

Examining Mentor Enactment Theory from the Mentor's Perspective:

Creating Cost and Benefit Scales to Predict Maintenance Usage

By

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Submitted to the graduate degree program in Communication Studies
and the Graduate Faculty of the University of Kansas
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts.

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Date approved: April 27, 2011

Abstract

In order to advance theory concerning the mentor's perspective as well as theory concerning how communication is used to maintain mentoring relationships, this research created relationship-focused scales to measure the costs and benefits that mentors associate with entering into and maintaining a mentoring relationship. It also tested a proposition in Kalbfleisch's (2002) Mentoring Enactment Theory. First, the literature was reviewed in an attempt to learn what past researchers have uncovered about the costs and benefits of mentoring. Relying on the literature, scales were created that included theoretically-based cost and benefit items. These items were structured so that mentors would respond about their interactions with a specific protégé.

In the first phase of this investigation, student-mentors at a Midwestern university were given the cost and benefit scales as well as a scale designed to measure the relational maintenance strategies they used to maintain their mentoring relationships. From this data, the scales were refined and presented to a working adult sample. This second phase of study further refined the scales. A final stage of this study used the data collected in the first two phases to test a proposition in Kalbfleisch's (2002) Mentoring Enactment Theory. Results supported Kalbfleisch's hypothesis that higher levels of mentor investment predicted higher levels of maintenance strategy usage. Exploratory analyses were also conducted to provide a more nuanced understanding of which cost and benefit factors could be used to predict individual maintenance strategies.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the following individuals for their guidance and support as I completed this project:

First, I would like to thank my thesis co-chairs Dr. Tracy Russo and Dr. Jeff Hall for always being there. Whether it was talking through an idea, wrestling with a new method, or giving detailed feedback on a draft, they both were there to offer whatever I needed and serve as my mentors through this process. Likewise, I would like to thank Dr. Mary Banwart for serving on my committee and offering her insights on the project and various stages throughout the process.

Additionally I would like to thank my fiancé, Pete Knutson, for helping me talk through ideas and for simply being there to support me as I completed this project. I would also like to offer my sincere thanks to my many friends and family members who completed surveys and solicited additional participants for this study.

Finally I would like to thank my parents, Mike and Terri; my brothers, Steven and Matt; my sister and sister-in-law, Becky and Christa; and my nephews, Jonas and Elliot. I would like to thank them all for the help they provided, and for just being there when times get rough.

Thank you.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

The desire to initiate, develop, and maintain interpersonal relationships is believed to be an innate human characteristic (Fiske, 1992). Baumeister and Leary's (1995) need-to-belong theory is based in this belief and posits that each human being is born with a basic drive to find and maintain strong social bonds that allow for both social connectivity and emotional support. This desire for belongingness is pervasive, occurring in many contexts such as home, school, church, neighborhoods and communities, online, and at work.

When looking to understand the need for belongingness in the workplace, several at-work interpersonal relationships could be examined. These relationships might include friendships, romantic relationships, and developmental relationships. While these types of relationships can exist outside of organizations, when examining them within the context of work it is important to consider the power differentials that might be present. As Waldron (2003) indicates, organizational relationships are unique in that relationships with supervisors and leaders will undoubtedly have formally sanctioned power differentials between the supervisor and subordinate or the leader and follower. These differentials are based in reward power (the perception that the supervisor can determine rewards for the subordinate), coercive power (the perception that the supervisor can determine punishments for the subordinate), legitimate power (the perception that the supervisor has a right to dictate the actions of the subordinate), potential referent power (power based in the subordinate's identification with the superior), and expert power (the perception that the supervisor has knowledge or expertise beyond that of the subordinate) (Raven & French, 1958). Beyond these sanctioned power differentials, status

inequalities among peers might also cause differences in expert (knowledge) power or differences in access to organizational information and/or resources (Waldron, 2003).

By accepting that sanctioned power differentials and status inequalities exist at work, the study of relationships between those with more organizational power or expertise and those with less organizational power or expertise becomes a fruitful avenue for communication researchers. Of workplace relationships between individuals with status inequalities, the mentor-protégé relationship is of particular interest. The mentor-protégé relationship is unique because it is a developmental relationship set in a career context that is not only considered a functional relationship (a primary goal of the relationship is career growth and development for the protégé) (Ragins & Kram, 2007), but also has the potential to develop into a close personal relationship.

Examining the close personal nature of some mentoring relationships has only recently become a priority for mentoring scholars. While the term *mentor* originates from Homer's *Odyssey* (Ragins & Kram, 2007) (Mentor was an advisor to Odysseus' son, and the goddess Athena often assumed the form of Mentor to provide education and guidance to the child), the study of mentoring did not become prominent until the release of Kram's foundational text in 1985 (Kram, 1985). More traditional conceptions of the mentoring relationship view it as one-directional (the mentor gives to the protégé) and hierarchical (the mentor has legitimate power over the protégé, as well as expert power) (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007). Because more traditional conceptions of the relationship envision the mentor accruing most of the costs and the protégé reaping most of the benefits, most studies have focused on determining outcomes of the relationship for protégés but not mentors (Wanberg, Welsch & Hezlett, 2003; Noe, Greenberger & Wang, 2002; Ragins & Kram, 2007).

In an effort to better understand the mentoring relationship from the perspective of both the mentor and the protégé, some scholars have moved away from the traditional perspective and

have begun to look at mentoring from a relational perspective. This perspective aims to examine the “interdependent and mutual processes that results in a full range of relational outcomes for both mentors and protégés” (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007, p. 374). Researchers have noted three ways in which the relational perspective has challenged more traditional views of mentoring: (1) mentoring is seen as more than a one-sided hierarchical relationship, (2) mentoring outcomes are expanded to include more than just career outcomes, and (3) power differentials are examined through a power-with rather than a power-over model (Ragins, 2005; Ragins & Verbos, 2005). In essence, the relational perspective asks that researchers accept that mentors and protégés both must give and receive in order to have a high quality mentoring relationship. To a scholar adopting a relational perspective, the bonds between mentor and protégé do not exist solely so the protégé can reap the benefits of the mentor’s attention. Both the mentor and protégé must accrue costs in order to attain the benefits that the relationship can carry. Beyond understanding that both parties have costs and benefits, a relational perspective asks that the benefits accrued be understood as both organizational and interpersonal. Both protégés and mentors might experience career advancement due to their interactions with each other, and they might also become more interdependent and connected with other organizational members because of the relationship.

Finally the relational perspective asks that researchers examine power in a different light. The power differential between superiors and subordinates that was discussed earlier still remains a unique facet of organizational relationships because in organizations there is the potential for an individual to have power over another solely because of his/her position in the organization. However, relational scholars have called on others to examine the ways that protégés exert influence over their mentors and ultimately how this shared influence operates in an environment that is typically framed by hierarchical relationships. Like all relationships, the

mentor and protégé have the potential to exert influence upon one another. Therefore, this relationship is interesting to examine because there are organizationally sanctioned power differentials that might exist between the mentor and protégé, yet by entering into a mentoring relationship, the mentor might be allowing the less powerful organizational member to exert some influence over him/her.

What is important to note at this juncture is that the relational perspective serves as one lens through which scholars can examine the mentoring relationship. Not all mentoring interactions are suitable for examination through this lens. Mentoring relationships can be high-quality or low-quality. Likewise, both mentors and protégés can have positive and/or negative reactions to the relationship. In essence, when adopting a relational perspective, a researcher is opting to focus on mentoring interactions that are considered high-quality and result in the development of close personal relationships. Communication scholars have studied close personal relationships in a variety of contexts (friendships, romantic relationships, family relationships) and have concluded that a close personal relationship is one in which the relationship is unique to the participants and not replaceable (Duck et al., 1984 as cited in Kalbfleisch, 2007). Thus scholars adopting a relational perspective are choosing to focus on one particular type of relationship. This focus does not deny that other forms of mentoring interactions exist (including dysfunctional mentoring relationships); rather it aims to highlight the outcomes possible when a mentor-protégé relationship develops into a close personal relationship.

Choosing to examine the mentor-protégé relationship through a relational lens allows communication scholars access to this line of research as they are uniquely positioned to investigate how communication is used to initiate, build, maintain, and repair mentoring relationships. One of the most significant contributions communication scholars have made to

the study of mentoring is Kalbfleisch's (2002) Mentoring Enactment Theory (MET). MET is a communicative theory that offers nine propositions concerning how protégés and mentors might utilize communication strategies when forming and maintaining their relationships (Kalbfleisch, 2002).

As previously discussed, when attempting to examine the relational mentoring perspective, one of the major contributions of the viewpoint is the idea that both mentors and protégés will invest in the relationship, and therefore both mentors and protégés will receive benefits. This expands the focus from the protégé, and allows researchers to investigate the under-researched beliefs that mentors hold concerning their mentor-protégé relationships. While all of Kalbfleisch's propositions are relational in nature, one stands out as it focuses on how the mentor works to maintain the mentoring relationship. Traditional views would dictate that the protégé bears most of the burden in maintaining a mentoring interaction as the protégé is the one who receives the outputs. In this view, the mentor would not need to focus on relational maintenance strategies because the mentor is seen as giving but not getting. Thus the dissolution of the relationship would not be seen as a loss for the mentor.

Because the relational perspective sees costs and benefits as shared between mentors and protégés, both individuals must actively work to maintain the relationship. In MET, Kalbfleisch (2002) argues that, "mentors will be more likely to direct their conversational goals and communication strategies toward maintaining and repairing their relationship when invested in the mentoring relationship" (p. 68). Understanding how mentor investment and relational maintenance strategies interact in actual mentoring relationships is a primary goal of this study. In order to examine mentor investment, Social Exchange Theory (SET) is used to both understand and frame mentor investment. Minimally, SET argues that individuals seek to form and maintain relationships wherein the benefits outweigh the costs (Altman & Taylor, 1973).

Because both MET and SET are concerned with the formation and maintenance of relationships, the SET framework allows for the understanding of investment as a ratio of mentor perception of benefits over mentor perception of costs. Thus as both theories argue, mentors who perceive more benefits and fewer costs will be more likely to engage in relational maintenance strategies in order to maintain their mentor-protégé relationships. While both theories indicate that maintenance strategies will be used when an individual perceives investment, neither theory lays claim to the types of strategies or the number of strategies that will be utilized. Thus a secondary aim of this study is to investigate whether investment and/or specific costs and benefits of mentoring predict distinct maintenance strategies identified by actual mentors.

In order to test investment, adequate scales for the measurement of mentor perceptions of the costs and benefits of a specific mentoring relationship must be created. Ragins and Scandura (1999) have created an ‘expected costs and benefits to being a mentor’ instrument, and McKenna (1990) has created a ‘benefits associated with being a mentor scale,’ yet neither of these scales allows for the adequate measure of mentor perception of costs and benefits from a relational mentoring perspective. Ragins and Scandura’s items are not well-suited to a relational perspective investigation because the instrument was not designed to be taken by mentors who were reflecting on a specific relationship. Any person, regardless of status or experience as a mentor, was allowed to take the survey. Understanding how relational maintenance strategy usage can be predicted from perception of investment requires that the scales used to measure costs, benefits, and relational maintenance strategies used all ask mentors to reflect on a specific relationship when answering the questions. The shift to the relational perspective requires that an actual relationship be central to the investigation of investment.

McKenna’s (1990) ‘benefits associated with being a mentor scale’ is better suited to be utilized in this study as it is written to account for specific mentoring relationships. However,

McKenna's study was conducted in an all-academic environment which does not necessarily reflect the benefits that mentors in other industries might experience. Thus, in order to achieve the previously discussed aims, the first goal of this study is to use existing research to create scales to investigate costs and benefits associated with being a mentor using items that are written from the perspective of the mentor and aim to capture the nuances of specific mentoring relationships.

The following chapter will identify some of the assumptions that must be made in order to look at mentoring through a relational lens. After firmly situating the relational mentoring perspective, Mentoring Enactment Theory (MET) will be examined in more detail, followed by a review of literature concerning mentors' perceived costs and benefits associated with mentoring. After examining how mentors have talked about the facets of mentoring that they find both costly and beneficial, Social Exchange Theory (SET) will be discussed as it provides a framework through which relational investment can be understood. Finally, a review of superior-subordinate maintenance strategies will be examined. Within the review of cost and benefits of mentoring literature and the discussions of SET and maintenance strategies, research questions will be posed to frame this investigation.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

When utilizing a relational approach to mentoring, several assumptions must be made. First, it must be assumed that mentoring relationships have the potential to create strong interpersonal bonds between the mentor and the protégé (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007). More traditional mentoring research has examined this relationship as a functional one where the mentor provides the protégé with support and sponsorship which allows the protégé to experience objective organizational gains such as increased salary and promotability (Olian, Carroll, Giannantonio & Feren, 1988; Eby & Lockwood, 2005). While it is true that not all mentoring relationships will result in the formation of strong bonds, and some relationships will mirror the mentor-give and protégé-take model, the literature does indicate that developing a friendship is one of the benefits that mentors have associated with being a mentor (Allen, Potet, & Burroughs, 1997). Thus, while it cannot be assumed that all mentoring interactions are close personal relationships (Duck et al., 1984), assuming that these relationships are possible is a fair supposition.

A second assumption that must be made when utilizing a relational approach is that communication is important. Relational mentoring scholars focus on the mutual influence that mentors and protégés have on one another (Ragins & Verbos, 2005); therefore when studying the dyad (or just one member of it), research has to focus on the communication that occurs within a specific relationship. As Kalbfleisch (2007) indicates, studying mentors and protégés from a relational perspective (specifically using Mentoring Enactment Theory) does not discount the functional nature of some mentoring activities, specifically “building skills, learning finesse, and becoming successful personally and professionally” (p. 513). Rather, this perspective highlights

and privileges the fact that attaining those functional outcomes becomes easier when mentors and protégés are both committed to developing an ongoing relationship that is mutually beneficial. In aiming to understand how and why mentors and protégés experience the relationship in a particular way, researchers can look to the communication that occurs between the participants to see how these relationships are developed, the characteristics that define these relationships, how conflict occurs and is solved, and how communication is used to build and tear-down these close personal relationships (Kalbfleisch, 2007).

Last, it is assumed that mentoring has something to offer both the mentor and the protégé. As has been stated, most research has focused on protégé outcomes (Allen, 2007; Wanberg, Welsch, & Hezlett, 2003), yet the relational approach claims that mentors are more than passive entities who pass knowledge and skills on to their protégés without receiving anything in return (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007). While the research focused on mentor outcomes is not as expansive as the research focused on protégé outcomes, a body of literature outlining the benefits of entering into a mentoring relationship does exist (see Table 1). Based upon these assumptions, this literature review will begin with a review of Mentoring Enactment Theory (MET) (Kalbfleisch, 2002) followed by a discussion of the costs and benefits associated with being a mentor. Following these first two sections will be a brief discussion of Social Exchange Theory (SET) and an examination of the role relational maintenance plays in mentoring relationships. Within these sections, the research questions will be posed. While no formal hypotheses will be made, informal speculation based upon past research will be introduced.

Mentoring Enactment Theory

Taking a relational approach to mentoring asks that we pay special attention to the communication that occurs between the mentor and protégé when initiating, developing, and maintaining the relationship. Mentoring Enactment Theory (MET) is a communication theory

that forwards propositions concerning how mentors and protégés use routine and strategic communication to develop mentoring relationships (Kalbfleisch, 2002, 2007).

