AN EXAMINATION OF THE FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO PROTÉGÉ

PERCEPTIONS OF NEGATIVE MENTORING EXPERIENCES: A VICTIM

PRECIPITATION THEORY APPROACH

by

DAVID B. FACTEAU

(Under the Direction of Lillian T. Eby)

ABSTRACT

The current study examines a framework of predictor, process, and moderating variables that contribute to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences within workplace mentoring relationships. Drawing from Victim Precipitation Theory (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000), I test two mediated moderation models in which various protégé characteristics are proposed to predict negative mentor appraisals of the relationship, which in turn, are proposed to predict protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Further, an interaction effect was proposed in which mentor perceptions of accountability for mentoring were said to moderate the relationship between mentor appraisals of the relationship and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. The models were largely unsupported. While the framework was unsupported, this study has implications for the future use of Victim Precipitation Theory in the organizational sciences and proposes an agenda for future research for the negative mentoring literature.

INDEX WORDS: Workplace mentoring, victim precipitation theory, negative mentoring

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DAVID B. FACTEAU

B.A., Auburn University, 2018

A Thesis Proposal Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the University of Georgia in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2022

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DAVID B. FACTEAU

Major Professor: Lillian T. Eby

Committee: Nathan T. Carter

Kristen M. Shockley

Electronic Version Approved:

Ron Walcott

Dean of the Graduate School

The University of Georgia

May 2022

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Workplace mentoring is conceptualized as a relationship involving a more experienced individual, the mentor, and a less experienced individual, typically the protégé, in which the purpose of the relationship is the personal and professional development of the protégé (Kram, 1985). Workplace mentoring is generally regarded as a beneficial workplace relationship with empirical evidence suggesting that mentoring can lead to favorable behavioral, attitudinal, and career-related outcomes for the protégé such as higher job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions, and higher salaries (Allen et al., 2004; Chao, 1997; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Eby et al., 2013; Fagenson, 1989; Koberg et al., 1994).

Workplace mentoring has received considerable attention in both the academic literature and the popular press with over one million search results on google scholar as well as 1700 mentoring search results on the popular press outlet Harvard Business Review (Harvard Business Review, 2020). This focused attention on mentoring from both academic and popular press outlets may have contributed to the pervasive emphasis on mentoring within American organizations. According to Forbes Magazine, 70 percent of Fortune 500 companies have corporate sponsored mentoring programs (Behenshti, 2019).

While workplace mentoring is often perceived and studied within a positive relational frame, a growing body of research suggests that not all workplace mentoring relationships are positive. In her foundational work, Kram (1985) argues that under the right circumstances, a

mentoring relationship can become destructive for both individuals. Empirical evidence supports this claim, with research suggesting that some mentors (e.g., Eby et al., 2008; Eby & McManus, 2004) and protégés (e.g., Eby et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2004; Eby et al., 2000; Scandura, 1998) may experience negative relational events. Negative mentoring experiences reported by protégés are conceptualized as relational experiences that limit the mentor's ability to effectively provide guidance to the protégé, and these negative experiences can have consequences for both individuals and organizations (Eby et al., 2000). These consequences include debilitating effects on protégé work attitudes such as lower job satisfaction, higher turnover intentions, and reduced well-being (Eby et al., 2000; Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby & McManus, 2004; Scandura & Hamilton, 2002). Moreover, mentor perceptions of negative mentoring experiences contribute to adverse attitudes and behaviors towards the protégé such as fostering feelings of resentment as well as reductions in the amount of support mentors provide their protégés (Eby et al., 2008; Eby & McManus, 2004)

Yet, while we know that negative mentoring experiences can contribute to unfavorable outcomes for protégés, (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2004), we know little about the various factors that give rise to these experiences. Empirical examination into the factors that contribute to negative mentoring experiences is limited, however, various potential antecedents have been proposed. For example, Eby et al. (2000) note that characteristics of both the mentor and the protégé may be contributing factors that lend certain protégés more susceptible to negative mentoring experiences. However, these individual characteristics may just be the starting point in understanding factors associated with negative mentoring experiences. This lack of research into contributing factors of negative mentoring experiences leaves a gap in the literature that is ripe for further research.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the factors that predict negative mentoring experiences from the perspective of the protégé using time separated data from in-tact mentor-protégé dyads. Drawing from Victim Precipitation Theory (VPT) (Amir, 1967; Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Curtis, 1974; Felson, 1978), I propose that protégé characteristics, mentor appraisals of the protégé, and mentor perceptions of organizational accountability for mentoring contribute to the development of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. This study answers the call from Eby et al. (2000) to examine both protégé and mentor characteristics that contribute to these negative experiences, and further expands their call by incorporating a framework of the critical mediating and moderating variables that may account for these effects.

This study makes a contribution in three major ways. First, this study incorporates a new theoretical perspective into the mentoring literature. To the authors knowledge, no mentoring research has examined mentoring relationships through the lens of VPT. This is a critical contribution as mentoring scholars have noted that the mentoring literature is in need of further integration of various theoretical perspectives (McManus & Russell, 1997; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). Further, the integration of the VPT perspective provides a greater understanding of the nomological network of workplace mentoring—a need that mentoring scholars have emphasized for more attention towards (Wanberg et al., 2003). Second, this study advances VPT by providing the first empirical test of the proposed linking mechanisms of victim characteristics to perceived victimization. Previous studies using VPT have largely omitted process variables that contribute to victim perceptions of victimization, and this study provides the first empirical test that can potentially lead to further integration of the contributing process variables into future organizational research. Finally, this study makes a practical contribution by

identifying potential warning signs of negative mentoring experiences, enabling organizations to

implement safeguards to reduce the likelihood of relational problems.

CHAPTER 2

NEGATIVE MENTORING EXPERIENCES AT WORK

Although workplace mentoring is broadly defined as a relationship in which the mentor aids in the personal and professional development of the protégé (Kram, 1985), there are role-related features associated with different types of mentoring relationships that may contribute to unique relational dynamics between mentor and protégé. Specifically, mentors can occupy positions of formal authority over protégés as supervisory mentors, hold a position outside of the protégé's department, or even work outside the protégé's organization (Kram, 1985). The mentoring literature suggests that these differences in the relative position of the mentor and the protégé has influence on the mentoring relationship. For example, supervisory mentoring is associated with more positive protégé outcomes than nonsupervisory mentoring (Burke & McKeen, 1997; Eby et al., 2015; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Scandura & Williams, 2004), arguably due to more frequent, daily contact.

In this study, I choose to focus on supervisory mentoring because it affords more opportunity for mentor-protégé interactions, which is important when examining lower base rate negative relational behaviors such as negative mentoring experiences. Supervisory mentoring is also distinct from general supervisor-subordinate relationships because it is less task-oriented, more emotionally close, and less structured (Eby et al., 2015). Further, supervisory mentoring relationships are more likely to occur in the workplace as the proximity of supervisory mentors to their protégés makes them more accessible (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). For instance, Burke

and McKeen (1997) found that in a sample of 280 business graduates, 85% of the participants' mentoring relationships were supervisory relationships.

Evidence of negative mentoring experiences within mentoring relationships was first examined qualitatively in Kram's (1985) foundational work on mentoring. Kram used structured interviews to provide an example of a mentor and protégé who once shared a mutually beneficial mentoring relationship, but over time the relationship became frustrating and unsatisfactory for both the mentor and protégé. While Kram (1985) notes that mentoring relationships may become destructive, research into negative mentoring did not gain significant traction until the late 1990's. Scandura (1998) first brought attention to this lack of sufficient research into negative mentoring in the workplace. Drawing from Duck's (1994) typology of the "dark side" of interpersonal relationships, Scandura (1998) proposed the first theoretical framework of dysfunctional mentoring. Within this framework, Scandura proposed that both mentor and protégé characteristics may contribute to the development of destructive relational patters that go on to affect downstream outcomes for both the mentor and the protégé. These destructive relational patterns are characterized as relational events and behaviors that mentors (and sometimes protégés) engage in. Scandura (1998) proposed seven indicators of dysfunctional mentoring that include mentor sabotage, difficulty, spoiling, submissiveness, deception, negative relations, and harassment. This foundational research was the first to propose and categorize specific negative relational events that contribute to negative mentoring relationships. The specific behaviors proposed by Scandura (1998) were further refined and validated by Eby et al., (2000).

Drawing from Scandura's (1998) work, Eby et al. (2000) extended the negative mentoring literature by proposing a taxonomy of negative mentoring experiences from the

perspective of the protégé. Using content analysis from descriptive interviews, Eby et al. (2000) proposed five broad meta-themes of negative experiences that protégés may encounter within the mentoring relationship. These meta-themes include mismatch within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, and general dysfunctionality. The meta-themes encapsulate three general relational problems: negative mentor behavior, mismatch with the mentor which makes connection difficult, and perceived mentor ineptness. Results from this study suggest that protégé perceptions of negative relational events in the workplace are not necessarily low base-rate, with more than half of the sample reporting that they experienced some form of negative mentoring experience in their mentoring relationship. Eby and colleagues' findings gave greater credence to scholars calling for examination into this phenomenon.

The construct of negative mentoring experiences was further refined by Eby et al. (2004). In this study, Eby and colleagues propose a measure of negative mentoring experiences from the perspective of the protégé that is composed of five different types of negative experiences, as described next. *Mismatch within the dyad* is conceptualized as the protégé's perceived mismatch between the mentor and protégé in terms of values, work styles and personality. This is the most frequently reported form of negative mentoring (Eby et al. 2004). *General dysfunctionality* occurs when the protégé perceives that the mentor generally has a negative outlook about his or her own work and/or the organization. Additionally, the mentor may have personal problems (e.g., drinking problem, personal issues that carryover to the work domain) that interfere with his or her ability to effectively support the protégé. Mentor *distancing behavior* occurs when the protégé perceives that the mentor neglects or intentionally excludes the protégé from important workplace events (i.e. important meetings). Additionally, the protégé may view the mentor as

being self-absorbed and not having time to provide appropriate mentoring. *Manipulative behavior* occurs when the protégé perceives that the mentor uses his/her power in an abusive manner and may also perceive that the mentor is under or over delegating tasks to the protégé. Further, the mentor may engage in self-promoting political behavior at the expense of the protégé. Some of these behaviors include taking credit for the protégé's work, deceit, and sabotage of the protégé. Finally, *lack of mentor expertise* is the protégé's perception that the mentor lacks technical or interpersonal expertise to effectively mentor the protégé (Eby et al. 2004).

Results from Eby et al. (2004) provided strong content, construct, and criterion-related validity for the 5-factor structure of the negative mentoring experiences construct from the perspective of the protégé. Further, the authors argue that this study makes a significant contribution to the mentoring literature by solidifying the construct of negative mentoring experiences into the larger theoretical context of workplace mentoring. Drawing from this operationalization, organizational mentoring scholars continued to examine the effects of negative mentoring experiences on protégé outcomes.

Perceptions of negative mentoring experiences from the perspective of the protégé have been tied to a host of negative individual outcomes. For example, Eby et al. (2004) found that negative mentoring experiences were associated with protégé depressed mood and job withdrawal. Further, their findings also illustrated that negative mentoring was negatively related to protégé learning outcomes at work. Negative mentoring experiences can also affect attitudes about one's job and organization. For example, Haggard (2011) found that negative mentoring was significantly related to lower organizational commitment and lower job satisfaction for the protégé. It is also important to note that positive mentoring experiences do not necessarily

compensate for negative mentoring experiences. Results from Eby et al. (2010) suggest that negative mentoring experiences more strongly predict protégé outcomes than positive mentoring experiences. Collectively, the extant literature documents that negative mentoring experiences can have particularly debilitating effects on protégés.

Research examining negative mentoring experiences has also taken the perspective of the mentor. Eby and McManus (2004) proposed a continuum of relationship problems that mentors may encounter with proteges. Eby and McManus propose that negative mentoring experiences from the perspective of the mentor range from dysfunctional relational experiences to marginally effective relationship experiences. The key feature of this continuum involves behavioral intent of the relational partners. Dysfunctional relationship experiences are typically characterized by bad intent. Some of these behaviors include protégé sabotage (e.g., badmouthing a mentor to others), egocentric protégé behavior (e.g., obtaining a mentor to block another individual's chances of receiving mentoring), and malevolent deception aimed at the mentor. These protégé behaviors potentially contribute to mentor feelings of resentment or disklike of the protégé (Eby & McManus, 2004).

Other types of negative mentoring experiences from the perspective of the mentor fall into the category of ineffective relationship experiences (Eby & McManus, 2004). These types of experiences are less serious than dysfunctional ones in that the mentor and the protégé may have positive intentions towards one another, but the relationship suffers because of interpersonal difficulties. Protégé behaviors identified here include difficulty (relational conflicts and disagreements) and protégé submissiveness (over-dependence on the mentor). Eby and McManus (2004) discuss how mentors may experience frustration or dissatisfaction in response to such protégé behaviors.

