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## AN INVESTIGATION OF MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS: WHAT FACTORS

CONTRIBUTE TO SATISFACTION?

A Thesis

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Masters of Science

in

Psychology: Industrial/Organizational

by Megan Elizabeth McCusker

June 1998

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Approved by: Janelle Gilbért, Chaír, Psychology Gloria Cowan, Psychology Iris Riggs Science, Mathematics, and Technology Education

Date

#### ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of perceived similarity, mentoring functions, frequency of contact, and duration of relationships on satisfaction with organizational mentoring relationships. The participants were 35 mentors and 52 protégés from various organizations throughout the United States. Results of the study maintained that psychosocial functions predict satisfaction with mentorships better than career-oriented functions. The number of meetings mentors and protégés had per week was related to satisfaction. In addition, there was a significant association between perceived similarity and satisfaction. Results of standard multiple regression revealed perceived similarity as a strong predictor of satisfaction with mentorships for both protégés and mentors. Also, for mentors, number of meetings per week was a significant predictor of satisfaction with mentoring relationships. Exploratory analyses examining the role of personality revealed that positive and negative affectivity do not significantly affect satisfaction with mentoring relationships.

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#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to thank my mentor of the past two years, Dr. Janelle Gilbert. Your support, guidance, and dedication to your students is exemplary. Thank you for your advice, insight, and inspiration!

Thanks to Dr. Gloria Cowan and Dr. Iris Riggs for serving on my committee, and for contributing their wisdom and expertise.

I'd like to thank my family- Dad, Mom, Erin, Kelly, and Joe- for their tremendous love and encouragement, and also for their numerous long-distance phone calls! Finally, many thanks to Michelle Schulz for always listening and offering advice and support, Stefanie Pressl for her generous help at The County of San Bernardino, and Ryan Pennock for assisting with the formatting of my thesis.

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#### CHAPTER ONE

#### Introduction

#### Overview of Mentoring in Organizations

The nature of work in the U.S. demands that people rapidly adapt to new positions and tasks within various organizations. Support and guidance from senior employees may help mitigate the ambiguity surrounding such difficult challenges. Mentoring can provide this necessary help. Mentoring may prove worthy in today's culture to help facilitate young employees' careers. Researchers and practitioners are increasingly interested in empirically investigating mentoring. However, there are still many unanswered questions within the organizational mentoring research; specifically, the identification of the factors which characterize a successful, mutually satisfying The present study explored certain variables mentorship. contributing to satisfaction for both mentors and protégés.

Mentors help young employees find their way in an organization. Modeling has been shown to be effective for employees in learning work-related interpersonal skills (Kram, 1985; Zey, 1984). Moreover, mentors serve as people who can show junior level workers the ropes. Protégés can benefit from the guidance of an older, more experienced employee. Wilson and Elman (1990) state that

mentoring enables organizations to strengthen and maintain their corporate cultures. A "healthy" culture is helpful for organizations because it facilitates a common value base for employees. Furthermore, it provides "implicit knowledge" as to what the organization expectations are for employees, and also what the employees can expect from the organization. Conventional wisdom has suggested for years that having a mentor is important; however, researchers are just beginning to uncover the reasons why mentors at work are important and beneficial to the mentor, protégé, and organization. Mentoring has been discovered to have a significant impact on protégés' performance, career/job satisfaction, promotions, and compensation (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Fagenson, 1989; Kram, 1985).

Earlier mentoring research (performed in the mid-1980s) was based primarily on case studies which concentrated on establishing terminology, determining the mentor's functions, and describing the growth and development of the mentoring relationship (Olian, Carroll, Giannantonio, & Feren, 1988). There is no single agreedupon definition of a mentor; however, many of the existing definitions are quite similar. Noe's (1988, p. 458) definition of a mentor will be used for the purposes of the present study:

The mentor is usually a senior, experienced employee who serves as a role model, provides support, direction, and feedback to the younger employee regarding career plans and interpersonal development, and increases the visibility of the protégé to decision-makers in the organization who may influence career opportunities.

Kram (1985, p. 2) says that a mentor, "helps the younger individual learn to navigate in the adult world as he or she accomplishes this important task." Olian et. al (1988, p.16) use the term mentor as a "senior member of the profession or organization who shares values, provides emotional support, career counseling, information and advice, professional and organizational sponsorship, and facilitates access to key organizational and professional networks." Olian et. al (1988) stress that this definition suggests that mentors differ from supervisors because mentors do not necessarily have authority over their protégés. Burke (1984) suggests that some synonyms for mentor are: teacher, advisor, guru, and counselor.

#### Functions of a Mentor

Kram's book, <u>Mentoring at Work: Developmental</u> <u>Relationships in Organizational Life</u> (1985), provides an in-depth investigation of mentor and protégé manager pairs. Kram interviewed eighteen relationship pairs, fifteen managers who did not have mentors, and ten corporate executives who reported having mentors during the early part of their careers. Kram's research is

3.

noteworthy because it provided an analysis of the mentoring functions and proposed stages of the mentoring process, both of which paved the way for much future research.

There are two types of functions that mentors often provide that have been identified by Kram (1983, 1985): psychosocial and career-oriented. Psychosocial mentoring consists of the mentor serving as a role model, counselor, and a friend. The mentor educates the protégé on the appropriate behaviors, values, and attitudes within the organization. The mentor also supports the protégé and offers unconditional positive regard.

Career-oriented mentoring involves the mentor attempting to advance the career of his/her protégé. For example, the mentor may make efforts to obtain a promotion, lateral move, or challenging project for the protégé. The mentor also increases visibility of the protégé to organizational decision makers, provides corrective feedback, and coaches the protégé to help accomplish goals. Kram suggests that the more elements of both types of behaviors, the better. Kram developed a mentor functions scale to assess the amount of psychosocial and career-oriented behaviors exhibited by mentors. Factor analysis of Kram's mentoring function scale was used to delineate these functions. Results of

several factor analyses show consistent support for these two functions (Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988; Olian et. al, 1985). Phases of the Mentoring Relationship

Kram (1985) depicts the mentorship as occurring in four relationship phases: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. The first stage involves the time period of the six to twelve months in which the relationship emerges. Kram describes how the younger manager develops an admiration for the senior manager, and views him/her as someone who will be supportive and provide guidance to the junior manager. The senior manager identifies someone as "coachable" (p. 51); someone who can benefit from his/her experience, knowledge, perspectives, and values. There is mutual attraction between two persons because of respect for one another and at that point positive expectations of the relationship are formed. Noe's (1988) research adds that psychosocial mentoring is more crucial and beneficial during the initiation phase of the mentorship than the careeroriented mentoring.

The second stage, the cultivation phase, is when the positive expectations formulated in the initiation stage are put to the test. The stage is thought to last two to five years, and it is the most active phase of the mentorship. The mentor participates in the career-

development of his/her protégé. He/she assists the protégé in work projects, enhances the protégé's visibility in the organization, engages in coaching behaviors, and provides emotional support. The cultivation stage is generally regarded as the most positive stage because it has the least amount of uncertainty and conflict.

The third phase, separation, comprises the actual separation of the mentor/protégé pair. Separation takes place both structurally and psychologically. Feelings of anxiety and loss abound, and it is the time when the protégé experiences autonomy. The protégé no longer has the security of "someone to look out for his or her career" (Kram, p. 57). Even though this is a time of loss, it can also be an exciting time of reflecting on the accomplishments achieved by the pair. Separation is necessary, of course, because the protégé eventually must display his/her individual abilities. The final stage is redefinition, whereby the mentor and protégé must become acquainted on a new level. This relationship may move to one of a peer friendship. This stage will likely persist indefinitely.

While these stages generally occur in a sequential fashion, Kram notes that the stages are distinct, but not separate. This means that the stages differ due to the

specific interactions which occur in the stage. Kram provides the example that if the protégé is intimidated by her mentor during the initiation phase, the relationship may not sufficiently develop because of a lack of closeness between the two. Thus, it will affect the cultivation stage, and so on.

#### Mentorship Effects

Mentoring's effects on protégés and organizations have been examined. For example, Fagenson's (1989) study of protégés as compared to nonprotégés revealed that protégés reported a greater degree of job satisfaction, career mobility/opportunity, recognition, and a higher promotion rate than nonprotégés. Protégés' perceptions of their job/career situations did not differ depending on gender or organizational level. Scandura's (1992) research on mentorship and career outcomes of managers revealed that vocational, or career-oriented, mentoring affected promotions, while psychosocial support positively related to salary level.

