POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE MENTORING EXPERIENCES: IMPACT ON PROTÉGÉ

OUTCOMES

by

SARAH CARR EVANS

(Under the direction of Lillian T. Eby)

ABSTRACT

A growing body of research has demonstrated that mentoring relationships are marked by both positive and negative experiences. However, researchers have yet to assess the combined effect of positive and negative experiences on protégé outcomes. This study attempted to bridge that gap by examining the impact of positive mentoring (i.e. career-related support) and negative mentoring (i.e. match within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, general dysfunctionality) on affective and behavioral outcomes. Hierarchical regression and dominance analysis revealed that negative mentoring experiences, specifically those that are maliciously motivated, are more predictive of protégés' intentions to leave the relationship and general workplace stress than positive mentoring experiences. Implications for mentoring theory, future research, and applied practice are discussed.

INDEX WORDS: Mentoring, Positive mentoring experiences, Negative mentoring experiences, Dysfunctional mentoring, Protégé outcomes, Career development

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DEDICATION

This document is dedicated to my husband, David Evans. Completing this project and thus realizing one of my most challenging life goals to date is infinitely more meaningful because he was part of the journey. His unwavering support and encouragement of all that I aspire to makes every success more fulfilling.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Just over a decade ago, Whitely, Dougherty and Dreher (1991) acknowledged that, despite the attention paid to mentoring in the popular press, mentoring theory and research was merely in its infancy. While Kram's (1985) seminal work on this topic sparked interest in the construct of mentoring in the mid-1980s, few studies immediately followed. The gap in literature examining the relationship between mentoring experiences and career outcomes was similarly noted by other researchers (e.g., Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Fagenson, 1989) who, due to the frequent use of mentoring programs in organizations, stressed the need for more research in this domain.

There was a clear response to the call for mentoring research in the 1990s as this decade was marked by a proliferation of empirical studies designed to better understand the process and outcomes of mentoring relationships. In fact more than twice as many mentoring studies were published during that decade then for all years prior (Eby & Durley, 2004). The vast majority of the studies published during this time frame focused on the potential benefits of mentoring. For instance, researchers investigated the impact of mentoring on protégé promotion rates (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Fagenson, 1989; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993), income levels (Chao et al., 1992; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Whitely et al., 1991), and career satisfaction (Fagenson, 1989). Benefits for the mentor as well as the organization were also examined (e.g. Ragins & Scandura, 1999; Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). These findings offered substantial support for the importance of mentoring in organizations. However, few researchers examined the potential problems or dysfunctions that can occur in mentoring relationships.

Only recently have researchers begun to actively investigate the notion that mentoring relationships may have a dark side that might impact their quality and productive nature. Recently, Scandura (1998) addressed the idea that mentorships have problems reminiscent of personal relationships. She examined reports of dysfunctionality in existing mentoring literature and proposed a typology of negative mentoring styles. However, it was not until Eby et al. (2000) empirically defined the landscape of negative mentoring experiences and Eby et al. (2004) introduced a scale to evaluate protégés' negative mentoring experiences that researchers were able to measure and assess the role of negative experiences in mentoring relationships. By developing a measure of negative mentoring experiences, Eby et al., (2004) established an avenue by which the darker, less functional aspects of mentoring can be explored and evaluated in terms of their effects on outcomes for the protégé.

The extension of mentoring research into the domain of negative experiences has created the need for yet a new line of research, one that examines the combined impact of positive and negative experience on protégé outcomes. Although recent publications endorse the idea that mentoring relationships likely contain a combination of both positive and negative experiences (Eby & Allen, 2002; Ragins et al., 2000; Scandura, 1998), researchers have yet to assess the way in which the positive and the negative interact in influencing protégé outcomes.

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of positive and negative mentoring experiences on behavioral and affective outcomes for the protégé. Specifically, Kram's (1985) mentor role theory and Eby et al.'s (2000) taxonomy of negative mentoring experiences will be used as a framework for understanding the effects of positive experiences (i.e. career-related support), negative experiences (i.e. match within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, general dysfunctionality), and the combination of both types

of mentoring experiences on protégés' intentions to leave the relationship and general workplace

stress. This study will contribute to current theory and practice by providing further insight into

the affective and behavioral effects of both types of mentoring experiences as well as extend the

current line of research to include the combined impact of positive and negative mentoring on

protégé outcomes.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

<u>Mentoring Experiences</u>

Mentoring is typically defined as a unique work relationship where a more experienced individual, or mentor, provides career-related and psychosocial support to a less experienced protégé for the purpose of career development (Kram, 1985). Mentorships are typically seen as a fundamental component of the orientation, career progression, and well-being of an employee. Further, some researchers argue that the success and development of individuals particularly in technical, managerial, or professional fields is contingent upon their participation in a mentoring relationship (Kreitner, 1980; Myers & Humphreys, 1985).

Although the first accounts of the benefits of mentoring were provided decades ago (Levinson et al., 1978; Roche, 1979), mounting research of recent years adds to anecdotal and theoretical evidence that mentoring can lead to important outcomes for both the individuals and institutions that utilize them. The value that mentoring can bring to an organization is often of primary interest since the implementation of mentoring programs can require a substantial investment in time, money, and other resources. Organizational rewards that have been identified by researchers are plentiful and include reduced turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2004; Myers & Humphreys, 1985; Viator & Scandura, 1991), better integration and organizational socialization

(Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993; Chao, 1997), greater job satisfaction (Chao, 1997; Koberg, Boss, Chappell, & Ringer, 1994), and increased organizational commitment (Ragins, et al., 2000). The benefits of mentoring are not limited to the organization, however. In fact, there is strong empirical evidence that protégés can profit from their involvement in mentoring relationships. For instance, Fagenson (1989) found that protégés reported greater recognition, career satisfaction, and career mobility/opportunity than nonprotégés. Researchers also found that protégés have higher promotion rates (Whitely & Coetsier, 1993; Fagenson, 1989; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1992), income levels (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991; Chao, Walz, & Garner, 1992; Dreher & Ash, 1990), and satisfaction with pay and benefits (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1992). Further, mentored individuals have been found to have greater career achievement and career satisfaction than nonmentored individuals (Wallace, 2001). Finally, in a recent meta-analysis, mentoring was found to be related to both objective (e.g. compensation, promotion) and subjective (e.g. job and career satisfaction) indicators of career success as well as positive job attitudes for protégés (Allen, et al., 2004).

<u>Positive Mentoring</u>

There is empirical evidence linking the benefits of mentoring to the type of mentoring provided: career-related support or psychosocial support (e.g. Allen et al., 2004; Whitely et al., 1991; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993; Chao, 1997). The distinction between the two different types of mentoring was initially made by Kram (1985) who dichotomized the primary functions of mentors into these two categories. According to the mentor role theory (Kram, 1985), career-related functions are externally driven and focus on the protégé's career development. Career-related functions of the mentor include sponsorship, coaching, protection from adverse forces, exposure and visibility in the organization, and access to challenging assignments. Psychosocial

functions, however, are internally driven and highlight the protégé's personal growth and development (Kram, 1985; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Specifically, psychosocial functions of the mentor include providing friendship, counseling, acceptance and confirmation, and role modeling (Kram, 1985).

While there are positive outcomes associated with both types of mentoring functions, empirical evidence directly links career-related support to organizational rewards and the career orientation of the protégé (Allen et al., 2004; Whitely et al., 1991; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993, Chao, 1997). Further, in a meta-analysis conducted by Allen and her colleagues (2004), career-related functions were found to be associated with objective indicators of career success, such as compensation and promotion rate, to a greater magnitude than psychosocial functions. These researchers also found that career-related support was equally as predictive as psychosocial support of subjective indicators of career success for protégés like job and career satisfaction. Finally, career-related mentoring encapsulates the behaviors most often expected of mentors. Since the primary goal of mentoring is to facilitate the career development of the protégé and purpose of this type of mentoring is to provide such outcomes (Kram, 1985), career-related functions are often those that directly impact the most important mentoring outcomes for the protégé. Career-related support is, therefore, the aspect of positive mentoring that is of interest in this study.

Negative Mentoring

While mentoring experiences for protégés may be marked by positive functions that are provided by the mentor, they may also be defined by the presence of problems, conflicts, or even dysfunctional behaviors on the part of the mentor. Such negative aspects of mentorships have become the recent focus of mentoring researchers. Since social psychological literature maintains

that *all* relationships have positive and negative experiences (Duck 1981, 1982, 1984; Huston & Burgess, 1979; Levinger, 1979, 1983; Wood & Duck, 1995), the role of these negative mentoring experiences is fundamental to a broader understanding of the dynamics of mentoring relationships and their potential outcomes.