The construct of mentor perceptions of negative mentoring experiences was further refined and validated by Eby et al. (2008). Results from their scale development study found support for a three-factor model of mentor perceptions of negative experiences with the protégé which included dimensions of mentor perceptions of protégé performance problems, interpersonal problems, and destructive relational problems. *Protégé performance problems* are characterized by mentor perceptions of protégé performance that is below expectations, the protégés unwillingness to learn, and concerns that the protégé engages in self-destructive behavior (e.g. substance abuse). *Protégé interpersonal problems* include four types of negative experiences that mentors may encounter with their protégés, including conflicts, protégé impression management and gamesmanship, protégé submissiveness, and relationship deterioration. Finally, *destructive relational problems* are characterized by five types of negative experiences with the protégé: breach of mentor trust, protégé exploitive behavior, protégé sabotage, jealousy and competitiveness, and protégé harassment.

Results from Eby et al. (2008) found that mentor perceptions of protégé performance problems, protégé interpersonal problems, and destructive relational problems contributed negatively to both mentor and protégé perceptions of relationship quality. Further, mentors' perceptions of negative mentoring experiences with the protégé affected their behavior towards the protégé. Results found that mentor perceptions of negative mentoring experiences was negatively related to the amount of support mentors provided to their protégés. Taken together, the results from Eby and McManus (2004) and Eby et al. (2008) suggest that protégés can engage in behavior that contributes to the mentors' overall perceptions of the relationship, and these negative perceptions are associated with both mentor attitudes and behaviors towards their protégés. Moreover, results suggest that protégé behavior may have influence on the mentor's

appraisal of the overall relationship which may subsequently affect how the mentor behaves towards the protégé. Whether they have bad intent or good intent, protégé behaviors contribute to mentor appraisals of the mentoring relationship, which may subsequently affect mentor and protégé outcomes.

While research on negative mentoring experiences underscores negative protégé outcomes, there is still little consensus in the mentoring literature regarding precipitating factors of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. This lack of empirical investigation into the contributing factors that predict these negative experiences has not gone unnoticed by mentoring scholars. For example, Eby et al. (2000) called for research that "examines characteristics of protégés who are susceptible to negative mentoring experiences" (p. 15). While antecedents are in need of empirical examination, the mentoring literature also lacks an overall framework that aims to place antecedent, process, and moderating variables into a comprehensive model to help predict contributing factors of these negative experiences. However, as summarized in this chapter, research suggests that mentor appraisals of the relationship may contribute to subsequent behavior towards the protégé. Research in other areas of the organizational sciences provides insights into a potential framework that may help predict these negative mentoring experiences. In recent years, organizational scholars have turned towards victim precipitation theory (VPT) (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000), which provides a theoretical framework for understanding negative interpersonal relationships at

CHAPTER 3

VICTIM PRECIPITATION THEORY

VPT was first applied to a workplace context by Aquino and Bradfield (2000). VPT posits that both situational and victim-oriented factors may contribute to one's own victimization. The authors conceptualize victimization as an individual's self-perception of having been exposed to aggressive acts from one or more persons. VPT has gained attention in recent years within organizational scholarship and is often cited in research examining abusive workplace relationships such as abusive supervision and workplace bullying (Bowling & Behr, 2006; Henle & Gross, 2017; Khan et al., 2017; Tepper, 2006; Wang et al., 2015). However, while the theory has gained traction in some areas of organizational research, VPT has also received considerable opposition from some organizational scholars. For example, Dhanani et al. (2019) and Cortina et al. (2018) have both called for the organizational sciences to move away from the use of VPT because the theory may be interpreted as engaging in "victim blaming." While VPT has become a divisive theory in the organizational sciences, there has not been a comprehensive test of VPT up to this point. As such, the utility of this theory for understanding relational problems in the workplace has yet to be fully examined.

The concept of victim precipitation was first developed in the criminology literature. Victim precipitation—the idea that some crime victims either knowingly or unknowingly participate in the sequence of events that lead to their becoming a victim—was first developed by Amir (1967). In his study, Amir examined cases of forcible rape in the city of Philadelphia.

Results from the study found that certain factors repeatedly arose in rape cases such as the presence of alcohol, the victim knowing the perpetrator, and the victim living in close proximity to the perpetrator. Unfortunately, Amir (1967) used these results to promote a narrative of victim blaming. In his study, Amir notes that victims had a "bad reputation" and put themselves into situations that brought on their own forcible rape. The use of empirical research to justify a narrative of victim blaming, especially in the context of violent and sexually charged crimes, is misguided. While Amir's (1967) interpretation of his findings are concerning, this study set a foundation in the criminology literature to better understand the interplay between victim characteristics and perpetrator *justifications* for their criminal behavior. The omission of reviewing these early criminology studies would leave the full picture of this literature's history incomplete, and these reviews are included because the incremental knowledge that was gained contributed to VPT in the organizational sciences and provides information in understanding the interplay between victim characteristics, perpetrator characteristics and behavior. As such, greater examination of perpetrator characteristics were later considered in criminology studies in the 1970's.

Curtis (1974) examined the idea of victim precipitation in other violent crimes. In his study, Curtis coded crime data and asked trained coders to report the presence or absence of provocation by the victim. Based on the findings of the study, Curtis argued that perpetrators look for opportunities to justify their engagement in violent crime. For example, in an aggravated assault case, police reports indicated that the victim of the assault was described as overly aggressive and/or continuously engaging with the perpetrator. In robbery cases, Curtis (1974) found that perpetrators often took advantage of vulnerable individuals (i.e. elderly persons, individuals walking alone). Further, more "professional" robbers described looking for specific

vulnerabilities of both individuals and institutions (i.e. no security system, easily accessible back door). A theme that appears from Curtis' (1974) study is that there appears to be interplay between situational factors and victim characteristics that contribute to the perpetrators' *justification* for engaging in acts of aggression against victims.

Extending Amir (1967) and Curtis' (1974) thinking, Wolfgang and Simon (1978) attempted to organize a taxonomy of victim types. Wolfgang and Simon (1978) proposed a category of victim in which "certain bio-psychosocial personality traits may converge in some individuals, to propel them toward criminal situations and persons in such a way as to result in higher than average probabilities of being victimized." (p. 389). The authors go on to argue that these victims may engage in a form of negligence that perpetrators later take advantage of. Forms of negligence include but are not limited to leaving keys unattended in the car, leaving newspapers piling up on the front step while the family is on vacation, and keeping expensive items in plain view, leaving these individuals' belongings particularly vulnerable to being stolen. In a similar light to Amir (1967) and Curtis (1974), Wolfgang and Simon (1978) argue that there may also be victims that provoke their own attack by encouraging the perpetrator. For example, the victim may provoke the aggressor by being overly verbal. In this case, the victim is in essence "bringing on" their own attack.

Using these criminology studies as a backdrop, Aquino and Bradfield (2000) attempted to extended victim precipitation into the workplace context. In their foundational work, Aquino and Bradfield describe a portrait of a typical victim that may lend themselves more vulnerable to aggressive action by others in the workplace. VPT postulates that there are two types of victims: Provocative and submissive victims. Aquino and Bradfield draw from both the criminology literature as well as other disciplines to inform the submissive and provocative victim profile.

Aquino and Bradfield (2000) describe the submissive victim as an individual with a combination of characteristics that contribute to their victimization. These characteristics include the individual holding negative views of themselves, being generally distressed, and being generally withdrawn. Further, Aquino and Bradfield draw from previous literature to further describe characteristics of submissive victims. For example, Olweus (1978) examined characteristics of boys who were continuously bullied in school, termed "whipping boys" by Olweus. Olweus' research identified the "passive whipping boy." These passive whipping boys were more likely to be less popular, nonaggressive, restrained, generally anxious, insecure, physically weaker, unable to assert themselves with peers, afraid to show aggression, sensitive, and were generally brought up in "non-masculine" environments.

A close examination of the criminology literature also alludes to specific victim profiles. While this literature does not explicitly draw a distinction between the submissive and the provocative victim, the literature does provide parallels for each of these victim types. For example, Amir (1967) proposed that some victims of rape failed to react when a man showed sexual advances. Further, Curtis (1974) describes victims of aggressive crime as passive, submissive, and not self-protective against attack. Moreover, perpetrators of robbery were more likely to steal when the "opportunity arose" such as when a victim was old or walking alone, unable to defend themselves. Taken together from both Aquino and Bradfield (2000) and the criminology literature, the victimization literature conceptualizes the submissive victim as an individual that is generally anxious and meek, has lower social status, and is non-aggressive and unlikely to respond to negative workplace experiences. Extending this research to mentor-protégé relationships, a combination of similar characteristics may be associated a "vulnerable

protégé" profile that makes an individual more likely to experience negative mentoring experiences.

Conversely, VPT proposes a second victim type: the provocative victim. Aquino and Bradfield (2000) describe the provocative victim as aggressive, hostile, threatening, impulsive, volatile, independent, rejected by peers, generally sad, high in negative affectivity, generally hard to like, annoying, and provoking. The conceptualization of this victim type stems from both the criminal victimology and the bullying literatures. For example, Olewus (1978) identifies the provocative bullying victim in his study of bullying in school. Olewus (1978) describes the "provocative whipping boy" as a boy that is actively irritating, creates unnecessary tension, is restless, hot-tempered, and aggressive. This type of victim is also rejected by peers and has a smaller and less well developed social network.

Moreover, the criminology literature also alludes to the provocative victim. Although some scholars today are critical of early work on the idea of provocative victim profile, it is important to discuss this work to provide context for the proposed study. For example, Amir (1967) describes a provocative rape victim as one that "invites a direct invitation" through behavioral patterns that put her at risk (e.g., using vulgar language and gestures, drinking alcohol, prior incarceration). In other types of aggressive crimes, Curtis (1974) describes a provocative victim as someone who first engages the perpetrator in physical violence, is defensively tough, displays overt physical displays of masculinity, acts anti-socially, and uses insulting language towards the perpetrator. In all, the victimization literature suggests that provocative victims interpret stimuli more aggressively, possess personality characteristics that may be considered irritating or annoying by others (e.g. hot-tempered, restless, provoking, higher in negative affectivity) and may have an unfavorable reputation within the workplace.

Extrapolating to the mentor-protégé relationship, a similar combination of protégé characteristics may create a "provocative protégé" profile that is associated with greater reports of negative mentoring experiences.

To summarize the major tenets of VPT, the theory proposes that *a combination of characteristics* compose each victim profile. VPT further argues that victim perceptions of aggression arise from two primary pathways. First, submissive victims may elicit aggressive responses from others because they are perceived by aggressors as an easy target (i.e. the submissive victim). Second, both submissive and provocative victims may be perceived by the aggressor as a nuisance deserving of aggressive action (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). As such, an underlying and untested premise of VPT is that regardless of the pathway, perpetrators make an appraisal of the victim which provides justification for aggressive acts. However, perpetrator appraisals have yet to be empirically tested even though they represent important explanatory processes that underlies VPT.

It is also important to note that VPT's application to organizational behavior primarily focuses on acts of workplace aggression. In their foundational work, Aquino and Bradfield (2000) define acts of aggression as "interpersonal behavior that inflicts harm, injury, or discomfort upon the target of the act" (p. 526). In organizational research, workplace aggression has been examined in multiple workplace contexts, and in multiple forms (e.g., workplace harassment, mobbing, abusive supervision, victimizing) (Aquino & Thau, 2009). An underlying assumption of organizational application of VPT is that the perpetrator's behavior is aversive and potentially harmful to the victim. I propose that VPT can be extended to the mentoring context by integrating research on negative mentoring experiences from the protégé and mentor perspective.

Although negative mentoring experiences are not traditionally labeled as "aggressive", the literature documents deleterious outcomes associations with on protégés' perception of the mentoring relationship, protégé attitudes, protégé work outcomes (Eby et al., 2000; Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby & McManus, 2004; Scandura & Hamilton, 2002). Given that the primary focus of a mentoring relationship is the personal and professional growth of the protégé (Kram, 1985), negative mentoring experiences potentially thwart the goals of the protégé, which may inflict harm on protégés both professionally and personally. Therefore, because negative mentoring experiences are aversive and potentially harmful to protégés, extending VPT to the mentoring context is potentially valuable to advance our understanding of why some mentoring relationships may be marked by negative relational exchanges.