#### Formalized Mentoring Programs

Organizations are implementing formal mentoring programs for their employees at an increasing rate. As a result, there is a need to empirically determine whether formalized mentoring programs are a good idea or if spontaneous, informal mentoring is better. Burke and

McKeen (1989) suggest that a formal management mentoring program can potentially improve job performance, reduce turnover, develop managers to replace those ready to retire, and teach employees valuable leadership skills. A major advantage of a formal mentoring program is that goals may be set for the process. Furthermore, training and development efforts can increase the employees' understanding of the mentoring and career development process. Burke and McKeen also offer that for the assignment of mentors and protégés, the organizational chart can be used to determine the fit between parties. The chart helps to match the two in terms of their job status, physical accessibility to one another, and functional area within the organization.

Gaskill (1993) also advocates the implementation of formal mentoring programs. Gaskill's proposes a framework for businesses to utilize based on her qualitative and quantitative analysis of mentoring programs in retail businesses. Gaskill (1993, p. 153) explains her vision for formal mentoring programs:

Through this one-on-one interaction, increased time, support, and attention can be directed to new recruits, thereby reducing frustration as individuals make the transition from a college graduate to a company executive...Not only can the formal mentoring program provide the junior level executive with a sense of belonging, but the increased interaction and teamwork provides a broader perspective of the company due to increased contact with upper level executives. Gaskill compiled collective themes from questionnaires and telephone interviews with mentors in which to base her framework for the development, implementation, and evaluation of formal mentoring programs. Gaskill suggests that for the mentor selection process, a pool of candidates should be gathered through volunteering and/or by identifying qualified individuals in the organization. The candidates should then be evaluated based on selection criteria such as: leadership skills, interpersonal skills, communication and problem solving abilities, and time availability. Position in the organization, knowledge of the business climate, past job performance and future career potential, and managerial skills are more factors which should be assessed.

The "linkage process," or the mentor/protégé assignment, should be based on commonalties between the two individuals. Gaskill (p. 156) suggests, "A common ground stemming from similar interests, career paths, alma maters, geographic locations, etc. should be identified thus providing a rationale for the linkage." She then adds that once the two are linked, their match should be subsequently examined to determine if a proper fit has been made, or if a change is needed. Gaskill says that after the selection process, training must take place for both the mentors and protégés. Training is essential

because it clarifies the purpose of the mentoring program and educates the participants on their roles and responsibilities.

Furthermore, mentors should be provided training on their listening and problem solving skills. Gaskill notes the importance of periodically evaluating the program's effectiveness, both formally and informally.

While the literature contains many advocates of formalized mentoring programs, it also has its skeptics. Klauss (1981) and Kram (1985) caution that assigned mentorships may be problematic due to personality conflicts between the parties, a lack of commitment between the two because the relationship was not formed of their own volition, and the possibility of the protégé's supervisor feeling that the mentor impedes his/her ability to influence the subordinate.

Kram (1986) points out that assigned mentoring programs can strain the relationships because of the individuals' feeling of coercion. She adds that feelings of resentment, anxiety, pessimism, and confusion about roles and responsibilities may also abound. Keele, Buckner, and Bushnell (1987) suggest that mentor programs may hinder employee development because of a lack of understanding the mentoring itself and/or the value of the relationships and the program's activities.

Noe's (1988) investigation of assigned mentoring relationships failed to show strong support for the implementation of formal mentoring programs. It revealed that mentors provide many of the psychosocial functions, but not very many career-oriented ones. In addition, it was discovered that there was little interaction between the mentor and protégé. The reasons cited for the lack of interaction between the mentors and protégés were time constraints, incompatible schedules, and physical distance

between the two.

Noe (1988) also examined the protégés' job and career attitudes and gender. It was discovered that protégés' job and career attitudes did not have an effect on the time spent with the mentor or on the quality of the mentor relationship. However, the protégés who had a high level of job involvement or who engaged in career planning received more psychosocial mentoring than those who reported a low level of job involvement.

Noe (1988, p. 473) states of his research: "Results of this study suggest that organizations should not expect protégés to obtain the same types of benefits from an assigned mentoring relationship as they would from an informally established, primary mentoring relationship." (Note: "Primary" mentoring relationships are those that supply both the psychosocial and career-oriented mentoring

aspects; thus, they entail a high level of commitment from both individuals.)

Chao, Walz, and Gardner (1992) conducted a study comparing formal and informal mentorships. The respondents, alumni from a large Midwestern university, were mailed surveys inquiring about their mentoring experience and type of mentoring relationship. Formal mentorships were identified by the question, "Is/was the mentorship part of a formal organizational program?" The respondents' answer to this question characterized them as protégés in informal mentorships or protégés in formal mentorships. The formal protégés then answered questions pertaining to the nature of the mentorship; for instance, how the mentor and protégé became a pair.

This investigation, like Noe's (1988), did not offer supportive evidence for the implementation of formal mentorships. They found that protégés in informal mentorships reported that they received more careerrelated support from their mentors than those protégés in formal mentorships. As for psychosocial support, there was no significant difference between the two groups. Chao et al. suggests that this may be indicative of a need for further examination of the psychosocial functions of mentors. The authors propose that the psychosocial functions may be easier to offer to the protégés than the

career-related; therefore, the protégé may receive such functions from people other than his/her mentor (for example, peers, friends, supervisor). The career-related functions such as coaching, increasing visibility and exposure, and sponsorship are not as likely to be provided by people other than his/her mentor. So, psychosocial functions are not as specific to mentoring as are the career-related functions.

#### Individual Differences Among Protégés

Very limited research has been done to examine protégés' individual differences. However, recently Turban and Dougherty's (1994) research focused on personality characteristics as related to the initial formation of mentoring relationships. They investigated the personality characteristics of locus of control, selfmonitoring, and emotional stability. They proposed that these characteristics would influence whether or not indiviudals were mentored. Also, they examined whether mentoring received was related to the protégés' report of perceived career success and career attainment (salary figure and number of promotions). Finally, the gender of the protégés was examined to discover if gender affects the initiation of mentoring relationships.

Turban and Dougherty (1994) found that protégés who had internal loci of control, high self-monitoring, and

high emotional stability initiated and therefore received mentoring relationships more often than those who did not possess these personality traits. Also, the variables of career success and career attainment were influenced by mentoring. Specifically, those individuals who reported high levels of career attainment and perceived career success were more likely to have had a mentoring relationship. Gender was not related to the initiation or reception of mentoring.

Gender, however, did make a difference in Baugh, Lankau, and Scandura's (1996) study. Their research examined organizational commitment, job satisfaction, career expectations, role conflict, role ambiguity, and perceived employment alternatives as affected by having a mentor, and also by gender of the protégé. They found that female nonprotégés had lower expectations for their advancement opportunities inside the organization and for employment alternatives outside the organization than the female protégés. However, female nonprotégés did not report having lower organizational commitment, job satisfaction or higher role conflict and role ambiguity than the protégés. The harmful effects for nonproteges were more apparent for the males. Male nonproteges reported lower organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and career expectations and higher role

ambiguity than the three other groups. So, the authors suggested that not having a mentor may be more detrimental to a man's career than to a woman's.

#### Emotions and Personality

The literature on mentoring lacks research focused on the emotionality of both mentor and protégé. Izard. Libero, Putnam, and Haynes (1993) performed a study examining individuals' emotional experiences and how it relates to personality. The framework from which they based their research was Differential Emotions Theory (DET), which explains emotion-personality relations. DET holds that "emotions and dimensions of temperament and personality are closely related" (Izard et. al, 1993, p. 847). The theory is based on the notion that the relationship between emotions and personality is due to the inherent characteristics of emotions. More specifically, the relationships between emotions and personality traits stem from the organizing and motivating features of emotion. Individual differences in emotionality are reflected in patterns of emotioncognition-action bonds. For example, people vary in their characteristic pattern of anger. The level of sympathetic nervous system arousal, the thought patterns, and propensity to act out differ among people; however there is relative consistency within individuals.

Izard et. al (1993, p. 848) explain that there is evidence to support the statement that emotions play a "significant part in organizing traits of personality." The authors provided the example that experimentally inducing a person into a happy mood causes that person to perceive others as happy (Izard, 1965), and also causes him/her to develop more favorable impressions of others (Forgas & Bower, 1987; Izard, 1965). Furthermore, it follows that people who are generally in a happy mood enjoy social situations and are high on extraversion (Emmons & Diener, 1986).

Work performed by Tellegen (1985) and Costa and McCrae (1980) also lends support for emotion-personality relations. Tellegen (1985) explains that people with extraversion traits have an inherent susceptibility to positive-affect states, while people with neuroticism traits have an inherent susceptibility to negative-affect traits. Positive emotionality, therefore, contains extraversion-sociability traits (for example, social potency, surgency, activity) that foster positive emotional experience. Likewise, negative emotionality is comprised of neurotic traits (for example, alienation, worry, anxiety) which foster negative emotional experience.

Research performed by Larson and Ketelaar (1991)

builds on the aforementioned theoretical position. By manipulating positive and negative affect in a controlled setting, they showed that extraverts have a preparedness to respond with stronger positive than negative affect, whereas neurotics have a preparedness to respond with a stronger negative than positive affect.

