ▪ Commitment to the relationship 9% (5) ▪ Share professional experiences 6% (3) ▪ Goal-setting 2% (1) ▪ Accept feedback 2% (1) 	<u>Career-Related Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Professional development 15% (6) ▪ Exposure/networking 12% (5) ▪ Commitment to the relationship 10% (4) ▪ Share information 10% (4) ▪ Career development & advancement 5% (2) ▪ Goal-setting 5% (2)
	<u>Psychosocial Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Provide honest feedback 15% (8) ▪ Share personal experiences 11% (6) ▪ General guidance 9% (5) ▪ Personal development & support 6% (3) ▪ Sounding Board/active listening 6% (3) ▪ Maintain Confidentiality 2% (1) 	<u>Psychosocial Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ General guidance 15% (6) ▪ Provide honest feedback 10% (4) ▪ Sounding board/active listening 10% (4) ▪ Personal development & support 5% (2) ▪ Maintain Confidentiality 5% (2)
	N = 54	N = 41
Expected Protégé Behavior	<u>Career-Related Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Responsive to professional development 28% (13) ▪ Commitment to the relationship 15% (7) ▪ Sharing professional experiences 9% (4) 	<u>Career-Related Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Commitment to the relationship 28% (7) ▪ Responsive to development 24% (6) ▪ Clearly communicate goals for relationship 20% (5)
	<u>Psychosocial Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Open, honest communication 11% (5) ▪ Accept feedback 11% (5) ▪ Share 9% (4) ▪ Active listening 9% (4) ▪ Responsive to general advice 7% (3) ▪ Maintain Confidentiality 2% (1) 	<u>Psychosocial Support</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Accept feedback 16% (4) ▪ Clearly communicate 8% (2) ▪ Maintain Confidentiality 4% (1)
	N = 46	N=25

CHAPTER 3

METHOD (PRIMARY STUDY)

Participants

The same organization served as the data collection site for the pilot and primary studies. All participants worked at a large retail company specializing in home improvement products and services and were involved in the organization's formal mentoring program.

The formal mentoring program was in its second year and spanned five business units (i.e., Human Resources, Operations, Merchandising, Logistics, and Marketing) to allow for cross-functional dyads. Participation in this program as either a mentor or protégé was limited to employees who achieved a high rating on the following performance criteria: leadership ability, job performance, and potential for advancement. These criteria were designed to brand the mentoring program as a career development opportunity for top performers so that business leaders would be more willing to invest time and effort to participate in the program as a mentor based on the fact that, a) protégés have demonstrated a high level of ability, and b) participation as a mentor should be viewed as meritorious. The program was designed to provide career guidance, learning, and networking opportunities for protégés. The structural components of the program included a matching process, protégé orientation, mentor training, monthly newsletters, mentor/protégé socials, informational sessions, and kickoff and graduation events to mark the beginning and end of the mentoring relationship. Ten employees, directors or vice-presidents in Human Resources and Operations, were selected to serve on a Mentoring Advisory Council to

assist in decision-making related to the matching process, evaluation efforts, and mentoring events.

Data were collected twice, once in December 2005 and again in August 2006 in order to obtain data from at least 100 mentoring dyads. In 2005, the survey was sent to 133 employees representing 83 mentoring dyads. Eighty-two associates (42 protégés, 40 mentors) completed the survey for a response rate of 62%. Only data from matched dyads could be utilized in the present study; therefore, the final sample from the 2005 program was comprised of 26 mentors (42% female) and 26 protégés (50% female). The mentoring program was expanded in 2006 to include additional business units (i.e., Logistics, Merchandising, Marketing); hence, the survey was sent to 458 mentoring program participants in August 2006, representing 220 dyads. Of that group, 222 employees (97 mentors, 125 protégés) responded for a response rate of 48%. This is a conservative response rate, because the mentoring program's records as of August were not updated to account for attrition or mentoring relationship termination. Again, protégé and mentor data were matched resulting in a final sample of 132 participants (63 protégés, 69 mentors) in the 2006 program, representing 80 mentors (46% female) and 80 protégés (64% female).

In summary, analyses are based on matched data from protégés and mentors in 106 formal mentoring relationships that occurred either during the 2005 program (24.5%) or the 2006 program (75.5%). Of the 106 formal mentoring pairs, 75 (71%) involved a mentor and protégé of the same sex (35 male-male dyads, 40 female-female dyads) and 31 (29%) involved cross-sex relationships (8 male protégés with female mentors, 23 female protégés with male mentors).

Overall, the sample consisted of 89 females (55 protégés and 34 mentors) and 87 males (37 protégés and 50 mentors). A comparison of mentor and protégé demographics is presented in Table 2. A majority of the sample was Caucasian (82%), followed by 10% African-American,

4% Asian-Pacific Islander, 3% Hispanic, and 1% Native American. The mentor sample consisted of a higher percentage of minority employees (22%) than the protégé sample (16%), with African-Americans accounting for the highest percentage of minorities in both samples (7.7% of protégés, 12.5% of mentors). Participants ranged in age from 25 to 62 ($\bar{X} = 39$ years), with mentors reporting a higher mean age ($\bar{X} = 42$ years) than protégés ($\bar{X} = 37$ years). Similarly, mentors reported a higher average job tenure ($\bar{X} = 22$ months) and organizational tenure ($\bar{X} = 94$ months) than protégés (job tenure, $\bar{X} = 18$ months; organizational tenure, $\bar{X} = 82$ months). As expected, all mentors were in a managerial role (17% manager, 21% senior manager, 40% Director, 18% VP and above), whereas 34% of the protégés were in a non-managerial role and 66% were in a managerial role (31% manager, 18% senior manager, 14% Director). Further, mentors had been promoted more times on average ($\bar{X} = 7$) than protégés ($\bar{X} = 6$ promotions). In terms of education level, a higher percentage of mentors held a bachelors degree (46%) or graduate degree (34%) compared to protégés (40% and 25%, respectively).

Mentors and protégés reported on their past mentoring experience and characteristics related to their formal mentoring relationship. Mentors reported a higher number of past mentoring relationships ($\bar{X} = 5.24$) than protégés ($\bar{X} = 2.38$), though the range was fairly broad in both the mentor (0 to 20) and protégé (0 to 15) samples. Considering that participants are in matched dyads, you would expect that the duration of the formal mentoring relationships and frequency of interaction reported by the protégés and mentors would be the same, however there are slight differences most likely due to human error in estimation. According to the protégés' responses, the average length of these relationships was 7.2 months (SD = 3.6 months), whereas mentors reported an average of 7.5 months (SD = 3.3). While a mentoring relationship in its 7th month is generally considered to be in the initiation phase based on research on informal

mentorships (Kram, 1985; Chao, 1997), it is likely that the relationships in the current study had reached a more advanced phase (e.g., cultivation) given that formal relationships typically last 1 year (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). When asked about the frequency of interaction with their mentor, protégés reported an average of 1.1 hours of interaction per month with their mentor ($SD = .95$), while mentors reported an average of 1.4 hours of interaction per month.

Measures: Independent Variables

All survey items are presented in Appendix A. Protégés and mentors completed all measures, except the measure of affective organizational commitment, which was completed by protégés only.

Instructions were provided so that mentors and protégés reported on general expectations for mentor and protégé behaviors, and not expectations regarding behaviors expected of themselves and the other dyad member in their current mentoring relationship. This is an important distinction because the purpose of this measure was to assess participants' standards for mentor and protégé roles in terms of behaviors. Having participants respond to these items with a particular mentoring relationship in mind was intended to capture expectations based on the idiosyncrasies of that relationship rather than what the participant expected as a general standard.

The four measures of expected behaviors were based on a measure of mentor and protégé role behaviors developed and utilized by Young and Perrewé (2000). It is important to note that these items were originally developed for mentors and protégés to report the frequency of behaviors actually demonstrated in a current mentoring relationship; therefore, the items and response scales were modified so that items assessed expectations. For example, an item from

the original scale (Young & Perrewé, 2000), “To nominate the protégé for promotions, awards, or professional opportunities” was changed to, “I expect a mentor to nominate his/her protégé for promotions, awards, or professional opportunities” and the 7-point frequency scale (1 = Never; 7 = Frequently) was changed to a 5-point agreement scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). In addition, items were added based on results of the pilot study to improve content validity. These revisions were conducted on items included in each of the expected behaviors measures described below.

Six items from Young and Perrewé’s (2000) 7-item measure of career-related mentor behaviors ($\alpha = .90$) were utilized in the current study. Two of the six items were revised to ensure relevance to the sample. A reference to “projects” constrained the meaning of one item (“To assign or nominate the protégé for prestigious or professionally useful projects valued by the organization”), so it was reworded to make it applicable to protégés whose work is not project-based (“I expect a mentor to provide opportunities and resources for professional development”). Another item referred to technical knowledge, and the item was revised to expand the meaning to include technical knowledge, skills and performance.

Furthermore, based on results of the pilot study, six items were added to Young and Perrewé’s (2000) measure in order to ensure that expectations mentioned by both protégés and mentors in the pilot study were captured. Therefore, new items were added to assess expectations related to career development and advancement (“I expect a mentor to assist the protégé in determining an appropriate career path”), professional development (“I expect a mentor to help determine strengths and areas of opportunity for development”), sharing (“I expect a mentor to share professional experiences, challenges, and lessons learned with the protégé”), commitment to the relationship (“I expect a mentor to provide the protégé uninterrupted time and attention

during meetings”, “I expect a mentor to follow through on commitments to the protégé”), and goal-setting (“I expect a mentor to help set achievable goals for the protégé”). The final scale was comprised of 12 items.

In order to assess psychosocial mentor behaviors, Young and Perrewé (2000) utilized a 6-item measure and reported a coefficient alpha of .89. Five items were added to their measure based on results of the pilot study resulting in a final set of 11 items. These items assess expectations related to open, honest feedback (“I expect a mentor to provide the protégé with open, honest feedback”), sharing (“I expect a mentor to share personal experiences and insight”), personal development and support (“I expect a mentor to provide encouragement and support”), general guidance, (“I expect a mentor to provide objective guidance and advice”), and serving as a sounding board (“I expect a mentor to actively listen to his/her protégé and to serve as a sounding board for any issues or concerns”).

Seven items were utilized in Young and Perrewé’s (2000) study to measure career-related protégé behaviors and the reported alpha value was .84. Four items were revised to broaden the meaning of the item and ensure relevance to the sample. For example, three items referencing “projects” were revised to reference tasks or job in order to broaden the meaning of the item (e.g., “I expect a protégé to put forth discretionary effort beyond that required by his/her position in the organization”). In addition, one item that used the phrase “at the mentor’s request”, was revised to read “as suggested by the mentor” because mentors may be more likely to make suggestions than requests, especially when the mentor is not also the protégé’s supervisor. Finally, one item was revised because it encompassed the themes, sharing and responsiveness, making it a double-barreled item. The reference to responsiveness was deleted due to overlap with another item; however, the reference to sharing was kept due to the fact that

it represented a different instance of sharing than what was described in the other items on the scale (“I expect a protégé to provide information about current projects which may be problematic”). In addition, five items were added to the measure based on results of the pilot study. The items assess expectations related to sharing (“I expect a protégé to share information about current performance as well as professional goals and objectives”), clear communication of relationship goals (“I expect a protégé to clearly communicate what he/she wants to achieve during the mentoring relationship”), commitment to the relationship (“I expect a protégé to manage the relationship (e.g., schedule meetings)”), and responsiveness (“I expect a protégé to develop and maintain a development plan and to work towards goals”, “I expect a protégé to follow through on the mentor’s coaching and professional development opportunities”). The final scale included 13 items.

The 6-item measure utilized by Young and Perrewé (2000) serves as the basis for items assessing career-related protégé behaviors ($\alpha = .75$). Three items were added to the measure based on results of the pilot study for a total of 9 items on the final scale. The items assess expectations related to sharing (“I expect a protégé to share personal experiences, perspectives, and ideas”), open, honest feedback (“I expect a protégé to be open and honest with his/her mentor”), accepting feedback (“I expect a protégé to demonstrate openness to his/her mentor’s feedback, suggestions, advice, and ideas”).

The degree to which protégés and mentors agree on key role behaviors for each member was measured using weighted kappa (Cohen, 1968). For each dyad, weighted kappa was calculated for, a) career-related mentor behaviors, b) psychosocial mentor behaviors, c) career-related protégé behaviors, and d) psychosocial protégé behaviors. Cohen’s (1960; 1968) kappa statistic evaluates agreement by comparing the variance obtained from raters’ responses to the

“variance one might obtain if the ratings were entirely due to random measurement error”

(LeBreton, Burgess, & Kaiser, 2003, p. 87).

Measures: Moderator and Mediator

Protégés' and mentors' perception of the other member's level of effort invested in the relationship was measured using a single item developed by Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) (protégés' item: “How much effort has your mentor put into developing a good relationship with you?”; mentors' item: “How much effort has your protégé put into developing a good relationship with you?”). Participants answered the items using a 5-point scale (1 = none at all; 5 = a great deal). This item demonstrated a test-retest reliability of .76 when subordinates responded to this item in reference to their manager's effort (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001).

Although single item measures have received criticism related to several measurement issues, such as the inability to calculate estimates of internal consistency reliability and attenuated correlations with scale measures (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997), a recent study (Nagy, 2002) found that a single item-measure of facet satisfaction based on the Job Descriptive Index compared favorably to multiple-item measure of the same construct. These findings provided further support for Wanous et al. (1997), argument that “if the construct being measured is sufficiently narrow or is unambiguous to the respondent, a single item may suffice” (p.247).

The extent to which mentors' and protégés' expectations were met was measured using 2 items developed by Young and Perrewé (2000) (e.g., “So far, I have received what I expected to receive from the relationship”). Participants responded to the items using a 5-point scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5).