Three types of negative mentoring experiences aimed at the protégé (manipulative behavior, distancing behavior, general dysfunctionality) may be potentially harmful to the protégé. Eby et al. (2004) conceptualized protégé perceptions of manipulative behavior as consisting of mentor behaviors such as deliberately misleading the protégé and actively taking credit for the protégé's work. These behaviors may intentionally harm the protégés development. Distancing behavior includes mentor behaviors such as passive aggressively ignoring the protégé and/or actively ignoring the protégé for the mentor's own career advancement (Eby et al., 2004). Finally, general dysfunctionality includes mentor behaviors such as displaying a caustic or negative attitude or bringing personal problems into the mentoring relationship that may not be aimed at *intentionally* harming the protégé but may still undermine the protégé's personal and professional development. For example, a mentor who openly displays disdain for the organization or complains openly about the organization may damage the protégé's reputation by association.

Supporting the application of VPT to mentoring, the theory has been utilized in other sub-disciplines of organizational science to help predict negative interpersonal events and relationships such as abusive supervision (e.g., Henle & Gross, 2014; Khan et al., 2017; Tepper, 2006; Wang et al., 2015) and workplace harassment (e.g., Bowling & Behr, 2006). A point of emphasis is that the majority of these studies only examine the link between victim characteristics and victim perceptions, failing to consider perpetrator appraisals that may contribute to their justification as predicted by VPT. For example, Khan et al. (2017) found that submissive worldviews were positively related to perceptions of abusive supervision in poor performers. Further, Henle and Gross (2014) found that victim characteristics such as emotional stability and conscientiousness were negatively related to perceptions of abusive supervision. Wang et al. (2015) found that self-reported subordinate task performance partially mediated the relationship between subordinate neuroticism and subordinate perceptions of abusive supervision. In a meta-analysis of workplace harassment, Bowling and Behr (2006) found that victim negative affectivity contributes to victim perceptions of harassment. Finally, some abusive supervision studies do take perpetrator variables into consideration such as perpetrator justice perceptions, but these studies also do not consider the perpetrators cognitions and attitudes towards the victim (Tepper, 2006).

VPT is in need of a more comprehensive test to examine the underlying assumptions of the theory. Studies that utilize VPT generally examine a singular victim characteristic in isolation rather than in considering how a constellation of individual differences may contribute to negative relational experiences. For example, negative affectivity is often used as a proxy variable for the submissive victim (Bowling & Behr, 2006; Tepper, 2006). However, drawing from VPT, bullying, and the criminology literatures, it is clear that victim types are characterized

by multiple characteristics operating in conjunction with one another. In other words, victims who display higher levels of multiple characteristics may be more likely to be targets of negative relational events.

Finally, a major assumption of VPT is that situational factors such as organizational variables contribute to victimization in the workplace. Elias (1986) points to two situational factors that may impact victimization rates: regulatory failures and structural forces. Elias describes regulatory failures as deficiencies in the rules and practices of society's efforts to control crime. An example of regulatory failure discussed by Aquino and Bradfield (2000) includes law enforcement failing to actively pursue white collar criminals. Structural forces are defined as the economic, social, or bureaucratic conditions that create an environment conducive for the induction of criminal aggression (Elias, 1986). Scholars have argued that structural forces exist within organizations, and these structural forces may encourage a culture within the organization that motivates aggression (Silberman, 1978). These situational variables have received scant attention in tests of VPT. A notable exception is Aquino and Bradfield (2000), who examined the direct effect of job status (conceptualized as a structural force) as a predictor of perceived victimization. However, Aquino and Bradfield found no support for the prediction that job status predicted perceived victimization.

While VPT has its critics, with some even calling for abandoning it because of its focus on the victim's role (e.g., Cortina et al., 2018), doing so would be premature given the promise that VPT holds for understanding dysfunctional or abusive relationships. In addition, the operationalization of the provocative and submissive victim in past studies has been deficient because it does not consider multiple victim characteristics simultaneously. Various process variables have also yet to be examined to test the core assumptions of the theory, and important

moderating variables have yet to be considered that may be contributing to null effects found in meta-analyses of VPT (Dhanani et al., 2019). In conclusion, the basis of a useful theory is one that can both explain and predict a given phenomenon. However, if theory is not tested properly and comprehensively the full utility of the theory is unknown (Bacharach, 1989). Therefore, one aim of the current study is to provide a more comprehensive test of VPT's value in predicting protégé's negative mentoring experiences.

CHAPTER 4

THE PRESENT STUDY

The present study uses victim precipitation theory (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000) as a lens through which to empirically examine the antecedent, process, and moderating variables that contribute to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Drawing from VPT, protégés likely vary in the extent to which they possess individual characteristics that typify the submissive and provocative victim. Moreover, the relationship between victim characteristics and victimization perceptions is well established (Bowling & Behr, 2006; Dhanani et al., 2019; Tepper, 2006). However, we currently know little about the explanatory mechanism or the role of situational factors in modifying these established associations.

VPT proposes that individuals who display higher provocative or submissive characteristics behave in ways that the perpetrator uses to justify negative behavior towards the victim. The underlying logic of VPT is that submissive and provocative victims may behave in such a way that perpetrators notice and appraise, which subsequently justifies perpetrators' actions toward the victim. This inherent logic of VPT has yet to receive empirical examination, with studies focusing largely *only* on victim characteristics (Bowling & Behr, 2006; Henle & Gross, 2014; Khan et al., 2017; Tepper, 2006; Wang et al., 2015), and the exploration of this assumption is important to investigate to further validate the utility of VPT in the organizational sciences. Further, another largely untested assumption of VPT is that situational characteristics may serve as further justification of perpetrator's actions toward others. The present study

specifically tests these assumptions of VPT by examining these propositions within a mentoring context.

Integrating VPT and the negative mentoring research, I conceptualize the provocative protégé as an individual who 1) is more likely to have aggressive cognitive scripts, 2) possesses characteristics that may be considered irritating or annoying by others, and 3) may have an unfavorable reputation within the workplace. From this conceptualization, a myriad of personality and trait-based characteristics best represent the provocative protégé. Specifically, I draw from Judge et al.'s (2013) 6-2-1 framework of personality as well as trait hostility to operationalize the provocative victim. Judge et al.'s 6-2-1 framework of personality is a hierarchical framework in which each of the broad Big 5 personality traits are comprised of two facets, and these two lower-order facets are comprised of six more granular lower-order facets. I focus on the mid-level facets (level 2 facets) of agreeableness (the impoliteness sub-facet), and neuroticism (the volatility sub-facet) as well as trait hostility. By splitting the Big 5 personality into the more granular sub-facets, this ensures that there will be no conceptual overlap of the broader Big 5 personality traits in the provocative and submissive protégé profiles as the more granular sub-facets are associated with different protégé profiles (e.g., Withdrawal, a sub-facet of neuroticism, is not consistent with the provocative protégé).

According to VPT, those who fit the provocative victim type are more likely to perceive negative experiences in workplace relationships because the behaviors that they exhibit make them prone to react aggressively to others, which, in turn, leads to aggressive retaliatory responses from others (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 1. There is a positive relationship between provocative protégé characteristics and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

Drawing from the criminology literature that informed VPT, there is an assumption that perpetrators make an appraisal that justifies their subsequent actions against a victim. For example, Amir (1967) stated that verbal and nonverbal cues on the part of the victim may be appraised by the perpetrator as conflicting with societal norms. This appraisal by the perpetrator that their victim is not a part of "normal society" may have further validated actions against the victim. Further, Curtis (1974) discusses that crime perpetrators often appraised victim behavior in a way that further justified their actions. Finally, Felson (1978) argued that when victims fitting the provocative victim role hurt the self-image of the perpetrator, the perpetrator appraises the actions of the victim as someone who is deserving of abuse.

As discussed previously, VPT suggests that victim behavior elicits negative responses from perpetrators through an appraisal of the victim as deserving of retaliation (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). Within a mentoring context, protégés are often seen as reflections of the mentor by both the mentor and others within the organization (Kram, 1985). When a protégé displays greater provocative victim characteristics, the protégé may engage in behavior that is volatile and frustrating for the mentor. Further, provocative protégés may not only engage in behavior that is frustrating within the mentoring relationship but may also engage in behavior within the organization that reflects poorly on the mentor. The protégé behavior that may be both damaging to the mentoring relationship as well as damaging to the mentor's standing in the organization may contribute to the mentor seeking opportunities to reciprocate negative behavior towards the protégé. Mentors may justify their subsequent behavior by re-appraising their perceptions of the protégé—viewing the relationship as more problematic. These perceptions of greater relational problems with the protégé may justify the mentor engaging in more negative

behaviors towards the protégé. If so, the protégé may perceive negative mentoring experiences with their mentor. Therefore, I propose:

> Hypothesis 2. The positive relationship between provocative protégé characteristics and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences with the mentor is mediated by mentor perceptions of relational problems.

VPT proposes a similar process for the submissive victim. Based on VPT, I conceptualize the submissive victim as an individual who 1) is anxious and meek, 2) has lower social status/regard, and 3) is non-aggressive and unlikely to respond to negative experiences. The submissive victim is described as possessing characteristics such as negative affectivity, neuroticism, and lower social status (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). Drawing from the same logic as the provocative protégé, I focus on Judge et al.'s mid-level facet (level 2 facet) of neuroticism (the withdrawal sub-facet) as well as the broader Big 5 personality trait of introversion. Additionally, I incorporate protégé social regard as an indicator of the submissive protégé. VPT proposes that these characteristics contribute to submissive victims experiencing higher levels of insecurity and anxiety (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). Further, individuals higher in neuroticism tend to be more disliked by others and may interpret stimuli in a more negative light (Tong, 2010; Wang et al., 2019). The combination of these characteristics may contribute to submissive victims presenting themselves as more vulnerable to negative experiences. Moreover, research examining individuals higher in either neuroticism or negative affect suggests that there is a positive association between these characteristics and overall emotional distress. This emotional distress may contribute to protégés' difficulty in social interactions (Felson, 1978: Motowildo et al., 1986).

VPT proposes that submissive victims are more likely to be the recipients of negative relational events because 1) their behavior is regarded as generally justifying reciprocal behavior and/or 2) they appear vulnerable to mistreatment. Within a mentoring context, these protégés may also appear to be poor performers both socially and vocationally and/or they may be generally disliked by other coworkers (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). These unfavorable characteristics may lend protégés more vulnerable to negative experiences with their mentor. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 3. There is a positive relationship between submissive protégé characteristics and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

The same linking mechanism is proposed between submissive protégé characteristics and perceptions of negative mentoring experiences with the mentor. The behavior displayed by submissive proteges may contribute to the mentor appraising the relationship in a more negative light. For example, submissive victim behaviors may contribute to other organizational members perceiving the protégé as a poor performer and difficult to interact with socially (Felson, 1978: Motowildo et al., 1986). These unfavorable behaviors may elicit a negative appraisals of the mentoring relationship by the mentor, and subsequently justify negative behavior towards the protégé. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 4. The positive relationship between submissive protégé characteristics and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences is mediated by mentor perceptions of relational problems.

Finally, VPT proposes that situational characteristics contribute to perceived victimization (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). In their foundational work, Aquino and Bradfield

(2000) examined job status as a structural force that insulates high status employees from victimization due to their perceived status. However, they did not find support for their hypothesis. The second situational factor, regulatory failures, has received little to no empirical examination in the organizational sciences. Within an organizational context, regulatory failures can be conceptualized as an organization's failure to enforce rules and practices in order to combat workplace mistreatment.

In the mentoring context, perceived accountability for mentoring may be a situational factor that contributes to regulatory failure, and in so doing amplifies the likelihood that mentor perceptions of relational problems will elicit negative mentoring behavior. Perceived accountability for mentoring is conceptualized as the mentor's perception that he or she is held accountable for mentoring behavior, and that policies and practices are in place to deal with issues that may arise in a mentoring relationship (Eby et al., 2006). Research has found that perceptions of accountability is an important moderator that may exert influence on perpetrators further justification in engaging in negative workplace behaviors. For example, research conducted by Mackey et al. (2018) demonstrated that subordinates' perceptions of lower managerial accountability strengthened the relationship between subordinate entitlement and subordinate perceptions of abusive supervision, which subsequently predicted subordinate bullying towards coworkers. Further, O'Farrell and Nordstrom (2013) found that employees working in organizations lacking accountability for behavior experienced more workplace bullying. Further, within a mentoring context, Shoss et al. (2013) suggests that organizations that fail to regulate mentor behavior may create an environment where mentors continue mistreatment of protégés without fear of consequence.

Taken together, this body of research suggests that accountability influences individual behavior, and when perpetrators perceive less accountability for their actions, they are more likely to feel justified in their negative behavior. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 5. The positive relationship between mentor perceptions of relational problems and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences is moderated by perceived accountability for mentoring, such that the positive relationship is stronger at lower levels of mentor perceived accountability.

CHAPTER 5

METHOD

Proposed Participants and Procedure

I used two years of data from a larger survey research project funded by the National

Institutes of Health awarded to Lillian Eby (Award R01 DA019460). The project focused on

burnout and turnover among substance abuse treatment counselors and clinical supervisors who

are in the role of supervisory mentors. In the larger data collection effort, both counselors and

clinical supervisors were surveyed over the course of three years.