The role of positive and negative affectivity in job satisfaction has recently become of interest to organizational psychologists. Agho, Mueller, and Price (1993) found that people with positive affect are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs, even after controlling for job characteristics and work environment. In addition to job satisfaction, positive and negative affectivity has been linked to other work attitudes such as commitment, turnover intentions, and performance (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993). Dispositional affectivity has not yet been examined with respect to mentoring.

#### Perceived Similarity

The effect of similar attitudes on attraction has been studied within the field of social psychology. Perceived similarity and attraction are two major factors which come into play in the formation of intimate relationships. Perceived similarity can be approached in a variety of ways. Similarity in attitude, outlook,

values, work habits, personality, intelligence, interests, and activities have all been investigated.

We are generally attracted to and feel comfortable with people who we perceive as similar to ourselves. Intuitively, it makes sense that people would be drawn toward those individuals who hold similar attitudes to them. In fact, perceived similarity is hailed as one of social psychology's most consistent and supported findings. The similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) maintains that the more similar one perceives someone to be, the more he/she likes that person.

In experimental research, it has often been found that a person perceived as similar to the evaluator is more attractive; consequently, decisions made for that person are more favorable (Byrne, 1961; Byrne, Young, & Griffitt, 1966). However, field studies have not found such consistent results; rather, individual differences have played more of a role in perceptions of similarity. Pulakos and Wexley (1983) did, in fact, find that perceived similarity between supervisors and subordinates resulted in higher performance ratings. However, research conducted on college admissions officers and job applicants found discrepancies in perceived similarity according to individual differences (Frank & Hackman, 1975; Sydiaha, 1962). Additionally, Dalessio and Imada's

(1984) study revealed that job interviewers compared the interviewees with an ideal candidate, not according to the perceived similarity they held toward the interviewees.

Researchers have found support for the similarityattraction paradigm in supervisor-subordinate dyads (Judge & Ferris, 1993; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Specifically, these authors found that demographic similarity between supervisor-subordinate pairs positively affects the supervisors' opinion of subordinates. Turban and Jones (1988) examined the effects of three types of supervisor-subordinate similarity (perceived similarity, perceptual congruence, and actual similarity) on job and organizational satisfaction, performance ratings, and recommended pay increases. The employees rated the extent to which they perceived themselves as similar to their subordinate or supervisor in terms of outlook, perspective, values, and work habits. They discovered that perceived similarity held the strongest relationship with subordinate job satisfaction. Moreover, the subordinates who perceived themselves as similar to their supervisors reported their work environment as more pleasant than those subordinates who did not express similarity to their supervisors.

Ensher and Murphy (1997) performed the first study which examined the effects of both actual and perceived

similarity on the quality of the mentoring relationships. Perceived similarity was assessed based on outlook, values, and problem-solving style. They also looked at the impact of the amount of contact between the mentors and protégés on the quality of the mentorships. For actual similarity, Ensher and Murphy used race and gender as their variables. The quality of the mentoring relationship was operationalized by liking, satisfaction, intended retention, and the amount of psychosocial and instrumental functions. The protégés were interns for a summer job training program at a large media organization and the mentors were employees from the organization. Protégés were randomly assigned to their mentors; the pairings were either same-race or different-race. In addition, all of the pairings were made such that the members were the same gender.

The results of the Ensher and Murphy (1997) study indicated that the quality of the mentorship was higher(i.e., the degree of liking and type of mentoring functions) when the protégés perceived themselves as similar to their mentors. Additionally, actual similarity positively affected the quality of the mentoring relationship. Protégés in a same-race relationship said that they received more instrumental support than did the protégés in a different-race relationship. However,

protégés in same-race relationships did not report receiving more psychosocial support than the differentrace protégés. Moreover, the hypothesis that female mentors would provide significantly more psychosocial support than the males was not supported. The researchers concluded that perceived similarity may be a more important factor than actual similarity in satisfaction with mentoring relationships.

Burke, McKeen, and McKenna (1993) investigated the effect of perceived similarity on informal, spontaneous mentorships. They focused on mentors' perceptions of mentoring relationships, and also developed a model of personal and situational antecedents of mentoring. Burke et. al found support for their model, which included the following antecedents: personal characteristics of the mentor (demographics), personal characteristics of the protégé (demographics), perceived similarity between the mentor and protégé, and descriptive characteristics of the mentor relationship. The consequences in the model were the functions provided by the mentor: career development and psychosocial. The results of their study revealed that mentors provided more career development and psychosocial functions to protégés more similar to themselves. Perceived similarity was based on intelligence, approach to procedures, personality,

background, ambition, education, and activities outside of work.

Also, the greater the number of interactions with the protégés, the more career development and psychosocial functions were provided by the mentors. Other factors positively affected the amount of functions provided, such as closer offices, whether the protégé was under the mentor's direct supervision, and whether the protégé was at a lower organizational level than the mentor. Furthermore, younger mentors reported that they provided more functions than the older mentors, and women reported that they provided more functions than the men.

#### Exposure

Physical proximity often results in interpersonal attraction (Nahemow & Lawton, 1975; Priest & Sawyer, 1967; Segal, 1974). A shared environment affords the opportunity for social interaction, and if those social interactions are desirable and meaningful, the persons will increasingly like each other. The most notable study in social psychology has been that of Festinger, Schachter, and Back (1950). They investigated MIT married student housing residents and discovered a relationship between proximity and friendship. Specifically, the residents most often identified their best friends as

their next-door neighbors. Furthermore, architectural arrangements affected the formation of friendships. Those residents whose houses faced the street acquired less friends than those residents whose houses faced the courtyard. Also, residents living near entrances, mailboxes, and heavy traffic areas reported having the most friends.

Moreland and Zajonc (1982) performed a laboratory study in which participants evaluated people they viewed from a series of slides. Each slide was displayed the same number times as to ensure that each person was equally familiar to the participants. After viewing the slides, the participants were provided with false information about the characteristics of the people- some were described as more similar to themselves than others. Participants reported that people more similar to them were more attractive and more familiar than those people who were not described as similar to them. Moreland and Zajonc (1982, p. 257) state, on the basis of these results, that the meshing of familiarity, attraction, and similarity creates a sense of "affinity that brings people together psychologically." They argue that as we become more familiar with a person, we become more attracted to him or her, and that attraction causes the

#### perception of similarity.

Moreland and Zajonc's (1982) findings are consistent with Heider's (1958) theory concerning balance in social relations. Heider suggests that familiarity and similarity are positive unit relations, while attraction is a positive sentiment relation. He contends that our sentiment and unit relations must be balanced or else we feel and appear foolish. Therefore, when a positive unit relation occurs between ourselves and another, we then must generate a positive sentiment relation with him or her to achieve the feeling of balance. After the sentiment relation has been made, any other unidentified unit relations will be then made positive in order to maintain the balance.

There is even research suggesting that mere exposure or "passive contacts"- social encounters involving little contact- can have strong effects on attraction and similarity. A field experiment by Moreland and Beach (1992) involved four different women attending personality psychology classes in a large college classroom. Each woman attended a different number of class sessions, for the purpose of manipulating degree of exposure. The strongest effect was that women who attended more class sessions were perceived as more attractive. Specifically,

those women who attended class more frequently were rated as having more positive traits. In addition, the students reported that they were more likely to befriend these women, enjoy time shared with them, and work together on a project with them. Perceived similarity was also affected by mere exposure, though to a lesser degree than attraction. Women who were in more class sessions were perceived as significantly more similar to the students.

The exposure literature from social psychology has pertinence to mentoring research. Mentors and protégés often share the same work environment and have frequent interactions. Burke (1984), in his study on mentoring relationships, found that 90% of the protégés reported that they maintain either daily contact with their mentors or contact several times a week with their mentors. Anecdotal research on formalized mentoring programs suggests that a minimum amount of formal contact (i.e., meetings twice a month) should be enforced, however the mentor/protégé pair should be encouraged to meet as often as they wish (Zey, 1985).

Frequency of interactions between mentors and protégés has been demonstrated to have a positive effect on the mentoring relationship. Prior research has indicated that protégés who engage in more frequent

interactions with their mentors report a greater degree of support gained, satisfaction with the mentoring program, and desire to keep the relationship going (Liden & Graen, 1980; Ensher and Murphy, 1997). In addition, Burke et. al (1993) report that the more frequently the mentors meet with their protégés, the more career development and psychosocial functions they offer. Likewise, it can be inferred that the more functions provided, the more satisfying and beneficial the relationship.

In the present study, three variables were examined with respect to length and duration of interaction: number of months the mentors and protégés have been involved in the mentorship, the number of minutes per week the mentors and protégés meet, and the number of meetings they hold per week. The number of minutes versus the number of meetings per week distinction was made because some mentor/protégé pairs may not meet as frequently as others, however when they do meet it is for a long period of time. **Hypotheses:** The hypotheses pertain to both mentors and protégés.