Measures: Dependent Variables

Mentors' and protégés' perceptions of relationship quality were assessed using 5 items developed by Allen and Eby (2003) (e.g., "I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my protégé/mentor and I have developed"). Items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree) with higher scores indicating a higher quality mentoring relationship.

Four items, measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree), were included to measure the extent to which protégés and mentors are willing to mentor in the future (e.g., "I would like to be a mentor") (Ragins & Scandura, 1994).

A 7-item measure was adopted from a study conducted by Allen, Eby, and Lentz (2006) to measure mentors' and protégés' attitudes regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring program (e.g., "I believe the company's formal mentoring program is very effective", "There appears to be considerable support for the mentoring program from top management").

A measure of affective organizational commitment was adopted from a study conducted by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). Protégés responded to these 6 items in reference to their current organization using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree) (e.g., "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization").

Measures: Potential Covariates

Variables considered to be potential covariates were measured using either survey items or archival data. Demographic and work experience variables were obtained from a Human Resources database and consisted of the following: gender (coded 1 = male, 2 = female), age (reported in years), race (coded 1 = Caucasian, 2 = African-American, 3 = Asian/Pacific Islander, 4 = Hispanic, 5 = Native American, 6 = Other), organizational tenure (reported in

months), job tenure (reported in months), job level (coded 1 = non-manager, 2 = manager, 3 = senior manager, 4 = Director, 4 = vice-president, 5 = senior vice president and above), and educational attainment (coded 1 = high school diploma, 2 = Associate's degree, 3 = Bachelors degree, 4 = Masters degree, 5 = PhD). Aspects of mentoring experience were chosen for inclusion in the current study based on research demonstrating their impact to relationship outcomes (Noe, 1988). This information was collected using survey items, and include the duration of the mentoring relationship (reported in months) (Ragins & Cotton, 1999), past mentoring experience (operationalized as the number of mentoring relationships he/she has been involved in prior to the current mentoring relationship) (Allen & Eby, 2004; Fagenson-Eland, Marks, & Amendola, 1997), and the frequency of interaction (operationalized as the average number of hours spent with the mentor/protégé per month) (Mullen, 1998).

Potential covariates that demonstrated high correlations with the dependent variables and low intercorrelations were used as control variables in the analyses (Neter & Wasserman, 1974). More specifically, the mediator (i.e., met expectations) and outcome variables (e.g., willingness to mentor in the future) were regressed on the selected control variables and subsequent analyses used the residuals of the mediator and outcome variables, after removing the effect of those covariate(s) (Lance, 1986).

Procedure

In order to obtain data from matched dyads, an online survey was administered to participants of the 2005 mentoring program in December 2005, and to the participants of the 2006 mentoring program in August 2006. The same procedure was followed at each point in time.

Executive sponsors of the mentoring program emailed an invitation to each mentor and protégé to participate in the study. The email described the purpose of the study, timeframe, time requirements, and the value of the project to the mentoring program (see Appendix B). The letter of informed consent was attached to this email (see Appendix C). Within 24 hours of the executive sponsor email, the researcher sent an email to each mentor and protégé that included a link to the online survey (Appendix D) and described an incentive to participate in the form of a donation to an internal charitable fund. A descriptive ID was included in the survey link such that the mentor and protégé in a given dyad had the same ID, and each dyad was assigned a different ID. This allowed the researcher to match data from a mentor and protégé in the same dyad.

Mentors and protégés were allowed 2 weeks to complete the survey. Following Dillman's (2000) suggestion, for those participants who did not complete the survey, reminder emails were distributed 1 week after the initial email (see Appendix E) and 2 days prior to the survey completion deadline (see Appendix F), with the survey link attached to each reminder.

Within 1 week after the final deadline, all mentoring program participants received an email reporting the final response rate for the study and the amount donated to the internal charitable fund. The response rate was aggregated across the 2 data collection events and was used to calculate the final donation to the internal charity. As a result, the final donation amount was 51% of the potential donation amount of \$500, or \$255.00.

Table 2

Comparison between Mentor and Protégé Characteristics. Mean values reported.

Variable	Mentors	Protégés
Age	42 years	37 years
Job Tenure	22 months	18 months
Organizational Tenure	94 months	82 months
# Promotions	7 promotions	6 promotions
Prior Relationships	5 relationships	2 relationships
Relationship Length	7.2 months	7.5 months
Interaction Time	1.4 hours/months	1.1 hours/month

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Expected Mentor and Protégé Behaviors: Reliability Analysis and CFA

Internal consistency was evaluated for items measuring the Expected Mentor Behaviors (EMB) scales and for items measuring the Expected Protégé Behaviors (EPB) scales, using the total sample, protégé sample, and mentor sample. An item was deleted if it had a low corrected item-total correlation (i.e., $<.30$) or if deletion of the item resulted in an appreciable increase in coefficient alpha for the sub-scale (Mallard & Lance, 1998). Coefficient alpha values for the EMB and EPB scales were above the generally accepted cut-off of $.70$, indicating a modest reliability (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). An exception was the coefficient alpha for the expected mentor career development behaviors based on the mentor sample ($\alpha = .66$). In addition, while reliability was generally acceptable for the EPB scales, one item was deleted from the Expected Protégé Career Development Behaviors scale due to a low item-total correlation (i.e., $<.20$). The specific item deleted from this scale is indicated in Appendix A.

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using LISREL 8.2 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) to assess the fit of a 2-factor model on the EMB and EPB scales using protégé and mentor data. CFA was considered appropriate given that the expected behaviors dimensions are based on Kram's (1985) established framework for mentoring functions, and the survey items were adapted from a survey validated in previous research (Young & Perrewé, 2000). Results of the CFA can be found in Table 3. The a priori measurement model did not fit the data well. The chi

square was significant for the Expected Mentor Behaviors scale and for the Expected Protégé Behaviors scale using mentor data ($\chi^2 (229) = 307.05, p < .01$; $\chi^2 (188) = 342.44, p < .01$) and protégé data ($\chi^2 (229) = 379.58, p < .01$; $\chi^2 (188) = 366.47, p < .01$). For both scales, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was lower than the .95 value that Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended using mentor and protégé data (CFI values ranged from .73 to .88). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) also demonstrated a poor fit to the data, with all values being well above the recommended value of .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), except for the Expected Mentor Behaviors scale based on the mentor data (RMSEA = .06). Goodness-of-fit indices clearly indicate that the predicted 2-factor model did not demonstrate acceptable fit based on the mentor or protégé data.

Due to the unacceptable fit obtained in the CFA analyses, an EFA was conducted in order to determine the factor structure for each of the expected behaviors scales. Principal component analysis was used as the extraction method with oblimin rotation. Multiple criteria were used to determine the appropriate number of factors to retain in the EFA (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Straham, 1999), to include: parallel analysis (Horn, 1965), Velicer's MAP test (1976), and Cattell's (1966) scree test. Based on the fact that the focal construct is the *agreement* between mentors and protégés, it was necessary to ensure that the final set of items were common to the factor structure based on protégés' and mentors' responses. Therefore, an EFA was conducted separately for the mentor and protégé samples and the resultant factor structures were compared. Only items that loaded on the same factor across mentor and protégé samples were retained.

Expected Protégé Behaviors: EFA

Based on protégé responses, the parallel analysis, MAP test, and scree test suggested that three factors should be retained. The 3-factor solution indicated that eight items loaded on the first factor, five items on the second factor, and five items on the third factor. All items on the first factor aligned to the mirror image of mentors' career development behaviors, to include following through on coaching and suggestions (e.g., "I expected a protégé to follow through on the mentor's coaching and professional development opportunities") and taking initiative to maximize career development received (e.g., "I expect a protégé to request advice or information on projects or strategies about how to enhance his/her ability to achieve objectives, recognition, or career aspirations"). Factor 2 was defined by behaviors corresponding to the psychosocial function in mentoring, such as liking/friendship ("I expect a protégé to like the mentor for who he/she is", "I expect a protégé to interact with the mentor as a friend"), and role modeling (e.g., "I expect a protégé to model professional behavior after the mentor", "I expect a protégé to model personal behavior after the mentor"). Finally, the third factor consisted of a combination of items that were predicted to align to either career development or psychosocial behaviors, and is best described as sharing information ("I expect a protégé to share information about current performance as well as professional goals and objectives", "I expect a protégé to clearly communicate what he/she wants to achieve during the mentoring relationship") and openness in term of being honest ("I expect a protégé to be open and honest with his/her mentor"), open to feedback ("I expect a protégé to demonstrate openness to his/her mentor's feedback, suggestions, and advice and ideas"), and accepting of differences ("I expect a protégé to tolerate differences between him/her and the mentor"). Coefficient alpha values for these factors were .84, .76, and .74 based on the protégé sample.

Based on mentors' data, tests to determine the number of factors to retain offered mixed results. The parallel analysis indicated 2 factors, the MAP test indicated one factor, and the scree test indicated four factors. Although a parallel analysis is considered an upper-bound estimate (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986), results of the scree test suggested that a 3-factor solution may be viable; therefore, an EFA was conducted using principal component analysis with oblimin rotation and specifying three factors (Hakstian, Rogers, & Cattell, 1982).

Similar to the results based on protégé data, Factor 1 is clearly defined by career development behaviors, to include following through, taking initiative, and sharing information. Coefficient alpha for the 10 items comprising the career development factor was .81. Four items demonstrated significant loadings on Factor 2, which consists of items hypothesized to define psychosocial behaviors. Reliability analysis led to the deletion of one item ("I expect a protégé to like the mentor for who he/she is") based on its corrected item-total correlation of .29 and the resulting increase of coefficient alpha from .63 to .66 (Mallard & Lance, 1998). The remaining three items described psychosocial behaviors related to friendship and role modeling. Finally, similar to the third factor based on protégé data, Factor 3 was defined by psychosocial behaviors; however, this factor was more narrowly defined by 3 items describing honesty, openness to feedback, and accepting of differences between the protégé and mentor. A fourth item did have a significant loading on Factor 3, but was deleted based on the reliability analysis; coefficient alpha for the final 3 items was .67.

Due to the fact that the focal construct is mentor-protégé agreement, the final set of items defining each of the three factors comprising Expected Protégé Behaviors were those that loaded onto the same factor based on mentor and protégé data (see Table 4). As a result, the final Expected Protégé Behaviors measure included a 7-item Career Development scale, and two 3-

item Psychosocial scales, one describing role modeling and friendship, and the second measuring honesty and openness. The coefficient alpha value for each scale based on the mentor sample is .76, .66, and .67 respectively; whereas coefficient alpha values based on the protégé sample are .84, .68, and .64 respectively.

Expected Mentor Behaviors: EFA

Based on the protégé data, the parallel analysis and scree test indicated two factors should be retained; whereas the MAP test indicated three factors should be retained. Two factors were retained in the EFA given that, (a) 2 of the 3 tests were supportive of this solution, (b) the parallel test should be considered an upper-bound estimate (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986; Glorfeld, 1995; Zwick & Velicer, 1986), and (c) perhaps most important, a 2-factor solution aligns to the theoretical framework for mentoring (Kram, 1985). Each of the 2 factors represented a combination of items describing career development and items describing psychosocial behaviors. Four items were deleted due to either cross-loadings or loadings of less than .40 on both factors (Ford et al., 1986). The first factor was comprised of 15 items and can be defined as a true hybrid of career development and psychosocial behaviors, ranging from commitment, job coaching, and career advancement/goal-setting to liking, role modeling, serving as a sounding board, and providing encouragement/support/advice. Coefficient alpha for the Factor 1 was .84. The second factor consisted of 4 items initially, but one item was deleted (“I expect a mentor to interact with the protégé as a friend”) based on a corrected item-total correlation of .29 and subsequent increase in coefficient alpha from .65 to .68. The remaining three items described a specific type of career development, namely sponsorship and protection, which describe mentor behaviors that are the most visible to others in the organization (e.g.,

nomination for promotions, awards, or professional opportunities, helping to build the protégé's network, helping to reduce effects of organizational politics).

Based on the parallel analysis results, two factors were retained in the EFA using the mentor data. The MAP and scree tests both indicated a 1-factor solution, however, the MAP test has a tendency to under-estimate the number of factors when it is incorrect and parallel analysis is more robust than the scree test (Glorfeld, 1995; Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004; Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006; Zwick & Velicer, 1986). Six items were removed because they did not load onto either factor with a value of at least .40 (Ford et al., 1986). Factor 1 consisted of 12 items, and similar to the factor structure based on protégé data, this set of items represented a cross-section of career development and psychosocial behaviors. Coefficient alpha for Factor 1 was .79. Five items comprised the second factor, which was also very similar in nature to the second factor using protégé data. These items described sponsorship and protection using the same 3 items, but it also included job coaching ("I expect a mentor to provide opportunities and resources for professional development") and being open to differences between the mentor and protégé. Coefficient alpha for Factor 2 was .61.

Using the reasoning described earlier, the final set of items defining each of the two factors comprising Expected Mentor Behaviors were those that loaded onto the same factor based on mentor and protégé data (see Table 5). As a result, the final Expected Mentor Behaviors measure included an 11-item Psychosocial scale, and a 3-item Career Development scale, specific to sponsorship and protection. The coefficient alpha value for each scale based on the mentor sample is .78 and .56 respectively; whereas coefficient alpha values based on the protégé sample are .79 and .68 respectively.