Seventy free-standing substance abuse treatment centers nested within 26 treatment

organizations across the United States participated in the study. Although not a random sample,

the treatment centers were located in all geographic regions of the United States and included

private, for-profit and not-for-profit facilities. Both residential and non-residential treatment

programs are represented in the dataset, with many treatment centers also providing mental

health counseling alongside substance abuse treatment. Clinical supervisory relationships use an

apprentice model of mentoring where clinical supervisors are providing weekly (and often daily)

feedback, training and advice to counselors (Eby et al., 2007). Clinical supervision has been

conceptualized as a form of supervisory mentoring (Eby et al., 2015). The clinical supervisor

(mentor) is dually responsible for the substance abuse counselor's (protégé's) development and

evaluation. This dual responsibility of both development and evaluation fits the definition of a

supervisory mentor relationship (Eby et al., 2007; Eby et al., 2015; Powell & Broidsky, 1993).

In the larger data collection effort, members of the research team traveled to each of the

26 treatment organizations over the course of the four years to administer surveys to substance

abuse counselors and their supervisors. The data is nested such that a single supervisor has multiple substance abuse counselors working under his or her direction. Substance abuse counselors and supervisors were surveyed once a year for three years, but participation over time varied due to turnover, absence at the day of data collection and the desire to not participate at a given time point. A total of 3,692 participants completed at least one survey over the course of three years, with a total of 2,745 substance abuse counselors nested within 947 supervisors.

For the current study, I utilized a subset of the larger data collection effort. This data subset consists of two waves of data from matched supervisory mentor-protégé dyads, collected one year apart. The data is nested in nature—with multiple substance abuse counselors (protégés) nested within clinical supervisors (mentors) which are nested within freestanding treatment centers. Participants who qualified for the study were substance abuse counselors and clinical supervisors that completed two consecutive years of surveys (e.g., year 1 and year 2). Of those participants that completed two consecutive years of surveys, I selected matched dyads of clinical supervisors and substance abuse counselors from year 1 to year 2. A total of 230 substance abuse counselors nested within 96 clinical supervisors, which were nested within 70 free-standing substance abuse treatment centers were retained for the analyses. There were small to large amounts of missing data in each of the scales used in the study. Before analyses were conducted, listwise deletion was utilized to handle missing data. Only complete cases were retained in the hypothesis testing. Socio-demographic information and job characteristics can be found in Table 1 and Table 2. Substance abuse counselors reported spending an average of 7.5 hours each week with their clinical supervisor and worked an average of 3.5 years with their clinical supervisor. On average, clinical supervisors overlooked 7 substance abuse counselors. Of matched mentor-protégé dyads (clinical supervisors matched with substance abuse counselors),

57% of pairings were same-gender mentor-protégé pairings, with 43% of pairings being cross-gender mentoring relationships. Finally, 66% of the matched mentoring relationships were same-race pairings—with 34% of mentoring pairings being cross-race mentoring relationships.

Predictor variables that comprise the provocative and submissive victim were measured at time 1 (year 1), the mediating variable of mentor perceptions of relational problems was measured at time 2 (year 2), the moderating variable of mentor perceived accountability was measured at time 1, and the measurement of the outcome variable of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences was measured at time 2.

Operationalization of Victim Profiles

Consistent with the theoretical considerations of VPT, the constructs of the submissive and provocative victim are best represented by a formative measurement model. Formative measurement models traditionally combine a number of indicators to form a construct without any assumptions of intercorrelations between items (Coltman et al., 2008). Within the psychological sciences, constructs are generally regarded as reflective, meaning that the causality of scores on a set of indicators flows from the latent construct to the indicator (Coltman et al., 2008). However, there are cases in which that flow of causality may be reversed, and it may be appropriate to assume that the change in the indicator affects the latent construct.

Jarvis et al., (2003) provided a number of decision criteria for the use of formative measurement models. The decision criteria that must be met for justification of formative measurement include the following: (1) changes in the indicators are expected to cause changes in the construct, (2) indicators are viewed as defining characteristics of the construct, (3) the elimination of an indicator may alter the conceptual meaning of the construct, (4) changes in the

construct are not expected to cause changes in the indicators, (5) the indicators do not necessarily share a common theme, (6) a change in the value of one indicator is not necessarily expected to be associated with a change in all of the indicators, and (7) the indicators are not necessarily expected to have the same antecedents and consequences.

Conceptually, the submissive and provocative victim types are comprised of characteristics that are distinct yet operate in conjunction with one another such that the elimination of a characteristic leaves the measure deficient. For example, in line with VPT, the elimination of a characteristic such as hostility from the construct of the provocative victim fundamentally changes the construct. Further, it is not a requirement of VPT that the characteristics of the victims are correlated with each other. For example, one provocative victim may be high in volatility and low in impoliteness while another provocative victim may be high in both volatility and impoliteness. Even though there is variability in how these victims stand on certain characteristics within the profiles, these separate victims may experience equal levels of negative mentoring experiences (even though their profiles do not correlate). This theoretical conceptualization best fits a formative measurement operationalization. As such, each individual characteristic of the protégé profiles was treated as a manifest variable causing the formative provocative/submissive construct.

Protégé Measures

In choosing the items that best represent the reflective manifest domains of the provocative and submissive victim, I included items from developed scales that aligned with the theoretical description of each victim type. Scales for each indicator of the formative construct are described below and all items appear in Appendix A.

Provocative Protégé. The provocative protégé construct was operationalized using the formative measurement model described above. Three manifest constructs comprised the formative provocative protégé construct: Impoliteness, trait hostility, and volatility. For the personality traits, I followed Judge et al.'s (2013) 6-2-1 framework of personality. This approach was adopted for multiple reasons: 1) The items in the archival dataset more appropriately mapped onto the more granular facets of the Big Five personality traits, 2) misrepresenting items as broad Big Five personality traits muddies the conceptual distinctness of the personality constructs, and may contribute to misleading interpretation of results, and 3) examining more granular personality facets allows for a more nuanced understanding of characteristics that comprise the victim profiles.

Impoliteness. Impoliteness was measured using Saucier's (1994) eight-item measure of agreeableness, reverse scored to represent impoliteness. Drawing from Judge et al. (2013), I determined that the item content most reflected politeness from Judge et al.'s 6-2-1 framework. Politeness is a lower-order facet of agreeableness, and Saucier's items best match the lower-order construct (reverse scored to represent impoliteness). Participants were given a list of traits representing agreeableness and were asked to describe themselves as they saw themselves at the present time, and not as they wished to be in the future, and to describe themselves as they were generally or typically. Participants rated adjectives on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (extremely inaccurate) to 5 (extremely accurate). Internal consistency estimates were acceptable ($a = .74$).

Trait Hostility. Trait hostility was measured using Buss and Perry's (1992) eight-item measure of trait hostility. Items are rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Internal consistency estimates were acceptable ($a = .88$).

Volatility. Volatility was measured using four items from Watson et al.'s (1988) positive and negative affectivity scale (PANAS) and seven items from Saucier's (1994) neuroticism measure (11-items total) based on descriptions of the provocative victim. Volatility is a lower-order factor of neuroticism that is characterized by angry hostility and impulsiveness. These eleven items are shown in Appendix A. Participants were given a list of adjectives and were instructed to rate each adjective based on how they typically feel on a daily basis. Both scales were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. Internal consistency estimates were acceptable (*a* = .82).

Submissive Protege. The submissive protégé construct was operationalized using the formative measurement model described above. Three manifest reflective constructs comprised the formative construct: Introversion, lower social regard, and withdrawal. I used the same approach of mapping items onto Judge et al.'s (2013) 6-2-1 framework as described above.

Introversion. Introversion was measured using Saucier's (1994) seven-item measure of extraversion, reverse scored such that higher scores indicate greater introversion. Participants were given a list of traits representing extraversion and were asked to describe themselves as they saw themselves at the present time, and not as they wished to be in the future, and to describe themselves as they were generally or typically. Participants rated adjectives on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (extremely inaccurate) to 5 (extremely accurate). Internal consistency estimates were acceptable (*a* = .75).

Lower Social Regard. Lower social regard was measured using a modified version of Mossholder et al.'s (2005) measure of network centrality, reverse scored to represent lower centrality, defined as "the number of direct or indirect links an individual has with others comprising a social network" (p. 609). Individuals displaying higher network centrality have

more connections with others within their organization, implying higher involvement and assistance with coworkers (Mossholder et al., 2005). The adapted measure used in the study asked participants to list up to five individuals with whom they interact with on a daily basis. For each person listed, respondents indicated if they: 1) talk with the individual about what was going on in the organization (TALK) and/or 2) if they approach the individual as a source of professional advice when they have an important decision to make (ADVICE). As recommended by my committee, only the responses listed as "TALK" were scored as "ADVICE" introduces an additional level of depth into the relationship. Responses were sum scored and ranged from 0 (No individuals listed) to 5 (5 individuals listed). Reverse scores were computed by subtracting the maximum from each individual response.

Withdrawal. Withdrawal was measured using six items from Watson et al.'s (1988) positive and negative affectivity scale (PANAS). Drawing from VPT, six items were chosen from the negative affectivity subscale, based on items that best represented Judge et al.'s 6-2-1 framework of personality based on descriptions of the submissive victim. Withdrawal is a lower-order facet of neuroticism that is characterized by anxiety, depression, self-consciousness, and vulnerability. These six items are shown in Appendix A. Participants were given a list of adjectives and were instructed to rate each adjective based on how they typically feel on a daily basis. Adjectives are rated 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always).

Protégé Perceptions Negative Mentoring Experiences Protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences was measured using three subscales of Eby et al.'s (2004) measure of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. The full measure is comprised of five dimensions, however, I used only three of the five subscales. A central tenet of VPT is the victim's perception of negative behavior against them. Based on item content, the three subscales

best capture perceptions of negative behavior from the mentor include: general dysfunctionality, distancing behavior, and manipulative behavior. The two remaining subscales, perceptions of mentor-protégé mismatch and protégé perceptions of mentor lack of expertise do not conceptually pertain to negative mentor behavior and were thus omitted. Each of the subscales is comprised of 4-items each for a total of 12-items. Internal consistency for each of the subscales is adequate, with each of the subscales ranging from (a = .81) to (a = .89). The internal consistency estimate for the composite scale was also acceptable (a = .92).

Mentor Measures

Mentor Appraisal of Relational Problems. Mentor appraisals of the mentoring relationship was measured using Eby et al.'s (2008) measure of mentor perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. This measure is comprised of three dimensions: destructive relational patterns, interpersonal problems, and protégé performance problems. The total measure includes 34-items. Items were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Internal consistency estimates for each of the subscales were acceptable, with each of the subscales ranging from a = .94 to a = .95. The internal consistency estimate for the composite scale was also acceptable (a = .97).

Mentor Perceived Accountability. Perceptions of accountability for mentoring was measured using an adapted scale developed by Eby et al. (2006). This 4-item scale was adapted to fit the context of the substance abuse centers and aims to capture the clinical supervisor's belief that they are held accountable by organizational leadership for their behavior and that policies are set in place in order to deal with problems that may arise between clinical supervisors and substance abuse counselors (Eby et al., 2006). Items were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An example item includes,

"Clinical supervisors are held accountable for their treatment of counselors." The internal consistency estimate was as acceptable ($a = .87$).

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences

All confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted using the "cfa" function in the

"lavaan" package in the R statistical software version 4.0.5 (Rosseel, 2012). To evaluate the

appropriateness of treating the Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences measure

as a composite, a CFA was conducted. The proposed Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring

Experiences measure is comprised of 3-dimensions (Dysfunctionality, Distancing Behavior, and

Manipulative Behavior) with a total of 12-indicators. Models were estimated using a maximum

likelihood estimator. Results from the CFA and model comparisons can be found in Table 3 The

3-factor model (Model 1) provided superior fit [$\chi^2(51) = 133.19$, RMSEA = 0.09, CFI = 0.95,

TLI = 0.94, SRMR = 0.05] to the 1-factor model (Model 2). A higher-order CFA was also

conducted (Model 3) in which a second-order reflective latent variable exerts influence onto the

3-lower-order reflective latent variables.

In order for the higher-order model to be identified, there needs to be greater than 3

reflective constructs (Lee & Cadogan, 2013). Therefore, Model 3 was just-identified and

reproduces the fit indices from Model 1. However, factor loadings can be obtained from the

higher-order factor to the lower-order factors to compute coefficient omega. In the context of

higher-order models, coefficient omega represents the proportion of variance in the lower-order factors that is due to the higher-order factor (Flora, 2020). Factor loadings from the higher-order factor to the lower-order factors are used to calculate the coefficient omega reliability estimate. Coefficient omega represents, "…a total score for measuring a single construct that influences all items, despite the multidimensional nature of the test" (Flora, 2020 p. 496). This reliability estimate provides evidence of the degree in which summed item scores are saturated by a general factor (Green & Yang, 2009). Moreover, higher coefficient omega values indicate that the respective scale scores are caused by the general factor, and not from distinctive scale scores from the separate dimensions of the measure (Green & Yang, 2009).