H1: Psychosocial functions will account for more variance in satisfaction with mentoring than will career-oriented functions.

Empirically, this specific hypothesis has not been examined, however based on Kram's description of psychosocial functions, it can be inferred that a greater

amount of psychosocial functions may reflect a more intense, satisfying relationship. Research has indicated that modeling, one of the features at work in a psychosocial mentorship, helps employees gain work-related skills (Kram, 1985; Zey, 1984). So, in a primarily psychosocial relationship, there seem to be many more benefits to be gained than in a purely career-oriented relationship.

### H2: There will be a relationship between perceived similarity and satisfaction with mentoring.

Ensher and Murphy's (1997) study revealed a positive correlation between perceived similarity and satisfaction with the mentorship. However, because the study utilized summer interns paired with volunteer staff mentors, there is a need to further investigate this relationship in a more typical organizational setting. Burke et. al (1993) found that mentors who perceived their protégés as similar to themselves reported using more career development and psychosocial functions. This finding, too, relates to the proposed hypothesis, but there is a need to further examine it from the perspective of both the protégés and the mentors.

## H3. There will be an association between (a) number of meetings per week and satisfaction and (b) length of meetings (in minutes) and satisfaction.

As mentioned previously in the text, exposure to others often leads to attraction. Mentors and protégés who spend more time together should feel a greater affinity for one another, and therefore be more satisfied with the mentoring relationship. Also, the more time spent with each other, the more the pair demonstrates that they have an interest, investment, and commitment to the relationship. Furthermore, psychosocial functions develop in the later stages of the relationship, therefore the more time spent together, the quicker the pair moves through the stages (Kram, 1986). Kram (1986, p. 616) states: "As the interpersonal bond strengthens with time, psychosocial functions emerge ... Career functions depend on the senior manager's organizational rank, tenure, and experience, but psychosocial functions depend on the degree of trust, mutuality, and intimacy that characterize the relationship."

### H4: Number of meetings per week and number of minutes per week will be associated with perceived similarity.

Mentors' and protégés' perceived similarity should strengthen as the frequency of interactions increases. Burke et. al (1994) found that the similarity between the protégé and the mentor (as reported by the mentor only) increased as the number of career development and psychosocial functions provided by the mentor increased. This could indicate that the more frequently the pair meets, the more functions the mentor provides, hence, the more similar the pair perceive themselves to be.

## H5: There will be a relationship between duration of mentorship (as defined by months) and perceived similarity.

Duration of mentorships and its effect on perceived similarity has not yet been investigated. However, the social psychology literature on exposure and similarity can be called upon to serve as a basis for this hypothesis. The longer the mentoring relationship lasts, presumably, the more affinity the pair has for each other and consequently, the more similar they will perceive themselves. Also, the longer the relationship, the more time the pair has to influence each other's attitudes and work styles, so similarity could increase as a result.

#### **EXPLORATORY:**

In addition, the role of positive and negative emotionality in mentoring relationships will be explored, as it has not yet been investigated in the mentoring literature. The main purpose is to discover if positive affectivity predicts satisfaction in mentoring; and, if so, does the nature of the mentoring relationship predict satisfaction over and beyond personality?

#### CHAPTER TWO

Method

#### Participants

Participants were 86 employees from various organizations across the United States who were currently engaged in mentor/protégé relationships. Types of organizations included three branches of a major accounting/consulting firm, a computer consulting firm, and County employees. Participants were obtained through a process of "cold calling" Human Resource Directors. Human Resources staff were asked if there was a mentoring program established at their organization. With the H.R. Director's permission and support, surveys were sent through the mail to 150 mentor/protégé pairs.

There were 51 protégés and 35 mentors who responded to the questionnaire- 24 female protégés, 27 male protégés; 14 female mentors, 21 male mentors. Of the 86 respondents, there were 20 pairs who returned surveys. The mentors and protégés were predominately Caucasian (47.7% of the mentors, 55.4% of the protégés), but there were Asian (1.5% for both the mentors and protégés), Hispanic (1.5% for both the mentors and protégés), African American (4.6% of the protégés), and other (1.5% of the protégés) participants. The average mentor had his/her Master's degree, while most protégés has their bachelor's

degrees. The mean age of the mentors was 45, while the average age of the protégés was 38. Mentors reported working in their field for an average of 18 years, the protégés for 13.

The final response rate of those mentors and protégés who had completed the survey was 28%.

#### Measures

Published scales were used for this study. Ensher and Murphy's (1997) modified version of Noe's (1988) Mentor Functions Scale was utilized to assess the amount of psychosocial and instrumental/career-oriented mentoring given. Noe's scale has been the most widely used instrument within the organizational mentoring research. Noe developed the scale to facilitate the career development of educators. Ensher and Murphy modified Noe's 29-item scale to include only those items which loaded at least .50 on one of the two factors. Also, items which referred to a school setting were reworded. The mentor functions scale contains 19 items which pertain to psychosocial functions (alpha = .89) and seven items which pertain to instrumental functions (alpha = .89). The twenty-six item measure is scaled from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The psychosocial functions subscale consists of items pertaining to the coaching,

acceptance and confirmation, role modeling, and counseling. The career-oriented functions subscale contains items regarding protection, exposure, visibility, and opportunities for challenging assignments.

The perceived similarity of the mentor/protégé was assessed. Perceived similarity was based on the extent to which the members of the pair felt they were alike in terms of outlook, values, and problem-solving style. Turban and Jones' (1988) items were slightly modified: "My mentor/protégé and I see things in much the same way," and "My mentor/protégé is similar to me in terms of outlook, perspective, and values." In addition, three items by Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell (1993) were adapted (wording was changed from a supervisor-subordinate relationship to mentor/protégé relationship). The items are: "My mentor/protégé and I think alike in terms of coming up with a similar solution for a problem, " "My mentor/protégé and I analyze problems in a similar way," and "My mentor/protégé and I are alike in a number of areas." The particular scales were chosen due to their focus on workrelated styles, rather than personality traits. The five items of perceived similarity are scaled from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The two scales sum to form a composite (alpha = .75). This particular scale was

utilized because it was the only published scale available with acceptable reliability.

Frequency of mentor/protégé contact was determined by the open-ended question, "On average, how many times per week do you meet with your mentor/protégé?" Duration of the relationship was obtained by the open-ended question, "How many months have you been involved in the present relationship with your mentor/protégé?" Duration of the meeting was determined by the open-ended question, "On average, how many minutes are your meetings?" The number of minutes the mentors and protégés meet per week was added to account for pairs who hold less frequent, but lengthy, meetings.

Satisfaction with the mentorship was assessed, based on Ensher and Murphy's (1997) published scale: "I effectively utilize my mentor to help me develop," "My mentor met my expectations," and "I feel satisfied with my mentor." The items were slightly modified for the purposes of the present study in an attempt to include the mentor's satisfaction with the relationship. All three items, therefore, read mentor or protégé rather than simply "mentor." The three items required participants to indicate responses of strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) (alpha = .91).

Positive and negative affectivity of both the mentors and protégés was obtained through the use of the Differential Emotions Scale IV (Izard, Libero, Putnam, and Haynes, 1993). The DES IV contains 36 items, pertaining to participants' emotions and feelings. There are twelve discrete emotion (DES) scales: interest, enjoyment, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, guilt, shame, sadness, shyness, and hostility inward. The instructions to DES IV read: "In your daily life/during the past week, how often do/did you ... " A few examples of the items are "Feel glad about something", "Feel unhappy, blue, downhearted", and "Feel afraid." The items in are 5-point Likert-scale fashion, with (1) being Rarely or Never and (5) being Very Often. Positive affect subscales (alpha = .68) and negative affect subscales (alpha = .88) were summed to form composites. The positive affectivity scale's reliability, while relatively low, was deemed acceptable for this project; nonetheless, caution should be exercised when interpreting results.

#### CHAPTER THREE

Results

#### Descriptives and Assumptions

Means and standard deviations for the mentor variables are presented in Table 1; the protégés' are presented in Table 2. The variables in this study were examined for non-normality; all were discovered to be normally distributed except for the number of months the mentorship has been in existence, the number of minutes the mentors and protégés meet per week, and the number of meetings the mentors and protégés report that they meet per week. These variables are positively skewed, however transformations of the variables were not performed because multiple regression is fairly robust to the level of skewness in the variables (Bobko, 1995). Positive skewness abounded because most of the organizations' mentoring programs were fairly new. Therefore, there were few participants who had been involved in their mentorship for a long time period.