In total, the theory is comprised of nine propositions that indicate how mentors and protégés are apt to behave when initiating, developing, and maintaining relationships. For instance, the first proposition indicates that during initial interactions between the dyad mentors are likely to reject requests to serve as a mentor to a protégé (Kalbfleisch, 2002). Kalbfleisch's (2002) second proposition also indicates a situation when the more advanced other is likely to turn down the request to become a mentor. Here she states that mentors are more likely to agree to help the less-advanced other on a project than they are to become the less-advanced other's mentor. Likewise, mentors are also expected to be more likely to allow the less-advanced others to help the mentor on a project than to agree to be that individual's mentor. In all these instances, the theory posits that mentors will turn down formal requests to serve as a mentor because the individuals have not had time to develop any type of relationship. One does not require a strong sense of liking to commit to working on an organizational project with another, yet agreeing to serve as a teacher and advocate for a less-advanced organizational member is a larger commitment, and as such most likely requires a stronger sense of liking. Thus, in initial interactions the likelihood of an organizational member agreeing to serve as a mentor is posited to be lower because the mentor and protégé have not yet had the chance to develop the relationship (Kalbfleisch, 2007). While it seems possible that a more advanced other might agree to serve as a mentor early on because of the status or organizational benefits that might come to the mentor for accepting, it is important to remember that Kalbfleisch's theory is relationally based. Therefore, all of these propositions are advanced assuming that the mentoring relationships being examined are strong interpersonal relationships. From this perspective, the mentor's motives should be altruistic.

The third, fourth, and fifth propositions all concern situations wherein the request to be a mentor or a protégé is accepted. In the third proposition, Kalbfleisch (2002) proposes that mentors are more likely to agree to be a mentor when they have mentored others in the past. The fourth proposition indicates that protégés are likely to accept the offer to be mentored by a more-advanced other (no matter the stage of relationship development), and the fifth proposition indicates that less-advanced others are also likely to accept offers of help from more-advanced organizational members. Some support for Kalbfleisch's third proposition has already been provided by Ragins and Scandura (1999). In their study, Ragins and Scandura (1999) surveyed organizational members about their attitudes towards mentoring, costs and benefits they perceived were associated with mentoring, and their intent to mentor in the future. Participants did not need to have mentored in the past to participate in their study. Their results showed that individuals who had mentored in the past perceived more benefits and fewer costs and had higher intents to mentor in the future (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Thus, organizational members who have experience as mentors are more likely to initiate a mentoring relationship in the early stages of relationship development than non-mentors.

As for the fourth and fifth propositions, here Kalbfleisch indicates that protégés are more likely to agree to be mentored (in the early stages of relationship development) when approached by the more advanced other. While research has shown that mentors receive positive benefits from enacting the role of mentor (see Table 1), the career outcomes for protégés tend to be more objective and more often discussed (Allen, 2007). Thus, protégés know they will have to invest time and effort into the relationship, yet the silver lining is more apparent to the protégé (whether or not he/she has been mentored in the past) because he/she will most likely receive the more tangible organizational benefits (Mullen, 1994).

The sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth propositions concern the communication strategies mentors and protégés use to maintain mentoring relationships (Kalbfleisch, 2002). These propositions indicate that protégés are more likely than mentors to engage in maintenance behaviors (proposition six), especially when the mentor is linked to the protégé's success (proposition seven). Again, while a mentor does receive benefits from a mentoring relationship, the protégé is still more likely to lose more if the relationship were terminated. Therefore, while it is not expected that protégés will do all the maintenance work in a mentor-protégé relationship, Kalbfleisch's propositions that protégés do more, especially when they are experiencing the objective outcomes associated with having a mentor, makes sense. Those who have more to lose if a relationship ends tend to do more to protect that relationship. For example, Vogl-Bauer, Kalbfleisch, and Beatty (1999) found that in parent-child relationships, children enacted more maintenance behaviors when they felt that they were over-benefitted by their parent. Thus, while parent-child and mentor-protégé relationships are very different, this finding demonstrates a time when an over-benefitted party (an individual who perceives that he or she is getting more out of the relationship than he/she is putting in) is likely to enact more maintenance behaviors to keep the relationship strong (Vogl-Bauer, Kalbfleisch, & Beatty, 1999).

The seventh proposition concerns sex in mentoring. Kalbfleisch (2002) indicates that female protégés are more likely than male protégés to use communication strategies designed to initiate, develop, and maintain relationships. This proposition is situated in the research that indicates that mentoring is "essential (not just important) for the success of women in organizations" (McKeen & Bujaki, 2007). This research has shown that women are better able to understand and interpret the masculine corporate environment, are more likely to be promoted, and are more likely to feel like they belong in an organization when they have been mentored (Burke & McKeen, 1990; McKeen & Bujaki, 2007; Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

Last, proposition nine suggests that mentors are more likely to direct their communication towards maintaining the relationship when they perceive an investment in the relationship. This proposition will be further discussed in the following paragraphs as it is the focus of this investigation.

While Kalbfleisch's (2002) theory provides communication scholars with several propositions to investigate, this particular study will focus on the ninth proposition, "Mentors will be more likely to direct their conversational goals and communication strategies toward maintaining and repairing their relationship when invested in the mentoring relationship" (Kalbfleisch, 2002, p. 68). In order to examine this proposition, the remainder of this literature review will focus on: the costs and benefits that mentors perceive in mentoring a specific protégé; the use of a Social Exchange Theory (SET) perspective to situate costs and benefits as investment; and the role of maintenance in organizational relationships.

The review of the costs and benefits literature will be included so that relationally-focused perceived costs and benefits of mentoring scales can be created. Currently Ragins and Scandura (1999) have scales that have been used to measure costs and benefits, yet those scales only look at the costs and benefits that individuals (who may not have ever served as a mentor) think might be present in a mentor-protégé relationship. Because Mentoring Enactment Theory (MET) (Kalbfleisch, 2007) is labeled as a relational theory, using Ragins and Scandura's scales to measure perception of possible costs and benefits in any mentoring relationship would not provide a sufficient measure of investment as Kalbfleisch envisioned. To remain true to the assumptions explicit in Kalbfleisch's (2002; 2007) argument, investment and maintenance both need to be measured in terms of a specific relationship.

In order to devise scales that can test perceptions of costs and benefits in a particular relationship, a review of findings concerning the costs and benefits associated with mentoring, for the mentor will follow.

The Costs and Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor

When trying to understand why mentors choose to maintain relationships with their protégés, Kalbfleisch (2002) has suggested that we look to mentor investment as a predictor. One way of measuring mentor investment is by looking at the costs and benefits that mentors associate with taking on a mentoring role. While little research has been conducted on mentors as compared to protégés, the research does do a good job of highlighting what mentors believe the relationship costs them, and what they believe they get from the interaction.

The Costs Associated with Being a Mentor

One of the dominant costs identified in the literature is the loss of time (e.g., see Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Halatin & Knotts, 1982; Mullen, 1994). This loss of time has been primarily reported in two different ways. First, research has shown that mentors feel that mentoring can take up valuable work time (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). Beyond the loss of time for organizational projects, mentoring can also take up an individuals' personal time if working with a protégé requires a mentor to stay at work longer and neglect family and other relational obligations (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997).

Similar to costs associated with time, mentors have also reported that mentoring can be a burden (McKenna, 1990) and that mentoring can be seen as “more trouble than it’s worth” (Ragins & Scandura, 1999, p. 498). While these two findings do not specifically identify time as a cost, and neither research report identifies the source of these classifications (there is no indication that a discussion of time-constraints lead to these comments), they do echo similar concerns as a loss of time could easily result in the feeling of increased burdens, and the loss of

time might create problems resulting in the mentor's belief that the interaction is not worth the hassle.

A second cost of mentorship that has been highlighted in the literature is the cost associated with others perceiving that the mentor favors the protégé (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Ragins & Scandura, 1999; Myers & Humphreys, 1985). Nepotism or favoritism can be problematic for the mentor's career because of the potential for alienation from other organizational members based upon this perception of unfair behavior. Thus, while a mentor-protégé relationship would ideally result in increased organizational attention for both mentor and protégé, this finding highlights the fact that not all organizational attention is positive. This might be especially problematic in instances where the mentor-protégé relationship is informal (i.e., not formally acknowledged by the organization) and/or in situations where the mentor is also the protégé's supervisor. These perceptions of unfair behavior can become problematic for both mentor and protégé (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Ragins & Scandura, 1999).

Assuming the role of mentor can also be problematic because an unsuccessful mentor-protégé relationship might make a mentor feel inadequate in the role (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Eby & Lockwood, 2005). Research has shown that mentoring is linked to positive outcomes for the protégé (e.g., see Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Fagenson, 1989). If a protégé does not experience organizational success after working with the mentor for some time, the lack of protégé progress might be taken as a personal disappointment for the mentor. As Eby and Lockwood (2005) note, the belief that an individual is inadequate as a mentor is problematic because it highlights that mentors need to be confident in their role and that mentors might need some training before they are able to successfully enact the role of mentor. As one of their respondents noted, "Just because you are a mentor doesn't mean that you are all-knowing" (Eby & Lockwood, 2005, p. 452).

Other ways mentors might perceive the mentor-protégé relationship to be costly include instances where the protégé engages in antagonistic behaviors toward the mentor (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Ragins & Scandura, 1999; Halatin & Knotts, 1982). In Ragins and Scandura's (1999) study, five items were used to measure the costs associated with a dysfunctional mentoring relationship. Those items identified that mentors can perceive enacting the role of mentor to be costly when the relationship becomes unhealthy, when the protégé takes the mentor's job, when the mentor is displaced by a successful protégé, when the protégé backstabs the mentor, and when the protégé exploits the goodwill of the mentor.

A few findings corroborate Ragins and Scandura's (1999) idea that mentors can perceive negative consequences of being a mentor when protégés use the relationship for their own benefit rather than for the mutual benefit of mentor and protégé (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Halatin & Knotts, 1982). Thus while costs associated with protégé abuse of the relationship are mentioned in the literature, their presence is not substantial.

A final cost identified in the literature is the potential for a protégé to make the mentor look bad (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). A poor performing protégé might lead to perceptions that the mentor is incompetent, bad at mentoring, or simply might change the way other organizational members think about the mentor (Ragins & Scandura, 1999; Ragins, 1997). Mentors may find that working with a poor performing protégé makes a statement about the mentor's competency and ability to judge the potential in up-and-coming employees.

Thus, when mentors enter into a mentoring relationship, they are agreeing to enter the relationship even though it might prove to be more costly than beneficial. Current literature notes the costs of mentorship in terms of costs of time and effort, others' perceptions of favoritism, the mentor's perception of inadequacy, antagonistic behaviors from the protégé, and others' perceptions of mentor's worth based on protégé performance. In creating a scale to measure the

costs associated with being a mentor in a specific mentoring relationship, items that address all these challenges should be included. Crafting a scale that is inclusive of experiences outlined in the literature allows the following research question to be examined:

RQ1: What factor structures are revealed when examining the costs mentors associate with mentoring a specific protégé?

Considering the above literature, it could be hypothesized that a five-factor model of mentoring costs would emerge, one based on each of the five primary costs that have been identified in the literature; however, based upon other research, a three-factor structure seems more likely. In her foundational work, Kram (1985) states that mentoring fulfills career functions and psychosocial functions. Career functions are “those aspects of the relationship that enhance sense of advancement” (Kram, 1985, p. 23), and psychosocial functions are “those aspects of the relationship that enhance sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness in a professional role” (Kram, 1985, p. 23). While these functions are typically seen as what mentors provide to protégés, the literature indicated that mentors perceive costs to their careers (e.g., protégé abuse of the relationship, protégé is negative reflection of mentor’s ability), psychosocial costs (e.g., perception of inadequacy, feeling of failure), as well as costs associated with the time commitment. Thus, due to the similarities found in the two career costs themes and the two psychosocial cost themes identified above, it is believed that these themes will factor into three factors (career, psychosocial, and time costs) representing the costs mentors perceive are associated with mentoring.

Now that the costs of mentoring have been examined from the mentor’s perspective, the following section will outline some of the benefits that have been discussed in the literature.

The Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor

As was stated above, significantly more research has focused on the costs and benefits associated with becoming a protégé than with becoming a mentor (Allen, 2007; Wanberg, Welsch, & Hezlett, 2003). While the focus of researchers has typically been on the protégé, when looking solely to the research conducted on mentors, far more benefits of mentoring have been identified than costs (see Table 1).

Research on the benefits of being a mentor has highlighted both subjective and objective benefits. Subjectively, mentors are rewarded with feelings of accomplishment when seeing their protégés succeed. These feelings of accomplishment are said to come from seeing a protégé get started in the firm, grow in the profession, become more independent, and gain new opportunities in the organization (McKenna, 1990; Newby & Heide, 1992).

Mentors are also subjectively rewarded for their participation in the relationship when they experience the pride associated with passing information on to the younger organizational generation, and in effect ensuring that a competent workforce is created (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; McKenna, 1990; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Research has also indicated that mentors might simply feel pride because they are enacting the role of mentor (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). Here it is not important that the mentor is helping the organization through his/her efforts; rather the pride is an internal satisfaction stemming from seeing the protégé succeed or from being selected as a mentor (McKenna, 1990). In both of these instances, the benefits that are being described are those that develop within the relationship. The altruistic benefits the mentor receives come from seeing a close personal relational partner succeed.

A second benefit that mentors report receiving from the relationship is the opportunity for learning (Eby and Lockwood, 2005). Mentors report that serving as a mentor helped them to look at the organization in new ways, appreciate differing viewpoints, and understand how

different organizational units operate. Thus, the opportunity to serve as a mentor did more than enhance the protégé's career; rather, being a mentor challenged mentors to look at how they viewed the organization and the people in the organization. Also implied in this finding is the idea that mentors might learn more about other people in the organization based upon their experiences. Because not all mentor-protégé relationships occur within the same organizational unit, working with a protégé in a different part of the company might allow the mentor to see new ways of doing things as well as meet other new allies who can help complete organizational tasks.

Mentoring has also been shown to build a support network. Research has indicated that one of the benefits of mentoring is that the mentor is able to develop a close personal relationship with the protégé (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; McKenna, 1990). Mentoring also allows mentors to grow their support networks because of the loyalty of protégés (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). When protégés are loyal, mentors can reasonably assume that they will be there to help out in times of need. Some mentors have reported that they perceive the statute of limitations on that loyalty is particularly long as some view it as the potential for payback when the mentor has transitioned out of the organization (i.e., mentors believe that their protégé might have access to other opportunities after the mentor has left the organization or after the mentor has retired) (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). Thus, with reports that protégé potential for payback might be a benefit of mentoring, it can be assumed that mentors are not always thinking of their relationships with protégés as short-lived. When Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) reported this finding, they used the quotation "My hope is that one of these days when I'm old and flatulent, one of these people is going to offer me a job when I'm eating dog food" (p. 81). The quote shows that while the term of the

mentoring relationship might expire, some mentors still perceive that an interpersonal bond between a once mentor and protégé might remain strong.