Coefficient omega does not in and of itself provide sufficient evidence for treating a multidimensional scale as a summed composite score. However, coefficient omega provides supplemental information in the case that a higher-order factor model cannot be statistically compared to a lower-order factor model. Given that the fit of the higher-order model was acceptable, and that coefficient omega for Model 3 was acceptable ($\omega = 0.88$), this provides justification for treating the scale as a unidimensional summed score. Therefore, support was found for using the Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences measure as a composite scale**.**

Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems

To evaluate the appropriateness of treating the Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems measure as a composite, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted**.** Due to the nested nature of the data for the Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems scale, models were estimated using Weighted Least Square Mean and Variance Adjusted Estimators which provide robust standard errors to account for the nested nature of the data. In multilevel CFA,

cases in which there is no variance within clusters are removed (e.g., only one mentor matched with one protégé). In total, there were 167 observations nested within 88 clusters. Results from the CFA can be found in Table 4. The proposed Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems scale is comprised of 3-dimensions (Destructive Relational Problems, Interpersonal Problems, and Protégé Performance Problems) with a total of 31-indicators. Before running the CFA, three items were removed due to low item-level variance (see Appendix A). The standard deviation for these three items ranged from .49 - .54 (based on a 5-point scale and 99% of the respondents selected either 1 (Strongly Disagree) or 2 (Disagree) to these three items). The remaining 31-items in the measure had standard deviations ranging from ($SD = 0.74$) to ($SD = 1.07$). Confirmatory factor analysis uses covariance-based matrixes to derive factor loadings as well as to determine the overall fit of a given model. When variance in indicators is low, the covariance among the indicators will be attenuated—potentially contributing to misleading results and poor fit of the model (Schmidt & Hunter, 1977). Further, the items are rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Results from the CFA and model comparisons can be found in Table 5. The 3-factor model (Model 1) provided superior fit [$\chi^2(431) = 2739.9$, RMSEA = 0.14, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.98, SRMR = 0.12] to the 1-factor model (Model 2). A higher-order CFA was also conducted (Model 3) in which a second-order reflective latent variable exerts influence onto the 3-lower-order reflective latent variables. Drawing from the same logic as the higher-order factor analysis of the Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences measure, the higher-order model was just-identified, and coefficient omega was computed. Coefficient omega for Model 3 was acceptable ($\omega = 0.92$). Therefore, given the acceptable coefficient omega reliability estimate and

good fit of Model 3, support was found for using the Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems measure as a composite measure**.**

Hypothesis Testing

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for the observed variables appear in Table 5. I ran two-tailed tests of significance for the relationship between the focal observed variables. Results revealed that of the predictor variables, protégé withdrawal ($r = .17$, $p = .020$), protégé impoliteness ($r = .16$, $p = .034$) and protégé trait hostility ($r = .18$, $p = .009$) were significantly related to the composite measure of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Interestingly, protégé predictors were differentially related to the respective dimensions of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Protégé impoliteness ($r = .19$, $p = .009$), protégé trait hostility ($r = .18$, $p = .011$), protégé volatility ($r = .15$, $p = .042$), and protégé withdrawal ($r = .18$, $p = .013$) were all significantly related to protégé perceptions of general dysfunctionality. Protégé trait hostility ($r = .15$, $p = .037$) and protégé withdrawal ($r = .15$, $p = .042$) were significantly related to protégé perceptions of distancing behavior, and only protégé trait hostility ($r = .15$, $p = .035$) was significantly related to protégé perceptions of manipulative behavior. Additionally, only protégé introversion was significantly (and negatively) related to any of the dimensions or composite measure of mentor perceptions of relational problems.

To test my hypotheses, I used multilevel structural equation modeling (SEM) using the "sem" function in the "lavaan" package in the R statistical software version 4.0.5 (Rosseel, 2012). I ran two models—one model testing the hypotheses related to the provocative protégé profile and one model testing the hypotheses related to the submissive protégé profile. Separate models were run to ensure that under-identification was achieved and that all of the relevant parameters could be estimated. In the provocative protégé model (Table 6), the impoliteness, trait

hostility, and volatility scales were treated as manifest indicators of the formative latent construct. In the submissive protégé model (Table 7), the volatility, introversion, and social regard scales were treated as manifest indicators of the formative latent construct. Due to sample size constraints, the remaining mediating, moderating, and outcome variables in both models were treated as manifest variables. Further, interaction terms were created in both models that were mean-centered.

Provocative Victim Main Effects

As a precondition for multilevel analyses, I calculated ICC(1) to examine the amount of between-level variance in protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences that can be contributed to nesting within mentors. There was sufficient between-level variation ($ICC_1 = 0.25$), and the analysis of variance revealed a significant F-value ($F = 1137.47$, $p < .001$). Therefore, there was evidence to support using a multilevel model. Due to a combination of missing data as well as matched dyad cases with no variance having to be removed for multilevel analysis (e.g., one mentor paired with only one protégé), there were a total of 126 protégés matched within 76 mentors retained for the provocative protégé analysis. The statistical model and path coefficients can be found in Figure 1 and Table 6. Hypothesis 1 proposed that there is a positive relationship between greater provocative protégé characteristics and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. To test this hypothesis, I ran a single random coefficients model with the within-cluster provocative victim formative variable as a level-1 predictor. This model tests the effects of level-1 predictors while controlling for variation at level-2 that is due to the nesting of proteges within mentors. As shown in Table 6, this hypothesis not supported. The provocative victim profile was positively related to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences; however, the relationship was non-significant ($\gamma = 0.02$, $p = 0.862$).

Provocative Victim Conditional Indirect Effects

Hypothesis 2 and 5 proposed a conditional indirect effect. Hypothesis 2 proposed that mentor perceptions of relational problems mediated the relationship between the provocative protégé characteristics and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Hypothesis 5 proposed that the positive relationship between mentor perceptions of relational problems and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences is moderated by perceived accountability for mentoring, such that the positive relationship is stronger at lower levels of mentor perceived accountability. Hypotheses 2 and 5 were tested using parametric bootstrapping to obtain resampled parameter estimates of the conditional indirect effect. The conditional indirect effect is computed by resampling the estimates from the model of the relationship between provocative protégé characteristics and mentor perceptions of relational problems ($\gamma = -0.02$, $p = 0.847$), the relationship between mentor perceptions of relational problems and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences ($\gamma = 0.58$ $p < .001$), and the interaction term ($\gamma = 0.12$, $p = 0.435$). I used 10,000 resamples to compute 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effect. Results from the 95% bootstrap confidence intervals included 0 (95% CI: -0.12, 0.08) thus providing no support for hypotheses 2 and 5.

Submissive Victim Main Effects

The same analytic strategy used for the provocative protégé hypothesis testing was used for the submissive protégé hypothesis testing. Due to a combination of missing data as well as matched dyad cases with no variance having to be removed (e.g., one mentor paired with only one protégé), there were a total of 121 protégés matched within 71 mentors retained for the analysis. The statistical model and path coefficients can be found in Figure 2. Hypothesis 3 proposed that there is a positive relationship between submissive protégé characteristics and

protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. As shown in Table 6, this hypothesis was not supported. The submissive victim profile was negatively related to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences, and the relationship was non-significant ($\gamma = -0.10$, $p = 0.169$).

Submissive Victim Conditional Indirect Effects

Hypotheses 4 and 5 proposed a conditional indirect effect. Hypothesis 4 postulated that the positive relationship between submissive protégé characteristics and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences is mediated by mentor perceptions of relational problems, and hypothesis 5 proposed that the positive relationship between mentor perceptions of relational problems and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences is moderated by perceived accountability for mentoring, such that the positive relationship is stronger at lower levels of mentor perceived accountability. Hypotheses 4 and 5 were tested using parametric bootstrapping to obtain resampled parameter estimates of the conditional indirect effect. The conditional indirect effect is computed by resampling the estimates from the model of the relationship between submissive protégé characteristics and mentor perceptions of relational problems ($\gamma = -0.03$, $p = 0.724$), the relationship between mentor perceptions of relational problems and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences ($\gamma = 0.45$, $p = .002$), and the interaction term ($\gamma = 0.24$, $p = 0.137$). I used 10,000 resamples to compute the 95% confidence intervals of the conditional indirect effect. The 95% bootstrap confidence intervals included 0 (95% CI: -0.05, 0.03) thus providing no support for hypotheses 4 and 5.

Supplemental Analyses

Upon examination of the correlation table, it was perplexing to find that none of my hypotheses were supported, as 3 out of the 6 proposed predictors were significantly correlated

with the composite of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. One potential

explanation for the null results was the intercorrelation among the formative predictors in each

respective profile. High correlations among the measures in formative constructs is comparable

to multicollinearity in multiple regression analyses: as the correlation among measures increases,

the loadings for each respective measure to the construct may become unstable and display large

standard errors (Edwards, 2011). As such, the predictor measures in the provocative protégé

formative construct were moderately to largely correlated with each other with correlations

among the provocative protégé characteristics ranging from ($r = .35$) to ($r = .57$), and the

correlations among the submissive protégé characteristics were near zero to moderate ranging

from ($r = -0.04$) to ($r = .27$)—potentially ruling out multicollinearity within the formative

construct for the submissive protégé profile as an explanation for why the combined predictors

did not relate to the outcome variable. Since the pattern of correlations revealed that certain

predictors were related to my outcome variable, it was possible that the predictors could be

working independently, rather than in combination with each other, in predicting protégé

perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Because of this, I decided to run a supplementary

analysis in which the provocative protégé and submissive protégé models were analyzed

identically as the hypothesis testing models, but the formative latent construct was removed, and

the three reflective constructs in each protégé profile were treated as respective observed

predictors. The sample sizes for both supplementary analyses were identical to the sample sizes

in the hypothesis testing models.

Results from the supplementary analyses can be found in Appendix B (Supplementary

Table 1 and Supplementary Table 2). Interestingly, the results mirrored the results from the

hypothesis testing. In the provocative protégé model, protégé impoliteness ($\gamma = 0.09$, $p = 0.549$),

protégé trait hostility ($\gamma = 0.12$, $p = .208$), and protégé volatility ($\gamma = -0.07$, $p = .601$) did not

significantly relate to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences, and the interaction

term ($\gamma = 0.13$, $p = .414$) was non-significant. Further, as shown in Appendix B (Supplementary

Table 1), none of the conditional indirect effects were significant. In the submissive protégé

model, protégé withdrawal ($\gamma = 0.12$, $p = .188$), protégé social regard ($\gamma = -0.04$, $p = .350$), and

protégé introversion ($\gamma = -0.09$, $p = .256$) did not significantly relate to protégé perceptions of

negative mentoring experiences, and the interaction term ($\gamma = 0.24$, $p = .139$) was non-

significant. Moreover, as shown in Appendix B (Supplementary Table 2), none of the conditional

indirect effects were significant. Finally, as shown in Appendix B (Supplemental Table 1 and

Supplemental Table 2), none of the independent protégé characteristics were significantly related

to mentor perceptions of relational problems.