The assumptions for the multiple regressions were also explored. The mentor data set contained 35 participants. Therefore, there was an adequate number of participants given the number of predictors (7.6:1 ratio). Likewise, the protégé data set contained 52 participants,

so there was a sufficient number of participants (10.4:1). Through the use of z-scores with a criterion of p < .001, satisfaction with mentoring relationship was examined for univariate outliers; none were discovered. Multivariate outliers were investigated using Mahalanobis distance also with the criterion of p < .001. One significant multivariate outlier was detected in the mentor data set. but it was not removed from the analysis. Inspection of the mentor's data showed that the participant reported meeting with his protégé 10 times per week; this is plausible considering the pair could meet twice a day, five days a week. Scatterplots of residuals and predicted scores revealed that the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met (See Appendix B, Figures 1 and 2). Furthermore, there was no evidence of multicollinearity or singularity.

#### Hypotheses Tests

All analyses were performed separately, but identically, on the mentor data set and protégé data set. For the analyses in the present study, the criterion for decision-making was set at p < .05. To address the primary hypotheses, multiple regression and correlational analyses were used. Hypothesis 1 (Psychosocial functions will predict more variance in satisfaction with mentoring

than career-oriented functions), was supported for both the mentors and the protégés . Multiple regressions were performed for each the mentors and the protégés, with satisfaction of mentoring as the criterion variable and psychosocial functions and career-oriented functions as the predictors. Tables 3 (mentors) and 4 (protégés) present the unstandardized regression coefficents (B), the standardized regression coefficients (B), the semipartial correlations ( $s_ri^2$ ),  $R^2$ , and adjusted  $R^2$ .

For the mentors, the linear combination of the mentor functions significantly predicted satisfaction with mentoring, <u>F</u> (2, 32) = 5.89, p = .007. R<sup>2</sup> was .27, indicating that approximately 27% of the variance of mentoring satisfaction can be accounted for by the mentoring functions. Furthermore, as support for hypothesis 1, psychosocial functions contributed significantly to the prediction of satisfaction ( $sr_i^2$  = .24, p = .00) while career-oriented functions did not ( $s_ri^2$  = .05, p = .20). Analysis of the protégés' data yielded similar results. Again, the linear combination of the mentor functions significantly predicted mentoring satisfaction, <u>F</u> (2, 49) = 22.95, p = .000. R<sup>2</sup> was .48, indicating that approximately 48% of the variance accounted for by mentor functions. Psychosocial functions

contributed significantly to the prediction of satisfaction  $(sr_i^2 = .07, p = .05)$  while career-oriented functions did not  $(sr_i^2 = .03, p = .17)$ , gaining further support for hypothesis 1. Comparison of the beta weights of the two predictors, psychosocial functions and careeroriented functions, was not performed due to the small sample size (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996).

The second hypothesis (There will be a relationship between perceived similarity and satisfaction with mentoring) also received support for the mentors, r =.62, p = .00, 95% confidence interval, .361 to .790., and for the protégés, r = .68, p = .00, 95% confidence interval, .500 to .804. The number of meetings per week was also positively related to satisfaction, (mentors, r =.34, p = .05, 95% confidence interval, .008 to .605; protégés, r = .30, p = .03, 95% confidence interval .030 to .530) however the number of minutes per week was not significant, (mentors, r = .25, p = .15, 95% confidence interval .091 to .538; protégés, r = .26, p = .06, 95% confidence interval -.014 to .498).

The hypotheses regarding perceived similarity and frequency and duration of mentorship were not supported. Specifically, there were not associations between number of meetings per week and perceived similarity (mentors, r

= .07, p = .70, 95% confidence interval -.270 to .394; protégés, r = .08, p = .55, 95% confidence interval -.197 to .345), number of minutes per week and similarity (mentors, r = .02, p = .90, 95% confidence interval -.315 to .351; protégés, r = .03, p = .84, 95% confidence interval -.315 to .351), or duration of relationship in months and similarity (mentors, r = .19, p = .27, 95% confidence interval -.153 to .492; protégés, r = .06, p = .65, 95% confidence interval -.216 to .328).

To discover which variables best predicted satisfaction with mentorships for both mentors and protégés, standard multiple regressions were performed using satisfaction with mentoring relationship as the criterion and perceived similarity, psychosocial functions, career-oriented functions, duration of mentorship (months), and frequency of interaction (meetings per week) as the predictors.

Tables 5 and 6 present the mentors' and protégés' results respectively. The tables display the unstandardized regression coefficients (labeled B), the standardized regression coefficients (labeled B), the semipartial correlations,  $(sr_i^2)$ ,  $R^2$ , and adjusted  $R^2$ . For both the mentors and protégés, the <u>R</u> for regression was

significantly different from zero, (mentors,  $\underline{F}$  (5, 29) = 6.02, p = .00; protégés,  $\underline{F}$  (5, 46) = 13.98, p = .00).

For the mentors, two of the predictors contributed significantly to the prediction of satisfaction with mentoring relationships, perceived similarity  $({\rm sr_i}^2 = .16,$ p = .00) and number of meetings per week  $({\rm sr_i}^2 = .08,$ p = .04). Altogether, 51% (42% adjusted) of the variability in satisfaction was predicted by participants' responses on the five variables.

Analysis of the protégés revealed slightly different results. Perceived similarity was the only predictor that contributed significantly to the prediction of satisfaction ( ${\rm sr_i}^2 = .17$ , p = .00). Furthermore, 60% (56% adjusted) of the variability in satisfaction was predicted by the variables.

As additional analyses, two-variable (positive and negative affectivity) regressions were employed to determine whether or not affectivity was predictive of satisfaction with the mentoring relationships. Personality was not discovered to be a significant predictor for either the protégés or mentors (mentors,  $\underline{F} =$ .08, p = .92, R<sup>2</sup> = .00, Adj R<sup>2</sup> = -.06; protégés,  $\underline{F} = .02$ , p = .98, R<sup>2</sup> = .00, Adj R<sup>2</sup> = .00).

Also, as an additional analysis, an independentsamples t-test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference in satisfaction for protégés depending on the gender composition of the pair. There were 36 protégés who reported that their mentors were of the same sex, and 15 protégés who reported that their mentor was of the opposite sex. The t-test was not significant, t (49) = -.87, p = .95, indicating that the two population variances are approximately equal (same sex pair, mean = 3.62, standard deviation = .93; opposite sex pair, mean = 3.87, standard deviation = .91). Another independentsamples t-test was performed to determine with whom the protégés reported more satisfaction: women or men mentors. 17 protégés reporting having female mentors and 34 protégés reporting having male mentors. Again, there was no difference in protégés' satisfaction for men and women mentors (women, mean = 3.72, standard deviation = .84; men, mean = 3.68, standard deviation = .98).

#### CHAPTER FOUR

#### Discussion

The focus of the present study was to identify which factors predict satisfaction with mentoring relationships from both the mentors and protégés' perspectives. First, psychosocial functions predicted more variance in satisfaction with mentoring than career-oriented functions, as hypothesized. While psychosocial functions did account for more variance, it is important to point out that there is a significant correlation between psychosocial and career-oriented functions. The two functions are highly related, and therefore are both quite important in satisfaction with mentoring relationships. This specific hypothesis has not received attention from researchers; therefore this is an issue that warrants further exploration.

In addition, the number of meetings per week was related to satisfaction for the mentors and protégés, as hypothesized. However, the number of minutes per week was not significantly related to satisfaction. It could certainly be inferred, nonetheless, that there was a nonsignificant effect of minutes and satisfaction. That is, because the p value was .06 for the protégés, a few more participants may have resulted in a significant

finding. There is evidence of a trend that might indicate an effect, thus proving worthy of exploration in future research.

There was a significant association between perceived similarity and satisfaction for both the mentors and protégés. Nonetheless, there were not significant relationships between perceived similarity and number of meetings per week, number of minutes per week, nor the number of months the relationship has been in existence. This interesting finding might imply that perceived similarity does not impact the frequency of contact. This is contrary to Ensher and Murphy's (1997) finding that the greater the number of hours of contact, the more the protégés perceived themselves as similar to their mentors. The perceived similarity-frequency of contact relationship certainly needs further investigation.

Multiple regressions revealed the perception of similarity as the most important factor in satisfaction for both the mentors and protégés. In fact, for the protégés, perceived similarity was the only predictor that contributed significantly to the prediction of satisfaction. However, for the mentors, both perceived similarity and number of meetings per week emerged as significant predictors of satisfaction.

Perceived similarity, in the present study, was measured in terms of similarity in outlook, perspective, problem-solving ability, and "seeing things in much the same way." These dimensions, obviously, are quite nonspecific and general. Perhaps the nature of these questions presented an opportunity for the satisfied protégés/mentors to explain, understand, or "translate" their satisfied feelings into perceiving themselves as similar to their mentors/protégés. They might have thought to themselves, "Yes, I do have a good working relationship with this person, therefore, we probably see things in much the same way."

Another reason why perceived similarity might have predicted the most variance in satisfaction is a simple one: the mentors and protégés work in the same field and organization, therefore they actually <u>are</u> similar. Factors such as organizational culture, climate, policies, and procedures indoctrinate employees so that they maintain common value systems and approach problems in highly similar ways.