Mentor-Protégé Expectation Agreement

Mentor-protégé expectation agreement was calculated using weighted kappa (Cohen, 1968) for each of the 106 dyads based on the mentor's and protégé's responses to the final scales measuring Expected Mentor Behaviors and Expected Protégé Behaviors (see Tables 4 and 5). Weighted kappa values were obtained using weights that are similar in form to Cicchetti and Allison (1971), which is the default type in SAS 2.1, the software package utilized. SAS 2.1 cannot derive weighted kappa for non-square data, which occurs when raters do not use the same response options. For instance, if one rater uses all of the response options and the other rater does not, then kappa will not be calculated. In order to avoid this problem, very small weights, or pseudo-observations, were inserted for every response option not chosen by a rater. This method forces a square table so that weighted kappa can be calculated.

The weighted kappa values were then corrected for unreliability in the Expected Protégé Behaviors scales and Expected Mentor Behaviors scales using the formula, $\hat{k} = k / [(\sqrt{r_{AA}})(\sqrt{r_{BB}})]$. The corrected weighted kappa values were used in all subsequent analyses for mentor-protégé agreement; there were 3 mentor-protégé agreement scales for protégé behaviors and 2 mentor-protégé agreement scales for mentor behaviors.

Covariate Analysis

Variables included in the study as potential covariates were correlated with the mediator and outcome variables in order to identify what variables should be controlled. Results are presented in Table 6 for protégé data and in Table 7 for mentor data. Each study variable was regressed on the set of relevant covariates and the residualized variables were used in the regression analyses. This was done in order to examine relationships among the study variables,

while controlling for the effects of personal demographics, job characteristics, and aspects of the mentoring relationship that were significantly correlated to those variables.

Process and Outcome Variables

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to verify that each scale measuring relationship quality, program effectiveness, willingness to mentor, and organizational commitment (protégé sample only) are unidimensional. Results of the CFA indicate a 1-factor model for each scale (see Table 8), and supports the use of these scales in the present study.

Means, standard deviations, and relationships among study variables are presented in Table 9 for the protégé sample and in Table 10 for the mentor sample. Values along the diagonal are reliability estimates using coefficient alpha. Based on the reliability analysis, all items were retained for Relationship Quality, Willingness to Mentor, and Organizational Commitment; however one item was deleted from Program Effectiveness (“There appears to be considerable support for the mentoring program from top management”) due to low corrected item-total correlation of .13 in the mentor sample. Given the fact that the mentor and protégé data were obtained from matched pairs, it seemed particularly relevant to examine the correlations between protégé responses and mentor responses for the study variables. Results are presented in Table 11, and show that there are no significant correlations between mentor and protégé reports of perceived effort, met expectations, relationship quality, willingness to mentor in the future, or program effectiveness.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses 1 and 2 predicted that mentor-protégé agreement would be positively related to met expectations for the mentor and protégé. No support was found for these hypotheses based on an examination of the significant correlations (see Table 9 and 10). For protégés, met

expectations did not significantly correlate with agreement on mentors' psychosocial behaviors ($r = -.02, p = .82$) or with agreement on mentors' career development behaviors ($r = -.04, p = .70$). Similarly, mentors' met expectations were not significantly correlated with protégés' career development behaviors ($r = -.13, p = .18$), role modeling/friendship ($r = .00, p = .99$), or openness ($r = -.16, p = .11$).

Hypotheses 3 (mentor sample) and 4 (protégé sample) predicted that perceived effort would moderate the relationship between agreement and met expectations such that a higher level of perceived protégé effort strengthens the relationship. These hypotheses were tested using a series of regressions outlined by Lance (1988). For each scale of expected behaviors, the cross-product term (i.e., perceived effort X expectation agreement) was regressed onto its component parts and the unstandardized residuals of the interaction term were saved (d_{x1x2}). The mediator (i.e., met expectations) was then regressed onto the residualized interaction term, perceived effort, and expectation agreement. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 12 for the mentor sample and 13 for the protégé sample. The regression coefficient for the interaction term was not significant for mentors or protégés across for the five scales of expectation agreement; thus, no support was found for hypotheses 3 and 4.

Tests for mediated moderation (hypotheses 5, 7, 9 for the mentor sample and hypotheses 6, 8, 10, 11 for the protégé sample) were conducted using the methodology described by Lance (1988). While the lack of support for hypotheses 3 and 4 indicates that the interaction term, perceived effort X agreement, does not predict met expectations for the protégés or mentors, tests for mediated moderation were conducted in order to better understand the relationships among study variables. The first set of analyses examined the relationships among the outcome variables and the mediator. To test the non-zero hypotheses, each outcome variable was regressed on met

expectations and the unstandardized residuals were saved (d_Y). To test the non-zero hypotheses, those residuals (d_Y) were then regressed on agreement, perceived effort, and the residual of the interaction term ($d_{X_1X_2}$). The second set of analyses examined the relationships among agreement, perceived effort, the residual of the interaction term, and the mediator. Non-zero hypotheses were tested by regressing met expectations on the residual of the interaction term, $d_{X_1X_2}$. Unstandardized residuals from that regression were saved (d_{X_3}) and then regressed on agreement and perceived effort to test to the zero hypotheses. Results of these analyses are presented in Tables 14, 15, and 16 for the mentor sample and in Tables 17 and 18 for the protégé sample. In addition, results are visually depicted in Figures 3 - 5 for the mentor sample and in Figures 6 - 7 for the protégé sample. Results of tests for mediated moderation did not provide support for hypotheses 5, 7, 9 for the mentor sample and hypotheses 6, 8, 10, 11 for the protégé sample. More specifically, met expectations did not mediate the relationship between agreement and relationship quality, willingness to mentor, program effectiveness, or organizational commitment (protégé sample only) for mentors or protégés.

Table 3

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis Specifying 2 Factors for the Expected Mentor Behaviors Scale and the Expected Protégé Behaviors Scale. SRMSR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index.

Source	Survey	Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	SRMSR	RMSEA	CFI
Mentor	Expected Mentor Behaviors	1 st order CFA, 2 factors	229	307.05 p < .01	.09	.06	.88
Mentor	Expected Protégé Behaviors	1 st order CFA, 2 factors	188	342.44 p < .01	.11	.10	.73
Protégé	Expected Mentor Behaviors	1 st order CFA, 2 factors	229	379.58 p < .01	.10	.08	.80
Protégé	Expected Protégé Behaviors	1 st order CFA, 2 factors	188	366.47 p < .01	.10	.10	.87

Table 4

Expected Protégé Behaviors: EFA Results and Final Scale Items

ITEM	CAREER DEVELOPMENT		PSYCHOSOCIAL: ROLE MODELING / FRIENDSHIP		PSYCHOSOCIAL: HONESTY / OPENNESS	
	Mentor 1	Protégé 1	Mentor 2	Protégé 2	Mentor 3	Protégé 3
I expect a protégé to follow through on the mentor's coaching and professional development opportunities.	.69	.70	---	---	---	---
I expect a protégé to show interest in prestigious or professionally useful tasks, committees, or projects valued by the organization.	.63	.71	---	---	---	---
I expect a protégé to develop and maintain a development plan and to work towards goals.	.70	.71	---	---	---	---
I expect a protégé to put forth discretionary effort beyond that required by his/her position in the organization.	.44	.64	---	---	---	---
I expect a protégé to put forth effort in attending training or other professional development activities suggested by the mentor.	.79	.65	---	---	---	---
I expect a protégé to accept or request challenging tasks which enhance his/her technical knowledge.	.57	.79	---	---	---	---
I expect a protégé to provide information about current projects which may be problematic.	.46	.65	---	---	---	---
I expect a protégé to model personal behavior after the mentor.	---	---	.53	.58	---	---
I expect a protégé to interact with the mentor as a friend.	---	---	.68	.78	---	---
I expect a protégé to model professional behavior after the mentor.	---	---	.75	.64	---	---
I expect a protégé to be open and honest with his/her mentor.	---	---	---	---	.77	.62
I expect a protégé to demonstrate openness to his/her mentor's feedback, suggestions, advice and ideas.	---	---	---	---	.71	.66
I expect a protégé to tolerate differences between him/her and the mentor.	---	---	---	---	.72	.70

Table 5

Expected Mentor Behaviors: EFA Results and Final Scale Items

ITEM	PSYCHOSOCIAL: ENGAGEMENT / GUIDANCE		CAREER DEV: SPONSORSHIP / PROTECTION	
	Mentor 1	Protégé 1	Mentor 2	Protégé 2
I expect a mentor to follow through on commitments to the protégé.	.52	.45	---	---
I expect a mentor to provide the protégé uninterrupted time and attention during meetings.	.53	.52	---	---
I expect a mentor to share professional experiences, challenges, and lessons learned with the protégé.	.59	.67	---	---
I expect a mentor to help set achievable goals for the protégé.	.43	.62	---	---
I expect a mentor to share personal experiences and insight.	.51	.45	---	---
I expect a mentor to conduct himself/herself in a professional manner.	.55	.59	---	---
I expect a mentor to provide the protégé with open, honest feedback.	.66	.52	---	---
I expect a mentor to provide encouragement and support.	.65	.67	---	---
I expect a mentor to provide objective guidance and advice.	.70	.63	---	---
I expect a mentor to actively listen to the protégé and to serve as a sounding board for any issues or concerns.	.66	.73	---	---
I expect a mentor to nominate his/her protégé for promotions, awards, or professional opportunities.	---	---	.82	.79
I expect a mentor to make his/her protégé visible to others through verbal or written communication, or personal introduction.	---	---	.71	.65
I expect a mentor to reduce risks or threats to the protégé's advancement by supporting him/her or speaking on the protégé's behalf.	---	---	.49	.75

Table 6

Correlations Between Covariates and Outcome Variables: Protégé Sample. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. N ranges from 88 -106. Promo = number of promotions; Rel Exp = number of prior mentoring relationships; Other Gender = gender of the other dyad member (1 = male, 2 = female); Dyad Comp = sex composition of the dyad coded 1 = same-sex, 2 = cross-sex; Job Level coded 1 = non-manager, 2 = manager, 3 = sr. manager, 4 = director, 5 = VP, 6 = SVP and above; Race is coded 1 = non-minority, 2 = minority; Freq = frequency of interaction with the mentor reported in number of hours/month; Age reported in months; Org Tenure = number of months in the current organization; Job Tenure = number of months in the current job position; Educ level coded 1 = high school, 2= associates , 3 = bachelors, 4 = masters, 5 = PhD; All other variables were assessed with a 5-point Likert scale, so the scale averages have a potential range of 1 to 5 (with higher scores representing higher levels of the construct).

Variable	Promo	Rel Exp	Other Gender	Protégé Gender	Dyad Comp	Job Level	Race	Rel Length	Freq	Age	Org Tenure	Job Tenure	Educ Level
Met Expectations	-.03	-.03	.03	.07	-.11	.01	.06	.14	.30**	-.02	.07	.09	-.07
Relationship Quality	-.12	-.02	-.10	.07	-.25**	.13	.05	.06	.34**	-.02	.04	.12	-.05
Willingness to Mentor	-.04	.31**	-.04	-.05	.10	.23*	.13	-.01	.04	-.14	-.12	-.38**	.15
Program Effectiveness	-.18	.12	.12	.20*	-.14	.08	.06	-.10	.24*	-.12	.02	-.01	<-.01
Organizational Commitment	.04	.14	-.07	-.06	.08	.22*	-.01	-.10	.08	.07	.29**	-.09	-.08

Table 7

Correlations Between Covariates and Outcome Variables: Mentor Sample. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. N ranges from 88 -106. Promo = number of promotions; Rel Exp = number of prior mentoring relationships; Other Gender = gender of the other dyad member (1 = male, 2 = female); Dyad Comp = sex composition of the dyad coded 1 = same-sex, 2 = cross-sex; Job Lvl coded 1 = non-manager, 2 = manager, 3 = sr. manager, 4 = director, 5 = VP, 6 = SVP and above; Race is coded 1 = non-minority, 2 = minority; Freq = frequency of interaction with the mentor reported in number of hours/month; Age reported in months; Org Tenure = number of months in the current organization; Job Tenure = number of months in the current job position; Educ level coded 1 = high school, 2 = associates, 3 = bachelors, 4 = masters, 5 = PhD; All other variables were assessed with a 5-point Likert scale, so the scale averages have a potential range of 1 to 5 (with higher scores representing higher levels of the construct).

Variable	Promo	Rel Exp	Other Gender	Protégé Gender	Dyad Comp	Job Lvl	Race	Rel Length	Freq	Age	Org Tenure	Job Tenure	Educ Level
Met Expectations	-.02	.06	.04	.02	-.02	.13	.01	.07	-.06	.15	.12	.03	-.20
Relationship Quality	-.02	.06	.15	<-.01	-.03	.19	.02	.17	-.03	.21*	.10	.14	-.19
Willingness to Mentor	-.03	-.11	-.06	.11	.00	-.14	.13	-.03	-.07	-.01	-.07	-.17	-.06
Program Effectiveness	.08	.04	-.07	.12	-.07	-.09	-.05	.02	.09	-.06	.17	-.16	-.04

Table 8

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis Specifying 1 Factor for Willingness to Mentor, Relationship Quality, Program Effectiveness, and Organizational Commitment. SRMSR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index.