Table 1. *Protégé Socio-Demographic Information and Job Characteristics*

Variable		Mean or %	*SD*
Age (Years)		45.6	12.13
Job Tenure (Years)		4.41	4.50
Tenure With Current Supervisor (Years)		3.54	3.40
Caseload		29.43	35.06
Treatment Facility			
	Correctional Facility	3%	
	Methadone Maintenance	21%	
	Hospital Inpatient/Detox	11%	
	Non-Hospital Residential	30%	
	Other	35%	
Gender			
	Male	34%	
	Female	66%	
Race/Ethnicity			
	White	70%	
	Black/African American	15%	
	Hispanic/Latino	12%	
	Asian	<1%	
	Multi-Racial	2%	
	Other	<1%	
Education Level			
	Less than High School Degree	2%	
	High School Degree	2%	
	Some College	14%	
	College Degree	27%	
	Some Graduate School	5%	
	Masters or Professional Degree	46%	
	Masters of Divinity	<1%	
	Medical Degree or PhD	3%	

Table 2. *Mentor Socio-Demographic Information and Job Characteristics*

Variable		Mean or %	*SD*
Age (Years)		49.1	10.15
Job Tenure (Years)		5.46	5.64
Assigned Number of Substance Abuse Counselors		7.36	5.25
Caseload		11.54	13.79
Treatment Facility			
	Correctional Facility	5%	
	Methadone Maintenance	37%	
	Hospital Inpatient/Detox	39%	
	Non-Hospital Residential	19%	
Gender			
	Male	33%	
	Female	67%	
Race/Ethnicity			
	White	80%	
	Black/African American	13%	
	Hispanic/Latino	4%	
	Multi-Racial	1%	
	Other	1%	
Education Level			
	High School Degree	1%	
	Some College	13%	
	College Degree	12%	
	Some Graduate School	1%	
	Masters or Professional Degree	64%	
	Masters of Divinity	2%	
	Medical Degree or PhD	7%	

Table 3. *Results from Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

Model	Description	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	df	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δdf
Model 1	Three-Factor	0.95	0.94	0.09	0.05	133.19	51		
Model 2	One-Factor	0.79	0.74	0.18	0.09	402.22	54	263.03**	3
Model 3	Higher-Order Factor	0.95	0.94	0.09	0.05	133.19	51	N/A	0

Note. It should be noted that higher-order CFA requires greater than 3 reflective indicators to achieve identification. Since the higher-order factor model has 3-reflective lower-order factors, the higher-order factor models' fit statistics will be identical to the three-factor model. Using the factor loadings from the reflective indicators to the higher-order latent factor, coefficient omega was computed and was found to be acceptable ($\omega = 0.88$).
**$p < .01$ ($N = 207$)

Table 4. *Results from Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

Model	Description	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Model 1	Three-Factor	0.98	0.98	0.14	0.12	2739.9	431		
Model 2	One-Factor	0.98	0.98	0.17	0.19	3213.6	434	473.66*	3
Model 3	Higher-Order Factor	0.98	0.98	0.14	0.12	2739.9	431	N/A	0

Note. All fit indices are reported as the robust estimates. It should be noted that higher-order CFA requires greater than 3 reflective indicators to achieve identification. Since the higher-order factor model has 3-reflective lower-order factors, the higher-order factor models' fit statistics will be identical to the three-factor model and cannot be compared. Using the factor loadings from the reflective indicators to the higher-order latent factor, coefficient omega was computed and was found to be acceptable ($\omega = 0.92$).
**$p < .01$ ($N = 167$)

Table 5. *Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations*

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Counselor Age	45.63	12.13	(--)													
2. Supervisor Age	49.17	10.02	.14	(--)												
3. Counselor Gender[a]	0.66	0.48	-.17*	.03	(--)											
4. Supervisor Gender[a]	0.67	0.47	-.11	-.08	.04	(--)										
5. Counselor Race[b]	0.30	0.46	-.01	-.06	-.02	-.06	(--)									
6. Supervisor Race[b]	0.17	0.38	-.08	-.09	.04	.04	.20**	(--)								
7. Counselor Education[c]	4.87	1.44	-.09	-.08	.01	.09	-.23**	-.15*	(--)							
8. Supervisor Education[c]	5.39	1.42	-.07	.07	.14	.10	-.22**	-.27**	.29**	(--)						
9. Supervisor Job Tenure	5.42	5.30	.08	.03	-.11	.05	.11	.11	-.05	-.25**	(--)					
10. Counselor Job Tenure	4.41	4.50	.25**	.10	-.03	-.14*	.16*	-.05	-.18*	.02	.14*	(--)				
11. Supervisor Case Load	12.69	13.75	-.02	-.08	-.02	.12	.16	.12	.15	-.15	.36**	.14	(--)			
12. Counselor Case load	29.43	35.06	-.03	.19**	.02	-.15*	.09	-.04	-.07	.01	.04	.14*	.07	(--)		
13. Protégé Impoliteness	1.58	0.47	-.09	.00	-.10	.09	.13	.09	-.02	-.07	.00	.08	.13	-.04	(0.74)	
14. Protégé Trait Hostility	1.89	0.73	-.18*	-.08	.01	-.01	.02	.19**	.02	-.04	-.03	-.05	-.09	-.06	.35**	(0.88)
15. Protégé Volatility	2.03	0.62	-.15*	-.01	-.04	.01	.01	.02	.06	.02	.00	.09	.02	-.02	.48**	.57**
16. Protégé Introversion	2.40	0.77	.01	-.11	-.14	.00	.05	.04	.10	.07	-.08	.06	.01	.08	.14*	.20**
17. Protégé Withdrawal	1.88	0.65	-.13	.01	-.07	-.06	-.01	.05	.03	.11	.04	.05	-.01	.04	.27**	.53**
18. Protégé Social Regard	1.38	1.35	-.04	.08	.07	.03	-.07	-0.1	.11	-.04	-.06	-.09	-.01	.01	-.04	-.06
19. General Dysfunctionality	1.93	0.76	-.15*	.11	.09	.04	.01	.05	.06	.01	.08	-.07	.30**	-.07	.19**	.18*
20. Distancing Behavior	2.40	0.91	.00	.06	.01	.03	.02	.07	.04	-.04	.12	-.05	-.01	-.03	.13	.15*
21. Manipulative Behavior	2.10	0.88	.01	.14	.05	.01	.12	.08	-.06	-.29**	.16*	-.08	.10	-.05	.10	.15*
22. Protégé NME Composite	2.14	0.74	-.05	.12	.05	.03	.05	.08	.02	-.13	.14*	-.08	.15	-.05	.16*	.18**
23. Destructive Relational Patterns	1.70	0.65	.08	.00	.03	.04	.13	.10	-.08	-.26**	.13	.02	-.19	-.05	.03	-.04
24. Interpersonal Problems	1.74	0.66	.07	-.03	-.06	.03	.11	.02	-.11	-.34**	.10	-.06	-.08	-.06	.00	-.02
25. Protégé Performance Problems	1.92	0.80	.08	-.06	-.05	-.06	.15	-.04	-.12	-.26**	.03	-.02	-.07	.00	-.01	-.07
26. Mentor Relational Problems Composite	1.80	0.65	.08	-.02	-.02	.03	.13	.05	-.10	-.30**	.08	-.02	-.15	-.06	.01	-.03
27. Accountability for Mentoring	3.87	0.79	-.08	.02	.10	.07	-.02	.15*	-.02	-.04	.09	-.06	.24*	-.10	.00	.01

	M	SD	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
15. Protégé Volatility	2.03	0.62	(0.82)												
16. Protégé Introversion	2.40	0.77	.19**	(0.75)											
17. Protégé Withdrawal	1.88	0.65	.71**	.27**	(0.81)										
18. Protégé Social Regard	1.38	1.35	.02	-.07	.02	(--)									
19. General Dysfunctionality	1.93	0.76	.15*	-.04	.18*	-.01	(0.85)								
20. Distancing Behavior	2.40	0.91	.12	-.01	.15*	.04	.58**	(0.89)							
21. Manipulative Behavior	2.10	0.88	.09	-.05	.11	.03	.61**	.74**	(0.87)						
22. Protégé NME Composite	2.14	0.74	.14	-.04	.17*	.02	.82**	.90**	.90**	(0.92)					
23. Destructive Relational Patterns	1.70	0.65	-.01	-.16*	-.06	.07	.11	.35**	.47**	.37**	(0.95)				
24. Interpersonal Problems	1.74	0.66	.01	-.20*	-.01	.07	.12	.32**	.47**	.36**	.85**	(0.94)			
25. Protégé Performance Problems	1.92	0.8	-.01	-.12	-.01	.04	-.03	.26**	.38**	.25**	.71**	.79**	(0.94)		
26. Mentor Relational Problems Composite	1.80	0.65	.00	-.17*	-.02	.05	.10	.36**	.48**	.37**	.95**	.95**	.87**	(0.97)	
27. Accountability for Mentoring	3.87	0.79	-.05	-.06	.07	-.12	.09	-.05	-.06	-.01	.06	.02	-.12	.02	(0.87)

Notes. Correlations are derived from counselors (*n* = 230) nested within clinical supervisors (*n* = 96). [a] 1 = Female, 0 = Male. [b] 0 = Caucasian, 1= Non-Caucasian, [c] 1 = Less than high school, 2 = High school diploma, 3 = Some college, 4 = College degree, 5 = Some grad school, 6 = Masters or Professional Degree, 7 = Masters of divinity, 8 = M.D. or PhD. Protégé NME composite is representative of the composite scale of Protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. *p* <.05, **p* <.01.

Table 6. *Results of Provocative Protege Structural Equation Models Predicting Protégé Negative Mentoring Experiences*

	Unstandardized Coefficient (S.E.)	Standardized Coefficient (S.E.)
Provocative Protégé		
Latent Variables (Formative Provocative Profile Loadings)		
Provocative Protégé on Impoliteness	1.00	0.13
Provocative Protégé on Trait Hostility	5.12 (29.13)	1.12 (29.13)
Provocative Protégé on Volatility	-2.57 (13.36)	-0.46 (13.36)
Hypothesized Main Effects		
Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences		
Protégé NME on Provocative Protégé (H1)	0.02 (0.16)	0.15 (0.16)
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Provocative Protégé	-0.02 (0.09)	-0.12 (0.09)
Protégé NME on Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems	0.58** (0.13)	0.47** (0.13)
Interaction Effects		
Protégé NME on Mentor Accountability x Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems (H5)	0.12 (0.16)	0.07 (0.16)
Conditional Indirect Effects		
Provocative Protégé→ Mentor Appraisals of Relational Problems x Mentor Accountability→ Protégé NME (H2)	0.11 (0.17)	0.02 (0.17)

Note. The estimate for the first variable in the latent construct for both the provocative and the submissive protégé is fixed to 1.00 to set the scale for the formative latent construct. Thus, this construct does not receive a standard error nor a significance test. For the provocative protégé model, there were 126 protégé observations nested within 72 mentor observations. $**p < .01$. Further, the significance of the conditional indirect effect was calculated by estimating 95% confidence intervals using parametric bootstrapping. The 95% confidence intervals for each conditional indirect effect can be found in the results section. "Protégé NME" represents protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

Table 7. *Results of Submissive Protege Structural Equation Models Predicting Protégé Negative Mentoring Experiences*

	Unstandardized Coefficient (S.E.)	Standardized Coefficient (S.E.)
Submissive Protégé		
Latent Variables (Formative Submissive Profile Loadings)		
Submissive Protégé Introversion	1.00	0.55
Submissive Protégé Withdrawal	-1.06 (1.03)	-0.50 (1.03)
Submissive Protégé Social Regard	0.41 (0.52)	0.36 (0.52)
Hypothesized Main Effects		
Protégé NME on Submissive Protégé (H3)	-0.10 (0.08)	-0.24 (0.08)
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Submissive Protege	-0.03 (0.07)	-0.07 (0.07)
Protege NME on Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems	0.45* (0.15)	0.37* (0.15)
Interaction Effects		
Protégé NME on Mentor Accountability x Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems (H5)	0.24 (0.16)	0.15 (0.16)
Conditional Indirect Effects		
Provocative Protégé→ Mentor Appraisals of Relational Problems x Mentor Accountability→ Protégé NME (H4)	0.23 (0.17)	0.12 (0.17)

Note. The estimate for the first variable in the latent construct for both the provocative and the submissive protégé is fixed to 1.00 to set the scale for the formative latent construct. Thus, this construct does not receive a standard error nor a significance test. For the submissive protégé model, there were 121 protégé observations nested within 73 mentor observations. **p < .01. Further, the significance of the conditional indirect effect was calculated by estimating 95% confidence intervals using parametric bootstrapping. The 95% confidence intervals for each conditional indirect effect can be found in the results section. "Protégé NME" represents protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictor, process, and moderating variables that contribute to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Drawing from VPT, it was proposed that protégé characteristics, mentor appraisals, and mentor perceptions of accountability for mentoring would contribute to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Results from my analyses did not support my hypotheses. While all of my hypotheses did not receive support, there are still implications for theory and future research related to both VPT and the understanding of negative relational events in mentoring relationships.

One of the key contributions of this study is that it is the most comprehensive test of VPT to date. By incorporating the formative latent constructs of both the provocative protégé and the submissive protégé, this study tested a key tenet of VPT that the *combination* of characteristics contributes to perceptions of victimization. The notion that individual characteristics working in conjunction with one another influence both perpetrator and victim perceptions was largely unsupported. This is an interesting finding that is consistent with research in other subdisciplines in the organizational sciences which has found that individual characteristics in *isolation* are related to perceptions of victimization. Turning to the abusive supervision and workplace harassment literature, multiple studies have found a link between individual characteristics in isolation and perceptions of victimization. For example, Henle and Gross (2014) and Wang et al.

(2015) found a positive link between neuroticism and perceptions of abusive supervision. Further, Tepper (2006) found a positive relationship between negative affectivity and perceptions of abusive supervision.