As an additional analysis, the effect of affectivity was explored. Specifically, two-variable (positive and negative affect) regressions were employed to determine whether affectivity predicted satisfaction with

mentorships; it did not. The results of this study indicate that the specific characteristics of the mentoring relationship (i.e., perceived similarity, psychosocial functions provided by the mentor) are more important than inidvidual diffences such as affect. This is counter to research that has been performed on job satisfaction, which has shown that personality often accounts for more variance than specific characteristics of the job (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993).

The results of the independent-samples t-tests are noteworthy. For the protégés, there was no difference in satisfaction for opposite sex mentors versus same sex mentors. While this finding seems counterintuitive due to the strong effect of perceived similarity on satisfaction, Noe (1988) found similar results. In his study, he discovered that protégés matched with mentors of the opposite sex "utilized the relationship more effectively" than protégés with same-sex mentors. Noe offers the explanation that protégés with opposite-sex mentors work harder to make the mentorship successful due to the inherent negative outcomes and problems often associated with opposite-sex working relationships.

The second t-test performed revealed no difference in satisfaction between having men mentors and women mentors.

This specific hypothesis has not been investigated; however, researchers have examined gender differences in psychosocial support. Research to date has been mixed in this area. Reich (1986) found that female mentors offered significantly more psychosocial support than male mentors; however, Ensher and Murphy (1997) did not find such a difference.

#### Significance and Implications

The results of this study have implications for organizational decision-makers committed to fostering positive, satisfying mentorships. It also offers insight to current mentors and protégés who are striving to develop mutually beneficial mentoring relationships. First, because perceived similarity emerged as the best predictor of satisfaction, organizations wishing to successfully assign protégés to mentors should match the pairs on similarity in attitude, values, outlook, and problem-solving style.

Secondly, psychosocial functions predict satisfaction more so than career-oriented functions, so it could be recommended that mentors should make an effort to offer solid support to their protégés. It is possible that once the protégé feels that s/he is supported and valued, career-oriented functions can then become more of a focus.

Lastly, it was discovered that the number of meetings per week were related to satisfaction; therefore, mentors and protégés should be encouraged to meet frequently.

#### Limitations

The limitations of the study need to be addressed. First, the sample size was not ideal. If there had been more mentors and protégés, it would have allowed an examination of the pairs as additional analyses. Also, the use of strictly self-report measures poses certain problems. Social desirability always must be taken into account when examining results of self-report instruments. Mentors in particular may be prone to answer in a socially desirable fashion. They may tend to exaggerate the amount of support they offer their protégés in an effort to appear as "good" mentors.

The perceived similarity scale may also be a limitation with the study. For instance, the scale is confined to questions pertaining to similarity on values, outlook, and problem-solving style.

Finally, the nature of correlational analyses leaves one uncertain of causal relationships. For example, did initial perceived similarity cause mentors and protégés to feel satisfied with the mentorship, or did a satisfying

mentorship cause the mentors and protégés to perceive themselves as similar? Longitudinal analyses may help disentangle the effects.

#### Future Directions

There is much yet to be explored within the organizational mentoring literature. First, the effect of perceived similarity has only just begun to be investigated. There is a need for more dimensions of perceived similarity to be empirically examined. Future researchers should explore other dimensions of perceived similarity, such as extracurricular interests and activities, background, personality, social and political attitudes, etc. In addition, the distinction between perceived similarity and actual similarity should be analyzed. A comparison of mentor/protégé pairs' responses on actual and perceived similarity may be fruitful. It is important to discover if actual and perceived similarity are one in the same. Furthermore, the perceived similarity-frequency of interaction relationship deserves further attention.

Researchers should attempt to compare the responses of mentor/protégé pairs with regard to the functions (psychosocial and career-oriented functions) of the mentors. This could serve as a validation process, and we

could learn if there are discrepancies in responses. Also, social desirability on the part of the mentor could be examined. Moreover, questions concerning the pairs' desire to continue the mentorship may be interesting to explore.

The role that personality (i.e., affectivity) plays in mentorships should also be examined further. Future researchers may want to utilize different personality measures to uncover the effects.

Finally, satisfaction with mentoring could be explored with respect to "bottom line" issues such as performance and retention. Researchers could investigate whether protégés who are engaged in a satisfying mentoring relationship also tend to perform better on the job, and consequently stay at the organization longer.

Variables	Mean	<u>SD</u>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1.	. 8
l Satisf. (DV)	3.87	.62	•							. :	
2		1.			÷ .			2			
Similarity	3.46	.57	.62*								
3	•	1. A. A.	et a	·							
Psy.soc.	3.58	.60	.48*	.61*							
4 Career	3.71	.90	.21	.42*	.72*						
5 Months	12.63	15.80	.20	.19	.46*	.23		-			
6 Meetings	1.58	1.59	.34*	.07	.13	.08	.01			•	
7											
Minutes	29.34	24.25	.25	.02	.06	05	.17	12			
8 Positive Affect 9	3.31	.44	.05	10	.14	.04	15	23	с. .11		
Negative Affect	1.59	.43	06	.18	07	04	09	16	25	•	11

APPENDIX A:

Tables

Variables	Mean	<u>SD</u>	1	2	3	4	. 5	6	7	8
1								<u>-</u>		0
Satisf.	3.68	.92			· · ·					
(DV)				5 - A		н. 11 1				
2										<i>*</i>
Similarity	-3.53	.66	.68*	$(A_{ij})_{ij} \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$						
1. T. 1.										
3										. *
Psy.soc.	3.36	.86	.68*	.71*					$(1,1)^{N-1}(1)$	
	-									
4	2 20				1					
Career	3.30	1.03	.67*	.70*	.88*				ta di se	1.1.1. <sup>1</sup>
5								N.A.		
Months	13.65	18.56	.33	.06	.25	.24				
	15.05	10.50		.00		.24			1. 1.	
6										
Meetings	1.42	1.89	.30	.08	.21	.28	.36*		· .	
						.20				
7									i di sudi Si sudi sudi	
Minutes	32.79	24.84	.26	.03	.20	.10	.07	21	i iyi i	· •
8										
Positive	3.34	.53	02	.08	.29	.17	05	12	.17	
Affect										
9							·. ·			
Negative	1.70	.44	02	16	.12	.03	.05	12	.14	.02
Affect				1.1						

\*p < .05

Mentor Functions	$R^2 = .27$ Adj $R^2 = .22$ R = .52	В	В	sri <sup>2</sup> (unique)
		<ul> <li>The sector method, it is also a size of some size of some size.</li> </ul>	• ••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Psychosocial Functions	an a	.71*	.67	.24
	• • •			
Career-Oriented Functions	<b>~</b> −*	20	29	N.S.
*····	المحمد والمحرف والمحروفين والمحمد والم			

Table 3: Standard Multiple Regression of Mentor Functions on Satisfaction for Mentor

\*p < .05

Table 4: Standard M Mentor	Functions	$R^2 = .48$		B	* #* #***#############################	B	**************************************
		Adj $R^2 = .4$ R = .70	16			-	(unique)
					бан таланан жана от түрөн на таландаган -		······································
Psychosocial	Functions		Martin de la compositione de la compositione de la compositione	.49*		.42	.07
Career-Oriente	ed Functions			.27		.30	N.S.

\*p < .05

Mentor Variables	$R^{2} = .51 \qquad B$ Adj R <sup>2</sup> = .42 R = .71	B	sri <sup>2</sup> (unique)
Perceived Similarity	.56*	.51	.16
Psychosocial	.32	.30	N,S.
Career-Oriented	18	-,26	N.S.
Months	8.07067E-0	.02	N.S.
Meetings		.28	.08
o < .05			

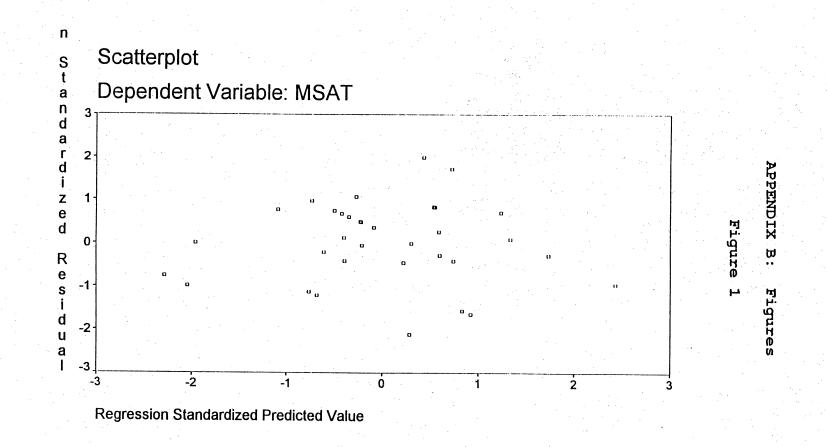
### Table 5: Standard Multiple Regression of Mentoring Variables on Satisfaction for Mentors

Perceived Similarity Psychosocial Career-Oriented	.60* .25	.43 .24	.17 N.S.
	.25	.24	N.S.
Career-Oriented		and the second	
	.07	07	N.S.
Months	.01	.18	N.S.
Meetings	.06	.13	N.S.