Negative mentoring experiences were recognized in early research (Levinson et al., 1978; Kram, 1985). The kind of negative experiences that were initially highlighted included abuse, jealousy, and controlling behavior on the part of the mentor. From the onset, researchers were urged to carefully examine mentoring relationships and recognize that they may not be exclusively positive experiences for the protégé (Kram, 1985).

Additional insight into the nature of negative mentoring experiences did not come until recently. Both Scandura (1998) and Feldman (1999) advanced the theoretical understanding of dysfunctional or toxic mentorships through the generation of their respective frameworks. Ragins and Scandura (1997) also expanded the negative mentoring landscape by identifying specific psychological and physical causes of protégés' terminating a mentoring relationship. Eby et al.'s (2000) taxonomy of negative mentoring experiences was a groundbreaking study in this domain as it provided researchers with a deeper understanding of the full spectrum of negative experiences from the protégé's perspective as well a means by which to classify them.

The multilevel taxonomy of mentoring experiences (Eby et al., 2000) was developed using qualitative accounts of negative mentoring experiences that were described by 84 protégés. Based on the protégé descriptions of mentor behaviors and actions, five broad categories or metathemes emerged (i.e. match within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, general dysfunctionality). The most frequently reported metatheme, match within the dyad, is defined as a poor fit in the mentor-protégé dyad. The mismatch is

typically caused by differences in values, personality, and work styles. Distancing behavior is characterized by behaviors on the part of the mentor that reflect disinterest in the protégés career. Such behaviors include neglect, preoccupation with oneself or his/her own career progress, and excluding the protégé from important meetings or events. Manipulative behavior contains two themes. The first is position power. It reflects tyranny as well as an abuse of power and inappropriate over– or under-delegation of work. The second theme, politicking, involves taking credit for the protégé's accomplishments, sabotaging the protégé through malicious acts, and overt deceit such as lying. Lack of mentor expertise consists of two themes: technical incompetency and interpersonal incompetency such as difficulty with communicating. Finally, general dysfunctionality includes mentors with personal problems such as drinking or family problems and those with a negative attitude toward the job or organization, all of which can hinder a mentor's ability to provide effective mentoring.

The metathemes, more specific themes, and subthemes of this taxonomy account for 15 different types of mentoring experiences. Because the purpose of the current study is to assess the impact of problems in the relationship as reported by the protégé, this taxonomy will be used as framework for negative mentoring experiences from the protégé's perspective.

Since social psychologists emphasize the need to view relational problems on a continuum (Sprecher, 1992), it is important to note that the metathemes that comprise the taxonomy of negative experiences from the protégé's perspective (Eby et al., 2000) represent a continuum of negative mentoring experiences. They correspond to a range of relational problems that progress from less severe, where the mentor's intent is not malicious (i.e. poor dyadic fit, lack of mentor expertise, general dysfunctionality), to those that are more severe, and the mentor has malicious intent (i.e. distancing behavior, manipulative behavior) (Eby & Allen, 2002). By

conceptualizing negative experiences on such a continuum, the magnitude and potential impact of each type of negative experience can more easily be evaluated.

<u>Positive and Negative Mentoring Experiences as Conceptually Distinct Constructs</u>

As is evident by the differing descriptions of positive mentoring functions (e.g. career-related support), negative mentoring is not merely the absence of positive mentoring. Rather, the five categories of negative mentoring (Eby et al., 2000) represent conceptually unique constructs. Empirical evidence reinforcing the distinct nature of negative mentoring was established during the development of a scale to measure negative mentoring experiences (Eby et al., 2004). Correlation and confirmatory factor analyses support the notion that positive and negative mentoring are in fact unique higher-order constructs.

<div align="center">Relationship Dynamics and Mentorships</div>

According to research conducted by Wood and Duck (1995), a common misconception that skews researchers' understanding of relationships is that they are typically positive experiences. Further, believing that relationships fits neatly into dichotomous categories of only good or bad limits our appreciation of true relationship dynamics. The same rationale holds when assessing mentoring relationships. In that mentorships are intense interpersonal relationships (Kram, 1985), the dynamic of such relationships should mimic that of other close relationships that exist outside of the work domain. This notion is further supported by Ragins et al.'s (2000) proposal that mentoring relationships range from highly satisfying to dysfunctional. This continuum acknowledges the existence of both the positive and negative components of this type of relationship and maps on to the range of negative experiences identified by Eby et al. (2000). As such, the supposition of social psychological literature that all interpersonal relationships are marked by both positive and negative experiences (Duck, 1981, 1982, 1984; Huston & Burgess,

1979; Levinger, 1979, 1983; Wood & Duck, 1995) should extend to that of mentoring relationships.

The understanding that mentoring relationships, like other non-work interpersonal relationships, are marked by both positive and negative experiences is important when conceptualizing and appreciating the full breadth of mentoring experiences. Since it is feasible that a protégé could encounter both positive and negative experiences with the same mentor (e.g. mentor provides challenging assignments but is otherwise neglectful), the contribution of both the positive and the negative needs to be considered (Kram, 1985; Eby & McManus, 2004). Empirical evidence (Eby et al., 2004) that positive and negative mentoring experiences are conceptually distinct constructs provides additional evidence that there are independent contributions of both the positive and the negative to any mentoring relationship.

Despite the appreciation in social psychological literature that there are positive and negative components to interpersonal relationships and the growing body of mentoring theory that extends this notion of the workplace domain, no research to date has examined the impact of both types of experiences on mentoring relationships. It is therefore the objective of this study to address this gap in the literature.

<u>Outcomes of Mentoring Experiences for the Protégé</u>

Although a variety of outcome variables are potentially related to mentoring experiences, the selection of the variables of interest for this study was driven by Kelley et al.'s (1983) recommendation to examine both affective and behavioral domains when conducting relationship research. As such, the affective outcome that will be examined in this study is *general workplace stress*. Defined as an unpleasant emotional experience, stress is composed of varying levels of fear, anxiety, and irritation (Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986).

Organizational research indicates that workplace stress may have a negative impact on both the organization and the employee as it has been empirically linked to a decline in overall well-being, reduced protégé performance, and job withdrawal (Ashforth, 1994, Eby et al., 2004). In order to assess the behavioral domain, the protégé's *intention to leave the relationship* will be evaluated. This is an important variable to consider since a protégé's choice of whether to remain in the mentoring relationship could have substantial implications for all who have invested, emotionally or financially, in the relationship: the protégé, the mentor, and the organization. For example, a protégé's departure from a mentoring relationship could slow or even halt the protégés career development process, impact the mentor's desire to engage in such a relationship in the future, and result in a monetary loss for the organization.

Social Psychological Literature

The theoretical basis for expecting that negative mentoring experiences will predict protégé outcomes is based on Thibaut & Kelley's (1959) Social Exchange Theory. A basic tenet of Social Exchange Theory is that the commitment one feels towards a relationship is a function of the perceived costs as well as the perceived benefits. Specifically, the decision to stay in the relationship is based on the belief that there are rewards from engaging in the relationship coupled with minimal risk of tension or restraint (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). As such, if the benefits of remaining in the relationship are greater than the perceived costs, then the result will be an intention to stay in the relationship. Conversely, if an individual interprets the costs of maintaining a relationship as outweighing the benefits, the individual will want to leave the relationship.

So as to more fully appreciate the variables that may determine one's commitment to a relationship, Rusbult (1980, 1983) extended Thibaut and Kelley's original model. Rusbult's

Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980, 1983) maintains that an individual's choice to stay in or leave a relationship is determined by the combined effect of one's satisfaction with the relationship, availability of good alternatives, and size of investment in the relationship. Satisfaction with the relationship is determined using a similar cost to benefit ratio that is described by Social Exchange Theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). A relationship is believed to be satisfying if there is little discrepancy between the anticipated rewards and costs (Rusbult, 1980). Taken as a whole, if a relationship is viewed as satisfying, there are few viable alternatives and an individual has invested a great deal in the relationship, commitment to that relationship is predicted to be high. The magnitude of the commitment then dictates whether the individual will choose to remain in the relationship (Rusbult, 1980; Sprecher, 1992). Although much of Rusbult's research was directed at non-work relationships, she suggests that her Investment Model is equally useful in predicting outcomes associated with business relationships (Rusbult, 1980).