Source	Measure	<i>df</i>	χ^2	SRMSR	RMSEA	CFI
Mentor	Willingness to Mentor	2	8.57, $p < .01$.03	.18	.98
Protégé	Willingness to Mentor	2	2.06, $p = .36$.01	.02	1.0
Mentor	Relationship Quality	5	7.75, $p = .17$.02	.07	1.0
Protégé	Relationship Quality	5	2.58, $p = .8$.01	.00	1.0
Mentor	Program Effectiveness	9	29.95, $p < .01$.04	.15	.97
Protégé	Program Effectiveness	9	18.87, $p = .03$.03	.11	.99
Protégé	Organizational Commitment	9	37.49, $p < .01$.07	.17	.94

Table 9

Correlations Among Study Variables: Protégé Sample. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. N ranges from 105 -106. Values underlined on the diagonal are alpha coefficients (Effort is a 1-item measure and reliability is not reported). All variables were assessed with a 5-point Likert scale, so the scale averages have a potential range of 1 to 5 (with higher scores representing higher levels of the construct).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Agreement: Psychosocial	.2	.28	---							
2. Agreement: Career Dev	.2	.47	.11	---						
3. Effort	3.3	.92	-.05	-.01	---					
4. Met Expectations	3.6	.93	-.02	-.04	.69**	<u>.87</u>				
5. Relationship Quality	3.4	.86	.02	-.04	.81**	.81**	<u>.94</u>			
6. Willingness to Mentor	4.1	.73	-.08	-.01	.22*	.23*	.26**	<u>.92</u>		
7. Program Effectiveness	3.5	.72	.01	.04	.64**	.58**	.68**	.37**	<u>.93</u>	
8. Organizational Commitment	3.4	.82	-.05	-.13	.19	.11	.21*	.23*	.24*	<u>.88</u>

Table 10

Correlations Among Study Variables: Mentor Sample. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. N ranges from 105 -106. Values underlined on the diagonal are alpha coefficients (Effort is a 1-item measure and reliability is not reported). All variables were assessed with a 5-point Likert scale, so the scale averages have a potential range of 1 to 5 (with higher scores representing higher levels of the construct).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Agreement: Career Dev	.07	.31	---							
2. Agreement: Role Modeling	.03	.37	-.03	---						
3. Agreement: Openness	.20	.63	.09	-.03	---					
4. Effort	3.3	.98	-.12	.12	-.11	---				
5. Met Expectations	3.5	.91	-.13	< -.01	-.16	.72**	<u>.88</u>			
6. Relationship Quality	3.4	.95	-.08	.12	-.11	.76**	.82**	<u>.94</u>		
7. Willingness to Mentor	4.4	.60	-.01	.29*	-.06	.04	.07	.01	<u>.91</u>	
8. Program Effectiveness	3.5	.63	-.11	.22*	-.06	-.04	-.01	.01	.36**	<u>.92</u>

Table 11

Correlations Between Mentor and Protégé Responses to Perceived Other Effort, Met Expectations, Relationship Quality, Willingness to Mentor, and Program Effectiveness. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. N ranges from 101 -106. All variables were assessed with a 5-point Likert scale, so the scale averages have a potential range of 1 to 5 (with higher scores representing higher levels of the construct).

Variable	Perceived Other Effort (mentor)	Met Expectations (mentor)	Relationship Quality (mentor)	Willingness to Mentor (mentor)	Program Effectiveness (mentor)
Perceived Other Effort (protégé)	.08	.11	.06	-.01	-.02
Met Expectations (protégé)	.08	.05	< -.01	-.06	-.10
Relationship Quality (protégé)	.13	.11	.01	.01	-.01
Willingness to Mentor (protégé)	.20*	.12	.08	-.10	.17
Program Effectiveness (protégé)	.13	.14	.08	-.05	.07

Table 12

Mentor Sample: Regression Results for Moderation of Perceived Protégé Effort on the Relationship between Expectation Agreement for Protégé Behaviors and Mentors' Met Expectations. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. Values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. Effort = mentor's perception of protégé effort; Agreement 1 = protégé career development; Agreement 2 = protégé role modeling and friendship; Agreement 3 = protégé openness, X3 = mentors' met expectations.

Predictor	Dependent Variable	
	X1*X2	X3
Effort (X1)	.08**	.66**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.0**	-.13
d_{x1x2}	-----	.67
R^2	.94**	.52**

Predictor	Dependent Variable	
	X1*X2	X3
Effort (X1)	-.06	.67**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.2**	-.21
d_{x1x2}	-----	.02
R^2	.86**	.52**

Predictor	Dependent Variable	
	X1*X2	X3
Effort (X1)	.15**	.66**
Agreement 3 (X2)	3.1**	-.12
d_{x1x2}	-----	< -.01
R^2	.94**	.52**

Table 13

Protégé Sample: Regression Results for Moderation of Perceived Mentor Effort on the Relationship between Expectation Agreement for Mentor Behaviors and Protégés' Met Expectations. Values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. Effort = protégé's perception of mentor effort; Agreement 1 = mentor psychosocial behaviors/general career development behaviors; Agreement 2 = mentor sponsorship; X3 = protégés' met expectations.

Predictor	Dependent Variable	
	X1*X2	X3
Effort (X1)	.29**	.59**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.39**	-.06
d_{x1x2}	-----	-.26
R^2	.94**	.39**

Predictor	Dependent Variable	
	X1*X2	X3
Effort (X1)	.33**	.59**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.49**	-.02
d_{x1x2}	-----	.11
R^2	.92**	.38**

* $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$

Table 14

Mentor Sample: Regression Results for Tests of Moderated Mediation Using Agreement on Protégé Career Development Behaviors. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. Values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. Effort = mentor's perception of protégé effort; Agreement 1 = protégé career development behaviors.

Predictor	Y = Willingness to Mentor				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.04	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.11	.40	---
Effort (X1)	.08**	---	---	< .01	.66**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.05**	---	---	< -.01	-.13
R ²	.94**	< .01	< .01	.03	.52**

Predictor	Y = Relationship Quality				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.82**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.11	-.04	---
Effort (X1)	.08**	---	---	.16**	.66**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.05**	---	---	.43	-.13
R ²	.94**	.64**	< .01	.08*	.52**

Predictor	Y = Program Effectiveness				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	-.006	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.11	.38	---
Effort (X1)	.08**	---	---	-.02	.66**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.05**	---	---	-.22	-.13
R ²	.94**	< .01	< .01	.04	.52**

Table 15

Mentor Sample: Regression Results for Tests of Moderated Mediation Using Agreement on Protégé Role Modeling/Friendship Behaviors. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. Values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. Effort = mentor's perception of protégé effort; Agreement 2 = protégé role modeling and friendship behaviors.

Predictor	Y = Willingness to Mentor				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.04	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.02	-.07	---
Effort (X1)	-.06	---	---	-.02	.69**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.19**	---	---	.48**	-.22
R ²	.856**	< .01	< .01	.089*	.54**

Predictor	Y = Relationship Quality				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.82**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.02	-.09	---
Effort (X1)	-.06	---	---	.14**	.69**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.19**	---	---	.24	-.22
R ²	.856**	.64**	< .01	.10*	.54**

Predictor	Y = Program Effectiveness				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	< -.01	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.02	.17	---
Effort (X1)	-.06	---	---	-.03	.69**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.19**	---	---	.39*	-.22
R ²	.856**	< .01	< .01	.07	.54**

Table 16

Mentor Sample: Regression Results for Tests Moderated Mediation Using Agreement on Protégé Openness Behaviors. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. Values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. Effort = mentor's perception of protégé effort; Agreement 3 = protégé openness behaviors.

Predictor	Y = Willingness to Mentor				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.04	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	< -.01	.14	---
Effort (X1)	.15**	---	---	< -.01	.66**
Agreement 3 (X2)	3.05**	---	---	-.05	-.12
R ²	.94**	< .01	< .01	.02	.52**

Predictor	Y = Relationship Quality				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.82**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	< -.01	-.14	---
Effort (X1)	.15**	---	---	.15**	.66**
Agreement 3 (X2)	3.05**	---	---	.05	-.12
R ²	.94**	.64**	< .01	.09*	.52**

Predictor	Y = Program Effectiveness				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	-.01	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	< -.01	-.07	---
Effort (X1)	.15**	---	---	-.01	.66**
Agreement 3 (X2)	3.05**	---	---	-.06	-.12
R ²	.94**	<.01	<.01	.01	.52**

Table 17

Protégé Sample: Regression Results for Tests Moderated Mediation Using Agreement on Mentor Engagement/Guidance Behaviors. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. Values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. Effort = protégé's perception of mentor effort; Agreement 1 = mentor psychosocial behaviors/general career development behaviors.

Predictor	Y = Willingness to Mentor				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.21**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	-.30	.43	---
Effort (X1)	.29**	---	---	.05	.59**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.4**	---	---	-.14	-.06
R ²	.94**	.09**	.01	.04	.37**

Predictor	Y = Relationship Quality				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.71**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	-.30	.07	---
Effort (X1)	.29**	---	---	.20**	.59**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.4**	---	---	.10	-.06
R ²	.94**	.63**	.01	.15**	.37**

Predictor	Y = Program Effectiveness				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.42**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	-.30	.05	---
Effort (X1)	.29**	---	---	.17**	.59**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.4**	---	---	.05	-.06
R ²	.94**	.29**	.01	.08*	.37**

Predictor	Y = Organizational Commitment				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.07	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	-.30	-.15	---
Effort (X1)	.29**	---	---	.10	.59**
Agreement 1 (X2)	3.4**	---	---	-.07	-.06
R ²	.94**	.01	.01	.02	.37**

Table 18

Protégé Sample: Regression Results for Tests Moderated Mediation Using Agreement on Mentor Sponsorship/Protection Behaviors. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$. Values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. Effort = protégé's perception of mentor effort; Agreement 2 = mentor sponsorship behaviors.

Predictor	Y = Willingness to Mentor				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.21**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.11	.19	---
Effort (X1)	.33**	---	---	.05	.59**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.5**	---	---	<.01	-.02
R ²	.92**	.09**	<.01	.03	.37**
Predictor	Y = Relationship Quality				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.71**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.11	-.04	---
Effort (X1)	.33**	---	---	.20**	.59**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.5**	---	---	-.03	-.02
R ²	.92**	.63**	<.01	.15**	.37**
Predictor	Y = Program Effectiveness				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.42**	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.11	.12	---
Effort (X1)	.33**	---	---	.18**	.59**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.5**	---	---	.14	-.02
R ²	.92**	.29**	<.01	.10*	.37**
Predictor	Y = Organizational Commitment				
	X1*X2	Y	X3	D _Y	D _{X3}
Met Expectations (X3)	---	.07	---	---	---
D _{X1*X2}	---	---	.11	-.01	---
Effort (X1)	.33**	---	---	.10	.59**
Agreement 2 (X2)	3.5**	---	---	.27	-.02
R ²	.92**	.01	<.01	.04	.37**

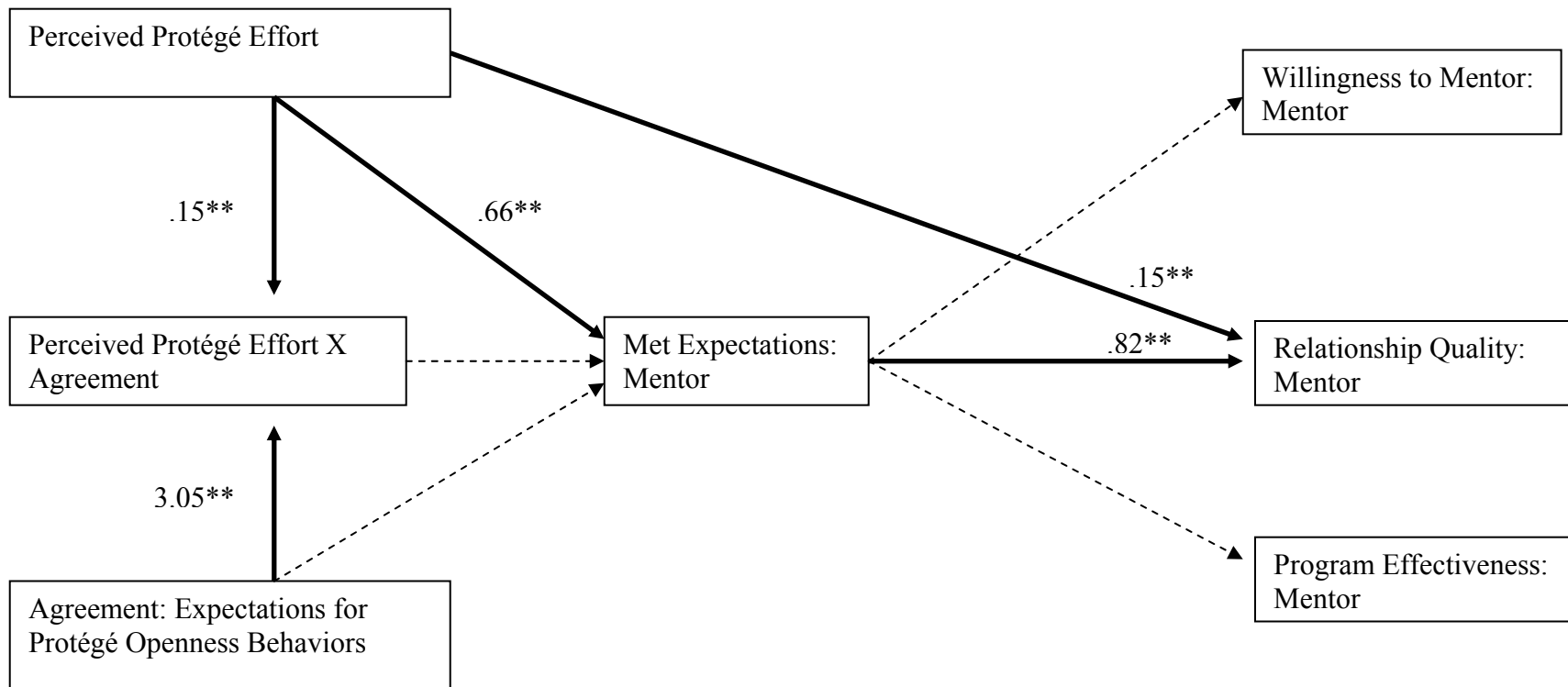


Figure 3. Path analytic model for mentors: Results for tests of mediated moderation using agreement on protégés' honesty / openness behaviors.