Mentoring has also been linked to several objective benefits. Studies have indicated that mentors tend to have increased salary, promotability, career success (Allen, Lentz, & Day, 2006), increased number of promotions (Bozionelos, 2004), higher job satisfaction, motivation at work, and leadership skills (Smith, 1990). More specifically, in Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs's (1997) study, mentors indicated that there were objective benefits that they received in their role as employee, and there were objective benefits that the organization received because of their enactment of the mentoring role. To begin, mentors received objective benefits in their organizational roles because mentors became more visible in the organization, received recognition from others, and had a partner to help complete tasks. Ragins and Scandura (1999) also talked about recognition from others as a subjective benefit of mentoring, and Newbie and Heidie (1992) found similar results as their respondents indicated that mentoring was associated with helping ease one's workload, enhancing reputations, enhancing organizational power, and increasing organizational information.

Mentors have also indicated that their organizations benefit from their mentoring interactions by way of knowledge transfer, building a stronger workforce, and due to the fact that they perceive themselves as better managers because they mentor (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Eby & Lockwood, 2005). Thus, these findings suggest that it is not just the individuals involved in mentoring relationships who need to be concerned with the positive and negative outcomes that can be associated with being a mentor. Organizations have a stake in fostering strong mentoring relationships, because they might see fruitful outcomes based upon those interactions.

As the review of the benefit literature makes clear, research has typically divided the benefits of mentoring into categories of individual and organizational benefits as well as objective and subjective benefits. Thus, by using the literature to create a scale that measures the benefits associated with mentoring a specific protégé, this study aims to answer the following question:

RQ2: What factor structures are revealed when examining the benefits mentors associate with mentoring a specific protégé?

Using the above literature, it seems likely that a four-factor structure will emerge with factors that identify mentor objective benefits or job-gains the mentor receives when mentoring (e.g., higher salary, higher promote-ability), mentor subjective benefits or the intrapersonal satisfaction the mentor receives by mentoring (e.g., satisfaction, generativity), organizational objective benefits (e.g., building a competent workforce), and organizational subjective benefits that are not tangible benefits, but subjective benefits the mentor feels that he/she earns in organizational relationships (i.e., the mentor believes he/she can help others in the organization more effectively because he/she is a mentor) (McKeen & Bujaki, 2007).

Because costs and benefits have been identified as variables that can be used to measure investment, the following section will review the tenets of Social Exchange Theory (SET) as SET provides an interesting way to look at the costs and benefits associated with mentoring a specific protégé.

Social Exchange Theory

A guiding assumption of Social Exchange Theory (SET) is that individuals are more likely to stay in relationships when they perceive their relationships to be more beneficial than costly (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). SET is based in theories of economics, meaning that it is concerned with the gains (i.e., benefits, rewards) and losses (i.e., costs) that individuals accrue

while in a relationship with another (Segrin & Flora, 2005). The economic nature of SET makes this theory applicable to the testing of Mentoring Enactment Theory. MET posits that mentors will use more maintenance strategies when they feel invested in the relationship. Using the SET framework, investment can be measured as the ratio of benefits the mentor perceives over the mentor's perception of costs.

In terms of Thiabut and Kelley's (1959) original conceptualization of interpersonal costs and benefits, costs are defined as "any factors that operate to inhibit or deter a performance of a sequence of behavior" (p. 13), and benefits (or rewards) are defined as "the pleasures, satisfactions, and gratifications the person enjoys" (p. 12). These costs and benefits are accrued in a relationship, and as the previous section has shown, there are many costs and benefits that researchers have already indicated mentors perceive in their relationships with protégés.

Thiabut and Kelley's research has been enhanced by Homans (1961) and Altman and Taylor (1973). Homans (1961) first framed costs and benefits in terms of the "profit" that one would receive when perceptions of interpersonal benefits were higher than interpersonal costs. Altman and Taylor (1973) expanded on this idea when they identified reward / cost ratios as a factor that influences social penetration behaviors. Reward / cost ratios are the balance of positive and negative relational experiences such that a perception of more rewards will result in a more satisfying relationship (Altman & Taylor, 1973). Beyond just more relational satisfaction, Altman and Taylor (1973) also believe that higher reward-cost ratios will result in more rapid social penetration. Thus mentors and protégés will aim to understand more about each other on deeper and deeper levels when they perceive few costs and many benefits (i.e., due to increased social penetration, mentors and protégés come closer to enacting a close personal relationship rather than a functional mentoring interaction).

The important thing to remember when looking at Social Exchange Theory (SET) is that while the theory uses economic terms to describe perceptions of interpersonal costs and benefits in a relationship, this theory is not simply exchange-based (i.e., the theory looks at more than what one person gets as the other person provides an input). The term “social” implies that there is an exchange of relational inputs and outputs that occur between the relational dyad. Thus, the SET framework does not favor the traditional view of mentoring that suggests an exchange of mentor inputs for protégé outputs. Rather, the term “social” in the theory title implies that the exchange is constantly occurring in a social interaction that is continuously renegotiated between two relational partners who are engaged in a close personal relationship.

Again, the SET framework informs this study as it provides a vehicle through which to conceptualize mentor investment. When mentors perceive higher benefits and lower costs in their social interactions with protégés, researchers can look at that benefit / cost ratio as one indicator of relationship investment. Now that a mechanism to measure investment has been discussed, relational maintenance strategies at work need to be articulated to be able to test Kalbfleisch’s ninth proposition of Mentoring Enactment Theory.

Relational Maintenance in Mentoring Relationships

Few studies have looked specifically at the role of maintenance strategy use in the mentor-protégé dyad. Those studies that have identified maintenance as a variable have tended to examine the strategies that protégés use to maintain relationships with their mentors. For example, Tepper (1995) examined the upward maintenance strategies that protégés use to maintain their relationships with supervisory and non-supervisory mentors and found that these individuals use personal, direct, regulative, contractual, and extra-contractual strategies to maintain their relationships. While no research appears to have focused on the maintenance behaviors that mentors use to maintain relationships with their protégés, several studies have

examined maintenance in superior-subordinate relationships (e.g., see Lee & Jablin, 1995, and Waldron, 2003). Due to the similar power differentials that exist between superiors and subordinates and mentors and protégés, it is possible to use research on superior-subordinate maintenance strategy usage to conceptualize and operationalize relational maintenance use in mentoring relationships.

While not all superior-subordinate relationships can be identified as mentoring relationships, most mentoring relationships involve a mentor who has more organizational tenure, status, and power and a subordinate protégé. Therefore, examining the maintenance strategies researchers have identified superiors engage in while maintaining relationships with their subordinates will provide a useful lens to examine the strategies used in mentor-protégé dyads.

Lee and Jablin (1995) created a typology of superior-subordinate strategies that are used in escalating situations, deteriorating situations, and routine situations. Escalating situations involve the superior or subordinate advancing the relationship to a level that the other is not comfortable with or ready for (Lee & Jablin, 1995). Deteriorating situations are those where the superior or subordinate feels as if the relational partners are growing further apart than that individual would desire, and routine strategies are those strategies that a superior or subordinate employs when things are at an even keel (i.e., the maintenance strategies that a mentor enacts on a daily basis to keep the relationship at the same level). In routine situations, neither partner is trying to move the dyad closer or further apart; rather one or both of the partners is trying to keep the relationship where it is (Lee & Jablin, 1995).

In escalating situations Lee and Jablin (1995) found that superiors and subordinates can avoid the interaction, refocus the conversation to be more direct or indirect, increase openness, or procrastinate in order to deescalate the situation. In deteriorating situations, superiors and

subordinates can be more direct or open; they can create closeness, deceive their partner, be guarded about the issue, or use self-promotion to increase the level of closeness that had been deteriorating.

Last, in routine situations, Lee and Jablin (1995) found that supervisors and subordinates use avoidance, supportiveness, positive regard, restrained expression, and small talk to maintain the relationship.

Because Kalbfleisch's (2002) proposition does not specifically focus on escalating or deteriorating situations, Lee and Jablin's (1995) maintenance strategies for routine situations will be further examined because of their potential tie-ins to communication strategies used by mentors and protégés.

The first of Lee and Jablin's (1995) routine strategies that will be examined in greater detail are avoidance strategies. Avoidance strategies focus on the ways that a superior, in this case a mentor, aims to maintain the relationship by avoiding telling the protégé bad news and by avoiding a discussion of problems. An example of how a mentor might avoid a protégé is by appearing busy whenever the protégé is around (Lee & Jablin, 1995). Supportiveness strategies aim to maintain the relationship by serving as ways a mentor might provide support to his/her protégé. For example, mentors can show supportiveness by suggesting that protégés discuss problems they are experiencing with them or simply by engaging in conversation with protégés about their progress on work tasks (Lee & Jablin, 1995).

Looking at positive regard strategies in terms of the mentor-protégé relationship involves mentors going out of their way to be polite to their protégés. Within positive regard strategies, there is also an expectation that mentors are honest in what they say to their protégés (Lee & Jablin, 1995). Restrained Expression indicates that mentors might avoid interrupting protégés

when they speak and they might avoid appearing too anxious when they are talking with a protégé (Lee & Jablin, 1995).

Finally, mentors might engage in small talk with their protégés in order to maintain the relationship. While Lee and Jablin's (1995) scales include more items than these when measuring the construct, the above examples of how specific routine maintenance strategies might appear in mentor-protégé relationships provide a clear framework for understanding some of the processes that mentors and protégés might use to maintain relationships.

Understanding which maintenance strategies are utilized in the mentor-protégé dyad will aid in answering the third and fourth research questions:

RQ3: What relationship exists between mentor perception of investment and relational maintenance usage?

RQ4: What relationship exists between mentor perception of costs and benefits and specific relational maintenance strategy usage?

RQ3 specifically asks that Kalbfleisch's ninth tenet be tested, and RQ4 asks that the individual facets of the investment and maintenance constructs be used to examine the relationship between costs, benefits, and maintenance. While RQ3 can be used to either support or challenge a portion of an existing theory, examining the different components of those constructs allows for an investigative inquiry into how perceptions of costs and benefits are linked to the use of specific maintenance strategies.

In the previous chapter, a rationale for testing a proposition from Mentoring Enactment Theory (MET) was forwarded. This literature review, then, further developed the relational perspective on mentoring; and then examined MET, the costs associated with being a mentor, the benefits associated with being a mentor, social exchange theory, and relational maintenance strategy usage in superior-subordinate relationships. The discussion of these areas of research

has laid the foundation for the following three chapters, which outline this study's three phases of investigation. Chapter three will discuss the use of the literature review to create costs and benefits associated with being a mentor scales and then the testing of those scales with a college-aged sample. Chapter four moves the investigation from the college sample to a working population in an effort to validate the cost and benefit structures discovered in chapter three. Chapter five, then, combines these data sets to test Kalbfleisch's proposition as well as to investigate the relationship between cost and benefit, and relational maintenance subscales.

CHAPTER THREE

Phase One

A primary goal of this study was to create a scale measuring mentor perception of costs and a mentor perception of benefits that would allow for the testing of one proposition from Kalbfleisch's Mentoring Enactment Theory (2002). For the first phase of this project, an extensive literature review was conducted to identify the costs and benefits associated with being a mentor. From information gained through this review, two question sets were written. The first question set addressed the costs associated with being a mentor, and the second question set addressed the benefits associated with being a mentor. In this phase the researcher-crafted scales were tested on a college-aged sample of mentors. Presenting these scales to college-aged mentors is appropriate for two reasons. First, utilizing a college-aged sample allowed for the preservation of the researcher's available adult worker pool, and second, a college student pool allows for further validation of the scale by comparing the results found in the college sample to future results in the adult sample. Comparing two samples of distinctly different participants allows the researcher to see if factor congruence exists (Ferguson & Cox, 1993).

Method

Creating the Costs and Benefits of Being a Mentor Scales

When examining the literature written about the perceived costs and benefits mentors associate with entering into a relationship with a protégé, two major themes were apparent. First, there is much more literature examining the costs and benefits of having a mentor than with being a mentor. This protégé-focused research agenda has begun to change (see Allen, 2007; Wanberg, Welsch, & Hezlett, 2003); however, many studies that have looked at mentoring from a more traditional view still anticipate that protégés have everything to gain by entering into a

mentoring relationship, and mentors have everything to lose. A second theme noted in reviewing the literature was the lack of focus on examining the mentoring relationship as a relationship. Of the few quantitative studies that exist, most test participants' attitudes towards being a mentor, in general, rather than their attitudes towards being a mentor to a specific protégé. Thus, within the review of literature, no suitable measures were found for testing proposition nine of Mentoring Enactment Theory ("Mentors will be more likely to direct their conversational goals and communication strategies toward maintaining and repairing their relationship when invested in the mentoring relationship" (Kalbfleisch, 2002, p. 68)). Because of the lack of adequate published scales, two new scales needed to be created.

Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale. In reviewing existing costs of being a mentor literature, no 'costs associated with being a mentor' scale would allow the testing of Kalbfleisch's theory. The only existing cost scale, Ragins and Scandura's 'expected costs and benefits to being a mentor instrument' (1999), measured participants' views about the ideal mentoring relationship and not an actual mentoring relationship. In that study, just as in this one, Ragins and Scandura (1999) looked to previous literature to articulate items identified as either costly or beneficial to the mentor. These costs and benefits were then presented to experienced employees to see whether or not they agreed with the assertions. Examples of Ragins and Scandura's (1999) cost items included, (1) Being a mentor is more trouble than it is worth, (2) Protégés can end up taking the mentor's job, (3) A poor protégé can ruin a mentor's reputation, and (4) Mentoring is an energy drain. The degree to which employees agreed with these cost claims was measured and a MANCOVA was run looking for differences between groups with mentor experience only, protégé experience only, experience as both mentor and protégé, and experience as neither mentor nor protégé (Ragins & Scandura, 1999).

The main finding from Ragins and Scandura's study was that the mentoring relationship was considered less costly, from the perspective of the mentor, when he or she had previously served as a mentor (1999). While this current study did not investigate more than one past mentoring experience (the participants were allowed to talk about a current or a previous mentoring interaction), the cost and benefit constructs provide an excellent vehicle for examining mentor investment in the relationship. Instead of asking for self-reported levels of investment, Ragins and Scandura's scale can be modified to create a clearer picture of mentor investment. By asking respondents to think about the protégé whom they remember the best, and rewording applicable questions to focus on a specific relationship, the expected costs and benefits of mentoring scale can be used to identify some costs (and benefits) that *are* associated with a mentor's most influential mentoring relationship, rather than the costs and benefits that *could* be associated with any mentoring relationship.

In devising the scale items for this study, 18 items were created using Ragins and Scandura's (1999) questions as a guide. For some of the questions a near literal transformation was used (e.g. "Mentoring is an energy drain" was transformed into "Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting" and "Protégés can end up taking the mentor's job" was transformed into "I fear my protégé might steal my job or position" and "I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé"). For other questions, the general idea inspired by the Ragins and Scandura question was used to develop the current scale item. For example, "Mentoring takes more time than it's worth" and "The major drawback of being a mentor is the time commitment" were used to create "I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé," "My protégé takes too much of my time," "I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes," "Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends," and "Interacting with my protégé keeps me from

spending time with my significant other.” The other nine items were created based upon suggested costs associated with mentoring found in the literature.

Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale. When creating the scale items for the Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale, Ragins and Scandura’s (1999) Expected Costs and Benefits to Being a Mentor Instrument was again used as inspiration for the newly created (and more relationally oriented) items. Those items inspired by the Ragins and Scandura study are indicated in Tables 4 and 5.