Predictions

The aforementioned relationship models (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Rusbult, 1980, 1983) have important implications for the protégé outcomes predicted in this study. Since mentorships are designed to benefit a protégé's career (Kram, 1985), individuals who participate in mentorships should expect significant career-related rewards. Ultimately, if these benefits (i.e. positive mentoring) are realized and there are few costs associated with maintaining the relationship, then it is expected that commitment to the relationship will be high, as will the protégé's intentions to remain in the relationship. However, if such rewards are not realized or are met with greater costs than were anticipated (i.e. negative mentoring), the protégé's commitment to that relationship is expected to decline and intent to remain in the relationship will weaken. Ultimately, a protégé will decide to leave a mentoring relationship if he or she feels

that the relational costs exceed the benefits provided. Specifically, if the projected costs for remaining in the relationship (i.e. negative mentoring experiences) outweigh the projected benefits of staying (i.e. positive mentoring experiences), then the protégé will report high intent to terminate the relationship.

Such assertions are reinforced by the findings of Duck (1984) who says that unmet expectations are a fundamental cause of ending a relationship. Sprecher (1992) also maintains that commitment is one of the most important predictors of the continuation or dissolution of a relationship. Mentoring researchers have provided additional support as Eby and Allen (2002) found that protégés who had a history of negative mentoring experiences were more likely to indicate an intent to leave the organization. As such, it is expected that:

H1: Career-related support will be negatively related to intentions to leave the relationship.

H2: Negative mentoring experiences will be positively related to intentions to leave the relationship.

H3: Career-related support will interact with negative experiences such that intentions to leave the relationship will be higher when negative experiences are high and career-related support is low.

Additionally, since jealousy, dependency, and lack of support have been empirically linked to intentions to leave the relationship (Ragins & Scandura, 1997), it is expected that protégés who are exposed to the most severe, or malicious negative mentoring experiences will report the greatest intentions for leaving the relationship.

H4: Intentions to leave the relationship will be more strongly related to the most severe negative mentoring experiences of Manipulative Behavior and Distancing Behavior than

the less severe mentoring experiences of Match within the Dyad, Lack of Mentor Expertise, and General Dysfunctionality.

H4a: The relationship between intentions to leave the relationship and Manipulative Behavior will be stronger than the relationship between intentions to leave the relationship and each of the following: Match within the Dyad, Lack of Mentor Expertise, and General Dysfunctionality.

H4b: The relationship between intentions to leave the relationship and Distancing Behavior will be stronger than the relationship between intentions to leave the relationship and each of the following: Match within the Dyad, Lack of Mentor Expertise, and General Dysfunctionality.

Relational costs are not only linked to intentions to leave the relationship, they are also a contributing factor to psychological distress (Duck, 1981; Levinger, 1979; Sprecher, 1992). In fact, the interpersonal relationship literature suggests that an important predictor of stress and dissatisfaction is unmet needs and expectations (Levinger, 1979; Sprecher, 1992). As such, if a protégé feels that the benefits of the relationship outweigh the costs, then the protégé should experience little workplace stress. In contrast, if a protégé feels that the costs of the mentoring relationship exceed the benefits, then the protégé will report high amount of workplace stress. Such predictions are reinforced by previous researchers (Feldman, 1999; Scandura, 1998) who speculate that dysfunctional mentoring experiences are related to protégé distress. The results of Eby and Allen's (2002) provide similar evidence as protégés who had negative mentoring experiences reported higher levels of stress.

Based on these assertions, the following is proposed:

H5: Career-related support will be negatively related to general workplace stress.

H6: Negative mentoring experiences will be positively related to general workplace stress.

H7: Career-related support will interact with negative experiences such that general workplace stress will be high when negative experiences are high and career-related support is low.

Further, negative mentoring experiences vary based on the severity of their impact on the protégé (Eby & Allen, 2002). Those experiences that are the most severe and exist on the high end of the negative experiences continuum are those that involve malicious intent on the part of the mentor (i.e. Manipulative Behavior, Distancing Behavior). According to relationship scholars (e.g. Duck, 1992, 1994; Marshall, 1994, Tepper, 2000), behaviors that are malicious are likely to create a more stressful environment for a protégé than those behaviors that are not malicious. Therefore, it is expected that protégés who are subject to the most extreme negative mentoring experiences will have the highest levels of workplace stress. Such a prediction is reinforced by Eby and Allen's (2002) findings that mentors' exclusionary behavior and lack of access resulted in greater stress for the protégé.

Given the previous findings, the following is predicted:

H8: Workplace stress will be more strongly related to the more severe negative mentoring experiences of Manipulative Behavior and Distancing Behavior than the less severe mentoring experiences of Match within the Dyad, Lack of Mentor Expertise, and General Dysfunctionality.

H8a: The relationship between workplace stress and Manipulative Behavior will be stronger than the relationship between workplace stress and each of the following: Match within the Dyad, Lack of Mentor Expertise, and General Dysfunctionality.

H8b: The relationship between workplace stress and Distancing Behavior will be stronger than the relationship between workplace stress and each of the following: Match within the Dyad, Lack of Mentor Expertise, and General Dysfunctionality.

In summary, the purpose of this research is to extend current literature by examining the effects of positive mentoring experiences (i.e. career-related support), negative mentoring experiences (i.e. match within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, general dysfunctionality), and the combination of both types of experiences on protégés' intentions to leave the relationship and general workplace stress. This study will contribute to current theory and practice by providing additional insight into the affective and behavioral effects of both types of mentoring experiences. Further, it will extend the current line of research to include the combined impact of positive and negative mentoring on protégé outcomes.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

<u>Participants and Procedure</u>

Data collection occurred in two waves and participation was limited to non-academic

employees of a public university with experience as a protégé.

Wave 1 data collection. The first wave of data collection for this field study was part of a

larger research project examining a broad range of mentoring experiences in the workplace.

Since the purpose of the larger study was to collect dyadic mentoring data, 1552 surveys were

mailed to non-faculty individuals at a large southeastern university. Based on their type of job

(e.g., management, administration), these employees were likely to have functioned as a *mentor*

in a mentoring relationship. Surveys were sent to potential mentors via campus mail using the

employee's university address. Each survey packet contained a cover letter, mentor survey,

return envelope, and a sealed protégé packet with cover letter, protégé survey and return

envelope. The recipient of the survey packet was asked 1) to complete the enclosed mentor

survey if he or she had been a mentor in either a formal or informal mentoring relationship, and

2) pass a sealed packet that contained a protégé survey on to a fellow employee whom the

participant believed could be considered his or her protégé. A pre-notification email and a

follow-up email were also sent to each participant.

One hundred thirty eight self-identified mentors returned completed surveys. Seventy-

two non-faculty employees returned the *protégé* survey. When calculating the protégé response

rate, it is important to note that the only protégés likely to receive surveys were those whose

mentors also returned surveys (since mentors were instructed to distribute surveys to protégés).

Thus the protégé response rate was estimated to be 52% (72/138) (Deluga, 1994; Sherony & Green, 2002; Townsend, Phillips, & Elkins, 2000; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997; Brandes, Dharwadkar, & Wheatly, 2004; Whittington, Goodwin, & Murray, 2004).

Protégés were identified based on their response to the following statement, "One type of work relationship is a mentoring relationship. A mentor is generally defined as a higher-ranking, influential individual in your work environment who has advanced experience and knowledge and is committed to providing support in your career. A mentor may or may not be in a protégé's department or unit and s/he may or may not be the protégé's immediate supervisor. Further, a mentoring relationship may develop formally as a result of outside assistance or it may develop informally or spontaneously, without outside assistance. Considering this definition of a mentoring relationship, have you ever been a protégé in a mentoring relationship?"

Wave 2 data collection. The second wave of data collection targeted non-academic employees at the same southeastern university who, based on job type, were likely to have functioned as a *protégé* in a mentoring relationship. Individuals were asked to voluntarily participate in the study by going to a secure online web survey site. Once participants connected with the website, they were provided with an electronic version of the protégé survey. Eight hundred individuals were identified for survey distribution. E-mail addresses were obtained from the campus directory. Each participant was sent a solicitation e-mail and one week later a follow-up email.