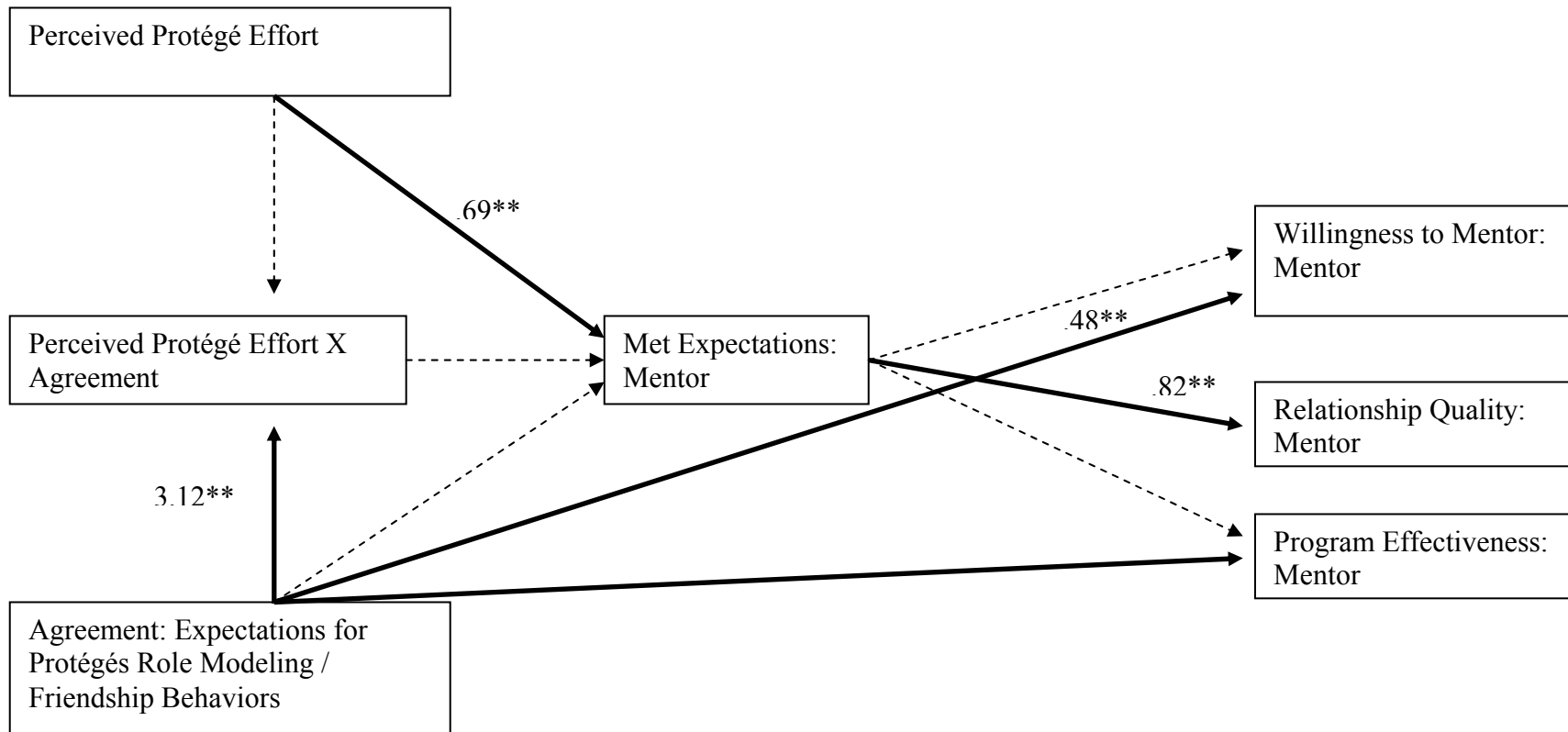


Figure 4. Path analytic model for mentors: Results for tests of mediated moderation using agreement on protégés' role modeling /friendship behaviors.

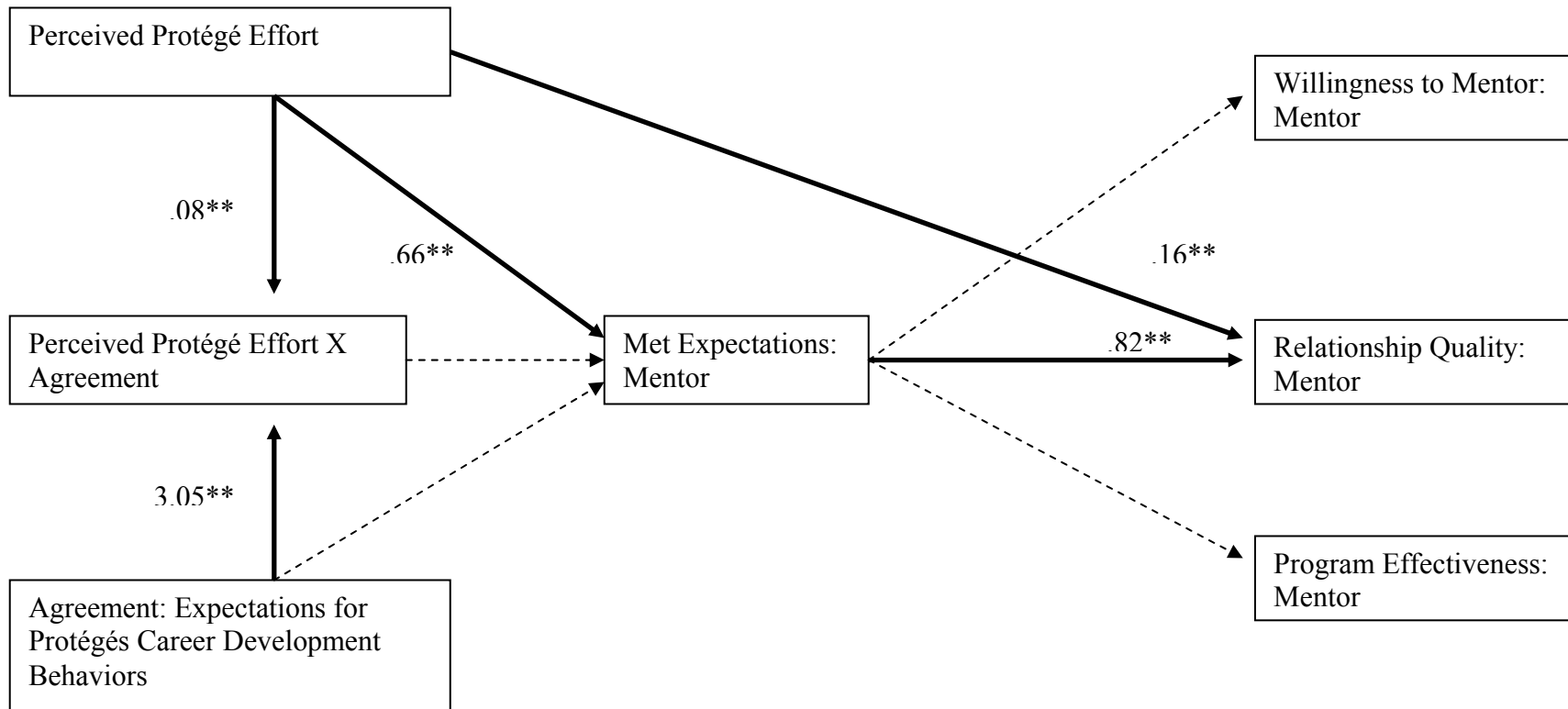


Figure 5. Path analytic model for mentors: Results for tests of mediated moderation using agreement on protégés' career development behaviors.

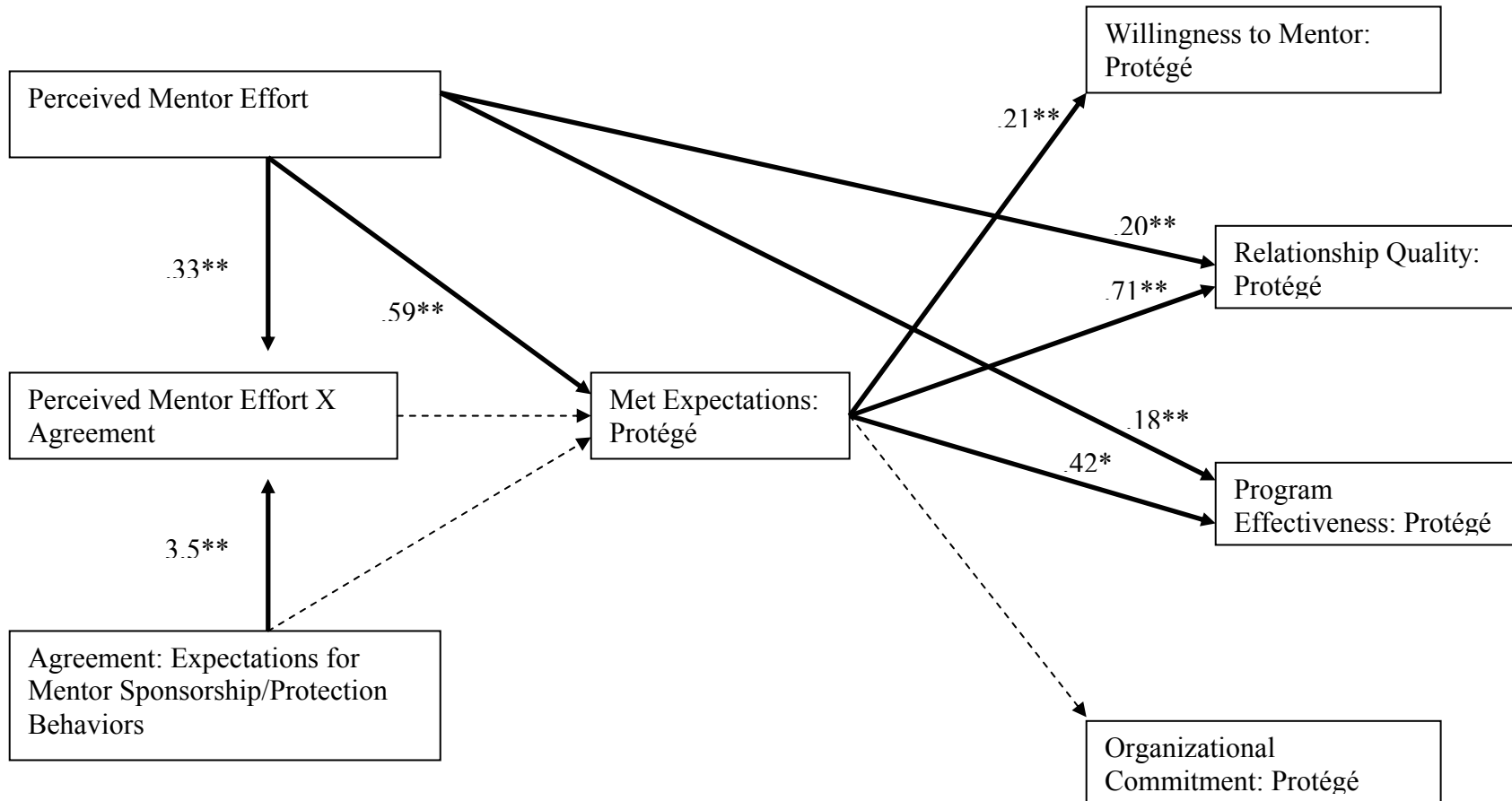


Figure 6. Path analytic model for protégés: Results for tests of mediated moderation using agreement on mentors' sponsorship/protection behaviors.

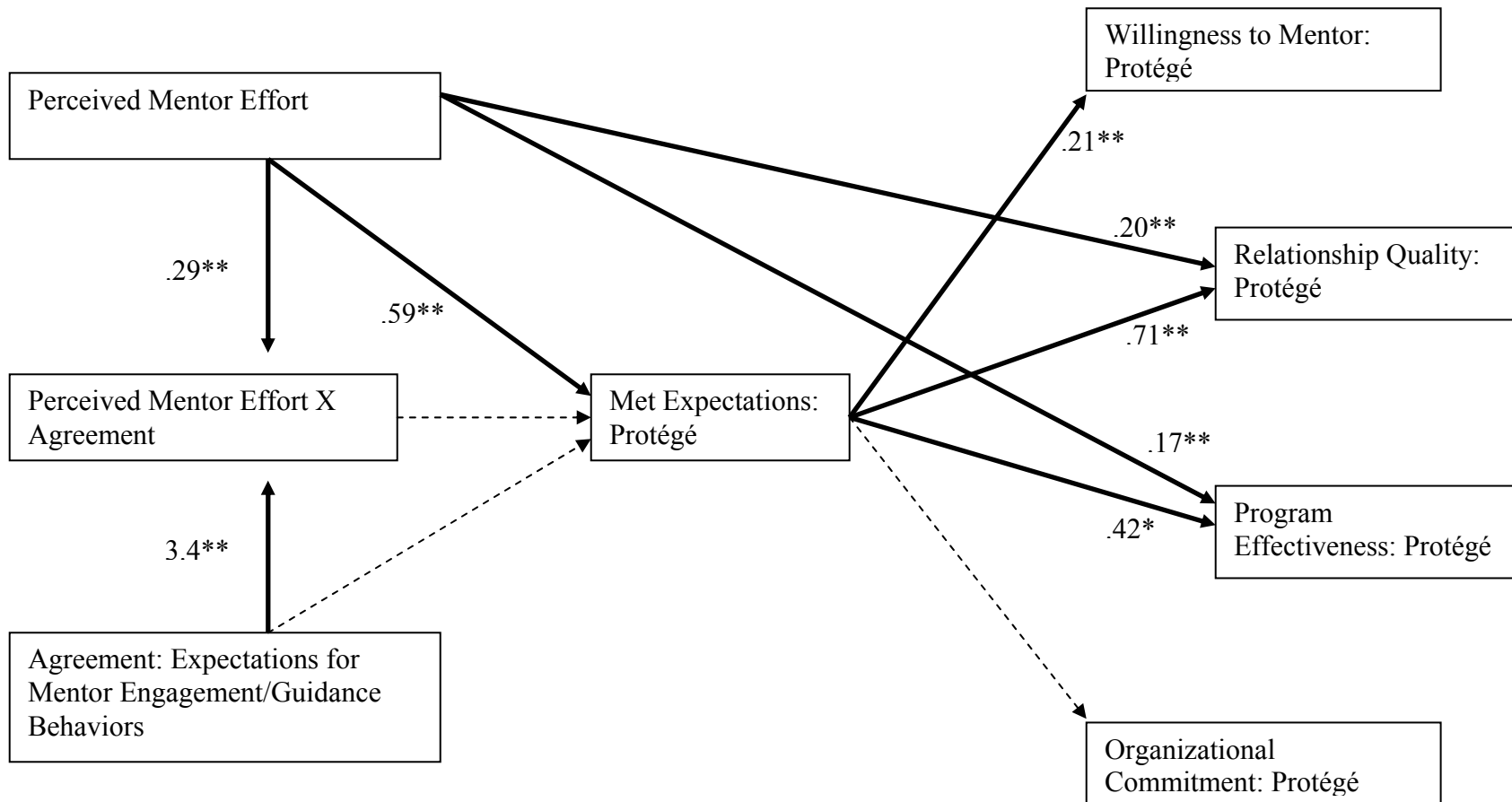


Figure 7. Path analytic model for protégés: Results for tests of mediated moderation using agreement on mentors' engagement/guidance behaviors.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine underlying dyadic processes leading to met expectations and subsequent, key relational outcomes. Despite theoretical support for the study's hypotheses, results demonstrate that mentor-protégé expectation agreement does not have a direct or indirect effect (as moderated by effort) on met expectations. Upon examination of the findings, there are several possible explanations for this lack of support.