The findings from a second study (McKenna, 1990) were utilized when creating the Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale. The goals of McKenna’s (1990) study were to determine the benefits mentors perceive in the mentoring relationship, to determine the role-functions that the mentors perform, and to see if there was an increased effectiveness at work because the mentor was mentoring. In order to meet these goals, McKenna surveyed 37 experienced teachers who were serving as mentors to new teachers. Her survey was designed after conducting an extensive literature review that indicated that mentors typically see benefits in a relationship dimension, a professional dimension, a skill dimension, and a personal esteem dimension (McKenna, 1990).

Items from McKenna’s survey were used in this study without much editing. This lack of editing was primarily due to the fact that McKenna’s hypothesized dimensions are very similar to the dimensions theorized in this study. For example, McKenna’s professional dimension is like the subjective organizational gains factor, the skill dimension is like the objective organizational gains factor, and the personal esteem dimension is like the subjective self gains factor. Because these similarities existed, and McKenna’s scale was already relationally-based, most items borrowed from McKenna’s study were taken verbatim. (See Table 4 for a list of items taken from McKenna, 1990).

Procedure

Participants for the first stage of this project were recruited from introductory and upper-level communication courses at a midsized Midwestern university. In order to participate, students were told that they needed to have served as a mentor in a university organization or club, a fraternity or sorority, or at work. All students received course credit for their participation.

Students were informed about the study via an announcement sent out through the university's course management system. Included in the announcement was a synopsis of the study and a link to access the online survey. Immediately upon opening the survey, students viewed the study's internet information and consent form and were asked if they wanted to participate before moving on to the questionnaire. As the participants began the questionnaire, they were given the following directions:

A mentor is a person in an organization who is knowledgeable about the organization and typically has more experience and a better title than the person they are mentoring (the protégé). Mentors provide their protégés with different forms of support, but generally it is believed that the mentor guides the protégé in an effort to further the protégé's career or to help the protégé make a smooth transition into the organization or workplace. You could be a mentor at school, at work, or even in a group or club. No matter the context, you are considered a mentor when you help a new member or new employee start their job. When answering the following questions, please keep in mind the protégé with whom you have had the MOST experiences. Please attempt to answer the questions considering all interactions between you and your protégé rather than focusing on a few specific interactions. Before beginning the questionnaire, please indicate the context through which you and your protégé began interacting.

Participants were then asked to provide the context through which they served as a mentor. They were asked to choose between a university club or organization, a sorority or fraternity, or a work/job.

While surveying only those individuals in organizations would have been ideal, the student phase of this study allowed for the rapid accumulation of data concerning students' real-

life mentoring activities. Although the contexts in which student and adult mentoring relationships develop may be quite different, there are some instances in which college-aged students are able to speak clearly about serving in the mentoring role.

At college, students often opt to join university clubs or organizations (including sporting teams). Because a student's tenure in the club/team/organization is relatively short-lived, ideally lasting a maximum of four to five years, the student must learn how to be a functioning member of the organization and almost immediately pass that information on to those who have more recently joined. This act of serving as an older and wiser member of the organization who passes knowledge to younger members to ensure the organization's survival is an act of mentoring, and as such gives these students a voice in this investigation.

Fraternities and sororities were also chosen as a potential student sample because of the close bonds that are forged between big brothers/sisters and little brothers/sisters. The purpose of a big brother or big sister in a fraternal organization is to supply a new member to the fraternity or sorority with a more advanced mentor on whom they can rely when questions or concerns arise. In this way, the big brother/little brother and big sister/little sister relationship resembles an organizational mentorship, and this grouping of students can serve as a valuable subset upon which to test this scale.

A final group of students, who self-identified as mentors at work, was surveyed. Although these students may not have had exceptionally long relationships with their protégés, they are still poised to provide information about how mentors perceive the costs and benefits associated with entering into a mentoring relationship at work.

After students chose which type of mentor they had served as, they were asked a few demographic questions, a few questions about their relationship with their protégé, and finally they were given the costs associated with being a mentor and the benefits associated with being a

mentor scales. Respondents were also asked questions about which relational maintenance strategies they used to build and maintain their relationships. The questions concerning relational maintenance were saved for analyses in phase three of this study.

Participants

The participants in the first phase of this study included 148 individuals enrolled in communication courses at a midsized Midwestern university. There were slightly more female participants (59.5%) than male participants (40.5%), and a little over half the respondents (55.5%) indicated that they were mentoring a female protégé. Ninety-nine percent of those responding to the survey were 25 years of age or under (18 = 11%, 19 = 32%, 20 = 26%, 21 = 16%, 22 = 7%, 23 = 5%, 24 = 1%, 25 = 1%, 32 = 1%). Ninety percent of the population identified as Caucasian, 5% Black, 4% Latino, and 3% identified as Asian. (Please note: When questioning participants about race, participants were allowed to select all categories with which they identified. Therefore, scores for race do not add up to 100 %.)

Nineteen percent of participants indicated that they served as a mentor in a university organization, club, or team; 27% indicated that their protégé was a member of their fraternity or sorority; and 54% of participants were mentoring their protégé in an at-work context. Because college-aged students were surveyed in this portion of the study, organizational tenure and time spent as mentor both were relatively low. Forty-two percent of respondents had been in their organizations for one to two years, 20% indicated that they had spent less than one year in their organization, and another 20% had been in their organization for two to three years. Thirteen percent of the population had been in their organization for three to four years, and only 5% of the population had been associated with the organization for five or more years.

While duration of organizational tenure was four years or less for 95% of the population (which would be expected as this phase of the study is looking at college-aged mentors), time

spent with the protégé was even more minimal for these mentors. Sixty-eight percent of all respondents indicated that they had been a mentor for one year or less (37.2% were 6 months or less), 10% had served as mentor for one to one and a half years, 13% claimed to have been mentors for one and a half to two years, and 9% indicated that they had been a mentor for two or more years. Again, these numbers are not surprising given the population this phase of the study is targeting. First of all, the protégé about whom most mentors could recall information most clearly would probably be the most recent protégé. Second, as students in college, these individuals only have four to five years in most of these roles. Therefore, it is not surprising that so many individuals appear to have become a mentor about one year after entering their organization.

Results

Initial item reduction. This study predicts that the scale items for both mentors' perceived costs will be divided into career costs, psychosocial costs, and time costs; whereas the benefits associated with the mentoring relationship will be divided into the four primary categories of objective-self gains, objective-organizational gains, subjective-self gains, and subjective-organizational gain. Because it was predicted that several factors would emerge as measurement of the overall construct (costs or benefits of mentoring), exploratory factor analysis was the statistical technique chosen (Field, 2009).

The first step in conducting an exploratory factor analysis requires the determination of which method of extraction will be used. Many authors have suggested that principal components factor analysis (PCA) be avoided whenever possible, because at its core, the PCA procedure is not truly factor analytic (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Gorsuch, 1997; Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986). Because the use of a components model can be disastrous when researching relationships between latent variables

(i.e. the costs and benefits a mentor perceives with a particular mentoring relationship), a common factor analysis approach was utilized in this investigation.

When using the common factor analysis approach, researchers have two different procedures they can choose for extraction in SPSS: the Maximum Likelihood (ML) procedure or Principal Axis Factoring (PAF). Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999) suggest the ML procedure be used when the data is relatively normally distributed, and that PAF be used when the assumption of multivariate normality is violated. Given that the data in the first phase of this study is not normally distributed, PAF was used.

A second decision that must be made when conducting a factor analysis is the number of factors that should be retained. While some researchers suggest that all factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 should be retained, many researchers have indicated that selecting the number of factors based on eigenvalues is one of the least accurate methods a researcher could utilize (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Velicer & Jackson, 1990). Therefore this study did not use eigenvalues to determine the number of factors retained; rather scree plots were examined to determine the number of factors identified in the data.

The scree test was first introduced by Cattell (1966). To conduct this test, the eigenvalues of all the potential factors are plotted against their factor number. The resulting graph is then examined to identify the natural break in the graph. This point is called the point of inflection, and it is located by identifying the place where the slope of the line changes dramatically (Field, 2009). Figures 1 and 2 represent the scree plots obtained from the data collected during the first phase of this study. In both plots, there is one eigenvalue that is significantly higher than 1, and after that the eigenvalues dramatically drop and even out close to 1. Most researchers suggest that the point of inflection be excluded from the number of factors retained when performing an Exploratory Factor Analysis (Field, 2009; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999),

resulting in the interpretation that one factor be retained in the case of the phase one costs and benefits scales. This rule, however, is not steadfastly enforced. As is suggested by Costello and Osborne (2005), when one has theorized the potential for multiple factors in a study, it is appropriate to look at multiple factor structures and adopt the one that is most clearly interpreted.

In the examination of both the costs and the benefits associated with being a mentor, the factor structures were examined when one, two, three, four, and five factors were retained. In both cases the factor structure that produced the most clearly interpretable (“item loadings above .30, no or few item cross-loadings, and no factors with fewer than three items” (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 3)) results were the structures with two factors.

After the method of factor analysis to be used and the number of factors to be retained has been determined, one must decide what method of rotation should be utilized. Methods of rotation are described as either orthogonal or oblique, where orthogonal rotations produce factors that are uncorrelated and oblique rotations allow for the correlation of factors (Ford, MacCallum & Tait, 1986). Because of an a priori assumption that the factors in both the costs and benefits scales would be correlated, an oblique rotation technique (promax) was utilized.

The Costs Scale. For a list of cost items included in the phase one costs scale as well as their origin in the literature, see Table 3.

A Principal Axis Factor analysis (PAF) was conducted on the 26 costs associated with being a mentor items with an oblique rotation (promax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of Sampling Adequacy indicated that the sample size was more than sufficient for investigation, $KMO = .92$ (‘superb’ according to Field, 2009). The KMO values for individual items (as interpreted from the anti-image correlation matrix) were $> .78$, which is higher than the acceptable limit of $.5$ (Field, 2009). Bartlett’s test of sphericity $\chi^2(325) = 2339.38, p < .001$,

indicates that the correlation matrix is significantly different from the identity matrix, which again suggests that the data are sufficient to examine for patterns/factors.

An initial analysis was run to determine eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Four factors had eigenvalues over 1 and together those four factors explained 63.01% of the variance. The scree plot indicated that only one factor should be retained, but because four factors had been theorized, separate analyses were conducted to see which factor structure (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) was most clearly interpretable. Using the guidance presented by Costello and Osborne (2005), the two factor model was retained because of the number of item loadings above .30, the lack of significant cross-loadings when only two factors were present, and the lack of factors with fewer than three items. Table 9 presents the pattern matrix after rotation, and Table 10 presents the structure matrix after rotation. The items that cluster on each factor suggest that factor 1 represents the costs associated with a mentor's fears and concerns about the relationship, and factor 2 represents the costs associated with the time it takes to be a mentor.

Four items were removed from the scale based on these analyses (see Table 2 for indication of removed items). One other item "Mentoring my protégé is physically exhausting," had a low factor loading (.38) and was considered for removal, but ultimately was kept because of the potential for being more applicable to an adult sample.

The Benefits Scale. For a list of cost items included in the phase one costs scale as well as their origin in the literature, see Table 5.

A second Principal Axis Factor analysis (PAF) was conducted on the 31 benefit items with an oblique rotation (promax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of Sampling Adequacy indicated that the sample size was superb, $KMO = .94$. The KMO values for individual items were all $> .86$, again, higher than the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009). Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(465) = 2986.82, p < .001$, indicated that the correlation matrix was significantly

different from the identity matrix, thus a preliminary analysis was run to determine eigenvalues for each factor. Four factors had eigenvalues over 1, and together those four factors explained 63.63% of the variance. The scree plot indicated that only one factor should be retained, but because four factors were expected, separate analyses were conducted to see which factor structure was most clearly interpretable. Like the Costs Associated with Being a Mentor items, the two-factor model was retained because of the number of item loadings above .30, the lack of significant cross-loadings when only two factors were present, and the lack of factors with fewer than three items (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Table 11 presents the pattern matrix after rotation, and Table 12 presents the structure matrix after rotation. While two factors clearly emerged, the interpretation of those factors was less clear as the items located in each benefit factor were not clearly discernable from the items in the other factor. For example, the second factor seems to have leanings towards being on the cutting edge within one's organization ("My protégé helps me implement new technology," "Being a mentor keeps me on the cutting edge in my organization," and "My protégé's successes ensures a future for our organization"). However, there are also items that speak to esteem needs being met in both factors, "Being a mentor satisfies my need to be needed" (factor 2) and "Being a mentor builds my self-confidence" (factor 1). Because of the oddities found when analyzing the factor structure, eight items were removed from the scale before it was refined for the second phase of the study (see Table 4 for items removed). An additional five items were removed because their factor loadings were either $< .40$ (As suggested by Field, 2009) or the item had acceptable (or close to acceptable) loadings on each factor.

Reliability Analyses

One final way to check for consistency in the scale items retained is to look at the reliabilities of the each factor. As Fields (2009) notes, "the usual way to look at reliability is

based on the idea that individual items (or sets of items) should produce results consistent with the overall questionnaire” (p. 674). Thus another way to test the correctness of the factor structure is to see if the retained items produce a high reliability score.

The Costs Scale. Within the costs associated with being a mentor scale, the costs associated with fears/concerns about the relationship factor had a high reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .942$; as did the costs associated with time factor, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .905$.

The Benefits Scale. The Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scales factors also had high reliabilities: for factor 1, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .957$ and for factor 2, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .850$.

All four of these reliabilities indicate that the factor structures found within both the costs and benefits scales and subscales are internally consistent. In all cases, the removal of additional items did not increase the reliability, thus no additional items were removed at this stage.

Discussion

The purpose of the first phase of this study was to begin the process of creating a series of pencil-and-paper instruments that would allow for the effective measurement of both the costs mentors associate with entering into a mentoring relationship as well as the benefits mentors associate with becoming a mentor. Results of the quantitative analyses concerning the costs associated with mentoring show that costs can be measured in a single survey that utilizes two primary factors: costs associated with fears or concerns about the relationship and costs associated with the amount of time allocated to working with the protégé. The two-factor model was not the theorized model, and as such the prediction that a four-factor model would emerge was not supported.

The mentor concerns and fears factor combines items from the proposed career costs and psychosocial costs factors. Results indicated that the target of the cost was not important in determining the overall factor structure of the items. In other words, the responses provided by

mentors surveyed in phase one were not able to be organized based upon whether or not the mentor perceived costs to himself/herself (and only him or herself), or the mentor perceived costs to his/her organizational identity (i.e. other members of the organization look at the mentor differently). The factor that did emerge as important was simply that the mentor personally felt as if he or she was or might be slighted (either by the protégé, the organization, or by some other organizational member) because he or she was a mentor to a specific protégé.

Thus, instances where mentors perceive that their protégés might steal their jobs, that their protégés are using them, or that their protégés might stab them in the back are all ways that a mentor might have fears or concerns about the mentoring relationship. It is important to note that the items in this section represent the things that the protégé might do as well as the feelings the mentor might have after the protégé has committed the action. Thus, this factor includes “I fear my protégé might steal my job or position” because that would be a negative action that a protégé might commit against the mentor, but the factor also includes, “I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills as a mentor” because if the protégé is not successful, the mentor might lose status in the organization because of the protégé’s poor performance.