Solicitation e-mails sent to 76 participants were deemed undeliverable yielding a potential sample of 724. One hundred thirty two non-faculty employees completed the online protégé survey. Of those surveys completed, 94 respondents reported that they had experience as

a protégé (same question as with the initial sample). Since the survey was only intended for protégés, it was estimated based on previous research that approximately 61% of the surveys were received by individuals who were protégés (94/442) (Eby et al., 2000; Eby & Allen, 2002; Ragins & Scandura, 1997). Therefore, the response rate for protégés was estimated to be 21%.

Of the combined group of 156 protégés who returned mailed and electronic surveys, 123 provided complete data for the analysis variables. Seventy two percent were women, 59% were married, 90.2% were Caucasian, and the average age was 37.51 years ($SD = 11.05$). The average salary of the protégés was $44,741, the average job tenure was 5.85 years ($SD = 17.43$), and the average organizational tenure was 9.25 years ($SD = 19.78$). The types of jobs held by the participants included administrative associates, professionals with academic rank (e.g., librarian), department heads, chairs, or directors, managers, and technicians/paraprofessionals. Eighty nine percent of protégés reported that were in an informal mentoring relationship. The average length of mentoring relationship was 43.3 months ($SD = 49.68$) and most protégés reported being in the cultivation phase of the mentoring relationship (i.e., mentor is directly involved in the protégé's career development).

<p align="center">Measures</p>

The positive mentoring experience of *career-related support* was measured using a scale adapted from Ragins & McFarlin (1990). The 15-item measure assessed the five career-related mentor functions of sponsor, coach, protect, challenge, and exposure. When completing these items (e.g. "My mentor brings my accomplishments to the attention of important people in the university," alpha = .97), participants were asked to think about the mentoring relationship that they have with the person who gave them the survey (i.e. a past or current mentor). The protégé responded to each item by indicating the extent to which he or she endorsed the statement.

Response options were in a 5-point Likert-type format ranging from strongly disagree to strongly

agree. *Negative mentoring experiences* were assessed by a 42-item measure developed by Eby et

al. (2004; alpha = .97). The measure was composed of the following subscales of negative

mentoring: match within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulation, lack of mentor expertise,

and general dysfunctionality. Coefficient alpha for each subscales was acceptable at .95, .95, .96,

.93, and .96 respectively. *Intentions to leave the relationship* were assessed using a 3-item

measure (e.g. "I often think about terminating this mentoring relationship," alpha = .91) that was

adapted from Cammann et al. (1982) and used by Eby et al. (2004). Each respondent was asked

to respond using a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Finally, *general workplace stress* was assessed using a 2-item measure (e.g. "I experience a lot

of stress at work," alpha = .91) developed by Eby et al. (2004). Participants responded to these

measures using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree).

Control Variables

Based on a review of existing research, there are a number of variables other than those

proposed in this study that may influence a protégé's intentions to leave a mentoring relationship

or his/her report of general workplace stress. As such, each of the following variables were

assessed as possible covariates in this study: psychosocial support (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990),

phase of the mentoring relationship (Eby et al., 2004), type of mentoring relationship (i.e. formal,

informal) (Ragins & Cotton, 1999), gender, gender composition of the dyad (i.e. same-sex,

cross-sex), socioeconomic status (SES)/income, marital status, protégé age, job type, and

positional characteristics of the mentor (i.e. supervisor, non-supervisor). Since it reduces power

if a large number of control variables are entered into a regression equation, only those variables

that were significantly correlated with the criterion variables and had low intercorrelations were

used as control variables in the final analysis (Neter & Wasserman, 1974). Variables that were used as covariates in this study were psychosocial support, protégé salary, and protégé marital status. Since the method used for data collection (i.e. mailed survey, online survey) was also found to be significantly correlated with the criterion variables, sample type was also used as a control variable (wave 1, wave 2) in data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations among all of the predictor and control variables are shown in Table 4.1.

Hierarchical regression was used to test hypotheses that proposed main effects and interaction effects. In the first step of the analyses, the criterion variable was regressed on each of the following control variables: psychosocial support, protégé marital status, protégé salary, and sample. In Step 2, career-related support and negative mentoring experiences were added to create a fully specified regression equation. A separate series of regression analyses was conducted for each criterion variable (i.e. general workplace stress, intentions to leave the relationship).

Due to the sparse research validating negative mentoring as a construct, the test of main effects using a composite of negative mentoring was deemed necessary prior to assessing the individual metathemes. Once the negative mentoring composite was used to test for main effects, a second series of hierarchical regression equations were computed. For this series of equations, career-related support and the five metathemes that comprise the construct of negative mentoring—manipulative behavior, distancing behavior, match within the dyad, lack of mentor expertise, and general dysfunctionality-- were created (e.g., career-related support and match within the dyad, career-related support and manipulative behavior) and independently added in Step 2 to create five separate fully specified equations. As in the aforementioned analyses, a separate series of regression analyses was conducted for each criterion variable.

To address the prediction that positive mentoring moderates the relationship between negative

mentoring and the affective and behavioral outcomes specified in this study, a centered positive

mentoring X negative mentoring (composite) was created and entered in Step 3. Again, due to

limited negative mentoring research, this was deemed necessary before assessing each individual

metatheme. Once the centered positive mentoring X negative mentoring composite was tested

for interaction effects, five centered positive mentoring X negative mentoring cross-product

terms were created (e.g., career support X match within the dyad, career support X manipulative

behavior) and independently added in Step 3 to create five separate fully specified equations.

Results of the analyses for the main effects and interactions are provided in Table 4.2.

<div align="center">Main Effects</div>

Hypotheses 1 predicted that career-related support would be negatively related to

protégés' intentions to leave the mentoring relationship. Although the zero-order correlation

indicated a significant relationship between these variables, the effect was not significant when

controlling for the effects of the other variables ($\beta = -.13$, n.s.). Thus, H1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that negative mentoring experiences would be positively related to

intentions to leave the mentoring relationship. Results of the hierarchical regression equation that

included the composite for negative mentoring supported this hypothesis ($\Delta R^2 = .26$, p<.01; $\beta =$

.62, p<.001). Further supporting Hypothesis 2, when considered individually, each negative

mentoring experience was significantly related to intentions to leave the relationship: match

within the dyad ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, p<.05; $\beta = .22$, p< .05), distancing behavior ($\Delta R^2 = .13$, p<.01; $\beta =$

.42, p< .01), manipulative behavior ($\Delta R^2 = .23$, p<.01; $\beta = .56$, p< .01), lack of mentor expertise

($\Delta R^2 = .20$, p<.01; $\beta = .49$, p< .01), and general dysfunctionality ($\Delta R^2 = .23$, p<.01; $\beta = .50$, p<

.01). Hypotheses 5, which predicted that career-related support would be negatively related to

protégés' reports of general workplace stress, was not supported. Despite the significant zero-order correlation, career-related support was not found to be a significant predictor of stress (β = -.08, n.s.). Partial support was found for Hypothesis 6. This hypothesis predicted that negative mentoring experiences would be positively related to protégés' reports of general workplace stress. Neither negative mentoring as a composite (β = .24, n.s.) nor the metatheme categories of match within the dyad (β = .00, n.s.), lack of mentor expertise (β = .08, n.s.), or general dysfunctionality (β = .09, n.s.) were found to be a significant predictors of stress. However, distancing behavior (ΔR^2= .07, p<.05; β = .31, p< .01) and manipulative behavior (ΔR^2= .10, p<.01; β = .37, p< .01) were significantly related to stress.

<div align="center">Interaction Effects</div>

Hypotheses that proposed that career-related support would moderate the relationship between negative mentoring experiences and the criterion variables were tested. Hypothesis 3 predicted that career-related support would interact with negative experiences such that intentions to leave the relationship would be higher when negative experiences were high and career-related support was low. This hypothesis was not supported for the interaction of career-related support and negative mentoring ($R^2\Delta$ = .00, n.s.). The interaction of career-related support and four of the individual negative mentoring metatheme were also nonsignificant: distancing behavior ($R^2\Delta$ = .01, n.s.), manipulative behavior ($R^2\Delta$ = .00, n.s.), lack of mentor expertise ($R^2\Delta$ = .00, n.s.), general dysfunctionality ($R^2\Delta$ = .00, n.s.). However, a significant interaction was detected for career-related support and match within the dyad ($R^2\Delta$ = .03, p<.05). A plot of the interaction revealed that when dyadic match is poor (i.e. high scores on match within the dyad), the presence of career-related support is associated with lower protégé intentions to leave the relationship. However, when dyadic match is good (i.e. low scores on match within the dyad),

career-related support has little influence on protégés' intentions to leave the relationship (see Figure 1). Hypothesis 7 predicted that career-related support would interact with negative experiences such that general workplace stress would be high when negative experiences were high and career-related support was low. This hypothesis was not supported as the interactions for negative mentoring ($R^2\Delta = .00$, n.s.) and the metathemes of match within the dyad ($R^2\Delta = .01$, n.s.), distancing behavior ($R^2\Delta = .00$, n.s.), manipulative behavior ($R^2\Delta = .00$, n.s.), lack of mentor expertise ($R^2\Delta = .00$, n.s.), and general dysfunctionality ($R^2\Delta = .01$, n.s.) were nonsignificant.