A cornerstone of this study was the measurement of agreement between the mentor and protégé in each dyad. While Cohen's (1960; 1968) kappa is the most frequently used measure of agreement (Simon, 2006), there is a great deal of debate over its calculation of chance agreement (Brennan & Prediger, 1981; Hsu & Field, 2003; Zwick, 1988). The issue is not that kappa corrects for chance, which is considered a desirable characteristic (Janson & Olsson, 2001), but the way in which Cohen's kappa corrects for chance. More specifically, Brennan and Prediger (1981) noted that

For Cohen's kappa, the index of chance agreement, $\sum P_i P_i$, increases with an increase in marginal agreement. Therefore, two judges who independently, and with no a priori knowledge, produce similar marginal distributions must obtain a much higher agreement rate to obtain a given value of kappa, than two judges who produce radically different marginals. Cohen's kappa gives the former judges no credit for producing agreement in marginals. Indeed, they are in a sense penalized. (p.692)

Therefore, if a mentor and protégé both used a rating of 3 ("neither agree nor disagree") for 30% of the items measuring expectations for protégé role modeling/friendship behaviors, then .09 (i.e., 0.3×0.3) of the observed agreement would be considered based on chance alone. With 5 response options, the base rates for each option are summed and observed classification

agreement between the mentor and protégé has to exceed that sum to be considered above chance agreement. Cohen's kappa, therefore, assumes that base rate agreement is based on chance (i.e., guessing, random selection) and can underestimate agreement between raters; this may have contributed to the high percentage of 0 kappa values in the dataset (13% and 50% for agreement on expected mentor behavior scales; 41%, 67%, and 70% for agreement on protégé behavior scales).

Modifications of kappa alter the calculation of chance agreement (e.g., κ_n , π), but each of these methods has drawbacks that prevent them from being a widely accepted alternative to Cohen's kappa (Hsu & Field, 2003). For instance, κ_n , which is considered the most prevalently used kappa variant (Meyer, 1997), rewards base rate agreement using the assumption that this type of agreement is based on raters exercising expert judgment rather than guessing and responding in a random pattern (Brennan & Prediger, 1981). Proportion of agreement expected by chance is defined as the reciprocal of the number of response categories, which may inflate interrater agreement if raters respond randomly to the items based on their beliefs about base rates. In the context of this study, if a mentor responds based on a belief that he/she should agree to any item indicating a positive protégé behavior and the protégé responds based on a belief that he/she should only agree to 50% of the items (reflecting the most important behaviors), κ_n would produce an inflated measure of agreement (Hsu & Field, 2003). Given the dearth of research using kappa-type statistics as a focal construct of interest, it is not clear whether or not these beliefs drive response patterns on a Likert-type scale; therefore, utilizing κ_n to measure mentor-protégé agreement could be an appropriate calculation that does not over-correct for chance agreement.

Two additional agreement indices that deserve mention as possible alternatives are $r^*_{wg(j)}$ (Lindell, Brandt, & Whitney, 1999; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984) and the Average Deviation index (AD) (Burke & Dunlap, 2002; Burke, Finkelstein, & Dusig, 1999). Typically, $r^*_{wg(j)}$ is utilized to validate the conceptualization of a construct at the level of a dyad or group; however, at least one study (Lindell & Brandt, 2000) has used $r^*_{wg(j)}$ values to measure level of agreement as the focal construct of interest. Lindell and Brandt (2000) examined organizational climate consensus, or the dispersion of employee ratings, using $r^*_{wg(j)}$ to represent a range of (dis)agreement, or consensus. In this study, climate consensus demonstrated significant relationships to certain antecedent variables (e.g., members' role formalization), and individual-level outcome variables (e.g., behavioral typicality). These results suggest that $r^*_{wg(j)}$ could be utilized as an index of level of consensus (e.g., mentor-protégé agreement). Another option is to measure mentor-protégé agreement directly using the AD index in which the average absolute deviation is "computed relative to the mean of an item (AD_M) or median of an item (AD_{Md}) providing more direct conceptualizations and assessments of interrater agreement in the metric or unit of the original measurement scale" (Burke, Finkelstein, & Dusig, 1999, p.159). Two recent studies utilized the AD index in studies of agreement based on the dispersion model (Chan, 1998). Klein, Conn, Smith, and Sorra (2001) examined antecedents of within-group variability on dimensions of work environment using the average standard deviation for each item. Another study examined the effect of group consensus on psychological well-being using the average variance for each item (Bliese & Halverson, 1998). While these methods (i.e., $r^*_{wg(j)}$, AD index) are not without controversy, most of this debate concerns appropriate tests of statistical significance to determine standards for agreement (Dunlap, Burke, & Smith-Crowe, 2003; Smith-Crowe & Burke, 2003), which is not an issue when dispersion itself is the focal construct.

It is recommended that future research examine the use of alternative measurements of mentor-protégé agreement in an attempt to determine the best approach.

A lack of support for hypothesized relationships involving mentor-protégé agreement may have also originated in the validity of the final scales for Expected Protégé Behaviors and Expected Mentor Behaviors. Despite the fact that items were based on an established framework of mentoring functions (Kram, 1985) and adapted from a previous study (Young & Perrewé, 2000), results indicated that the scales were not comprised of the expected 2 dimensions of career-related and psychosocial support. The scales for Expected Protégé Behaviors mapped onto Kram's (1985) traditional framework to some extent, with three scales that clearly distinguish career development behaviors from psychosocial behaviors. Further, the fact that the Expected Protégé Behaviors measure demonstrated a three-factor solution is not too surprising given that one of these factors is primarily characterized by role modeling, which has been conceptualized as a distinct type of mentoring function demonstrated by mentors (Scandura, 1992). These results suggest that role modeling and friendship may also be a distinct type of mentoring function demonstrated by protégés; perhaps these behaviors reflect a deeper interpersonal relationship than other behaviors characterized as psychosocial support (e.g., serving as a sounding board). The factor structure for the Expected Mentor Behaviors measure causes particular concern related to construct validity. Most of the items loaded onto the first factor, and represent a combination of items describing career development and psychosocial dimensions. This blended scale is surprising given the fact that the framework for mentoring functions is based on mentor behaviors, and has only been recently applied to protégé behaviors (Young & Perrewé, 2000). Interestingly, career development (i.e., factor 2) is narrowly defined by 3 items describing sponsorship and protection behaviors, which some researchers have

suggested may be less likely to occur in the context of a formal mentoring relationship (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). This suggestion is based on the rationale that sponsorship behaviors are inherently more visible to other members of the organization (e.g., introducing the protégé to others) and may require a stronger, more committed relationship than what may have time to develop in a formal mentoring program (Wanberg et al., 2003). Given the initial discrepancies between constructs defining mentoring functions and the constructs that emerged for expectations of mentor and protégé behaviors, particularly mentor behaviors, basic scale development research is needed to develop theoretically sound and psychometrically strong measures of expected mentor and protégé behaviors (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Further, participants in the present study were in the same formal mentoring program, which is a potential threat to the generalizability of results beyond this particular organization.

Another issue complicating validity of the Expected Behaviors measures is the fact that only items that loaded onto the same factors for mentors and protégés were retained in the final scales. This step was required in order to force invariance of the factor structure across mentor and protégé samples (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000), and led to the deletion of 14 items across the 5 scales. Therefore, while the number of factors that emerged for the Expected Mentor Behaviors measure (2 factors) and for the Expected Protégé Behaviors measure (3 factors) was the same using protégé and mentor data, the set of items that initially loaded onto those factors were not the same for mentors and protégés (i.e., some items were unique to either the protégé or mentor factor structure). This is particularly significant given that these findings are consistent with pilot study results and demonstrate that, while protégés and mentors largely agree on the high-level themes, they conceptualize those themes/factors somewhat differently. For instance, protégés in the pilot study described mentor career development behaviors more often and with

more specificity than mentors. These differences are also reflected in a comparison of factor analysis results for mentors and protégés. Protégés' factor structure includes 3 unique items related to specific professional development and career advancement behaviors (e.g., "I expect a mentor to provide opportunities and resources for professional development"); whereas the factor structure for mentors consisted of 2 unique career development items describing more general professional development behaviors (e.g., "I expect a mentor to provide opportunities and resources for professional development"). In terms of expected protégé behaviors, results indicate that protégés may have a richer conceptualization of their own psychosocial behaviors than mentors. More specifically, protégés mentioned 6 themes describing protégé psychosocial behaviors (versus 3 themes mentioned by mentors) and, in the factor analysis, 2 additional items loaded onto the role modeling/friendship factor based on protégé data (e.g., "I expect a protégé to like the mentor for who he/she is"). In addition, pilot and primary study results suggest that mentors may classify sharing information about goals and objectives as career development behaviors, whereas protégés may consider those behaviors as psychosocial in nature. In short, results of the pilot and primary studies offer initial insight into how mentors and protégés may conceptualize expectations for mentor and protégé behaviors differently. While informative, these results created issues related to the construct validity of the measure; ultimately, any item that did not load onto the same factor across protégés and mentors was deleted from the scale.

Distilling the final scales to only represent common items has two primary effects, 1) it changes the meaning of the construct as defined by the protégé or mentor sample, and 2) it reduces content validity. While defining the final set of items for a factor based only on common items does not change the overall meaning of the factor (i.e., career development), it does impact the specific definition of the construct. The reduction of items also directly impacts content

validity of the original Expected Behaviors scales in that each item deleted reduces the initial construct space measured by the original set of items. This is an unfortunate consequence of forcing configural invariance (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000), especially given that the initial set of items incorporated aspects of inductive (i.e., pilot study) and deductive (i.e., utilization of Kram's framework) scale development in order to maximize the proportion the theoretical domain sampled (Hinkin, 1998). An additional consequence of not including expectations expressed by only mentors or protégés is that the effects of mentoring-protégé agreement may have been attenuated. It is possible that the effects of mentor-protégé *disagreement* are more significant when one dyad member has an expectation and the other does not, than when the mentor and protégé simply differ in terms of the degree to which he/she expects the behavior to occur. Future research may need to take a step back and assess the idiosyncrasies specific to protégés and mentors, on average, before developing a valid measure of mentor and protégé expectations for use in evaluating idiosyncrasies specific to the dyad.

The timing of measurement may have also threatened construct validity for the Expected Behaviors scales. In the present study, expectations are conceptualized as beliefs regarding appropriate protégé and mentor behaviors that participants have prior to the current mentoring relationship; hence these expectations should be independent from any specific mentoring relationship. Participants were asked to indicate their expectations after being in their current formal mentoring relationship an average of seven months; this introduces the unique issue of requiring participants to *recall prior* expectations. Research has shown that “individuals’ recall of internal states at some point in the past is typically influenced by the present state” (Irving & Meyer, 1995, p.1161). When recalling a previously held belief, Ross (1989) indicated that individuals consider the present state of the belief or attribute in question and then implicitly

reconstruct the past to align to the present frame of reference. Therefore, mentors' and protégés' responses may reflect a combination of prior beliefs, as well as experiences in the current mentoring relationship. Survey instructions were written to discourage participants from referencing their current relationship, yet the effectiveness of that approach is questionable given potential tendencies in the recall process (Ross, 1989) and the study's results. If mentor-protégé agreement actually reflects similarity in perceptions of the extent to which a particular mentor or protégé behavior has occurred in the relationship, this could help explain a lack of support for the hypothesized relationships. In order to avoid this potential pitfall, longitudinal research is necessary where expectations are measured prior to, or at the outset of, the formation of formal mentoring relationships; and measures outcome variables at a later point in time.

Non-Hypothesized Findings of Interest

Although the study hypotheses were not supported by the data, there were several findings that, while not predicted, provide some insight into the role of effort, mentor-protégé agreement, and met expectations in understanding certain outcomes (i.e., relationship quality, willingness to mentor in the future, program effectiveness).