The findings further suggest that mentors are less concerned with the costs that their organization accrues and the costs that their relationships accrue, and more concerned with time-lost as an overarching concept. Thus, what is important is that time is being spent away from other individuals and other activities. This finding is similar to the findings indicated in Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs’ (1997) qualitative study of 27 mentors. They found that mentors believed that a protégé’s willingness to provide assistance to the mentor on his/her organizational tasks was one of the benefits associated with being a mentor. While having a protégé is supposedly advantageous because of time the protégé can save, the number one cited reason for not engaging in a mentoring relationship was because of the time the mentor is required to devote to the

relationship. Thus time away from other activities is an oft-cited cost associated with being a mentor.

When looking to the benefits associated with being a mentor scale, the interpretation of the results was a bit more difficult. While the data structure outlining the two factor model was the most appropriate fitting model, no discernable pattern was evident when examining the individual items contained in each factor. The items included in factor one were quite similar to those included in factor two. Therefore, before reformatting the surveys for the second phase of this study, each item on the instrument was reanalyzed and excluded if it did not clearly fit into the theorized dimensions (see Table 4 for the items removed at this stage). One reason for the ill-fitting data model may be that the benefit items taken from McKenna's (1990) study were originally designed for teachers, and those items were tested on only 37 individuals. Therefore, the relatively small sample size utilized in McKenna's study may have caused her four-factor structure to emerge inappropriately.

As with the costs scale, it is important to note that even with difficulty found in deciphering the factors that emerged, the four-factor scale was still not supported. In both cases, when the four-factor model was examined, the factors found did not align with the factors hypothesized. Therefore, the two-factor models were eventually chosen because they fit the data better.

This chapter outlined the initial stage of scale creation. The following chapter will examine the revision of the cost and benefits scales and the testing of those scales on an adult sample. Similarities and differences in the items found in each factor's subscales are discussed as well as scale reliabilities and issues of factor congruence.

CHAPTER FOUR

Phase Two

The second phase of this study had two primary aims. First, this phase aimed to improve upon the Costs and Benefits Associated with Becoming a Mentor Scales that were described in the previous chapter. The scales were enhanced by collecting data from a distinctly different group, adult mentors who have had experience mentoring at work. A second aim of this study phase was to examine factor congruence by seeing if the same factor pattern was found when a different population was examined (Ferguson & Cox, 1993).

Method

Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale

In revising the Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale, five items were removed from the questionnaire during the first phase of the study. Those items were “I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am,” “Mentoring my protégé has made me feel like I am a subpar employee or member of my organization,” “When my protégé doesn’t succeed, I blame it on myself,” “I run the risk of being perceived as incompetent if my protégé doesn’t perform well,” and “Other members of my organization could dislike me because of my protégé.” These five items were removed because they all had factor loadings $< .45$, and several of them had similar loadings on both factors.

The original analysis suggest that “Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting” (.38) and “Sharing my knowledge with my protégé makes me feel like I am replaceable in my organization,” (.38) should both be removed from the second version of the questionnaire because of their $< .45$ factor loadings. While these items should have been removed, they were retained because of the potential differences that could exist between a population of working

adults and a population of college-aged students. First, the question concerning physical exhaustion was kept simply because that question seemed more applicable to the working adult sample than the college-student sample surveyed in phase one. The “protégé makes me feel replaceable in my organization” question was kept because it too was more applicable to the phase two adult workers sample than the phase one student mentor sample. The reason for this is because students (the phase one sample) *are* replaceable in their collegiate organizations. University clubs/organizations/teams as well as fraternities and sororities are activities that typically end at the end of the collegiate career. While a job might continue past graduation, many students will elect to find a different job after earning their degrees; thus this question was retained to see if it was at all applicable to the adult population.

In addition to the few deletions (and retentions) discussed here, the wording of several items was changed to increase comprehension. The revised Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale is presented in Table 13.

Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale

While the Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale received minimal adaptation, the Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale was vastly changed from phase one to phase two. Due to problems discerning the difference between factors in the first phase of the study (e.g. factors hypothesized to be in a single factor were found in each of the two retained factors), 13 items were deleted from the questionnaire and 15 new items were added. Table 4 identifies the 13 items that were deleted from the study, and Table 14 identifies the 15 items added. Sample added items include “I work harder because I am a mentor,” “Working with my protégé makes me feel more qualified to complete work tasks,” and “My protégé has introduced me to a new network of friends.”

As with the costs scale, some slight wording changes were made on the revised version of the instrument. These changes did not affect the meaning of the items, only the wording used to ask the questions.

Procedure

Participants for this study were recruited via snowball sample on a social networking site. Acquaintances of the researcher were contacted and asked if they would be willing to fill out an online questionnaire and pass that questionnaire on to several of their acquaintances.

On the social networking site, individuals were invited to participate in the survey via event invitations and personalized messages. When individuals received either their event invitation or their personal message, they were told about the purposes of the investigation and they were informed that they needed to have experience as a mentor at work in order to participate in the study. A link to the online survey was included within the text of both invitation types. When individuals began the survey, they were first presented with the study's online informed consent form. Before individuals could start the survey, they needed to acknowledge that they were willing to participate and had read the informed consent form.

Once the participants began the online questionnaire, they were given the following directions:

A mentor is an organizational member (an employee) who is knowledgeable about the organization and typically has more experience and a better title than the person (s) he is mentoring (the protégé). Mentors provide their protégés with different forms of support, but generally it is believed that the mentor guides the protégé in an effort to further protégé's career or to help the protégé make a smooth transition into the organization or workplace.

When answering the following questions, please keep in mind the protégé with whom you have had the MOST experiences. These experiences can be either good or bad, it is just important that you answer all the questions about a specific mentoring relationship. As you answer the questions, please consider all interactions between you and your protégé rather than focusing on a few specific interactions. Throughout this questionnaire, the person you have selected will be referred to as "your protégé."

Respondents were then asked to provide information about their relationship (in an effort to make the respondents contemplate that relationship before completing the questionnaire). After describing their relationship and answering a few demographic questions, respondents answered questions about the costs associated with being a mentor, the benefits associated with being a mentor, and the relational maintenance strategies that they use to maintain their relationships with their protégés. The questions in each of these three scales were randomized (within each scale) so that individuals would not encounter these questions in the same order.

Participants

In all, 128 working adults began the online survey refined from phase one of this study. Of those 128 individuals, 84 people completed a sufficient amount of the survey to be included in these analyses. The 84 respondents retained include 36 male (43%) and 48 female (57%) working adults between the ages of 20 and 64 (20 to 24 = 13.1%, 25 to 29 = 25%, 30 to 34 = 15.5%, 35 to 39 = 6%, 40 to 44 = 4.8%, 45 to 49 = 16.7%, 50 to 54 = 9.5%, 55 to 60 = 7.1%, and 60 to 64 = 2.4%). Eighty-seven percent of the individuals surveyed identified as white/Caucasian, 6% identify as African American, 3.6% identify as Hispanic, 1.2% identified as Asian, and an additional 1.2% identified as “other.” One respondent did not indicate his/her race.

Over half the sample was married, with 27.4% of the sample indicating that they were single and 10.7% of the sample indicating that they lived with their partner. Concerning the educational level of the respondents, two individuals (2.4%) had completed high school, 13 individuals (15.5%) had completed some college, three individuals (3.6%) had graduated from a two-year college, 38 individuals (45.2%) had graduated from a four-year college, 19 individuals (22.6%) had a master’s degree, three individuals (3.6%) had a PhD, and five individuals (6%) had a professional degree (JD or MD).

When asked about their mentoring relationships, 26 individuals indicated that they had a male protégé, 23 individuals had a female protégé, and 35 individuals declined to state the sex of their protégé. Approximately 19% of respondents began mentoring their protégé in the first year of their employment, 18% began in their second year of employment, 14% began in year 3, and 12% began in both years 4 and 5. After the 5 year mark, the percentage of respondents who began mentoring per year was never higher than 2.5%. The final 37% of the sample indicated that they had been working at their organization anywhere between 6 and 34 years at the time they began mentoring. Over half the sample had only been mentoring their protégé for the past year, one individual had been working with his/her protégé for the past 12 years, and nine individuals had been working with their protégés for anywhere from 5 to 7.5 years.

These individuals indicated that they spent from 1 to 40 hours weekly working with their protégé. Fifty-eight percent of the sample spent at least 10 hours per week working with their protégés.

Results

Initial Item Reduction. The second phase of this study aimed to, first, replicate the two-factor structure observed for the Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale and, second, to find an interpretable factor structure for the Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale. An identical process of selecting a method; discerning the method of extraction, PAF ; identifying the correct number of factors; and choosing an appropriate rotation method, oblique (promax), were used in both the first and second phase of these studies. See chapter three for a detailed explanation of these processes.

The Costs Scale. Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was conducted on the 23 cost items with oblique rotation (promax). Because of the relatively small sample size, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic, $KMO = .85$, was examined to see if sampling adequacy was met. As Hutchenson

and Sofroniou (1999; in Field, 2009) indicate, a score of .85 is great; therefore this small sample size is adequate for factor analysis. All individual KMO values were above the acceptable limit of .50 (Field, 2009). The Bartlett Test of Sphericity was also significant, $\chi^2(253) = 1317.38, p < .001$, indicating that the correlations between items was significantly large for PFA.

A preliminary analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Five factors had eigenvalues over 1, and together these factors explained 71.15% of the variability. The scree plot (see Figure 3) clearly shows two factors above the point of inflection. Because examination of the scree plots from phase one of the study only indicated that one factor was above the point of inflection, the 1, 2, and 3 factor models were examined to see which one fit the data best. Again, the 2 factor model had the highest loadings and the fewest cross loadings, thus two factors were retained in the final analysis. Again, these factors were identified as costs associated with fears/concerns about the relationship, and costs associated with the time commitment from being a mentor.

Prior to running reliability analyses, items that did not sufficiently load on either factor and items that loaded equally on both factors were removed from the instrument. These procedures resulted in the removal of “Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other” and “My peers believe that my relationship is sexual in nature” because of insufficient factor loadings, and the removal of “Sharing my knowledge with my protégé makes me feel like I am replaceable in my organization” and “Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends” because of high cross-loadings on each factor. The deletion of these four items makes sense considering the differences in the populations surveyed in phase one and phase two. Both items that reflected taking time away from personal relationships (friends and significant others) are most likely a larger concern for the college-aged population because the lines between “work” and home are more blurred for

college students. In the college setting, organizational tasks are not typically determined by a 9 to 5 workday. While it is unlikely that the adult mentors surveyed never had to neglect a relationship because of interacting with their protégé, the larger concern for it in the college sample makes sense.

Furthermore, the fact that the college-aged sample was concerned with others thinking that the mentoring relationship was sexual in nature is also a concern that is probably more important to college students than adult workers. While research has shown that this is a concern in adult mentoring relationships as well (Ragins, 1999; Fitt & Newton, 1981), the ages of the participants in the first sample make those individuals more likely to find themselves in a situation where they would be perceived as having a sexual relationship with their protégé. College-aged students are at a point in their lives where seeking out a significant other is an extremely important venture. Thus, mixed-gender dyads (or same-gender dyads depending on sexual orientation) are more likely to be seen as having the potential to be romantic in nature.

The Benefits Scale. Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was conducted on the 32 benefit items with oblique rotation (promax). As with the costs scale, the relatively small sample size required that special attention be paid to the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic, $KMO = .90$, to see if sampling adequacy was met. A score .90 is superb (Hutchenson & Sofroniou, 1999); thus this sample size is adequate for factor analysis. All individual KMO values were $> .82$, and the Bartlett Test of Sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(496) = 1987.38$ $p < .001$, indicating that the correlations between items was significantly large for PFA.

A preliminary analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Seven factors had eigenvalues over 1, and together these factors explained 72.32% of the variability. The scree plot (see Figure 4) indicated that only one factor should be retained (only one eigenvalue exists above the natural break): however, tests were conducted to search for the best

fitting model, and the two-factor model had the best fit to the data (see Chapter 3 for criterion for these additional tests).

While the two-factor structure was not discernable in the first phase of this study, the structure has become quite clear through analyses at this phase. The first factor can be described as benefits the mentor receives in his/her role as employee, and the second factor is the benefits received through the creation of a larger network of individuals (see Table 20 for the pattern matrix and Table 21 for the structure matrix).

One item was sufficiently loaded on the larger network factor, but was removed because it theoretically did not fit with the other items in the scale. That item, “I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor” had a high loading on the second factor, yet the meaning did not seem to fit with the other items in the factor.

Reliability Analysis

As in the first stage of analysis, reliabilities were run to see if the internal structure of the factors would be retained.

The Costs Scale. Again, the Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale had a high reliability for the mentor fears and concerns factor, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .92$, and the time factor, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .89$

The Benefits Scale. The Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scales factors also had high reliabilities. For factor 1, job-benefits, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .93$ and for factor 2, increased networks, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .87$.

As with the previous stage, all of these reliabilities indicate that the factor structures found within both the costs and benefits scales and subscales are internally consistent. In all cases, the removal of additional items did not increase the reliability; thus no additional items were removed at this stage.

In this phase of the investigation, the factor structure found in phase one was reinforced. With scales designed to measure costs and benefits of being a mentor in a particular relationship created, the following chapter will explain the testing of Kalbfleisch's ninth proposition as well as some exploratory tests designed to reveal how individual cost and benefit factors predict individual maintenance strategy use.

CHAPTER FIVE

Phase Three

The goal of the final stage of this project was to use the newly created costs and benefits of mentoring scales, as well as existing relational maintenance in organizational environments scales, to test proposition nine of Kalbfleisch's (2002) Mentoring Enactment Theory: "Mentors will be more likely to direct their conversational goals and communication strategies toward maintaining and repairing their relationship when invested in the mentoring relationship" (p. 68). In essence, Kalbfleisch's proposition predicts that the relationship between mentors' perceived investment and maintenance strategies used will be positive.

Method

Participants

The participants in Phase III of this study are the same individuals from the previous two stages. Because the data structure of both preliminary factor analyses were similar (and any dissimilar items were dropped), the two data sets were combined.

In combining the data sets, steps were taken to ensure that all individuals had responses to all items included in analysis. During phase I of the study, many of the benefits items were removed because they were not helpful in determining the overall factor structure. Because the benefits scale is comprised of many items that were only given to the individuals in phase II, the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm was used to impute missing data for phase I individuals who were not asked to answer those questions (see procedure section for further commentary on how the EM algorithm was utilized).

In total, 232 participants took part in this study. Of those 232 participants, 136 (58.6%) were female and 96 (41.4%) were male. The majority of participants (88.8%) indicated that they

identified as Caucasian, while 5.2% indicated they identified as African American, 3.9% identified as Hispanic, 1.7% identified as Asian American, and 0.4% (one individual) identified as other.

The ages of participants ranged from 18 to around 60. Over half the individuals in the study indicated that they were between the ages of 18 to 24 (67.2%); however, the overrepresentation of young adults is due to the inclusion of the student sample. Likewise, when looking at the time individuals have spent mentoring their protégés and the time individuals have spent in their organizations, larger proportions of individuals make up the lower ends of the spectrum. For example, 74.6% of the sample indicated that they had been in their organizations for four years or less, and 62.1% of individuals indicated that they had been mentoring their protégés for one year or less.