<div align="center">Analysis of Differences among Negative Mentoring Experiences</div>

The remaining hypotheses proposed differences among negative mentoring experiences were tested using dominance analysis. This data analytic procedure is used to compare predictors in multiple regression models (Budescu, 1993). Dominance analysis made it possible to determine the relative importance of each type of negative mentoring experience in explaining the total variance accounted for in the criterion variables. Since the five metathemes of negative mentoring are correlated, this was the preferred method for assessing the relative importance of the predictors (Budescu, 1993; LeBreton, Ployhart, & Ladd, 2004).

Dominance analyses for each combination of predictor variables and each criterion variable proceeded following Budescu's (1993) guidelines. Four separate analyses were conducted, one for each hypothesis. Results are presented in Tables 4.3-4.6. For each analysis, fifteen separate regression equations were computed based on all possible subset models that could be formed from the given group of predictors. In all regression equations, the control variables of psychosocial support, protégé marital status, protégé salary, and sample were included. General dominance weights (C_p) were calculated by assessing the direct effect of each

type of negative mentoring experience when considered as a sole predictor along with the control

variables, the total effect of each when conditional on all of the other types of negative

mentoring experiences and the control variables, and the partial effect of each when conditional

on a subset of the negative mentoring experiences and the control variables. The relative

contribution (i.e. overall average) of each predictor was then determined by assessing the

average R^2 for each variable across all possible subset models ($k = 0$, $k = 1$, $k = 2$, $k = 3$; where k

= the number of additional predictors taken into account in the model). Based on the overall

average, the relative contribution, or relative percent of each predictor was determined based on

the total variance accounted for by the full model.

Dominance analysis was used to test the prediction that intentions to leave the

relationship and general workplace stress are more strongly related to the more extreme

mentoring experiences of manipulation and distancing behavior than the less extreme mentoring

experiences of match within the dyad, lack of mentor expertise, and general dysfunctionality

(Hypotheses 4 & 8). Hypothesis 4a predicted that manipulative behavior would be more strongly

related to intentions to leave the relationship than the three less severe negative mentoring

experiences. As shown in Table 3, full support was found for this hypothesis. The relative

importance of manipulative behavior (33.0%) in predicting protégés' intentions to leave the

relationship was greater than the relative importance of general dysfunctionality (27.5%), lack of

mentor expertise (25.3%), and match within the dyad (14.2%). Hypothesis 4b predicted that

distancing behavior would be more strongly related to intentions to leave the relationship that the

three less severe negative mentoring experiences. Partial support was found for this hypothesis as

the relative importance of distancing behavior (22.4%) in predicting protégés' intentions to leave

the relationship was greater than the relative importance of match within the dyad (15.2%) but

less than the relative importance of general dysfunctionality (32.7%) and lack of mentor

expertise (29.7%) (see Table 4). Hypothesis 8a predicted that the relationship between general

workplace stress and manipulative behavior would be stronger than the relationship between

each of the less extreme negative mentoring experiences. This hypothesis was fully supported

(see Table 5). Manipulative behavior (60.2%) had the greatest relative importance in predicting

stress compared to the relative importance of general dysfunctionality (14.9%), lack of mentor

expertise (14.1%), and match within the dyad (10.8%). Hypothesis 8b predicted that the

relationship between general workplace stress and distancing behavior would be stronger than

the relationship between each of the less extreme negative mentoring experiences. This

hypothesis was also fully supported (see Table 6). The relative importance of distancing behavior

(53.0%) was substantially greater than that of the less severe negative mentoring experiences of

general dysfunctionality (16.6%), lack of mentor expertise (16.0%), and match within the dyad

(14.4%).

Table 4.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-order Correlations among all Study Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.	Match within the Dyad												
2.	Distancing behavior	.49											
3.	Manipulative behavior	.42	.82										
4.	Lack of mentor expertise	.46	.70	.69									
5.	General dysfunctionality	.47	.60	.71	.70								
6.	Negative mentoring	.71	.86	.89	.83	.84							
7.	Career-related support	-.20	-.38	-.37	-.35	-.24	-.37						
8.	Psychosocial support	-.50	-.66	-.56	-.60	-.43	-.66	.49					
9.	Protégé marital status	.15	.13	.03	.06	-.04	.08	-.01	-.07				
10.	Protégé salary	.09	-.13	-.12	-.07	-.16	-.09	.12	-.04	.38			
11.	Workplace stress	.19	.39	.38	.28	.20	.35	-.23	-.28	.22	.07		
12.	Intent to leave	.42	.63	.70	.61	.63	.72	-.37	-.48	-.04	-.19	.25	
	Mean	2.94	1.91	1.66	1.60	1.62	1.95	3.62	3.40	.59	44741	3.04	1.67
	SD	.79	.70	.67	.61	.71	.56	.63	.60	.50	29965	1.05	.67

*Note: N*s range from 107 to 123. Protégé marital status: 0 = not married, 1 = married.

Underline indicates significance at *p*<.05 (2-tailed).

Table 4.2

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results

	β intent to leave the relationship	β stress
Step 1		
Psychosocial support	-.40**	-.15
Protégé marital status	-.04	.20*
Protégé salary	-.24*	-.12
Sample	.13	.28**
Step 1 R^2	(.24**)	(.15**)
Step 1 F	(7.85**)	(4.44**)
Step 2		
Career-related support	-.13	-.08
Negative mentoring	.62**	.24
Step 2 change in R^2	(.26**)	(.04)
Step 2 change in F	(26.06**)	(2.52)
Step 3		
Career support X Negative mentoring	-.06	-.03
Step 3 change in R^2	(.00)	(.00)
Step 3 change in F	(.69)	(.11)
Total R^2	.50	.19
Step 1		
Psychosocial support	-.40**	-.15
Protégé marital status	-.04	.20*
Protégé salary	-.24*	-.12
Sample	.13	.28**
Step 1 R^2	(.24**)	(.15**)
Step 1 F	(7.85**)	(4.44**)
Step 2		
Career-related support	-.18	-.10
Match within the Dyad	.22*	-.00
Step 2 change in R^2	(.06*)	(.01)
Step 2 change in F	(4.23*)	(.39)
Step 3		
Career support X Match	-.19*	.12
Step 3 change in R^2	(.03*)	(.01)
Step 3 change in F	(4.59*)	(1.35)
Total R^2	.33	.12

Step 1

Psychosocial support	-.40**	-.15
Protégé marital status	-.04	.20*
Protégé salary	-.24*	-.12
Sample	.13	.28**
Step 1 *R²*	(.24**)	(.15**)
Step 1 *F*	(7.85**)	(4.44**)
Step 2		
Career-related support	-.13	-.07
Distancing behavior	.42**	.31**
Step 2 change in *R²*	(.13**)	(.07*)
Step 2 change in *F*	(10.01**)	(4.20*)
Step 3		
Career support X Distancing	-.08**	-.02**
Step 3 change in *R²*	(.01)	(.00)
Step 3 change in *F*	(.84)	(.03)
Total *R²*	.37	.22

Step 1		
Psychosocial support	-.40**	-.15
Protégé marital status	-.04	.20*
Protégé salary	-.24*	-.12
Sample	.13	.28**
Step 1 *R²*	(.24**)	(.15**)
Step 1 *F*	(7.85**)	(4.44**)
Step 2		
Career-related support	-.11	-.05
Manipulative behavior	.56**	.37**
Step 2 change in *R²*	(.23**)	(.10**)
Step 2 change in *F*	(21.83**)	(*6.84**)
Step 3		
Career support X Manipulative	.00	-.01
Step 3 change in *R²*	(.00)	(.00)
Step 3 change in *F*	(.00)	(.01)
Total *R²*	.47	.25