There are two findings that are common to both protégés and mentors. First, effort on behalf of one dyad member was associated with higher met expectations for the other dyad member. Second, met expectations partially mediated the relationship between effort and relationship quality (see Figure 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7). These findings replicate and extend past research (Young & Perrewé, 2000) suggesting that providing *enough* mentoring functions to satisfy the other member's expectations, in addition to simply providing more mentoring functions, is associated with relationship quality. The role of effort in these mentoring dyads mirrors the relationships between effort, LMX quality and met expectations in manager-

subordinate dyads (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001); thus offering further evidence of linkages between mentoring and LMX theories (McManus & Russell, 1997). In both types of dyadic work relationships, effort seems to play a critical role in relationship development through initiation of exchanges in the relationship and follow-through, or reciprocation of the initiated exchanges (Burgess & Huston, 1979). In short, effort by both members of a dyad is necessary for exchanges to occur in a relationship; thereby effort serves as the most basic form of currency to foster met expectations and relationship quality.

While the operationalization of perceived effort in the present study leaves the definition of effort fairly open to interpretation, it could include a variety of behaviors that fall within the typical conceptualization of career development and psychosocial behaviors (Kram, 1985), and/or represent a broader scope of mentor and protégé behaviors. The present study indicates that mentor-protégé agreement on expected behaviors is unrelated to met expectations, so it is unclear whether or not particular behaviors were considered indicative of effort (i.e., career development efforts, psychosocial behaviors) and thus influenced the relationship between effort and outcomes. Young and Perrewé's (2000) findings suggest that mentor behaviors related to psychosocial functions may be more relevant for protégés' met expectations and protégé behaviors related to career development may be more relevant for mentors' met expectations. An alternative framework for defining mentors' effort is provided by recent findings that mentors who demonstrate more transformational leadership behaviors have protégés who report a higher quality mentoring relationship (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000). Future research should examine what behaviors protégés and mentors attend to as demonstrations of effort, and potentially broaden the definition of behaviors considered important to meeting expectations and increasing perceptions of relationship quality.

Although it was predicted that mentor-protégé agreement would be associated with met expectations, results suggest that this mutuality is associated with outcomes that are more distal to the mentoring relationship (i.e., program effectiveness, willingness to mentor in the future). Findings suggest that dyadic agreement on whether or not a protégé should model the mentor's behavior and interact with him/her as a friend is associated with a mentor's perception of program effectiveness and willingness to mentor in the future (see Figure 4). According to role theory, roles serve as the basis of enacted behaviors (Graen, 1976; Katz & Kahn, 1978); hence, possible explanations for these effects assume that mentor-protégé agreement is associated with mentor outcomes because the protégé behaves in accordance with his/her own expectations, which also align to the mentors' expectations. It is important to remember that agreement, and not direction of the agreement, is associated with this effect.

Findings related to mentor-protégé agreement and mentors' program effectiveness are consistent with a recent study (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006) using a sample of matched protégés and mentors. Allen, Eby, and Lentz (2006) found that protégés' understanding of the formal mentoring program (e.g., understanding the purpose of the program, responsibilities as a protégé, what was expected of him/her as a protégé) was associated with mentors' perceptions of program effectiveness. Results of the present study provide further insight, suggesting that protégés' understanding of their role specific to role modeling and friendship behaviors may be a key driver of the relationship between protégés' understanding of the program and mentors' perceptions of program effectiveness. The present study demonstrates that this relationship also operates at a dyadic level, suggesting that a *shared* understanding of behaviors fundamental to a protégé's interpersonal interaction with a mentor (e.g., treating the mentor as a friend, modeling the mentor's professional behavior) may foster mentors' satisfaction with the program and their

perception that it is well-administered and has met their needs. It is possible that mentors attribute the fact that the protégé is acting in accordance with his/her expectations as an indication that the program is effectively administered. Two program components that may be salient to mentors as impacting mentor-protégé agreement are the matching process and training, both of which existed in the mentoring program represented in the current study.

Mutuality on protégé behaviors related to role modeling and friendship was also associated with mentors' willingness to mentor in the future. Research has primarily focused on the effect of past mentoring experience on future intentions to mentor, which has found that those who have participated in a mentoring relationship report greater intentions to mentor in the future (Bozionelos, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). Further, intention to mentor is more strongly related to higher anticipated benefits and lower anticipated costs than those who have not served as a mentor or protégé (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Taken together, it seems plausible that mentors extrapolate from past and current experiences as a mentor in order to forecast future experiences. Shared understanding of protégé role modeling and friendship behaviors may serve as a lever to increase mentors' anticipated benefits and/or decrease mentors' anticipated costs associated with serving as a mentor. A potential mechanism for this effect is that shared beliefs drive more productive and mutually supportive interactions by reducing uncertainty about what exchanges to expect and increasing security about one's role in the relationship (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Following this, interpersonal dynamics that facilitate exchanges in a mentoring relationship may serve to enhance the mentor's sense of self-efficacy in the mentor role by 'greasing the wheels' of exchanges and allowing the mentor more opportunities to make an impact and experience success (Bandura, 1977). This is consistent with a recent study (Karcher, Nakkula, & Harris, 2005) on youth mentoring relationships, which found that mentor

self-efficacy was associated with mentors' increased ratings of relationship quality. In short, when a protégé demonstrates role modeling and friendship behaviors in accordance with his/her mentor's expectations, interactions may help curb the mentor's potential frustration or dissatisfaction based on self-doubt or feelings of inadequacy (Eby & Lockwood, 2005) and increase the likelihood that the mentor is willing to serve in that role at some point in the future.

Interestingly, mentor-protégé agreement did not predict any outcomes for protégés; however, met expectations fully mediated the relationship between effort and willingness to mentor and partially mediated the relationship between effort and program effectiveness (see Figure 6 and 7). Protégés indicated a greater willingness to mentor when perceived effort on the part of the mentor was enough to meet their expectations for the relationship. It makes sense that a positive experience in a mentoring relationship would lead a protégé to desire the opportunity to mentor others (Bozionelos, 2004), perhaps so that he/she can bring the same positive experience to someone else (e.g., passing on similar information, helping others to succeed) (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). In addition, by investing in the relationship and meeting the protégé's expectations, a mentor serves as a role model for how to be a successful mentor; subsequently, the protégé may feel more comfortable serving in a mentor role after observing someone he/she considers successful. Recent qualitative research has shown that a frustration expressed by mentors is a fear of personal inadequacy, or doubts that he/she is making a positive impact on the protégé's development (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). Having a role model could reduce this potential concern and increase willingness to serve as a mentor. In fact, past research (Allen, Poteet, Russell, & Dobbins, 1997) has shown that employees who experience a high-quality relationship with their supervisor are more willing to mentor and perceive fewer barriers to mentoring. A high-quality supervisor-subordinate relationship most likely includes some

aspects of mentoring, which can lead the subordinate to possess, “greater expectancy, efficacy, and desire to engage in this type of relationship with others” (Allen, Poteet, Russell, & Dobbins, 1997, p.18). An alternative explanation is that protégés who have had a mentor who met their expectations may anticipate more rewards from serving as a mentor than those employees who have not received mentoring (Ragins & Scandura, 1999).

For protégés, met expectations is not only associated with a consideration of future behaviors, but also to a more positive assessment of the program within which the relationship exists. Though not hypothesized, mentors’ demonstrated effort to develop a good relationship was associated with proteges’ perceiving the mentoring program as more effective, directly and indirectly through met expectations (see Figure 6 and 7). Given that mentoring programs are designed to benefit protégés, the effectiveness of the program can be synonymous with the mentor’s behaviors from the protégé perspective (Kram, 1985). Similar findings were demonstrated in a recent study (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006) examining the antecedents of program effectiveness in formal mentoring programs. In that study, mentor commitment led to protégés’ perceptions of program effectiveness. While mentor commitment and effort are two distinct constructs, it is reasonable to consider that effort is a tangible demonstration of commitment and should, therefore, demonstrate similar relationships with mentoring outcomes.

Implications for Mentoring Theory

Despite lack of support for the proposed hypotheses, the present study does have implications for mentoring theory. First, while mentoring research has primarily focused on career development and psychosocial mentoring functions (Kram, 1985) as the basis for exchanges in mentoring relationships, this study’s findings indicate that perceived effort on behalf of the other dyad member is related to outcomes for mentors (i.e., met expectations,

relationship quality) and protégés (i.e., met expectations, relationship quality, program effectiveness). It is possible that the provision of mentoring functions by mentors and protégés is, in fact, what mentors and protégés attend to as demonstrations of effort. In that case, effort may reflect overall mentoring received. However, it seems more reasonable that effort represents a distinct, more broadly defined construct that includes aspects of interpersonal engagement and overt commitment to the relationship not explicitly described in current measures of career development behaviors and psychosocial behaviors. Given the potential influence of effort on met expectations and key mentoring outcomes, future research should begin to explore what behaviors mentors and protégés attend to as effort by the other dyad member. Research on LMX theory has been informed by recent studies on the role of self- and other-effort in manager-subordinate dyads. Considering the similarities between the two types of work relationships (McManus & Russell, 1997), mentoring research should continue to examine the role of effort by testing effects already discovered by LMX researchers. For instance, Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) found that a high level of self-effort, coupled with a low level of other-effort, was negatively associated with relationship quality. Further, low relationship quality was related to dyad members' intentions to not exert more effort in the future. These findings provide some direction for future research on the role of effort in mentoring relationships. If effort serves as the currency for exchanges in mentoring relationships (Burgess & Huston, 1979), then it is critical to better understand what constitutes effort, its antecedents, and its role over the course of a mentoring relationship.

Another implication for mentoring theory is the role of mentor-protégé agreement. To date, researchers have operationalized mentor-protégé agreement as the similarity in perceptions regarding what is actually occurring in the relationship, which is typically defined as the

demonstration of career development and psychosocial functions (Raabe & Behr, 2003; Waters, 2004). Given the focus on the mentor's role in the relationship, mentor-protégé agreement has centered primarily on the mentor's provision of mentoring functions (Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, in press; Waters, 2004). This study extends current research by directly measuring mentor-protégé agreement regarding *expectations* for mentor *and* protégé roles and responsibilities. The finding that mentor-protégé expectation agreement was associated with mentors' attitudes and perceptions demonstrates the possible significance of expectation agreement in mentoring relationships, and suggests that expectations may, 1) give rise to one's own actions and, 2) serve as the standard against which the other dyad member's behaviors are judged (Graen, 1976; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Based on this study, it appears that mentoring theory would benefit from further efforts to leverage the tenets of psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 2001) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to better understand the effect of expectation (dis)agreement in mentoring relationships.

Considering the potential impact of mentor-protégé agreement to the relationship, developing a comprehensive framework for mentors' and protégés' expectations for each role is a promising avenue to advance mentoring theory. Kram's (1985) framework for mentoring functions has been validated in several studies based on protégé reports of what actually occurs in mentoring relationships. While it appears that mentor behaviors, as reported by protégés, are fairly consistent across mentoring relationships, results of this study indicate that the expectations for mentor and protégé behaviors may not be as consistent across the two groups. Data from the pilot and primary studies demonstrate that protégés and mentors described unique themes for expected mentor and protégé behaviors. Further, while some of the themes/factors that emerged for protégés and mentors focused on the same type of behavior (e.g., career

development), each group conceptualized those behaviors differently. Mentoring theory could benefit from a valid framework of mentor and protégé expectations, prior to further research on the impact of mentor-protégé agreement. In addition, it will be important to demonstrate the connection proposed by role theory (Graen, 1976) between expectations for one's role and enacted behaviors in the relationship.

It is interesting that mutuality with regard to mentor behaviors did not demonstrate relationships with any other study variables. Above and beyond any issues with the measure and/or measurement of mentor-protégé agreement, it is possible that violations of expectations, resulting from lack of mentor-protégé agreement, may not always negatively impact the relationship. A study on expectation violations in close relationships (Afifi & Metts, 1998) found that violations differed in their valence (positive versus negative), level of importance, and impact on ambiguity in the relationship. Further, different profiles of violations (as defined by valence and impact on ambiguity), demonstrated differential effects on relationship quality (Afifi & Metts, 1998). Therefore, it is possible that mentor-protégé agreement did not impact relational outcomes because expectation violations may have been positive in nature and/or reduced the ambiguity of the relationship such that these violations did not affect a dyad member's attitudes any differently than behaviors by the other dyad member that aligned to expectations.

In summary, in order for mentoring theory to advance an understanding of mentoring as an interpersonal, developmental relationship (Kram, 1985), it seems important for future research to examine expectations of protégés and mentors, and to then investigate the role of those expectations in relationship development and mentoring outcomes

Practical Implications

The findings of this study, though unhypothesized, have practical implications for formal mentoring programs in organizations. Given the consistent effect of perceived effort on met expectations, organizations are encouraged to use communication channels available through the program's structure (e.g., training, brochures, website) to inform mentors *and* protégés that demonstrating effort may improve the quality of the relationship and increase the likelihood that they can meet the other member's expectations for the relationship. This messaging may be less intimidating to new mentors than the complete profile of mentoring functions, which may make the role seem more daunting and undermine their sense of self-efficacy. Therefore, organizations may want to provide training on the importance of simply demonstrating effort, in addition to specific career development and psychosocial behaviors that drive positive protégé outcomes. Further, based on this research, and other recent studies examining the mentor's perspective (Allen & Eby, 2003; Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Young and Perrewe, 2000), organizations should drop the assumption that an acceptable protégé role is a passive one, and educate protégés that playing an active role may foster relationship quality and effectiveness. Considering that a framework for protégé behaviors remains in the beginning stages of development, organizations may want to provide general direction to protégés and emphasize the importance of demonstrating effort.