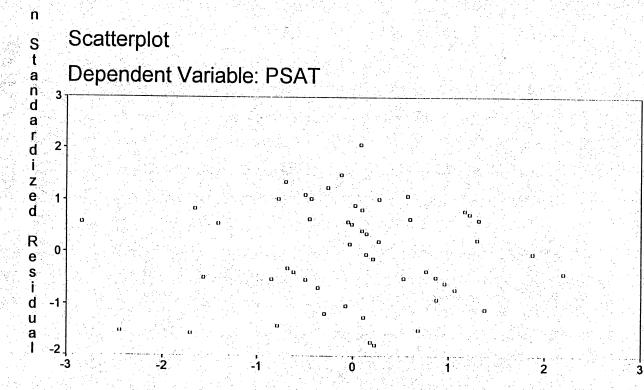
T

Б Ч

\*p < .05



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Figure

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**Regression Standardized Predicted Value** 

# MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS SURVEY

## Megan McCusker California State University, San Bernardino Spring 1998

Organizations are increasingly implementing mentoring programs to help their employees succeed. There is a need, therefore, to examine individual experiences with mentoring relationships. This survey asks you to reflect on your mentoring relationship. The purpose of the study is to gain insight into the reasons why mentors and protégés are satisfied with their mentorships. The questions included in this study pertain to the length and duration of the mentorship, the quality of the interactions, and the functions that mentors provide. In addition, there are questions related to individual emotion states.

#### **INFORMED CONSENT**

You are being asked to participate in a study investigating mentoring relationships in organizations. The study is being conducted by Megan McCusker, a Master's in Industrial/Organizational Psychology student at California State University, San Bernardino, who is under the supervision of Dr. Janelle Gilbert. This study has the approval of the Human Participants Review Board, Department of Psychology, California State University, San Bernardino. The University requires that you give your consent before participating.

This brief questionnaire, which includes sharing your feelings and experiences regarding your present mentoring relationship, will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Participation in this study is completely voluntary, and your responses are absolutely confidential. You should not write your name on any of the survey <u>materials</u>! You have the right to withdraw participation from this study at any time, for any reason, without jeopardy to your employment status. When you complete the survey, you will receive a debriefing statement describing the study in more detail. All data will be reported in group form only, and at the conclusion of the study (approximately August 1998) your H.R. Director will be given a report of the results. If you have further questions or comments regarding your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Janelle Gilbert, at janelle@wiley.csusb.edu.

By placing a check mark on the line below, I acknowledge that I have been informed of and that I understand the nature and purpose of the study, and I freely consent to participate. Also, I acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age.

Please place check mark here

Today's date \_\_\_\_\_

### Mentoring Relationship Questions: PROTÉGÉS

For the purposes of this study, a protégé is defined as an employee who receives information, career support and guidance, and emotional support from a more experienced employee (mentor).

Please be as COMPLETE as possible when filling out this questionnaire. For the ScanTron (multiple choice) items, please use a #2 pencil and darken the circles properly. DO NOT write your name or social security number on the ScanTron; please simply fill in the number written on the top right hand corner of your packet in the section of the ScanTron marked "Special Code." (You need not write the letter P after the number.)

1. On average, how many times per week do you meet with your mentor?\_\_\_\_\_

2. On average, how long do your meetings last (how many minutes)?

3. How many months have you been under the guidance of your mentor?

4. Does your organization offer a formal mentoring program? \_\_\_\_

5. Approximately how much longer do you anticipate the mentoring relationship lasting, and why?

6. Please describe how you received your mentor. If you were assigned to your mentor as part of a formal mentoring program, please explain the criteria on which you were matched and identify the position of the person who performed the match (i.e., H.R. Director). If your organization does not have a formal mentoring program, how did you obtain a mentor?

Starting with number 1 on your ScanTron sheet, please rate the extent to which you agree to the following statements on a scale from <u>A</u> to <u>E</u>, with <u>A</u> indicating that you <u>Strongly Disagree</u> and <u>E</u> indicating that you <u>Strongly Agree</u>.

Α	B	С	D	E
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. My mentor and I see things in much the same way.

2. My mentor is similar to me in terms of outlook, perspective, and values.

3. My mentor and I think alike in terms of coming up with a similar solution for a problem.

4. My mentor and I analyze problems in a similar way.

- 5. My mentor and I are alike in a number of areas.
- 6. I effectively utilize my mentor to help me develop.
- 7. My mentor met my expectations.
- 8. I feel satisfied with my mentor.

9. I enjoy being mentored.

The following statements are based on the degree to which they describe your mentoring relationship, with <u>A</u> meaning that the statement is only characteristic of your mentor to a slight extent, and <u>E</u> meaning that the statement is characteristic of your mentor to a very large extent. Please continue on your ScanTron sheet with number 10.

60

A B C D E to a very slight extent somewhat to a very large extent

10. Mentor has shared history of his/her career with you.

11. Mentor has encouraged you to prepare for advancement.

12. Mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving in my job.

13. I try to imitate the work behavior of my mentor.

14. I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values.

15. I respect and admire my mentor.

16. I will try to be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career.

17. My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversations.

18. My mentor has discussed my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers or supervisors, or work/family conflicts.

19. My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems.

20. My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract me from my work.

21. My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her.

22. My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I have shared with him/her in strict confidence.

23. My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual.

24. Mentor helps you finish assignment/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.

25. Mentor helped you meet new colleagues.

26. Mentor assigns responsibilities to you that increase your contact with people who may judge your potential for future advancement.

27. Mentor gives you assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.

28. Mentor provides you with support and feedback regarding your performance.

29. Mentor suggests specific strategies for achieving your career goals.

30. Mentor shares these ideas with you.

31. Mentor suggests specific strategies for accomplishing your work objectives.

32. Mentor gives you feedback regarding your performance in your present job.

33. My mentor has invited me to join him/her for lunch.

34. My mentor has asked me for suggestions concerning problems she/he has encountered at work.

35. My mentor has interacted with me socially outside of work.

On the following pages you will find a series of statements which persons might use to describe how they feel. Read each statement and decide how often these statements describe how you feel; with <u>A</u> meaning Rarely or Never, and <u>E</u> being Very Often. Please continue on your ScanTron sheet with number 36.

Rarely or Never Hardly Ever	Sometimes Often	Very Often
Α	CD	Ε

In your daily life/during the past week how often do/did you...

- 36. Feel regret, sorry about something you did
- 37. Feel sheepish, like you don't want to be seen
- 38. Feel glad about something
- 39. Feel like something stinks, puts a bad taste in your mouth
- 40. Feel like you can't stand yourself
- 41. Feel embarrassed when anybody sees you make a mistake
- 42. Feel unhappy, blue, downhearted
- 43. Feel surprised, like when something suddenly happens you had no idea it would happen
- 44. Feel like somebody is a low-life, not worth the time of day
- 45. Feel shy, like you want to hide
- 46. Feel like what you're doing or watching is interesting
- 47. Feel scared, uneasy, like something might harm you
- 48. Feel mad at somebody
- 49. Feel mad at yourself
- 50. Feel happy
- 51. Feel like somebody is "good for nothing"
- 52. Feel so interested in what you're doing that you're caught up in it

53. Feel amazed, like you can't believe what's happened, it was so unusual

54. Feel fearful, like you're in danger, very tense

55. Feel like screaming at somebody or banging into something

56. Feel sad and gloomy, almost like crying

57. Feel like you did something wrong

58. Feel bashful, embarrassed

59. Feel disgusted, like something is sickening

60. Feel joyful, like everything is going your way, everything is rosy

61. Feel like people laugh at you

62. Feel like things are so rotten they could make you sick

63. Feel sick about yourself

64. Feel like you are better than somebody

65. Feel like you ought to be blamed for something

66. Feel the way you do when something unexpected happens

67. Feel alert, curious, kind of excited about something unusual

68. Feel angry, irritated, annoyed with somebody

69. Feel discouraged, like you can't make it, nothing's going right

70. Feel afraid

71. Feel like people always look at you when anything goes wrong

DEMOGRAPHICS: Please provide the following information
Age: Gender:
Job position:
Level within the organization:
Number of years you have been an employee in your organization: _
Number of years you have worked in your field:
Your ethnicity: Your education level:
Gender of your mentor: Age of your mentor:
Your mentor's ethnicity:

Thank you for completing the Mentor Satisfaction Survey! The purpose of this study is to better understand the factors involved in satisfaction with mentoring relationships. Specifically, we are interested in learning how variables such as mentor functions, perceived similarity, and positive/negative affectivity impact satisfaction with mentorships. The mentoring literature has lacked a focus on these factors; rather, prior research has been concerned with defining mentor functions and examining organizational and individual benefits of mentoring.