Step 1		
Psychosocial support	-.40**	-.15
Protégé marital status	-.04	.20*
Protégé salary	-.24*	-.12
Sample	.13	.28**
Step 1 *R²*	(.24**)	(.15**)
Step 1 *F*	(7.85**)	(4.44**)
Step 2		
Career-related support	-.14	-.09

Lack of mentor expertise	.49**	.08
Step 2 change in R^2	(.20**)	(.01)
Step 2 change in F	(17.16**)	(.70)
Step 3		
Career support X Lack of expertise	-.00**	-.04
Step 3 change in R^2	(.00)	(.00)
Step 3 change in F	(.00)	(.13)
Total R^2	.43	.16

Step 1		
Psychosocial support	-.40**	-.15
Protégé marital status	-.04	.20*
Protégé salary	-.24*	-.12
Sample	.13	.28**
Step 1 R^2	(.24**)	(.15**)
Step 1 F	(7.85**)	(4.44**)
Step 2		
Career-related support	-.16	-.09
General dysfunctionality	.50**	.08
Step 2 change in R^2	(.23**)	(.01)
Step 2 change in F	(20.87**)	(.77)
Step 3		
Career support X General dysfunctionality	.04	-.09
Step 3 change in R^2	(.00)	(.01)
Step 3 change in F	(.27)	(.81)
Total R^2	.46	.17

β's are standardized regression weights for the final equation. Changes in R^2 are in parentheses.
** Correlations are significant at $p<.01$ (2-tailed).
 * Correlations are significant at $p<.05$ (2-tailed).

Table 4.3

Dominance Analysis of Manipulative Behavior and Non-malicious Negative Mentoring Experiences in Predicting Intentions to Leave the Relationship

| Model | Cp | Additional contribution of | | | |
		Manipulation	Match Within Dyad	Lack of Mentor Expertise	General Dysfunction
Null and k = 0 average	0	.454	.268	.409	.433
XI: Manipulation	.454		.014	.031	.039
X2: Match within Dyad	.268	.200		.156	.166
X3: Lack of Expertise	.409	.076	.015		.051
X4: General Dysfunction	.433	.060	.001	.027	
k = 1 average		.112	.010	.071	.085
X1 X2	.468			.027	.028
X1 X3	.485		.010		.017
X1 X4	.493		.002	.009	
X2 X3	.424	.071			.038
X2 X4	.434	.062		.028	
X3 X4	.460	.042	.002		
k = 2 average		.058	.005	.021	.028
X1 X2 X3	.495				.011
X1 X2 X4	.496			.010	
X1 X3 X4	.502		.004		
X2 X3 X4	.462	.044			
k = 3 average		.044	.004	.010	.011
X1 X2 X3 X4	.506				
Overall average		.167	.072	.128	.139
Relative percent		33.0%	14.2%	25.3%	27.5%

Note. Cp represents the variance accounted for. *N*s range from 107 to 123. Variables are labeled as follows: X1 = Manipulative behavior, X2 = Match within the dyad, X3 = Lack of mentor expertise, X4 = General dysfunctionality.

Table 4.4

Dominance Analysis of Distancing Behavior and Non-malicious Negative Mentoring Experiences in Predicting Intentions to Leave the Relationship

		Additional contribution of			
Model	*Cp*	*Distancing Behavior*	*Match Within Dyad*	*Lack of Mentor Expertise*	*General Dysfunction*
Null and *k* = 0 average	0	.345	.268	.409	.433
X1: Distancing Behavior	.345		.021	.093	.106
X2: Match within Dyad	.268	.098		.156	.166
X3: Lack of Expertise	.409	.029	.015		.051
X4: General Dysfunction	.433	.018	.001	.027	
k = 1 average		.048	.012	.092	.108
X1 X2	.366			.083	.087
X1 X3	.438		.011		.033
X1 X4	.451		.002	.020	
X2 X3	.424	.025			.038
X2 X4	.434	.019		.028	
X3 X4	.460	.011	.002		
k = 2 average		.018	.005	.044	.053
X1 X2 X3	.495				.025
X1 X2 X4	.496			.021	
X1 X3 X4	.502		.003		
X2 X3 X4	.462	.012			
k = 3 average		.012	.003	.021	.025
X1 X2 X3 X4	.474				
Overall average		.106	.072	.141	.155
Relative percent		22.4%	15.2%	29.7%	32.7%

Note. Cp represents the variance accounted for. *N*s range from 107 to 123. Variables are labeled as follows: X1 = Distancing behavior, X2 = Match within the dyad, X3 = Lack of mentor expertise, X4 = General dysfunctionality.

Table 4.5

Dominance Analysis of Manipulative Behavior and Non-malicious Negative Mentoring Experiences in Predicting Workplace Stress

Model	Cp	*Additional contribution of*			
		Manipulation	*Match Within Dyad*	*Lack of Mentor Expertise*	*General Dysfunction*
Null and $k = 0$ average	0	.211	.105	.111	.111
X1: Manipulation	.211		.000	.019	.025
X2: Match within Dyad	.105	.106		.007	.006
X3: Lack of Expertise	.111	.119	.001		.002
X4: General Dysfunction	.111	.125	.000	.002	
$k = 1$ average		.117	.000	.009	.011
X1 X2	.211			.019	.025
X1 X3	.230		.000		.011
X1 X4	.236		.000	.005	
X2 X3	.112	.118			.001
X2 X4	.111	.125		.002	
X3 X4	.113	.128	.000		
$k = 2$ average		.124	.000	.009	.012
X1 X2 X3	.230				.011
X1 X2 X4	.236			.005	
X1 X3 X4	.241		.000		
X2 X3 X4	.113	.128			
$k = 3$ average		.128	.000	.005	.011
X1 X2 X3 X4	.241				
Overall average		.145	.026	.034	.036
Relative percent		60.2%	10.8%	14.1%	14.9%

Note. Cp represents the variance accounted for. *N*s range from 107 to 123. Variables are labeled as follows: X1 = Manipulative behavior, X2 = Match within the dyad, X3 = Lack of mentor expertise, X4 = General dysfunctionality.

Table 4.6

Dominance Analysis of Distancing Behavior and Non-malicious Negative Mentoring

Experiences in Predicting Workplace Stress

Model	Cp	Distancing Behavior	Match Within Dyad	Lack of Mentor Expertise	General Dysfunction
		*Additional contribution of*			
Null and *k* = 0 average	0	.177	.105	.111	.111
X1: Distancing Behavior	.177		.000	.002	.004
X2: Match within Dyad	.105	.072		.007	.006
X3: Lack of Expertise	.111	.068	.001		.002
X4: General Dysfunction	.111	.070	.000	.002	
k = 1 average		.070	.000	.004	.004
X1 X2	.177			.002	.004
X1 X3	.179		.000		.002
X1 X4	.181		.000	.000	
X2 X3	.112	.067			.001
X2 X4	.111	.070		.002	
X3 X4	.113	.068	.000		
k = 2 average		.068	.000	.001	.002
X1 X2 X3	.179				.002
X1 X2 X4	.181			.000	
X1 X3 X4	.181		.000		
X2 X3 X4	.113	.068			
k = 3 average		.068	.000	.000	.002
X1 X2 X3 X4	.181				
Overall average		.096	.026	.029	.030
Relative percent		53.0%	14.4%	16.0%	16.6%

Note. Cp represents the variance accounted for. *N*s range from 107 to 123. Variables are labeled as follows: X1 = Distancing behavior, X2 = Match within the dyad, X3 = Lack of mentor expertise, X4 = General dysfunctionality.