Mentoring program effectiveness is an important measure of success, and organizations typically rely on the perceptions of program participants to evaluate effectiveness. Another important metric, willingness to mentor in the future, can serve as an indicator of the sustainability of a mentoring program considering that the program hinges on having organizational members who are willing to serve as a mentor (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006). In order to improve the likelihood that mentors will provide favorable assessments of these two

important outcomes, it is recommended that organizations encourage mentors and protégés to discuss each other's expectations for the relationship and to draft a contract that explicitly lays out the critical components of what would otherwise remain implicit in a psychological contract. Given the fact that mentoring programs are designed to benefit the protégé, expectations for the relationship typically center around what the protégé expects from the mentor and from the relationship in general. This study suggests that organizations should broaden their focus and encourage mentors and protégés to discuss expectations related to the behaviors of each member. Also, it may be important that mentors and protégés not simply focus on the work-related exchanges (i.e., career development functions), but also the interpersonal exchanges (i.e., psychosocial functions). In short, recent mentoring research has demonstrated that mentors and protégés play a key role in relationship development; therefore organizations should begin to recognize and address both sides of the relationship in structured components of the program (e.g., training). In order to improve the likelihood that protégés will provide favorable assessments of these two important outcomes, results suggest that mentors should focus on demonstrating effort to develop a good relationship. Recommendations for ways to encourage effort are described previously.

Summary

In summary, while results of the present study did not support proposed hypotheses, there were several interesting findings that provide insight into past research and may provide guidance for future research. Of particular interest are the findings that, 1) effort is positively associated with relationship quality and met expectations for protégés and mentors, 2) mentor-protégé agreement does matter for mentors' willingness to mentor in the future and perceptions of program effectiveness, and 3) for protégés, mentor effort positively relates to willingness to

mentor in the future and perceptions of program effectiveness. In addition, met expectations functions to partially mediate several of the relationships between effort and mentoring outcomes, which is consistent with the role of met expectations in the relationship between mentoring functions and relationship outcomes (Young & Perrewé, 2000).

It is clear that while employees may associate a host of roles and responsibilities with the terms mentor and protégé (Eby & Rhodes, in press), this study suggests that potential protégés and mentors do not bring an equivalent conceptualization of those roles into the mentoring relationship. This study is a first step in understanding the consequences of these differences. Overall, mentoring research should continue to move away from a one-sided perspective on mentoring (Feldman, 1999) and advance mentoring theory with an understanding of, 1) the protégé's role and its subsequent effects on the relationship and mentor, 2) the framework of expectations for each role as described by mentors and protégés, and 3) how those expectations impact relationship development and subsequent outcomes.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Survey Items

*Independent Variables*Expected Career-Related Mentor Behaviors (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. **I expect a mentor to nominate his/her protégé for promotions, awards, or professional opportunities.**
2. **I expect a mentor to make his/her protégé visible to others through verbal or written communication, or personal introduction.**
3. I expect a mentor to provide opportunities and resources for professional development.^{R,2}
4. I expect a mentor to assist the protégé in determining an appropriate career path.^{A,2}
5. I expect a mentor to help determine the protégés' strengths and areas of opportunity for development.^{A,3}
6. **I expect a mentor to follow through on commitments to the protégé.**^A
7. **I expect a mentor to provide the protégé uninterrupted time and attention during meetings.**^A
8. I expect a mentor to suggest ways to improve the protégé's technical knowledge, skills, and performance.^{R,2}
9. **I expect a mentor to reduce risks or threats to the protégé's advancement by supporting him/her or speaking on the protégé's behalf.**²
10. I expect a mentor to discuss any personal concerns and problems, which may hinder the protégé's progress.²
11. **I expect a mentor to share professional experiences, challenges, and lessons learned with the protégé.**^A
12. **I expect a mentor to help set achievable goals for the protégé.**^A
13. I expect a mentor to provide specific strategies and information about how to enhance the protégé's ability to achieve his/her objectives, recognition, or career aspirations.²

Expected Psychosocial Mentor Behaviors (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. I expect a mentor to interact with the protégé as a friend.²

2. **I expect a mentor to show a personal interest in the protégé and the protégé's values, goals, and aspirations.**
3. **I expect a mentor to share personal experiences and insight.**^A
4. I expect a mentor to like the protégé for who he/she is.²
5. **I expect a mentor to conduct himself/herself in a professional manner.**
6. **I expect a mentor to provide the protégé with open, honest feedback.**^A
7. I expect a mentor to tolerate differences between him/her and the protégé.²
8. **I expect a mentor to provide encouragement and support.**^A
9. **I expect a mentor to provide objective guidance and advice.**^A
10. **I expect a mentor to actively listen to the protégé and to serve as a sounding board for any issues or concerns.**^A

Expected Career-related Protégé Behaviors (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. **I expect a protégé to follow through on the mentor's coaching and professional development opportunities.**^A
2. I expect a protégé to share information about current performance as well as professional goals and objectives.^{A,3}
3. I expect a protégé to manage the relationship (e.g., schedule meetings).^{A,1}
4. **I expect a protégé to put forth effort in attending training or other professional development activities suggested by the mentor.**^R
5. I expect a protégé to clearly communicate what he/she wants to achieve during the mentoring relationship.^{A,3}
6. I expect a protégé to request advice or information on projects or strategies about how to enhance his/her ability to achieve objectives, recognition, or career aspirations.²
7. **I expect a protégé to accept or request challenging tasks which enhance his/her technical knowledge.**
8. I expect a protégé to discuss any personal concerns and problems which may hinder his/her progress.²
9. **I expect a protégé to show interest in prestigious or professionally useful tasks, committees, or projects valued by the organization.**^R
10. **I expect a protégé to develop and maintain a development plan and to work towards goals.**^A
11. **I expect a protégé to put forth discretionary effort beyond that required by his/her position in the organization.**^R

12. **I expect a protégé to provide information about current projects which may be problematic.**

R

Expected Psychosocial Protégé Behaviors (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. I expect a protégé to share personal experiences, perspectives, and ideas. ^{A,2}
2. I expect a protégé to like the mentor for who he/she is. ²
3. **I expect a protégé to model personal behavior after the mentor.**
4. **I expect a protégé to interact with the mentor as a friend.**
5. **I expect a protégé to model professional behavior after the mentor.**
6. **I expect a protégé to be open and honest with his/her mentor.** ^A
7. I expect a protégé to show a personal interest in the mentor and the mentor's values, goals, and aspirations. ²
8. **I expect a protégé to demonstrate openness to his/her mentor's feedback, suggestions, advice and ideas.** ^A
9. **I expect a protégé to tolerate differences between him/her and the mentor.**

Process Variables: Moderator and Mediator

Perceived Other Effort (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. How much effort has your protégé/mentor put into developing a good relationship with you?

Met Expectations (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. So far, I have received what I expected to receive from the relationship.
2. I'm not getting what I expected from the relationship. ^{RS}

Dependent Variables

Relationship Quality (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. The mentoring relationship between my protégé/mentor and I is very effective.
2. I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my protégé/mentor and I have developed.
3. My protégé/mentor has effectively utilized me in my role as a mentor.
4. My protégé/mentor and I enjoy a high-quality relationship.
5. Both my protégé/mentor and I benefit from the mentoring relationship.

Willingness to Mentor (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. I have no desire to mentor in the future. ^{RS}
2. I would like to be a mentor in the future.
3. I intend to be a mentor.
4. I would be comfortable assuming a mentoring role in the future.

Program Effectiveness (Mentor and Protégé Perspective)

1. I believe the company's formal mentoring program is very effective.
2. I think the company's formal mentoring program needs considerable improvement. ^{RS}
3. The formal mentoring program here is well designed and administered.
4. There appears to be considerable support for the mentoring program from top management. ¹
5. I am very satisfied with the organization's mentoring program.
6. I am not very happy with the organization's mentoring program. ^{RS}
7. The mentoring program met my needs.

Affective Organizational Commitment (Protégé Perspective)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. ^{RS}
4. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. ^{RS}
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. ^{RS}
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Notes. A = item added based on pilot results; R = revised item; RS = reverse-scored item; 1 = item deleted based on reliability analysis; 2 = item deleted because it did not significantly load onto a factor for mentors and/or protégés; 3 = item deleted because it did not load onto same factor for mentors and protégés; **bold** = item retained in final Expected Behaviors measure.

APPENDIX B

Study Invitation: Email from Executive Sponsor

Dear [Company X Mentoring Program participant]:

As you know, Company X is committed to helping its employees' personal and professional development. One way we have demonstrated this investment is through our mentoring program. As part of our commitment to continuous improvement, we are collaborating with the University of Georgia in a study of mentoring relationships. The study is entitled, "Improving Mentoring Program Effectiveness" and is being conducted by Angie Lockwood, a doctoral student and Company X employee, and her advisor, Dr. Lillian Eby.

The information obtained from this study will help us to evaluate and enhance the mentoring program. Therefore, we would greatly appreciate your participation in this study by completing a brief survey that should take no longer than 20 minutes of your time to complete. Within a few hours, you will receive a link to this survey in an email from Angie Lockwood.

By participating in this study you are also helping Company X associates through a donation to the XX. The amount of the donation will depend on how many participants in the mentoring program submit a completed survey. We are aiming for 100% participation, which will translate into a \$500 donation!

Please read the attached Consent Advisory letter from the researchers at the University of Georgia for important information about the study. Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Executive Vice-President, Human Resources/Operations & Logistics
Company X

APPENDIX C

Letter of Informed Consent

[insert date]

Dear Company X Employee:

I am writing to ask for your help in a study entitled “Improving Mentoring Program Effectiveness”. This study is designed to determine, 1) what expectations Company X employees have for the mentor role and the protégé role, 2) employees’ actual mentoring experiences, and 3) employees’ attitudes about the mentoring relationship and mentoring program.

You have been selected to participate in this study because the only way we can find out about mentoring relationships at Company X is to contact employees like you. We are contacting mentors and protégés who participated in the formal mentoring program in order to ask questions related to your expectations and actual experiences in the mentoring relationship. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Results from this study will be used to better understand the mentoring relationships occurring at Company X. Neither the name, nor the location of your organization will be reported in any write-ups. Instead, both the name and location of Company X will be referred to using pseudonyms and fictitious locations.

In addition, your responses will remain completely confidential and will be reported only as part of the total sample’s responses. Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. However, once the materials are received by the researcher, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed. Once the researcher receives the completed survey, your responses will be saved to a file, printed, and stored securely. Your responses will not remain on the hard drive of any computer. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential unless required by law. Your responses will remain the sole property of the primary researcher, and individual responses will not be provided to Company X. No risks, discomforts, or stresses are expected from completing this voluntary questionnaire. By completing the survey, you are indicating your informed consent to participate in this study. Please complete and return this survey by [insert date] in order to ensure that your responses are included in this study.

Thank you in advance for your help with this important study! By participating in this study, you will also be contributing to a \$500 donation to the X fund. The donation will be based on the percentage of completed surveys submitted. If 100% of all possible participants complete the survey and submit their responses, then a donation of \$500.00 will be made to the X Fund on behalf of mentoring program participants. The amount of the donation will decrease as the response rate decreases (e.g., 10% = \$50 donation, 70% = \$350 donation). The actual amount of the donation will be announced 1 week after the deadline for completing the survey, or [insert date].

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by telephone at 678-481-2873 or via email at alokwood@uga.edu.

Sincerely,

Angie Lockwood
Doctoral Student and Project Director
Psychology Department
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602
Phone: 678-481-2873

Lillian Eby, Ph.D.
Faculty Advisor
Psychology Department
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602
Phone: 706-542-2174

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX D

Email from Researcher with Survey Link

Dear [insert name]:

You received an email earlier today from [insert name of executive sponsor] regarding a study that [insert company name] is conducting in partnership with the University of Georgia. Again, the survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete and it is critical that all participants in the mentoring program respond so that the data is representative of all participants and valid conclusions can be drawn. Please click on the following link to complete the survey:

[website link]

Your time and effort to participate in this important study is greatly appreciated! The amount of the donation to the [insert name of fund] will be announced on [insert date]. Please contact Angie Lockwood at 678-481-2873 or at alokwood@uga.edu with any questions or comments.

Regards,

Angie Lockwood
Doctoral Student and Project Director
Psychology Department
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602
Phone: 678-481-2873

APPENDIX E

Email Reminder #1

Dear [insert name]:

Only 1 week remains for you to complete the survey! The deadline for responding is 5pm on [insert date]. Please take a few minutes to carefully respond to the survey items, which you can access by clicking on the link listed below:

[website link]

XX% of the mentoring program participants have responded so far, but obtaining responses from all participants is critical to the success of this study. Your time and effort to participate in this important study is greatly appreciated! Only [insert number] of participants are needed to increase the donation amount from \$XX to \$500! Please contact Angie Lockwood at 678-481-2873 or at alokwood@uga.edu with any questions or comments.

Regards,

Angie Lockwood
Doctoral Student and Project Director
Psychology Department
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602
Phone: 678-481-2873

APPENDIX F

Email Reminder #2

Dear [insert name]:

Only 2 days remain for you to complete the survey! Please take a few minutes to carefully respond to the survey items, which you can access by clicking on the link listed below:

[website link]

XX% of the mentoring program participants have responded so far, but obtaining responses from all participants is critical to the success of this study. Your time and effort to participate in this important study is greatly appreciated! Only [insert number] of participants are needed to increase the donation amount from \$XX to \$500! Please contact Angie Lockwood at 678-481-2873 or at alokwood@uga.edu with any questions or comments.

Regards,

Angie Lockwood
Doctoral Student and Project Director
Psychology Department
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602
Phone: 678-481-2873