The results of the study, which will available in August of 1998, will be given to the HR Director of your organization. Only group level results will be discussed; the relationship of individual mentor/protégé pairs will be not reported or investigated.

If you have further questions or comments regarding your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Janelle Gilbert, janelle@wiley.csusb.edu. If you have any questions about research participants' rights, contact the university's Institutional Review Board at (909) 880-5027.

In the event that any responses from the survey caused you concern, anxiety, or undue stress, please contact the California State University, San Bernardino Community Counseling Center, at (909) 880-5569.

Finally, please do not reveal the nature of this study to other potential participants. Thank you again for your participation!

## **INFORMED CONSENT**

You are being asked to participate in a study investigating mentoring relationships in organizations. The study is being conducted by Megan McCusker, a Master's in Industrial/Organizational Psychology student at California State University, San Bernardino, who is under the supervision of Dr. Janelle Gilbert. This study has the approval of the Human Participants Review Board, Department of Psychology, California State University, San Bernardino. The University requires that you give your consent before participating.

This brief questionnaire, which includes sharing your feelings and experiences regarding your present mentoring relationship, will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Participation in this study is completely voluntary, and your responses are absolutely confidential. <u>You should not write your name on any of the survey</u> <u>materials</u>! You have the right to withdraw participation from this study at any time, for any reason, without jeopardy to your employment status. When you complete the survey, you will receive a debriefing statement describing the study in more detail. All data will be reported in group form only, and at the conclusion of the study (approximately August 1998) your H.R. Director will be given a report of the results. If you have further questions or comments regarding your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Janelle Gilbert, at janelle@wiley.csusb.edu.

By placing a check mark on the line below, I acknowledge that I have been informed of and that I understand the nature and purpose of the study, and I freely consent to participate. Also, I acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age.

Please place check mark here

Today's date

## Mentoring Relationship Questions: MENTORS

For the purposes of this study, a mentor is defined as an experienced employee who provides support, direction, and feedback to a younger employee (protégé) regarding career plans and interpersonal development.

Please be as COMPLETE as possible when filling out this questionnaire. For the ScanTron (multiple choice) items, please use a #2 pencil and darken the circles properly. DO NOT write your name or social security number on the ScanTron; please simply fill in the number written on the top right hand corner of your packet in the section of the ScanTron marked "<u>Special Code</u>." (You need not write the letter M after the number.)

1. On average, how many times per week do you meet with your protégé?\_\_\_\_

2. On average, how long do your meetings last (how many minutes)?\_\_\_\_\_

3. How many months have you served as a mentor to your current protégé?

4. Does your organization offer a formal mentoring program?

5. Approximately how much longer do you anticipate the mentoring relationship lasting, and why?

6. Please describe how you received your protégé. If you were assigned to your protégé as part of a formal mentoring program, please explain the criteria on which you were matched and identify the position of the person who performed the match (i.e., H.R. Director). If your organization does not have a formal mentoring program, how did you obtain a protégé?

Starting with number 1 on your ScanTron sheet, please rate the extent to which you agree to the following statements on a scale from <u>A</u> to <u>E</u>, with <u>A</u> indicating that you <u>Strongly Disagree</u> and <u>E</u> indicating that you <u>Strongly Agree</u>.

ABCDEStrongly DisagreeDisagreeNeutralAgreeStrongly Agree

1. My protégé and I see things in much the same way.

2. My protégé is similar to me in terms of outlook, perspective, and values.

3. My protégé and I think alike in terms of coming up with a similar solution for a problem.

4. My protégé and I analyze problems in a similar way.

5. My protégé and I are alike in a number of areas.

6. I effectively utilize my protégé to help me develop.

7. My protégé met my expectations.

8. I feel satisfied with my protégé.

9. I enjoy serving as a mentor.

The following statements are based on the degree to which they describe your mentoring functions and behaviors toward your protégé; with <u>A</u> meaning that the statement is characteristic of your behavior to a slight extent, and <u>E</u> meaning that the statement is characteristic of your behavior to a very large extent. Please continue on your ScanTron sheet with number 10.

ABCDEto a very slight extentsomewhatto a very largeextent

10. I have shared the history of my career with my protégé.

11. I have encouraged my protégé to prepare for advancement.

12. I have encouraged my protégé to try new ways of behaving in his/her job.

13. My protégé tries to imitate my work behavior.

14. My protégé seems to agree with my attitudes and values.

15. My protégé seems to respect and admire me.

16. I feel that my protégé will try to be like me when he/she reaches a similar position in his/her career.

17. I have demonstrated good listening skills in conversations with my protégé.

18. I have discussed questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers or supervisors, or work/family conflicts with my protégé.

19. I have shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my protégé's problems.

20. I have encouraged my protégé to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract him/her from his/her work.

21. I have conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings of my protégé.

22. I have kept my protégé's feelings and doubts he/she has shared with me in strict confidence.

23. I have conveyed feelings of respect for my protégé as an individual.

24. I have helped my protégé finish assignment/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.

25. I have helped my protégé meet new colleagues.

26. I assign responsibilities to my protégé that increase his/her contact with people who may judge his/her potential for future advancement.

27. I give my protégé assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.

28. I provide my protégé with support and feedback regarding his/her performance.

29. I suggest specific strategies to my protégé for achieving his/her career goals.

30. I share these ideas with my protégé.

31. I suggest specific strategies to my protégé for accomplishing his/her work objectives.

32. I give my protégé feedback regarding his/her performance in his/her present job.

33. I have invited my protégé to join me for lunch.

69

34. I have asked my protégé for suggestions concerning problems I have encountered at work.

35. I have interacted with my protégé socially outside of work.

On the following pages you will find a series of statements which persons might use to describe how they feel. Read each statement and decide how often these statements describe how you feel; with <u>A</u> meaning Rarely or Never, and <u>E</u> being Very Often. Please continue on your ScanTron sheet with number 36.

Rarely or Never	Hardl	y Ever	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Α	and a start of the	В	С	D	E

In your daily life/during the past week how often do/did you...

- 36. Feel regret, sorry about something you did
- 37. Feel sheepish, like you don't want to be seen
- 38. Feel glad about something
- 39. Feel like something stinks, puts a bad taste in your mouth
- 40. Feel like you can't stand yourself
- 41. Feel embarrassed when anybody sees you make a mistake
- 42. Feel unhappy, blue, downhearted
- 43. Feel surprised, like when something suddenly happens you had no idea it would happen
- 44. Feel like somebody is a low-life, not worth the time of day
- 45. Feel shy, like you want to hide
- 46. Feel like what you're doing or watching is interesting
- 47. Feel scared, uneasy, like something might harm you
- 48. Feel mad at somebody
- 49. Feel mad at yourself
- 50. Feel happy

51. Feel like somebody is "good for nothing"

52. Feel so interested in what you're doing that you're caught up in it

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58. Feel bashful, embarrassed

59. Feel disgusted, like something is sickening

60. Feel joyful, like everything is going your way, everything is rosy

61. Feel like people laugh at you

62. Feel like things are so rotten they could make you sick

63. Feel sick about yourself

64. Feel like you are better than somebody

65. Feel like you ought to be blamed for something

66. Feel the way you do when something unexpected happens

67. Feel alert, curious, kind of excited about something unusual

68. Feel angry, irritated, annoyed with somebody

69. Feel discouraged, like you can't make it, nothing's going right

70. Feel afraid

71. Feel like people always look at you when anything goes wrong

<b>DEMOGRAPHICS:</b>	Please provide	the following	information

 Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Gender: \_\_\_\_\_

 Job position: \_\_\_\_\_

 Level within the organization: \_\_\_\_\_

 Number of years you have been an employee in your organization: \_\_\_\_\_

 Number of years you have worked in your field: \_\_\_\_\_

 Your ethnicity: \_\_\_\_\_ Your education level: \_\_\_\_\_

 Gender of your protégé: \_\_\_\_\_\_ Age of your protégé: \_\_\_\_\_\_

 Your protégé's ethnicity: \_\_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for completing the Mentor Satisfaction Survey! The purpose of this study is to better understand the factors involved in satisfaction with mentoring relationships. Specifically, we are interested in learning how variables such as mentor functions, perceived similarity, and positive/negative affectivity impact satisfaction with mentorships. The mentoring literature has lacked a focus on these factors; rather, prior research has been concerned with defining mentor functions and examining organizational and individual benefits of mentoring.

The results of the study, which will available in August of 1998, will be given to the HR Director of your organization. Only group level results will be discussed; the relationship of individual mentor/protégé pairs will be not reported or investigated.

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