Figure 4.1

Plot of the regression of Protégés' Intentions to Leave the Relationship on Match within the

Dyad on Career-related Support
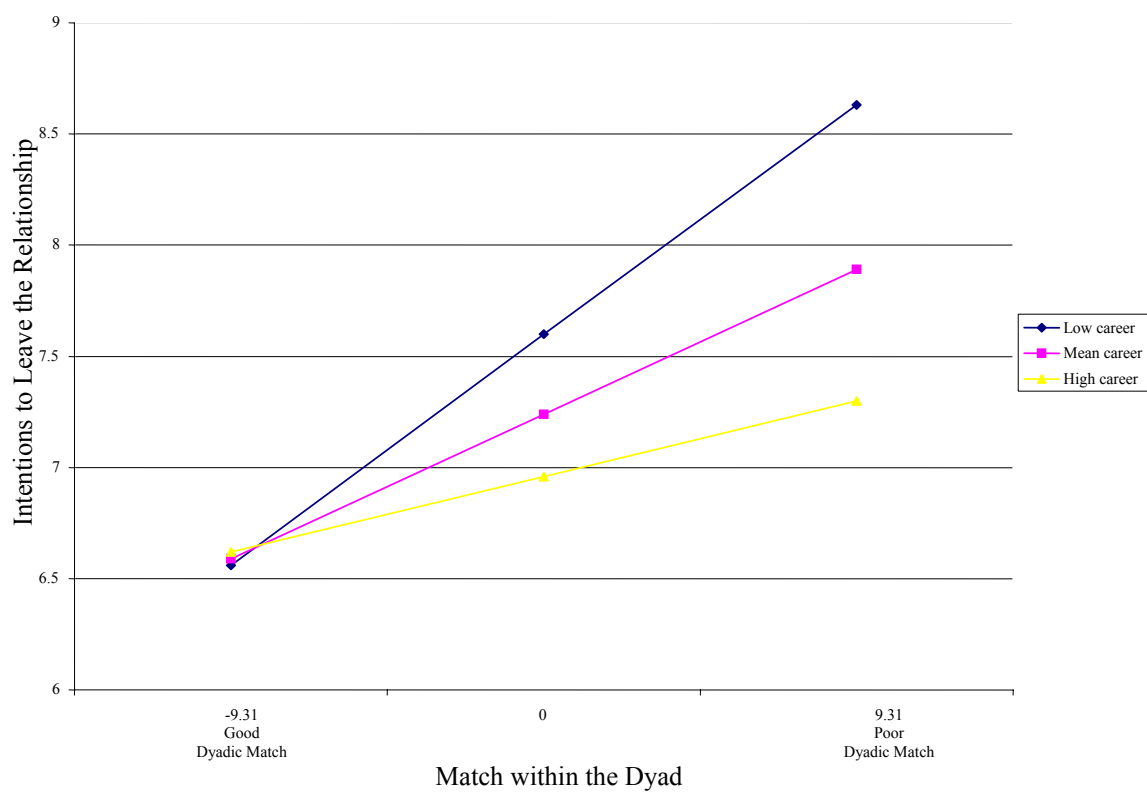
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

The current study examined the effects of positive mentoring experiences (i.e. career-related support), negative mentoring experiences (i.e. match within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, general dysfunctionality), and the combination of both types of experiences on protégés' intentions to leave the mentoring relationship and general workplace stress. One key finding of this research is that negative mentoring experiences were more predictive of the affective and behavioral outcomes than positive mentoring experiences. Unlike positive mentoring, all five types of negative mentoring were related to intentions to leave the relationship and the two most extreme forms of negative mentoring (i.e., manipulative behavior, distancing behavior) were related to workplace stress.

While the results pertaining to positive mentoring were contrary to prediction, the overall pattern of results for positive mentoring and both outcomes, as well as negative mentoring and protégés' intentions to leave the mentoring relationship, may be explained by previous research. Social psychologists who have examined the impact of positive and negative experiences on close relationship outcomes have found that one's cognitive appraisal of the relationship may be more complex than the equivalent weighting of good versus bad experiences. In fact, because of their salience and ease of interpretation, bad experiences may carry substantially more weight in determining close relationship outcomes than positive experiences (Acitelli, Douvan, & Veroff, 1993, Gottman, 1979, 1994; Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001). When

summarizing their review of empirical research in various psychological domains, Baumeister and his colleagues (2001, p. 323) state that "when equal measures of good and bad are present…the psychological effects of bad ones outweigh those of the good ones." They further conclude that bad characteristics carry the greatest overall weight on close relationship outcomes than any other event, situation or relationship examined in their study. Such assertions are reflected in the results of this study which found that negative mentoring, or bad experiences, predicted protégés' intentions to leave the mentoring relationships while positive or "good" mentoring did not.

The finding that the most extreme forms of "bad" mentoring—manipulative behavior and distancing behavior—related to workplace stress while positive mentoring and the other types of negative mentoring did not, may also be explained by previous research. In that mentor malice underlies manipulation and distancing behavior (Eby & Allen, 2002), such negative mentoring experiences are more likely to impede protégés' ability to predict their environment and threaten their sense of safety and well-being. As such, under conditions of greater mentor manipulation or distancing, protégés may be more likely to experience stress. This is supported by research that indicates that when subordinates feel undermined by coercive, punitive, or abusive supervisory behaviors, they reported higher levels of stress (Motowidlo et al., 1986; Brodsky, 1976; Ashforth, 1994, 1997). Likewise, it is possible that protégés involved in negative mentoring experiences that lacked malicious intent failed to report greater stress because the situation did not threaten their personal security.

Another important finding of this study is that negative mentoring experiences that reflected mentor intent were more important in predicting protégés' intentions to leave the relationship and general workplace stress than were negative mentoring experiences that lacked

intent. Consistent with prediction, manipulative behavior had greater relative importance in predicting both outcomes. Distancing behavior was also relatively more important in predicting stress. Interestingly, and counter to prediction, general dysfunctionality and lack of mentor expertise had greater relative importance in predicting intentions to leave the relationship than distancing behavior. One explanation is that distancing behavior represents an absence of mentor-protégé interaction rather than poor interpersonal interaction. When mentors engage in distancing, they neglect their protégé or fail to provide anticipated guidance. Thus, "distancing" mentors avoid engaging in the mentoring relationship. However, protégés in relationships with mentors who have a negative attitude, are distracted from their job by personal problems, or lack competence are more likely to experience bad interactions with their mentor. As such and consistent with Baumeister et al.'s research (2001), overtly bad experiences like general dysfunctionality and lack of mentor expertise would be more salient than distancing behavior and thus more likely to predict relationship termination. The impact of poor interpersonal interactions compared to that of the absence of interaction is further supported by the results of this study that found that manipulative behavior, the most extreme form of bad interpersonal interaction, was relatively more important in predicting intentions to leave the mentoring relationship than the other less severe types of negative mentoring experiences. Notwithstanding this unexpected finding the dominance analysis results generally support previous research which finds that more serious forms of negative mentoring experiences are more likely to relate to negative outcomes for protégés than less extreme experiences (Eby & Allen, 2002; Ragins & Scandura, 1997).

Limited support was found for the interaction of positive and negative mentoring in predicting protégé outcomes. Career-related support was only found to moderate the relationship

between match within the dyad and protégés' intentions to leave the relationship. This interaction revealed that when the dyadic match is poor, low career-related support relates to protégés' intentions to leave. In contrast, when there is a good dyadic match, the level of career-related support does not differentially predict intentions to leave the mentorship. While these results should be interpreted with caution in light of the lack of support for the related hypotheses, there are unique characteristics of match within the dyad that may explain why an interaction effect was found here and not elsewhere. First, unlike the other types of negative mentoring experiences which are the result of poor behavior or interpersonal skills on the part of the mentor, the evaluation of dyadic match is based on protégés' perception of similarity with their mentor in terms of attitudes, values, and beliefs. As such, protégés may feel somewhat responsible for a relationship that has poor dyadic fit. Second, research indicates that relational match or similarity is more important in the early stages of a relationship than in later stages (Duck, 1977) and the majority of participants had progressed beyond the initial phase of the mentoring relationship. Thus, a relational mismatch may not be as problematic for protégés in this study. Finally, the results of the dominance analyses indicate that, compared to the other negative mentoring experiences, match within the dyad is the least important predictor of relationship outcomes. Thus, poor dyadic fit may not viewed by protégés to be "as bad" as the other types of negative mentoring experiences and may be viewed as the least serious type of negative mentoring experience. In that good experiences have a greater impact on relationship outcomes when the levels of "bad" are low (Baumeister et al., 2001), poor dyadic match may be more effectively influenced by positive events like career-related support. Essentially, it may be easier for the "good" to counterbalance the "bad" in a relationship with this type of negative mentoring experience.