Procedures

After factor analyses were completed in phase II, the items included in the finalized version of the scales were moved to two new data files in PASW Statistics 18 (SPSS) (a new data file was created for data in phase I and phase II of the study). The items were all labeled identically, and the two files were merged, creating a single data file which contained all 232 responses. Because participants in phase I were missing responses to questions asked only in phase II, this data was considered to be missing at random (MAR) and as such it was deemed appropriate to use a data imputation technique to estimate the missing values. When data are MAR, it is known that the data is missing for a knowable (and therefore predictable) reason (Schafer & Graham, 2002). In the case of the missing data in phase one of the study, it was known that the data was missing because questions were not made available to the participants. Questions were not included in the first phase, therefore the mechanism that caused the missingness was able to be known. The missingness did not occur because of an outside variable

that was not measured (e.g. SES). In that instance the data would be considered missing not at random, or MNAR (Schafer & Graham, 2002). Because enough questions were in common, however, the EM algorithm is able to examine the response patterns in the questions all respondents answered, and then estimate responses to the unanswered items. As Schafer and Graham (2002) state, “The key idea of EM is to solve a difficult incomplete-data estimation problem. Intuitively, we ‘fill in the missing data’ with a best guess at what it might be under the current estimates of the unknown parameters, then reestimate the parameters from the observed and filled in data” (p. 163). In other words, these responses are estimated so as to remain consistent with the identified response patterns as well as to similarly replicate the variance and covariance matrices that have already emerged.

To complete the single imputation, data were imported into LISREL and a single imputation was conducted using the PRELIS program. Results indicated that there were 14.53% missing values in the data. Expected scores for all missing values were calculated and used in all subsequent analyses.

Dependent Variable

Relational Maintenance. The Relational Maintenance Scale used in this investigation was a 20-item measure adapted from Lee and Jablin’s (1995) study on maintenance strategies in superior-subordinate relationships. Because of the power differential inherent in most mentoring relationships, utilizing some of the items from Lee and Jablin’s superior-subordinate scale is appropriate; however, other items were added to account for the deep interpersonal bonds that may form between mentor and protégé. Sample items from Lee and Jablin (1995) include, “I inquire about my protégé’s progress on organizational tasks,” “I am honest in everything I say to my protégé,” “I am typically polite when talking to my protégé,” and “I do not interrupt my protégé when he/she is engaged in conversations with others,” and sample added items include “I

give my protégé compliments often,” “I ask my protégé about his/her personal life,” and “I talk to my protégé about problems he/she is facing in the organization.” All items were measured on a 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree Likert scale.

Due to the fact that a previously validated scale was not used, a Principal Axis Factor Analysis was conducted on the 20 relational maintenance items with a promax rotation (oblique). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure, $KMO = .86$, was excellent (Field, 2009), meaning the sample size is appropriate for analysis. All KMO values for individual items were $> .66$, which is sufficiently high to retain all items for factor rotation. (It has been suggested that items with individual KMO values $< .50$ should be removed and initial analyses rerun before selecting the number of factors and choosing the method of rotation) (Field, 2009). Bartlett’s test of sphericity $\chi^2(190) = 900.45, p < .001$, indicated that the correlations were sufficient to continue analysis.

Initial analyses indicated that there were four eigenvalues over one, and these four items combined to explain 63.4% of the total variance. The scree plot was somewhat ambiguous (see Figure 5) in that the point of inflection could either have been at factor 2 or at factor 4. In an effort to best determine the number of factors to retain, two models were tested, one with 1 factor and one with 3 factors. The 3 factor model fit the data best, with the three factors being Supportiveness (e.g. “I encourage my protégé to come to with his/her thoughts and concerns about the organization” and “I express concern to my protégé about his/her welfare”), Polite Regard (e.g. “I am cheerful when talking with my protégé” and “I attempt to make interactions with my protégé enjoyable), and Creating Intimacy (e.g. “I give my protégé my opinion on things going on in his/her personal life” and “I ask my protégé about his/her personal life”). (See Tables 22 and 23 for Pattern and Structure Matrices.)

After examining the factor loadings, two items were removed from analysis. Both items were removed because of factor loadings $< .40$; however, “I make an effort to strike up

conversations with my protégé,” did have factor loadings close to .40 on two factors and thus could also have been excluded because of its cross-loadings.

After PAF, the relational maintenance instrument had 18 items which made up 3 factors. Cronbach’s alpha for the entire scale was $\alpha = .89$, with supportiveness having an $\alpha = .88$, polite regard having an $\alpha = .81$, and creating intimacy having an $\alpha = .74$.

Because relational maintenance was the dependent variable, subscale scores were created and then combined into a composite relational maintenance score.

Independent Variables

Mentor Investment. To measure Mentor Investment, composite scores from both subscales of the cost and benefits associated with mentoring scales were created. The benefits score was divided by the costs score to create a single figure that served as a representation of the mentor’s investment. Placing benefits over costs ensures that mentors who believe that their relationships have high benefits and low costs will have a high investment score, mentors who believe that their relationships have low benefits and high costs will have a low investment score, and those with similar cost and benefit figures will have an investment score somewhere near 1. This calculation of investment as a ratio of benefits over costs illuminates the Social Exchange basis upon which this study rests. Ultimately, people seek to maintain relationships in which their costs outweigh their benefits; thus, a mentor who is invested in his/her protégé would view the relationship as more beneficial than costly.

The Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale. The Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Scale is a 17-item instrument with subscales that measure the costs associated with mentor loss via fears and concerns about interacting with a protégé ($\alpha = .91$) and costs associated with loss of time ($\alpha = .92$). All items were measure on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

The Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale. The Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Scale is a 16-item instrument with subscales that measure benefits as an organizational member ($\alpha = .90$) and increased networks ($\alpha = .88$). All items were measure on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

Length of Mentoring Relationship. The length of the mentoring relationship was measured by asking respondents, “In years and months, how long have you been mentoring your protégé?” Scores were then converted to a continuous variable that measured the number of years the mentor and protégé had been involved in a relationship.

Demographic Variables

Several demographic variables were also measured: sex, organizational tenure at the time of the survey (again measured in years), age, race, and protégé sex.

Results

Test of Proposition Nine of Mentoring Enactment Theory

A linear regression was conducted to test proposition nine of Kalbfleisch’s (2002) Mentoring Enactment Theory. This proposition states that mentors will be more willing to use relational maintenance strategies to maintain (or grow) their relationships when they perceive those relationships to be more beneficial than costly. Thus this phase of the study used linear regression analyses to evaluate the relationship between Mentor Investment in the Relationship ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.51$, $r = .64$) and Relational Maintenance Strategies Utilized ($M = 5.54$, $SD = .81$, $r = .64$).

A scatterplot was created and revealed that the two variables were linearly related (see Figure 5) such that an increase in perception of investment lead to an increase in the average perception of maintenance strategy use. The regression equation for predicting maintenance strategies from investment is:

Average Maintenance Strategies Used = .35 Relationship Investment + 4.49

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, .29 to .40, does not contain the number 0, which indicates that investment in the mentoring relationship is significantly related to relational maintenance strategies at (at least) the .05 level.

The correlation between these variables was .64, and 41% of the variance in the number of maintenance strategies used can be accounted for by its relationship to the perception of investment.

In order to investigate how several other independent variables were related to the use of relational maintenance strategies in mentoring relationships, a multiple linear regression was conducted.

The addition of length of mentoring relationship, age, race, and organizational tenure did not result in any other significant predictors of relational maintenance strategies (see Table 27). Therefore, it is necessary for future researchers to evaluate what other factors contribute to the increased use of relational maintenance strategies by mentors in mentoring relationships.

Beyond the use of supplementary multiple regressions to see if any other measured variables accounted for additional variance, a series of exploratory regressions were conducted to see how the individual cost and benefit factors predicted overall maintenance strategies used and individual maintenance factors. The factor analyses conducted in all three phases of this study indicated that the costs measure was comprised of two factors (perception of fears and concerns about the mentoring relationship and time loss), the benefits measure was comprised of two factors (benefits to the organizational self and benefits associated with increased networks), and the relational maintenance measure was comprised of three factors (supportiveness, polite regard, and creating intimacy). Therefore, four additional regressions were run to see if/how each

of the individual cost and benefit factors were able to predict overall and individual relational maintenance factors.

Exploratory Analyses

Relational Maintenance (Overall). As the first regression discussed in this chapter indicates, the proposition made by Kalbfleisch (2002) is accurate when using data from student and adult mentors. To better understand which cost and benefit factors explain the most variance in the overall maintenance score, a backward elimination multiple regression analysis was conducted. The backward elimination process examines the squared multiple correlation of the outcome variable with all the predictors (Pedhazur, 1997). Each predictor is then separately examined as if it were the last item entered into the regression. Included items that would result in the lowest reduction of the squared multiple correlation are considered for elimination first. If the first item is chosen for deletion, all subsequent items will be reanalyzed to see if further eliminations are necessary (Pedhazur, 1997).

Results for the multiple regression examining mentor costs associated with fears and concerns ($M = 2.03$, $SD = .81$), time costs ($M = 2.29$, $SD = 1.08$), person in organization benefits ($M = 5.50$, $SD = .90$), and enhanced networks benefits' ($M = 5.15$, $SD = 1.00$) ability to predict relational maintenance strategies ($M = 5.54$, $SD = .81$) used indicated that all predictors were significant. The regression equation used to predict relational maintenance strategies from the individual cost and benefit items is:

Average Maintenance Strategies Used = $-.17$ Mentor Fear and Concern Costs + $-.11$ Time Costs + $.20$ Organizational Self Benefits + $.31$ Increased Network Benefits + 3.44 .

The multiple regression using all individual cost and benefit factors accounted for 56.5% of the variance in relational maintenance strategies used, and as such accounted for more variance than the investment model previously tested.

Supportiveness Strategies. The supportiveness factor of the relational maintenance scale is comprised of items that measure maintenance strategies used to support the protégés advancement within the organization. These items include talking about organizational concerns, discussing progress on organizational tasks, expressing concern about the protégé's welfare, and talking about problems the protégé is facing. To examine the same four cost and benefit factors' ability to predict supportive relational maintenance strategies, another backward elimination multiple regression was conducted. Results indicated that both cost and both benefit factors were significant predictors of the supportiveness maintenance category and resulted in the following regression equation

$$\text{Supportive Maintenance Strategies Used} = -.18 \text{ Mentor Fear and Concern Costs} + -.11 \text{ Time Costs} + .36 \text{ Organizational Self Benefits} + .16 \text{ Increased Network Benefits} + 3.57.$$

Overall, the variables explain 55.4 % of the variability in the use of supportive maintenance strategies, and it is again clear that higher perceptions of costs associated with becoming a mentor predict the use of fewer strategies.

Polite Regard Strategies. The polite regard strategy includes items that measure how often a mentor uses maintenance strategies directed at making the interaction between the mentor and the protégé more pleasant. Another backward elimination multiple regression was used to assess the ability of the protégé abuse cost, the loss of time cost, the organizational self benefit, and the enhanced network benefit to predict the use of the polite regard strategy. The following regression equation explains the relationships

$$\text{Polite Regard Strategies} = -.21 \text{ Mentor Fear and Concern Costs} + .35 \text{ Organizational Self Benefits} + .24 \text{ Increased Network Benefits} + 3.08.$$

These strategies explain 59% of the variability in the polite regard strategy. The costs associated with time loss are not a significant predictor of the use of polite regard. Thus the amount of time a protégé requires is not related to a mentor's willingness to be polite to his/her protégé.

Creating Intimacy Strategies. Creating intimacy is the relational maintenance factor that addresses the fact that the advice and support that a mentor gives a protégé can sometimes extend beyond the bounds of the mentoring relationship. Thus, as mentors enact strategies designed to create intimacy, the relationship between mentor and protégé has most likely grown beyond just a superior-subordinate relationship, and has developed into a friendship. Therefore, the items within the creating intimacy factor measure the mentor's willingness to provide advice on non-work issues, to talk to the protégé like a good friend, and to ask the protégé about his/her personal life.

An additional backward elimination multiple regression was conducted to see how the two cost and two benefit items were able to predict the creation of intimacy factor. The regression analysis revealed the following equation

$$\textit{Creation of Intimacy} = .58 \textit{ Increased Networks} + 2.12$$

The perception of benefits associated with the increase in networks was the only significant predictor of the creation of intimacy relational maintenance strategy. This single factor explained 23% of the variability in the creation of intimacy factor.

In all, the series of multiple regressions run have shown how individual cost and benefits factors either aid or do not aid in the prediction of overall relational maintenance strategies used, as well as individual relational maintenance strategy factors.

The following chapter will discuss the results from all three phases of the investigation; offer some theoretical contributions, limitations, and theoretical and practical implications and finally offer some concluding remarks.

CHAPTER SIX

Discussion

This section will overview of the findings that have already been detailed in the three previous chapters, present some theoretical contributions of the study, identify some limitations, and provide both theoretical and practical implications of this investigation.

Overview of Findings

The findings from this study of the costs and benefits of mentoring and the relational strategies mentors use to maintain their mentor-protégé relationships detail the creation of two scales, the testing of a proposition in Kalbfleisch's (2002) Mentoring Enactment Theory (MET), and the examination of the relationship between perceived costs and benefits and individual relational maintenance strategies.

In the first phase of the study, an extensive literature review was conducted to highlight the mentor's perspective on the costs and benefits of mentoring. Using the information obtained through the literature review, items were generated for a cost and a benefit scale; both scales situated mentor perceptions within a specific relationship (i.e., mentors were asked to think about a specific mentoring relationship when answering all survey questions).

Factor analysis conducted during the first phase of the investigation indicated that the cost construct was composed of two factors, one that identified the fears and concerns mentors have about entering into the relationship and one that identified costs associated with the time it takes to mentor. This finding runs contrary to the speculation that a three-factor model would emerge (i.e., a model with costs to the mentor's career, psychosocial costs, and time costs).

The findings in this study support Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997), whose results outlined four dimensions of negative consequences of mentoring: time requirements, favoritism

to protégé, protégé abused relationship, and feelings of failure. The findings in this study indicate that protégé abused relationship, (e.g., “My protégé takes too much and gives too little”), and feelings of failure (e.g., “Training my protégé makes me feel that I lack skills as a mentor”) all become part of the fear and concerns factor while time became part of a second factor. The question concerning favoritism toward protégé, (i.e., “My other relationships in the organization suffer because people believe I give an unfair advantage to my protégé”) was removed because it loaded on both factors. While similar dimensions are seen in both studies, the fact that fears and concerns did not break into the two previously outlined factors is not problematic as this study was a quantitative exploration and Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) used qualitative interviewing to reach their findings. In their results, there were only two instances each where participants spoke of abused relationship costs, feeling of failure costs, and favoritism costs. When speaking of time costs, however, participants made 15 comments (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). Noting that in the previously conducted qualitative study mentors were more likely to cite concerns with time than any other concerns about mentoring, and that this study found low means for all cost items may indicate that individuals in this study seldom experience the costs associated with being a mentor; therefore items that are explained as fears and concerns mentors have about their careers and psyches might factor together because individuals are just more apt to not see those as salient costs as compared to the costs associated with time.