Interestingly, protégé impoliteness, protégé trait hostility, and protégé withdrawal were all significantly correlated with protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Both withdrawal and volatility are sub-facets of neuroticism and were significantly correlated with protégé outcomes. Results from past studies as well as results from my study may provide some evidence that personality traits—primarily neuroticism—*in isolation* contribute to perceptions of victimization. Further, protégé trait hostility may have had conceptual overlap with the angry hostility sub-facet of neuroticism as they were moderately correlated with each other ($r = 0.57$). The results from the bivariate correlations suggest that neuroticism may be a primary victim characteristic that contributes to their own perceptions of victimization (Judge et al., 2013). The finding that neuroticism in isolation is related to perceptions of victimization is in line with past research as Dhanani et al.'s (2019) meta-analysis found that the only Big 5 personality trait that was positively related to perceptions of victimization (measured as experienced mistreatment) was neuroticism.

Future research may benefit from applying traditional theories of personality to understanding negative relational events at work rather than using VPT. The finding that facets of neuroticism were significantly correlated with protégés' own perception of victimization is in line with traditional trait-based theories of personality. Research demonstrates that neurotic individuals tend to perceive actions from others in a more negative light (Wang et al., 2019; Tong, 2010). Moreover, individuals higher in neuroticism are more likely to ruminate on past events, tend to perceive greater demands at work, and are more likely to perceive the world in a

distrusting and threatening way (Watson and Clark, 1984; Wang, Van Iddekinge, Zhang, and

Bishoff, 2019). Results from my study provides some evidence that specific characteristics

outside of neuroticism are largely unrelated to perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

Interestingly, results from the supplemental analyses indicated that the neuroticism facets were

not significantly related to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences when the

additional characteristics (e.g., social regard) and the mediator, mentor perceptions of relational

problems, were included in the model. Future research could use Latent Profile Analysis

(Muthén & Muthén, 2000) to examine if specific standings on Big 5 personality traits (e.g.,

higher in neuroticism, lower in agreeableness) emerge and predict perceptions of negative

relational events. Conversely, this approach could be used to examine if *mentor* personality

characteristics contribute to protégés' perceptions of negative relational events.

When a theory is tested properly and comprehensively, the full utility of the theory

becomes known (Bacharach, 1989). The results from the current study provide some evidence

that the current conceptualizations of VPT may not be useful in understanding relational

experiences at work, and in particular negative mentoring experiences. These results as well as

results from previous research may provide enough collective evidence for the field to start to

move away from VPT (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). Victim characteristics outside of the Big 5

personality trait of neuroticism were found to be largely unrelated to protégé perceptions of

negative mentoring experiences. For example, VPT postulates that individuals with low social

status are more vulnerable to experience negative workplace relational events. However, the

results from this study found that 1) protégé social regard in isolation was not significantly

related to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences ($r = 0.07$), and 2) protégé social

regard working in combination with other submissive protégé characteristics did not significantly

relate to protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Further, protégé characteristics did not predict mentor perceptions of negative relational events—providing some evidence that protégé characteristics may not contribute to mentors' assessments of the overall relationship—an underlying assumption of VPT.

Further, additional theoretical lenses outside of personality-based theories may useful in understanding negative relational events. For example, Cortina et al. (2018) propose the "perpetrator predation perspective" and argue that researchers should examine these relational events in the context of characteristics of the *perpetrator* that may that contribute to their negative behavior. Taking this perspective into account, future research could examine both characteristics of perpetrators as well as process variables that make them more likely to act aggressively towards victims higher in personality traits such as neuroticism. This referent shift, in tandem with more personality trait-based theories, may be more useful as a framework in organizational research and would shift the often-criticized notion that victims are responsible for their own victimization due to the behavior that can be attributed to their individual characteristics (Cortina et al., 2018). Additionally, the personality characteristics of both the mentor and the protégé may interact in such a way that contributes to the protégés' perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

The findings from this study also have implications for the mentoring literature. In both the provocative and submissive protégé models, mentor appraisals of relational problems significantly predicted protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. However, these results also suggest that protégé characteristics do not significantly predict mentor appraisals of relational problems. This study contributes to the mentoring literature by identifying that there is some interplay between mentor appraisals of relational problems and protégé perceptions of

negative mentoring experiences. Future research could take a more dynamic and behavioral approach to understanding the perceptions of both the mentor and the protégé. Mentoring scholars note that the mentoring literature is largely informed by self-report measures accompanied by cross-sectional research designs (Allen & Poteet, 2011; Butts et al., 2007). Mentoring relationships often develop over a relatively long period of time, and these negative appraisals by both the mentor and the protégé may manifest after a culmination of behaviors from both the mentor and the protégé that unfold over time. Eby et al. (2010) found that mentoring relationships are marked by both good and bad relational events. However, little is still known about specific mentor/protégé behaviors—rather than characteristics—that may contribute to overall negative perceptions of the relationship. The negative mentoring literature could benefit from a more dynamic approach by incorporating both longitudinal designs and further examination of specific mentor/protégé behaviors using methods such as observational coding of mentoring interactions to better understand if these perceptions arise from a set of behaviors over time.

Interestingly, the Big 5 personality characteristics were differentially related to the respective dimensions of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. Future research of negative mentoring experiences may benefit from approaching each dimension of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences from multiple theoretical lenses. For example, four predictors were significantly correlated with general dysfunctionality, two predictors were significantly correlated with perceptions of manipulative behavior, and only one dimension was significantly correlated with perceptions of distancing behavior. Each of these respective dimensions may arise from different conditions, and future research should incorporate multiple theoretical perspectives from multiple literatures (i.e., romantic relationship literature,

communication literature) to examine what predicts specific facets of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

Results from this study also found that mentor perceptions of accountability for mentoring did not moderate the relationship between mentor appraisals of relational problems and protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. This result is interesting as it counters previous research in the workplace aggression literature that has found that accountability perceptions generally inhibit aggressive action (Mackey et al., (2018); O'Farrell & Nordstrom (2013); Shoss et al. (2013)). Further, Eby et al. (2006) found that mentor perceptions of accountability for mentoring were negatively related to three dimensions of protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. The discrepancies in these findings may be due to differences in sample characteristics. Eby et al.'s (2006) study used a more diverse protégé sample than the one employed in this study. Participants in their study could have had formal or informal mentoring relationships—and these relationships could be with or without a direct supervisor. My study used a sample of protégés exclusively in supervisory mentoring relationships—which introduces a particular power dynamic between the mentor and the protégé. Given their title is higher in the organizational hierarchy, supervisory mentors are in a position of authority over proteges (Ambrose & Ganegoda, 2020). These differences in hierarchical positioning render differences in authority and power between the mentor and the protégé (London, 1995). This may contribute to the mentor feeling particularly insulated from being held accountable for their mentoring actions due to their relative position in the organization—even if the organization does have procedures in place to hold mentors accountable (Ambrose & Ganegoda, 2020). Further, abusive supervision behaviors are often much more overt than negative mentoring behaviors (e.g., an example item of abusive supervision includes "My

supervisor scolds me in front of others"), and mentors may feel that their behavior is less

detectable by organizational leaders due to its more subtle manifestation. Future research could

examine contextual differences in accountability for mentoring by distinguishing between

supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring relationships.

Limitations

There are several limitations of this study that should be addressed. Most notably, it can

be both conceptually and statistically difficult to establish construct validity with formative

measurement models (Edwards, 2011). For example, in formative measurement models there is

no expectation that the indicators need to correlate with one another (Edwards, 2011), and

internal consistency estimates are not useful in formative measurement models. Because of this,

it can be difficult to establish both convergent and divergent validity and may introduce

multicollinearity if the indicators happen to be highly correlated. To ameliorate these concerns, I

ran a CFA of the reflective constructs to establish that the reflective measures were distinct

constructs. Results from these CFAs can be found in Appendix C. Results from the CFA

established good fit and results indicated that the reflective constructs are indeed distinct from

each other.

Additionally, formative measurement models can be plagued by identification issues

(Edwards, 2011). Edwards (2011) proposed a theoretical alternative formative measurement

model in which manifest indicators are respecified as reflective constructs that cause the

formative latent construct. While I originally proposed the use of this formative model, in the

context of my statistical model, this theoretical alternative model was unable to achieve under-

identification, and parameters of the model could not be estimated. Additionally, this alternative

model requires large sample sizes (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000) to estimate accurate standard

errors, and my sample did not meet these sample size requirements. Future research should examine the practical identification requirements of the Edwards (2011) alternative formative measurement model. Further, simulation studies should examine sample size requirements of Edwards' (2011) alternative formative measurement model to determine appropriate sample sizes for accurate standard error estimation.

Finally, my moderator variable was measured at the first wave of data collection (Time 1). While Kenny (2018) suggests that the moderator should be measured prior to the measurement of the independent variable, my moderator was measured at the same time as the independent variables. Additionally, in causal models of mediated moderation, the sequence of causality can be muddied if the moderator is not measured at the time it is proposed in the causal sequence. However, my moderator variable of mentor's perception of accountability for mentoring may be an organizational-level perception that is relatively stable across time—thus leaving the timing of its measurement less consequential. Additionally, it should be noted that the sample used in this study was relatively small for the sample size requirements of structural equation modeling. Kline (2011) recommends a 20:1 ratio of sample size to parameters. My sample had large amounts of missing data, and cases in which there was no variance within clusters needed to be removed to meet the requirements of multilevel modeling (Bliese, 2000). In both models that were run, the sample size was below the recommendations provided by Kline (2011). Future mentoring research would benefit from tests using time separated data with larger sample sizes.

Conclusion

This study provided additional evidence that the organizational sciences might benefit from moving away from the use of VPT. As the first fully comprehensive test of the theory,

results from this study were largely unsupportive of the notion that victim characteristics working in conjunction with each other contribute to protégés' perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. The lack of support for the main tenets of VPT adds credence to Cortina et al.'s (2018) argument for moving away from victim-focused theories and moving towards a more progressive theoretical basis that shifts towards more perpetrator-focused conceptualizations. Thus, the current study adds a significant contribution towards refining the organizational science's perspectives towards negative relational events and provides a future research agenda for the negative mentoring literature.

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FIGURES

Figure 1. *Unstandardized Path Coefficients for the Provocative Protege*
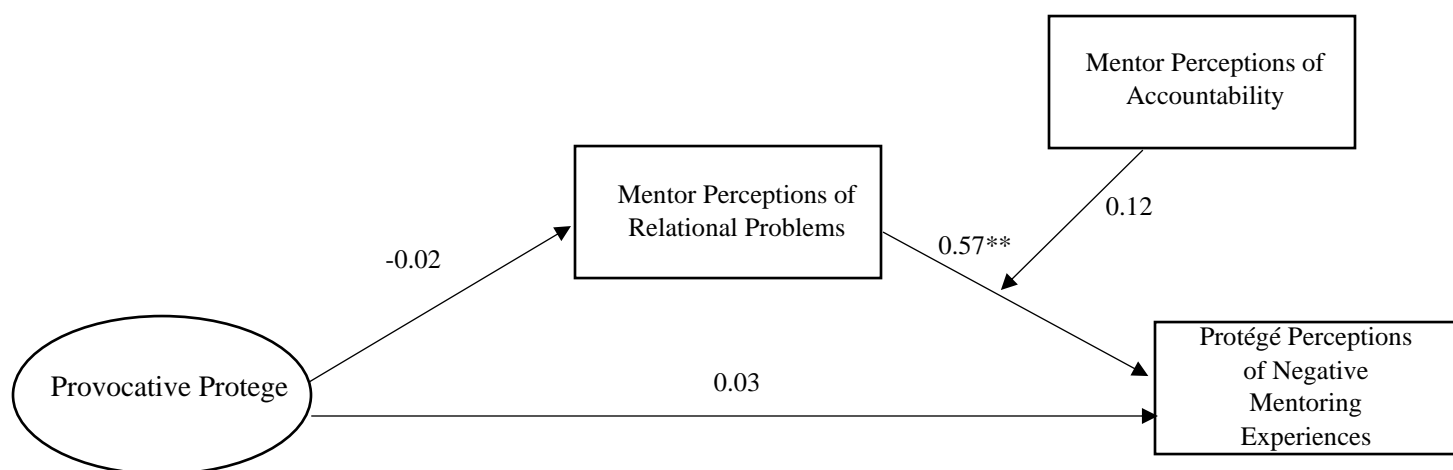
Note. Bolded coefficients represent *p* < .01. The measurement model and factor loadings are not presented in this figure.