Implications for Future Research

The results of this study suggest several areas for future research. The finding that negative mentoring experiences were consistently more predictive of protégés' intentions to leave the mentorship and general workplace stress than positive mentoring experiences should be investigated in light of other relevant protégés outcomes. It is possible that the variables selected for this study are more susceptible to the effects of negative experiences than positive. As such, outcomes that may be more sensitive to the impact of career-related functions like protégé learning, career commitment, and promotion rates should also be examined. Additionally, it is possible that protégés' reports of intentions to leave the mentorship and workplace stress were influenced by other variables that were not examined in this study. For instance, previous research has shown that willingness to end a relationship is associated with the availability of alternative options (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Van Lange et al., 1997). Protégés' fear of retaliation by the mentor could also have impacted their interpretation of the feasibility of terminating the mentoring relationship and thus their intent to do so. Likewise, protégés' assessment of alternative options and potential for retaliatory behaviors by their mentor could have influenced the stress they experienced. If they felt that few options existed and the consequences for sacrificing the relationship were great, they may have become resigned to the situation and reported little stress. In the future, these variables should be examined in research that assesses protégés' commitment to a mentorship.

Another important step for research in this domain is the continued exploration of the combined effect of positive and negative mentoring experiences. By definition, mentoring is an intense interpersonal relationship. As such, these relationships *should* have similar characteristics and outcomes as other close relationships investigated in literature (Wood & Duck, 1995;

Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Rusbult, 1980, 1983). While the results of this study offer limited

support for an interaction of the "good" and the "bad", they provide some evidence that such a

relationship may exist. Another component of this interaction that warrants attention is the

cognitive appraisal or mental weight of each type of experience on the overall assessment of the

relationship. As previously stated, relationship researchers have found that bad experiences can

have substantially greater influence on relationship outcomes than good experiences (Baumeister

et al., 2001). In fact, some close relationships researchers have theorized that as many as five

positive experiences are needed to compensate for any one negative experience (Gottman, 1994,

Baumeister et al., 2001). Such findings reinforce the importance of evaluating the combined

effect of both types of experiences on mentorship outcomes.

Future research should also include an examination of the influence of psychosocial

functions as well as career-related functions in determining the effect of positive mentoring

experiences on protégé outcome. According to mentor role theory, both types of mentor

functions are important in understanding the benefits of a mentoring relationship. As such, there

is value in understanding how psychosocial *and* career-related support interact with negative

mentoring experiences to predict various outcomes. Likewise, the type of mentoring relationship

may also influence the moderating effect of positive mentoring on negative mentoring

experiences. In that informal mentorships usually develop because of interpersonal attraction

while formal relationships are typically arranged by a third party within the organization (Allen,

Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Gaskill, 1993), the type of relationship may impact such protégés

perceptions as the availability of alternatives, concern over retaliatory behaviors by the mentor,

their sense of autonomy or ability to control the situation, the magnitude of psychosocial and

career-related functions received, the occurrence of negative mentoring experiences, or one's

overall motivation to remain in the mentoring relationship. As we strive to understand how good experiences interact with the bad in predicting protégé outcomes, the type of mentoring relationship may prove to be an important component of this relationship.

Finally, the relative importance of the different types of negative mentoring experiences in predicting protégé outcomes should continue to be assessed. Since it may be possible to reduce the occurrence of some negative experiences, it is important to identify the impact of each. For instance, if match within the dyad is the most significant predictor of an unwanted organizational outcome, organizations with formal mentoring programs could develop methods for improving the way that mentors and protégés are matched. Additionally, if lack of mentor expertise is the most substantial problem, the organization could implement training programs to enhance the knowledge of their mentors. Interpersonal coaching could also be used to reduce problems with manipulation, distancing, and other mentor behaviors that are generally dysfunctional. Ultimately, an assessment of the relative importance of each type of negative mentoring would allow organizations to most efficiently appropriate their resources to reduce negative mentoring experiences.

<div align="center">Limitations</div>

Several limitations of this study should be noted. First, the response rate was lower than desired. Despite reminder messages sent via email, fewer protégés participated in this study than was anticipated. However, there are possible explanations for the low response rate. First, individuals that serve as mentors or protégés could not be easily pre-selected. Second, the minimal presence of formal mentoring at the institution may also have led eligible participants to inaccurately conclude that they were not part of a mentoring relationship. Finally, in the first sample, mentors were asked to pass along a protégé packet to an individual that they identified as

their protégé. This step in the data collection process likely impacted the number of protégés who chose to participate. Overall, the small sample size may have restricted the power needed to obtain significant results particularly with the test for interaction effects. It may also limit the generalizability of the results of this study. However, protégés who participated were diverse in their representation of job titles, job and organizational tenure, age, gender, and salary.

Another limitation of the study was the use of two different methods for data collection. Although the samples were from the same academic institution, the presentation of the survey (i.e., paper-and-pencil, electronic) may have impacted the results. An analysis of the samples did in fact reveal significant differences. As such, sample was controlled for in the final data analysis.

Other limitations of this study include the use of self-report measures which could introduce common method bias and the use of retrospective accounts of positive and negative mentoring experiences which could have limited responses to the most salient events. In the future, a longitudinal study would help to reduce any bias that may have been introduced due to study design.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

The current study provides an important extension of the mentoring literature by offering further insight into the affective and behavioral effects of positive and negative mentoring experiences. Further, this study offers an important first step in understanding the combined effect of positive and negative mentoring experiences on protégé outcomes. Although results provided limited support for the moderating effect of positive experiences on the negative, future research should be conducted to examine the dual effect of the "good" with the "bad."

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APPENDIX A

Measures Used in Study

<u>Career-related Support (Positive Mentoring Experiences)</u>: Adapted from Ragins & McFarlin (1990):

My mentor…
Sponsor
1. Helps me attain desirable positions.
2. Uses his/her influence to support my advancement in the university.
3. Uses his/her influence in the university for my benefit.

Coach
1. Helps me learn about other parts of the university.
2. Gives me advice on how to attain recognition in the university.
3. Suggests specific strategies for achieving career aspirations.

Protect
1. Protects me from those who may be out to get me.
2. "Runs interference" for me in the university.
3. Shields me from damaging contact with important people in the university.

Challenge
1. Gives me tasks that require me to learn new skills.
2. Provides me with challenging assignments.
3. Assigns me tasks that push me into developing new skills.

Exposure
1. Helps me be more visible in the university.
2. Creates opportunities for me to impress important people in the university.
3. Brings my accomplishments to the attention of important people in the university.

<u>Negative Mentoring Experiences</u>: Eby et al. (2004)
Match within the Dyad
1. The personal values of my mentor are different from my own.
2. My mentor and I have different life priorities.
3. My mentor and I have different work habits.
4. My work strategies are different from my mentor's.
5. My mentor and I have a different understanding of effective work performance.
6. Comparing myself to my mentor, I would say our temperaments are different.
7. My mentor and I have different personal dispositions.
8. My mentor and I have dissimilar personalities
9. My mentor and I are different from one another.

Distancing Behavior
1. My mentor is reluctant to talk to me about things that are important to me.
2. My mentor seems to have "more important things to do" than to meet with me.

3. When I interact with my mentor he/she does not give me his/her full attention.
4. My mentor is more concerned about his/her own career than helping me develop in mine.
5. My mentor is pre-occupied with his/her own advancement.
6. My mentor does not include me in important meetings.
7. My mentor keeps me "out of the loop" on important issues.

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

Lack of Mentor Expertise
1. My mentor lacks expertise in areas that are important for the type of work he/she does.
2. I have my doubts about my mentor's job-related skills.
3. My mentor can't teach me anything I don't already know.
4. My mentor does not know much about the organization.
5. My mentor is not a high performer on the job.
6. My mentor lacks the interpersonal skills necessary to display sensitivity when appropriate.
7. My mentor does not communicate well.

General Dysfunctionality
1. My mentor is bitter toward the organization.
2. My mentor has a bad attitude.
3. My mentor has personal problems (e.g., drinking problem, marital problems).
4. My mentor tends to bring his/her personal problems to work.
5. My mentor approaches tasks with a negative attitude.
6. My mentor has a pessimistic attitude.
7. My mentor complains a lot about the organization.
8. My mentor allows non-business related issues to interfere with his/her work.

Intent to Leave the Relationship: Adapted from Cammann et al. (1982)
1. It is likely that I will actively look for a new mentor soon.
2. I often think about terminating this mentoring relationship.
3. I intend to exit this mentoring relationship in the near future.

General Workplace Stress: Eby et al. (2004)
1. Overall, I find my job to be stressful.
2. I experience a lot of stress at work.