As it concerns the benefits associated with mentoring, the first phase of this study did not see a discernable pattern of benefits emerge. The problem noticed when factoring these items was most likely due to the fact that the mentors surveyed were college students. The experiences of college students involved in sports, clubs, fraternal organizations, and for-pay employment most likely reflect some benefits that are different than those experienced by mentors in organizations. In all these situations, it is likely that college students might view their participation as

temporary, thus expecting that the benefit items would emerge in a four-factor configuration based on objective and subjective benefits for both the mentor and the organization is probably too complex a solution for this sample. Because of the problems finding an adequate factor structure, the literature was revisited and the benefit scale revised before it was sent out to the adult sample.

In the second phase of this study, the two-factor models of costs and benefits were confirmed. The two-factor model of the perceived costs associated with mentoring was consistent with the model obtained in the first phase so factor congruence was found. The two-factor model of benefits that emerged suggested that one factor illuminated the benefits that mentors receive in their organizational role, and the other factor illuminated the benefits that mentor receive due to increased networks. The first factor of job-related benefits is similar to the findings in Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs' (1997) study. They found that the job-related benefits were broken into self-focused and other-focused benefits, yet in this study no differentiation between the two types of job-related benefits was found. Research also tends to support the finding that mentors perceive increased network access as a benefit; Eby and Lockwood (2005) have noted that mentors value learning and highlight the sense of personal worth that mentors feel as they work with their protégés and develop new friendships and understandings in the process.

The final phase of this study tested and found support for the ninth proposition in Kalbfleisch's (2002) Mentoring Enactment Theory. Higher perceptions of relationship investment (operationalized as perception of benefits over perception of costs) predicted higher use of relational maintenance strategies. When demographic factors were added to the multiple regression (e.g., age, race, and organizational tenure) none of these factors significantly added to the prediction of maintenance strategies. Therefore, further research must investigate other

factors that might lead to the use of maintenance behaviors by mentors in mentor-protégé relationships.

Exploratory tests conducted in the third phase of the study showed that maintenance strategies (in general) could be predicted from the cost and benefit measures such that fewer fears and concerns about the relationship, fewer perceptions of time costs, more perceptions of job-related benefits and more perceptions of network benefits predicted higher maintenance usage.

When examining how the cost and benefit factors predict the use of supportive maintenance strategies, a lower perception of fear and concerns, a lower perception of time costs, a higher perception of job-related benefits, and a higher perception of network benefits again predicted the use of supportive maintenance strategies.

Both the overall maintenance predicted from the cost and benefit factors and the supportive maintenance usage as predicted from the cost and benefit factors resulted in findings consistent with Kalbfleisch's (2002) theory. In fact, when looking at just the cost and benefit factors' ability to predict overall maintenance strategies, both items are able to explain more of the variability in maintenance strategy use than the composite investment score, indicating that the use of maintenance strategies may have less to do with a perception of investment and more to do with the unique contributions that the cost and benefits factors provide.

When predicting the use of polite regard strategies, the costs associated with time are no longer found to be a predictor of maintenance usage. Polite regard questions include "I am cheerful when talking with my protégé" and "I do not interrupt when my protégé is engaged in conversation." Thus, these findings indicate that the perception of costs associated with loss of time due to mentoring are not able to predict the use of those strategies that suggest individuals tend to be polite to the people they work with. This finding may simply show that individuals

tend to be polite in organizational settings regardless of the time costs associated with asking an individual how his/her day is going. While fears and concerns about how the protégé might harm the mentor's reputation do appear to lead to lower polite-regard strategy usage, (i.e. mentors might not want to talk with a person whom they feel is a threat to their career), time may not seem to have a relationship because a perception of time costs is not enough to keep individuals from being polite to their protégés.

Last, the use of creating intimacy maintenance strategies was only predicted by the increased networks benefit. The increases in networks benefit contains items such as, "I am better able to work with others because I am a mentor," "My protégé and I have become good friends," and "My protégé has introduced me to a new network of friends." In essence, the subscale details the ways that mentors grow their organizational and personal relationships because of the relationships with their protégés. In order for a mentor and protégé to develop a "good friendship" where the protégé feels comfortable introducing the mentor to other friends, the mentor (and protégé) must utilize maintenance strategies that aim to increase the closeness between the pair. Thus it is expected that mentors would be more likely to ask their protégés about their personal lives and talk to their protégés like they are good friends (both indicators of the creating intimacy factor) when the mentor perceives that gaining a strong friendship with the protégé and adding to one's personal network is a benefit of being a mentor.

Theoretical Contributions

This study offers several contributions to current theory. First, this study demonstrated that proposition nine in Kalbfleisch's (2002) MET is supported. When looking at mentors' use of relational maintenance strategies, this study demonstrates that it can be expected that mentors will use of more maintenance strategies when they perceive a higher investment in the relationship. Supporting this and other propositions in Kalbfleisch's theory is important because while

communication scholars have certainly contributed to the body of mentoring research, MET is specifically a communicative theory. Furthering MET elucidates and validates the important role that communication plays in the creation of relationships between mentors and protégés, and solidifies the importance of communicative research in this area of organizational studies.

This study also contributes to the growing body of relational mentoring literature as two scales were created that measure the costs and benefits of mentoring in specific relational contexts. These scales can be used by other researchers to reexamine past findings and see if they still hold true when mentors (or protégés) are asked to focus on a specific relationship rather than a compilation of all their mentoring experiences. Furthermore, these scales can be used when testing other tenets of relational theory (e.g., whether power operates differently viewed as operating between mentor and protégé rather than over a protégé).

Understanding how mentors and protégés feel about mentor-protégé relationships, in general, does provide researchers with valuable information; however, understanding and exploring this relationship in the context of one specific series of interactions allows researchers to challenge their previous thinking and expand upon the theories created to explain this phenomenon. This investigation forwards the use of the relational perspective, and future research needs to seriously consider adopting this point of view as it allows for a more nuanced understanding of mentoring relationships.

The final theoretical contribution in this study is the suggestion that individual cost and benefits factors provide a unique way of understanding the combined and unique maintenance strategies that mentors use to maintain their relationships. These findings suggest that some costs and some benefits have more (or less) of an effect on mentors' willingness to engage in particular maintenance strategies than others. Further investigations should work to highlight the costs and benefits that detract from and lead to the use of maintenance behaviors as programs

could then be designed to educate potential mentors about the pros and cons of mentoring that might allow for more the development of relationships that can benefit both the mentor and protégé and the organization(s).

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

While this study makes several contributions to theory, it is not without its limitations. First, investment was measured as perceptions of benefits over perceptions of costs, and the items that comprised the cost and benefit scales came from extant literature. The past studies examined highlight qualitative investigations of mentor perceptions of benefits (primarily) and costs, yet there may be other costs and benefits of mentoring that are salient to today's workers. Future research should continue to use qualitative methodologies in talk with mentors about the things that propel them to exit existing relationships, enter into new relationships, or make them hesitant to agree to start a new relationship.

Furthermore, in this study a more nuanced measure of maintenance strategies could have been employed. Kalbfleisch's (2002) theory contains suggestions about both the routine and strategic communication that individuals use to maintain their mentor-protégé relationships. While the testing of proposition nine was not hindered by using a routine measure (the proposition did not label strategic communication as important), including measures of strategic maintenance behaviors would have allowed for a deeper examination of how specific maintenance behaviors can be predicted from cost and benefit factors in situations where the relationship seems to be intensifying or decelerating too quickly.

Another limitation concerns the fact that individuals were asked to describe important mentor-protégé interactions, but no measure was included that could test whether or not individuals felt that they had a high-quality mentoring relationship. The relationships that MET speculates about are those that are high-quality in nature (i.e., neither the mentor nor the protégé

can be replaced without significantly altering the relationship). Future research should aim to include measures of perception of relationship quality that allow researchers to see how important the role of relationship quality is in predicting maintenance strategies from perceptions of costs and benefits.

Likewise, the data collection in this investigation could have been enhanced by asking mentors whether or not the mentoring relationships they reported on were organizationally sanctioned or not. Knowing how a mentoring relationship was formed might be another covariate that helps to explain some of the variability in mentor investments ability to predict relational maintenance usage.

A final limitation stems from the cross-sectional nature of the data obtained in this study. While demographically different groups of individuals were chosen and surveyed at different times, each group was still providing their input only once. Therefore, this study cannot present how perceptions of costs and benefits change over time; rather this data is only able to show the perceptions of two groups of individuals at two distinct periods of time.

Implications

While this study has limitations, the findings do affirm that there is value in studying mentoring interactions from a relational perspective. While adopting a relational lens might not allow researchers to test for longitudinal changes in perception of career success, income, and promotability (the probability that an individual would only work with one protégé for an extended period of time is unlikely), adopting this frame does provide researchers access to examining how communication strategies can be used to enhance the mentoring relationship. These findings support the growth of a relational theory of mentoring as the focus of this investigation was the mentor in relation to a specific protégé. As relational mentoring theorists suggest, it is not enough to just look at the tangible outcomes that a mentor (or protégé) feels that

he/she might receive by agreeing to enter into a relationship (Ragins & Verbos, 2005). To really understand how and why individuals decide to begin, continue, and fix relationships, those specific relationships need to be highlighted and studied.

The apparent value in the relational perspective also implies that researchers might find fruitful results by studying the development of mentoring relationships dyadically. Because the relational perspective is concerned with the interdependence that mentors and protégés might develop as their relationship grows from being solely developmental to a strong interpersonal friendship, studying both the mentor and the protégé might lead to interesting findings. Dyadic research can help indicate how mentor perceptions can affect protégé outcomes and vice versa. Thus obtaining information about perceptions of the relationship and perceptions of maintenance communication from both partners can illuminate how mentor perceptions of protégé behaviors and protégé perceptions of mentor behavior might explain mentor and protégé maintenance usage, mentor and protégé relationship satisfaction, likelihood to mentor, and even mentor and protégé career outcomes.

This research also has implications for individuals working in organizations. First, this study supports the relational mentoring belief that mentors do not give everything and get nothing when interacting with a protégé. Examining the mean scores, one sees that mentors agree with the benefit statements far more often than they agree with the cost statements. Thus, in organizations it is important to talk about the benefits that individuals accrue when entering into a developmental relationship with a protégé. Past research has shown that mentors perceive fewer costs and more benefits when they have mentored in the past, (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Therefore their results, coupled with the findings in this study, suggest that educating potential mentors about the benefits of mentoring might make more individuals feel willing and able to serve as a mentor to another.

The findings in this study can also benefit practitioners because they highlight ways that management can help facilitate mentoring relationships. Knowing some of the costs that mentors may perceive when entering into a developmental relationship can allow management to work with employees to ease some of those concerns. For instance, the means associated with time costs in the second phase of the study (where organizational members were surveyed) were visibly larger than those in the first phase of the study (where college students were surveyed) and larger than the means of the fear and concern items. While no statistical tests were conducted to look at mean differences, the slightly higher perception of time costs seems to indicate that organizational members have concern about the time it takes to mentor. Organizations could use these findings to help design mentoring programs that highlight some of the noted benefits and create conditions that can alleviate some of the perceived costs, specifically the time costs.

Conclusion

This study highlighted the mentor's perspective in assessing the costs and benefits associated with being a mentor. By adopting a relational approach to mentoring, it was possible to test a proposition in a communicative theory of mentoring enactment. This test was possible because of the development of two measures of mentor costs and benefits that require the respondent be situated in a relational context. Though this study, Kalbfleisch's proposition concerning mentor use of maintenance strategy and perception of investment was supported. These findings suggest several implications that can assist communication scholars as they study the interactions of mentors and protégés and can help practitioners (and mentors) as they strive to develop and maintain strong mentoring relationships.

Appendix A: Consent Documents

Phase One Student Sample Consent Form

The Department of Communication Studies at the University of Kansas supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

We are conducting this study to better understand how mentors perceive the costs and benefits associated with entering a mentoring relationship, as well as the maintenance strategies a mentor uses to maintain that relationship. This will entail your completion of a questionnaire. The questionnaire packet is expected to take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

The content of the questionnaires should cause no more discomfort than you would experience in your everyday life. Although participation may not benefit you directly, we believe that the information obtained from this study will help us gain a better understanding of how mentors feel about interacting with a protégé. Your participation is solicited, although strictly voluntary. Your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. It is possible, however, with Internet communications, that through intent or accident someone other than the intended recipient may see your response.

If you would like additional information concerning this study before or after it is completed, please feel free to contact us by phone or mail.

Completion of the survey indicates your willingness to participate in this project and that you are at least age eighteen. If you have any additional questions about your rights as a research participant, you may call (785) 864-7429, write the Human Subjects Committee Lawrence Campus (HSCL), University of Kansas, 2385 Irving Hill Road, Lawrence, Kansas 66045-7563, or email mdenning@ku.edu.

Sincerely,

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Phase Two Adult Sample Consent Form

The Department of Communication Studies at the University of Kansas supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

We are conducting this study to better understand how mentors perceive the costs and benefits associated with entering a mentoring relationship, as well as the maintenance strategies a mentor uses to maintain that relationship. This will entail your completion of a questionnaire. The questionnaire packet is expected to take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

The content of the questionnaires should cause no more discomfort than you would experience in your everyday life. Although participation may not benefit you directly, we believe that the information obtained from this study will help us gain a better understanding of how mentors feel about interacting with a protégé. Your participation is solicited, although strictly voluntary. Your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. It is possible, however, with Internet communications, that through intent or accident someone other than the intended recipient may see your response.

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Appendix B: Tables

Table 1

Review of Literature Associated with the Costs and Benefits of Mentoring for Mentors

Author/ Journal/ Year	Sample	Identified Costs to Mentor	Identified Benefits for Mentor	Method	Key Findings
Allen, Lentz, & Day/ J of Career Development/ 2006	N = 164 health care employees	None	Objective (salary, promotability) and subjective (reports of global success) career successes	Survey	Mentors may receive objective rewards because of perception that they are good organizational citizens.
Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs/ J of Vocational Behavior/ 1997	N = 27	Mentoring takes time. Others can perceive you as favoring your protégé. Protégés can abuse the relationship. Mentor can feel like a failure if protégé does not succeed.	Builds close relationships and friendships, offers potential safeguards in the future, loyalty from another, self- satisfaction associated with seeing another grow, and in the ability to help others. Protégés help mentors do their jobs. Mentors learn more about the organization and their jobs. Mentor looks good when protégé succeeds. Leads to organizational advancement. Knowledge is being passed on. This helps to build a competent organization.	In-depth interviews	When speaking to mentors, there were more benefits than costs associated with being a mentor. Those benefits include building support networks, job- related rewards, and self- satisfaction.
Allen, Poteet, Russell, & Dobbins/ J of Vocational Behavior/ 1997	N=607 front line supervisors in state government	None	None	Survey	Willingness to mentor related to past mentor and protégé experience; Barriers to mentoring perceived same by men and women
Bozionelos/ J of Vocational Behavior/ 2004	N=176 administrators	None	Objective (# of promotions, pay, tenure) and subjective career success	Survey	Mentoring has positive career benefits for the mentor

Author/ Journal/ Year	Sample	Identified Costs to Mentor	Identified Benefits for Mentor	Method	Key Findings
Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins/ J of Vocational Behavior/ 2006	N = 218 employees from one of two large state universities who had indicated that they had served as a mentor to another.	Used Ragins and Scandura's Expected Costs and Benefits scale formatted to reflect last significant mentoring interaction	Used Ragins and Scandura's Expected Costs and Benefits scale formatted to reflect last significant mentoring interaction.	Survey	There are differences between short-term instrumental and short-term relational benefits as well as long- term mentor outcomes
Eby & Lockwood/ Journal of Vocational Behavior/ 2004	N = 24 mentors and N = 39 protégés from two different organizations with formal mentoring programs.	Mentor-protégé mismatch, scheduling difficulties, geographic differences, feelings of personal inadequacy as a mentor, less- intense relationship,	Learning about the business and work related problems, new perspective on the organization, appreciation of others, developing a personal relationship, personal gratification, enhanced managerial skills, self-reflection.	Interviews	A qualitative approach allowed for investigation into new costs and benefits for both mentors and protégés. This recent research did not find mentor manipulation or mentor ineptness
Fagenson- Eland, Marks, & Amendola/ J of Vocational Behavior/ 1997	Mentors: N = 24	None	None	Survey	Communication Frequency doesn't influence number of mentoring functions used.
Kalbfleisch/ Aggressive Behavior/ 1997	N=163	Implied cost in cross-sex relationships is appearance of an affair.	None	Survey	Only 4 of 163 participants reported having sex with their mentor.
Kalbfleisch/ Communicatio n Theory/ 2002	None	Loss of time due to coaching less specialized when knowledge is shared with another, potential problems with personal life due to relationship. Large Personal Commitment.	None	Propositional piece, costs and benefits are identified, but not tested.	Theory of Mentoring Enactment.