Figure 2. *Unstandardized Path Coefficients for the Submissive Protege*
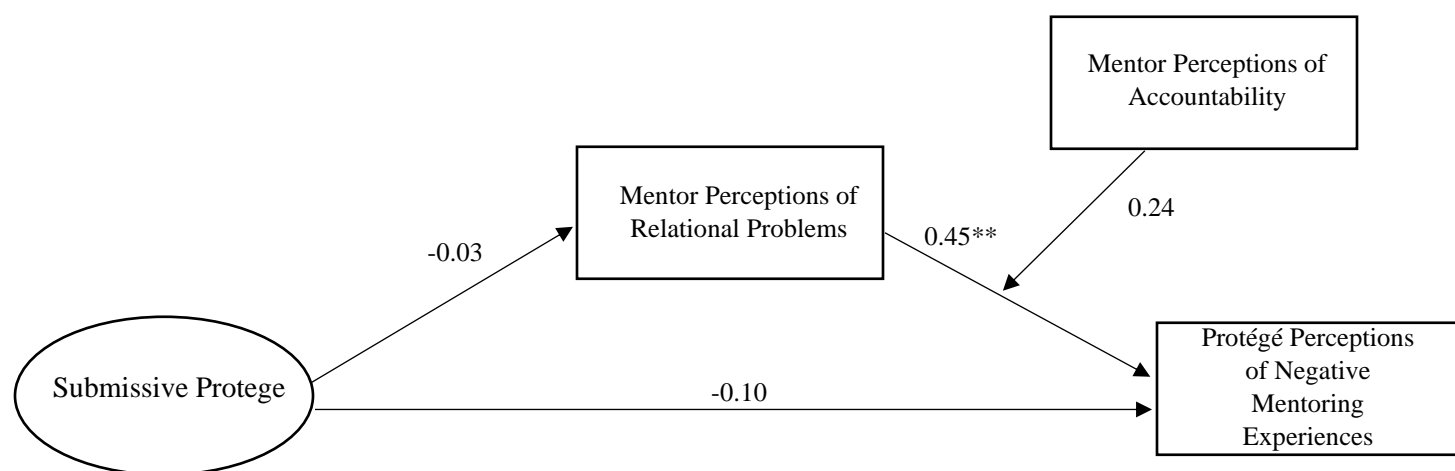
Note. Bolded coefficients represent *p* < .01. The measurement model and factor loadings are not presented in this figure.

APPENDIX A

SURVEY

Protégé Measures

Protégé Impoliteness

Please use the list of common traits below to describe yourself as accurately as possible.

Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future.

Describe yourself as you are generally or typically. Use the scale: 1=Extremely Inaccurate,

2=Moderately Inaccurate, 3=Uncertain, 4=Moderately, Accurate, 5=Extremely Accurate

1. ___ Cold

2. ___ Kind (R)

3. ___ Harsh

4. ___ Rude

5. ___ Warm (R)

6. ___ Cooperative (R)

7. ___ Sympathetic (R)

8. ___ Unsympathetic

Protégé Trait Hostility

Please answer the following questions using the scale: SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither Agree nor Disagree, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree

1) I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy

2) At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life.

3) Other people always seem to get the breaks.

4) I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things.

5) I know that my "friends" talk about me behind my back.

6) I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers.

7) I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back.

8) When people are especially nice, I wonder what they want.

Protégé Volatility

These items ask you to report on how you typically feel on a daily basis. Write one number in the blank to the left of each item. Use the scale:1=Almost never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Almost Always

1)_____ Upset

2)_____ Hostile

3)_____ Irritable

4)_____ Jittery

Please use the list of common traits below to describe yourself as accurately as possible.

Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future.

Describe yourself as you are generally or typically. Use the scale: 1=Extremely Inaccurate,

2=Moderately Inaccurate, 3=Uncertain, 4=Moderately, Accurate, 5=Extremely Accurate

1) ___ Envious

2)___ Moody

3) ___ Touchy

4) ___ Fretful

5)___ Relaxed (R)

6) ___ Unenvious (R)

7) ___ Jealous

Protégé Introversion

Please use the list of common traits below to describe yourself as accurately as possible.

Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future.

Describe yourself as you are generally or typically. Use the scale: 1=Extremely Inaccurate,

2=Moderately Inaccurate, 3=Uncertain, 4=Moderately, Accurate, 5=Extremely Accurate

1) ___ Bashful

2) ___ Extraverted (R)

3)___ Withdrawn

4) ___ Bold(R)

5) ___ Quiet

6) ___ Shy

7) ___ Energetic (R)

Protégé Lower Social Regard

In the five blank lines below, print the first name of 5 people that you interact with at work on a daily basis. For each person that you list, circle TALK if you discuss what is going on in the organization with that person. Circle ADVICE if this person is an important source of professional advice when you have a problem or decision to make. There may be instances where you circle more than one choice for a particular person. There may also be instances where you circle none for a particular person.

1. _____ TALK ADVICE

2. _____ TALK ADVICE

3. _____ TALK ADVICE

4. _____ TALK ADVICE

5. _____ TALK ADVICE

Protégé Withdrawal

These items ask you to report on how you typically feel on a daily basis. Write one number in the blank to the left of each item. Use the scale:1=Almost never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Almost Always

1) ___ Ashamed

2)___ Distressed

3)___ Guilty

4)___ Nervous

5)___ Scared

6)___ Afraid

Protégé Perceived Negative Mentoring Experiences with the Mentor

Continuing to think about your current clinical supervisor, please answer the following questions using the scale:

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither Agree nor Disagree, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree (if no answer leave blank)

General Dysfunctionality

1) My clinical supervisor tends to bring his/her personal problems to work

2) My clinical supervisor approaches tasks with a negative attitude

3) My clinical supervisor complains a lot about the organization

4) My clinical supervisor allows non-business related issues to interfere with his/her work

Distancing Behavior

1) My clinical supervisor seems to have "more important things to do" than meet with me

2) My clinical supervisor is more concerned about his/herself than helping me develop professionally

3) My clinical supervisor is preoccupied with his/her own career

4) My clinical supervisor keeps me "out of the loop" on important issues

Manipulative Behavior

1) My clinical supervisor "pulls rank" on me

2) My clinical supervisor has undermined my performance on tasks or assignments

3) My clinical supervisor has deliberately misled me

4) My clinical supervisor has taken credit for my work

Mentor Measures

Mentor Appraisal of Relational Problems

Thinking about this counselor, please answer the following questions using the scale:

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither Agree nor Disagree, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree (if no answer leave blank)

Destructive Relational Problems

1) This counselor lets his/her personal goals take priority over the interests of others:

2) This counselor has a self-serving attitude

3) This counselor acts like he/she is better than others

4) This counselor has misled me

5) This counselor sometimes distorts the truth

6) This counselor has deceived me

7) This counselor tries to damage my reputation at work

8) I suspect this counselor tries to sabotage me at work

9) This counselor attempts to "get back" at me

10) This counselor gives me unwanted sexual attention **(REMOVED DUE TO LOW ITEM-LEVEL VARIANCE)**

11) This counselor tells racially offensive stories or jokes **(REMOVED DUE TO LOW ITEM-LEVEL VARIANCE)**

12) This counselor makes crude racial remarks, either publicly or privately **(REMOVED DUE TO LOW ITEM-LEVEL VARIANCE)**

13) I sense that this counselor is jealous of my success

14) This counselor is jealous of my work accomplishments

15) This counselor seems to resent my success at work

Interpersonal Problems

16) This counselor and I have conflicting personalities

17) This counselor and I have difficulty interacting

18) Our relationship suffers because of interpersonal conflicts

19) I feel that our relationship is not as satisfying as it used to be

20) I feel that the counselor is no longer as loyal to me as he/she once was

21) Our clinical supervisory relationship is going downhill

22) This counselor often "kisses up" to superiors

23) This counselor engages in political game-playing

24) This counselor is too reliant on me for work-related advice

25) This counselor is too dependent on our clinical supervisory relationship

26) This counselor has trouble doing things without a lot of guidance from me

Protégé Performance Problems

27) I suspect that this counselor is involved in some self-destructive behavior

28) This counselor does not do high quality work

29) This counselor has performance problems on the job

30) This counselor's performance does not meet my expectations

31) This counselor is reluctant to change his/her behavior in response to feedback

32) This counselor does not seem willing to learn

33) This counselor does not seem interested in learning better ways of doing things

Mentor Perceived Accountability for Mentoring

Please answer the following questions using the scale:

SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither Agree nor Disagree, A=Agree, SA=Strongly Agree (if no answer leave blank)

1) This organization is aware of how clinical supervisors behave towards counselors

2) Clinical supervisors are held accountable for their treatment of counselors

3) Center management would be willing to look into counselors claims of problems with their clinical supervisors

4) This organization would take steps to remedy a counselors dissatisfaction with a clinical supervisor

APPENDIX B

RESULTS OF THE SUPPLEMENTARY ANALYSIS OF THE PROVOCATIVE AND

SUBMISSIVE PROTÉGÉ MODEL

Supplementary Table 1. *Results of Provocative Protégé Characteristics Structural Equation Models Predicting Protégé Negative Mentoring Experiences*

	Unstandardized Coefficient (S.E.)	Standardized Coefficient (S.E.)
Main Effects		
Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences		
Protégé NME on Protégé Impoliteness	0.09 (0.15)	0.07 (0.15)
Protégé NME on Protégé Trait Hostility	0.12 (0.09)	0.15 (0.09)
Protégé NME on Protégé Volatility	-0.07 (0.13)	-0.06 (0.13)
Protege NME on Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems	0.58** (0.14)	0.46** (0.14)
Mentor Perceptions of Negative Relational Events		
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Protégé Impoliteness	0.07 (0.14)	0.06 (0.14)
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Protégé Trait Hostility	-0.11 (0.08)	-0.16 (0.08)
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Protégé Volatility	0.05 (0.11)	0.06 (0.11)
Interaction Effects		
Protégé NME on Mentor Accountability x Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems	0.13 (0.16)	0.08 (0.16)
Conditional Indirect Effects		
Protégé Impoliteness→Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems + Mentor Accountability→Protégé NME	0.17 (0.18)	0.10 (0.18)
Protégé Trait Hostility→Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems + Mentor Accountability→Protégé NME	0.07 (0.17)	0.00 (0.17)
Protégé Volatility→Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems + Mentor Accountability→Protégé NME	0.16 (0.17)	0.10 (0.17)

Note. There were 126 protégé observations nested within 72 mentor observations. **p < .01. "Protégé NME" represents protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences.

APPENDIX B CONTINUED

RESULTS OF THE SUPPLEMENTARY ANALYSIS OF THE SUBMISSIVE

PROTÉGÉ MODEL

Supplementary Table 2. *Results of Submissive Protégé Characteristics Structural Equation Models Predicting Protégé Negative Mentoring Experiences*

	Unstandardized Coefficient (S.E.)	Standardized Coefficient (S.E.)
Main Effects		
Protégé Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences		
Protégé NME on Protégé Introversion	-0.09 (0.08)	-0.12 (0.08)
Protégé NME on Protégé Withdrawal	0.12 (0.09)	0.13 (0.09)
Protégé NME on Protégé Social Regard	-0.04 (0.05)	-0.09 (0.05)
Protege NME on Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems	0.46** (0.14)	0.38**(0.14)
Mentor Perceptions of Negative Relational Events		
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Protégé Introversion	-0.06 (0.08)	-0.09 (0.08)
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Protégé Withdrawal	-0.01 (0.09)	-0.01 (0.09)
Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems on Protégé Social Regard	-0.00 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)
Interaction Effects		
Protégé NME on Mentor Accountability x Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems	0.24 (0.16)	0.15 (0.16)
Conditional Indirect Effects		
Protégé Introversion→Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems + Mentor Accountability→Protégé NME	0.22 (0.17)	0.11 (0.17)
Protégé Withdrawal→Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems + Mentor Accountability→Protégé NME	0.24 (0.17)	0.14 (0.17)
Protégé Social Regard→Mentor Perceptions of Relational Problems + Mentor Accountability→Protégé NME	0.24 (0.17)	0.14 (0.17)

Note. There were 121 protégé observations nested within 73 mentor observations. "Protégé NME" represents protégé perceptions of negative mentoring experiences. **$p < .01$.

APPENDIX C

RESULTS OF THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSES FOR THE

REFLECTIVE CONSTRUCTS IN THE PROVOCATIVE AND SUBMISSIVE

PROTÉGÉ PROFILES

Supplemental Table 1.

Results from Provocative Protégé Reflective Construct Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Description	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	*df*
Three-Factor Model of Impoliteness, Volatility, and Trait Hostility	0.89	0.88	0.09	0.09	769.28	321

Note. A diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) estimator was used. This estimator treats the scale anchors as categorical choices and provides a robust standard error estimate. All reported fit indices represent the robust estimates. ($N = 195$).

Supplemental Table 2.

Results from Submissive Protégé Reflective Construct Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Description	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	*df*
Two-Factor Model of Introversion and Withdrawal	0.93	0.92	0.06	0.08	115.15	64

Note. A maximum likelihood estimator was used. The DWLS estimator was not employed because categorical responses must have responses on all scale anchors. One item in the introversion scale did not have any responses to on anchor and could not be treated as a categorical variable since there was no responses within a single scale choice. ($N = 194$).