Author/ Journal/ Year	Sample	Identified Costs to Mentor	Identified Benefits for Mentor	Method	Key Findings
McKenna/ Mentoring International/ 1990	N=37 Teachers	Loss of time	See protégés grow in profession; see protégés become more independent; see protégés accept more opportunities; establish a trusted relationship; pride in passing info on; personal growth in profession; help organization; sense of challenge, rejuvenation, and reinforcement of professional identity; opportunity to display own talents; more awareness of communicating in a professional manner; analyze own work more; receive new ideas; increase ability to help others; increased belief in ability to help others; sense of honor and pride;	Literature Review, Scale Creation, Validation from professionals, survey, interviews	There are many benefits that mentors (in educational settings) report, therefore there is much to be gained by agreeing to mentor another.
Myers & Humphreys/ Business Horizons/ 2001	None	Perception of selection biases, nepotism, and discrimination; Process problems such as incompatible personalities, abuse of protégé, an ill-suited mentor; sexual harassment between mixed dyads;	Develop leadership skills/ability	Propositional Piece	There are many problems that can be associated with entering into a mentoring relationship. These costs exist for both the mentor and the protégé.
Olian, Carroll & Giannantonio/ Academy of Management Proceedings/ 1988	N=145 banking managers	None	Increased power, personal control, personal gratification, recognition, and promotion	Survey	Mentors more willing to mentor when they have in the past, protégés working with a mentor feel less inclined to mentor

Author/ Journal/ Year	Sample	Identified Costs to Mentor	Identified Benefits for Mentor	Method	Key Findings
Ragins & Scandura/ J of Organizational Behavior/ 1999	N = 275 executives	Mentoring is more trouble than it is worth, mentor and protégé can have a dysfunctional relationship, perception of nepotism, protégé can reflect poorly on mentor, and energy drain	Mentoring is a rewarding experience, improved mentor job performance, mentor gained loyal base of support, mentor gained recognition by others, mentor able to pass info/skills on to others	Literature Review and Survey	Individuals who have served as mentors report perception of fewer costs and more benefits of mentoring than do non-mentors. Those who have been protégés are in the middle.
Wanberg, Welsch, Hezlett/ Research in Personnel and HR Management/ 2003	Literature Review	Cited research included in this table	Cited research included in this table		Mentoring research has shown many costs and benefits with mentoring, research needs to continue examining mentoring relationships to enhance what we know.
Zey/ Personnel Journal/ 1984	N = 100+ executives		Career enhancement, intelligence/informa tion, advisory role, and psychic rewards	Interviews	

Table 2

Costs of Being a Mentor Survey – Original Format

A mentor is a person in an organization who is knowledgeable about the organization and typically has more experience and a better title than the person they are mentoring (the protégé). Mentors provide their protégés with different forms of support, but generally it is believed that the mentor guides the protégé in an effort to further the protégé's career or to help the protégé make a smooth transition into the organization or workplace. You could be a mentor at school, at work, or even in a group or club. No matter the context, you are considered a mentor when you help a new member or new employee start their job. When answering the following questions, please keep in mind the protégé with whom you have had the MOST experiences. Please attempt to answer the questions considering all interactions between you and your protégé rather than focusing on a few specific interactions. All questions will be answered on a one to seven scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, and 7 = strongly agree.

Career Costs

1. I feel like my protégé is using me.^a
2. I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.^a
3. My protégé takes too much and gives too little.^a
4. I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.^a
5. I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.^a
6. I run the risk of being perceived as incompetent if my protégé doesn't perform well.^{ab}
7. My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.
8. Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.^a
9. My other relationships in the organization suffer because people believe I give an unfair advantage to my protégé.^a
10. Other members of my organization could dislike me because of my protégé.^b

Psychosocial Costs

11. I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.^{ab}
12. Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.^a
13. Mentoring my protégé has made me feel like I am a subpar employee or member of my organization.^b
14. Sharing my knowledge with my protégé makes me feel like I am replaceable in my organization.^a
15. When my protégé doesn't succeed, I blame it on myself.^b
16. I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.
17. I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.
18. I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills as a mentor.

Time Costs

19. I don't want to deal with my protégés problems.

20. I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.^a
 21. I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.^a
 22. Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.^a
 23. I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.^a
 24. My protégé takes too much of my time.^a
 25. Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.^a
 26. Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.^a
-

^a Scale items were adapted from Ragins and Scandura (1999)

^b Scale items deleted during phase one of the study

Table 3

Origin of Original Cost Items

Career Costs	
I feel like my protégé is using me.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
I run the risk of being perceived as incompetent if my protégé doesn't perform well.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.	Implied as a possible cost in McKeen and Bujaki (2007)
Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
My other relationships in the organization suffer because people believe I give an unfair advantage to my protégé.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
Other members of my organization could dislike me because of my protégé.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
Psychosocial Costs	
I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); McKenna (1990)
Mentoring my protégé has made me feel like I am a subpar employee or member of my organization.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
Sharing my knowledge with my protégé makes me feel like I am replaceable in my organization.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
When my protégé doesn't succeed, I blame it on myself.	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.	Eby and Lockwood (2005)
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills as a mentor.	Eby and Lockwood (2005)

Time Costs

I don't want to deal with my protégés problems.	McKenna (1990)
I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Eby and Lockwood (2005); Mullen (1994)
I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	Ragins and Scandura (1999)
I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Eby and Lockwood (2005); Mullen (1994)
My protégé takes too much of my time.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Eby and Lockwood (2005); Mullen (1994)
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); Eby and Lockwood (2005)
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.	Ragins and Scandura (1999); Eby and Lockwood (2005)

Table 4

Benefits of Being a Mentor Survey – Original Format

Remember your protégé is the person who you helped in your organization or job. When the question refers to "professional" consider how helping others helps your goals and position in your organization. For example, professional advancement in a club might mean helping you become an officer or do your job more effectively. Again, all questions will be answered on a one to seven scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, and 7 = strongly agree.

Subjective Personal Benefits (Benefits that enhance the mentor's perception of self worth)

1. I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.^b
2. I feel a sense of pride in passing my knowledge on to the next generation in my organization.^a
3. I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.
4. Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.^b
5. I feel more important because of my protégé.^{be}
6. Being a mentor satisfies my need for authority.^{be}
7. Being a mentor meets my need to be needed.^{be}
8. Being a mentor is an ego booster.^{be}
9. My protégé provides me with affirmation and support.^{ad}

Subjective Career Benefits (Benefits that enhance the mentor's organizational self)

10. Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my professional identity.^b
11. Mentoring makes me more aware of the importance of communicating in a professional manner.^b
12. By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization.
13. Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.
14. Mentoring my protégé rejuvenates me professionally.^d
15. Being a mentor keeps me on the cutting edge in my own field.^{be}
16. I feel like my protégé's successes are my accomplishments as well.^e
17. My protégé makes me look more competent.^e
18. Mentoring my protégé challenges me professionally.^{bc}
19. Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my own talents.^b

Objective Personal Benefits (Benefits that tangibly help the mentor)

20. I have gained recognition and status from others for effective mentoring.^d
21. Mentoring my protégé helps my own career development.^{abe}
22. My protégé helps me implement new technology.^e
23. I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.^a

- 24. Being a mentor sharpens my ability to effectively help others.^b
- 25. Mentoring my protégé increases my contact with other organizational members.^c
- 26. Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.^b
- 27. I have reaffirmed perception that I could work with other people through mentoring.^b

Objective Organizational Benefits (Benefits that tangibly help the organization)

- 28. Being a mentor causes me to analyze the way in which I work.^{ab}
 - 29. I felt mentoring would help my organization in the long run.^b
 - 30. Being a mentor prompts me to experiment with new ideas/techniques at work.^{abd}
 - 31. My protégé's success ensures a future for our organization.
-

^a Scale items were adapted from Ragins and Scandura (1999)

^b Scale items were adapted from McKenna (1990)

^c Scale items deleted because of low factor loading

^d Scale items deleted because of cross-loadings

^e Scale items deleted

Table 5

Origin of Original Benefit Items

Subjective Personal Benefits	
I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
I feel a sense of pride in passing my knowledge on to the next generation in my organization.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Ragins and Scandura (1999); Zey (1984); Newby and Heide (1992); Klauss (1981)
I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Newby and Heide (1992)
Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.	Newby and Heide (1992)
I feel more important because of my protégé.	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Newby and Heide (1992)
Being a mentor satisfies my need for authority.	McKenna (1990)
Being a mentor meets my need to be needed.	McKenna (1990)
Being a mentor is an ego booster.	McKenna (1990)
My protégé provides me with affirmation and support.	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Ragins and Scandura (1999)
Subjective Career Benefits	
Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my professional identity.	McKenna (1990)
Mentoring makes me more aware of the importance of communicating in a professional manner.	McKenna (1990)
By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Ragins and Scandura (1999)
Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	McKenna (1990)
Mentoring my protégé rejuvenates me professionally.	McKenna (1990)
Being a mentor keeps me on the cutting edge in my own field	McKenna (1990); ; Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
I feel like my protégé's successes are my accomplishments as well.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)

My protégé makes me look more competent.	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Newby and Heide (1992)
Mentoring my protégé challenges me professionally.	McKenna (1990)
Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my own talents.	McKenna (1990)

Objective Personal Benefits

I have gained recognition and status from others for effective mentoring.	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Zey (1984)
Mentoring my protégé helps my own career development.	Bozionelos (2004); Allen, Lentz, and Day (2006); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Mullen (1994)
My protégé helps me implement new technology.	McKenna (1990); Noe (1988)
I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.	Smith (1990); Ragins and Scandura (1999)
Being a mentor sharpens my ability to effectively help others.	McKenna (1990); Smith (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
Mentoring my protégé increases my contact with other organizational members.	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997); Eby and Lockwood (2005)
Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.	McKenna (1990)
I have reaffirmed perception that I could work with other people through mentoring.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)

Organizational Benefits

Being a mentor causes me to analyze the way in which I work.	McKenna (1990); Ragins and Scandura (1999)
I felt mentoring would help my organization in the long run.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)
Being a mentor prompts me to experiment with new ideas/techniques at work.	McKenna (1990); Ragins and Scandura (1999)
My protégé's success ensures a future for our organization.	McKenna (1990); Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for Costs of Being a Mentor (Phase 1)

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
C1	I feel like my protégé is using me.	1.84	1.16
C2	I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	1.99	1.22
C3	I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.	2.09	1.24
C4	My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	2.25	1.35
C5	I don't want to deal with my protégés problems.	2.51	1.46
C6	Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	2.40	1.38
C7	Mentoring my protégé has made me feel like I am a subpar employee or member of my organization.	2.96	1.88
C8	Sharing my knowledge with my protégé makes me feel like I am replaceable in my organization.	2.66	1.62
C9	When my protégé doesn't succeed, I blame it on myself.	3.69	1.60
C10	I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	1.97	1.22
C11	I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	2.11	1.27
C12	I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.	2.19	1.35
C13	I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills as a mentor.	2.30	1.37
C14	I run the risk of being perceived as incompetent if my protégé doesn't perform well.	3.34	1.75
C15	I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	2.28	1.36
C16	I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	2.55	1.45
C17	Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	2.56	1.47
C18	I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	2.34	1.37
C19	My protégé takes too much of my time.	2.19	1.16
C20	I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	2.24	1.39
C21	My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.	1.57	1.14
C22	Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.	2.38	1.32
C23	My other relationships in the organization suffer because people believe I give an unfair advantage to my protégé.	2.20	1.28
C24	Other members of my organization could dislike me because of my protégé.	2.46	1.43
C25	Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.	2.33	1.36
C26	Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.	2.31	1.37

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for Benefits of Being a Mentor (Phase I)

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
B1	I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.	5.67	1.21
B2	I feel a sense of pride in passing my knowledge on to the next generation in my organization.	5.78	1.09
B3	Mentoring makes me more aware of the importance of communicating in a professional manner.	5.59	1.17
B4	By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization.	5.79	1.06
B5	I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.	5.79	1.03
B6	Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.	5.48	1.13
B7	Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my own talents.	5.65	1.11
B8	Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.	5.59	1.07
B9	I feel more important because of my protégé.	5.34	1.24
B10	Being a mentor satisfies my need for authority.	5.00	1.31
B11	Being a mentor meets my need to be needed.	5.11	1.31
B12	Being a mentor is an ego booster.	5.26	1.27
B13	My protégé provides me with affirmation and support.	5.37	1.25
B14	Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my professional identity.	5.37	1.21
B15	Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	5.74	1.06
B16	Mentoring my protégé helps my own career development.	5.55	1.16
B17	Mentoring my protégé rejuvenates me professionally.	5.42	1.13
B18	I have gained recognition and status from others for effective mentoring.	5.34	1.13
B19	My protégé helps me implement new technology.	4.38	1.45
B20	Being a mentor keeps me on the cutting edge in my own field.	5.33	1.22
B21	I feel like my protégé's successes are my accomplishments as well.	5.50	.96
B22	My protégé makes me look more competent.	5.22	1.20
B23	Mentoring my protégé challenges me professionally.	5.38	1.26
B24	I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.	5.55	1.12
B25	Being a mentor causes me to analyze the way in which I work.	5.62	1.11
B26	I felt mentoring would help my organization in the long run.	5.78	1.03
B27	Being a mentor prompts me to experiment with new ideas/techniques at work.	5.34	1.26
B28	My protégé's success ensures a future for our organization.	5.52	1.21
B29	Being a mentor sharpens my ability to effectively help others.	5.79	1.03
B30	Mentoring my protégé increases my contact with other organizational members.	5.42	1.27
B31	I have reaffirmed perception that I could work with other people through mentoring.	5.53	1.09

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for Relational Maintenance Item-Pool (Phase 1)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I inquire about my protégé's progress on organizational tasks.	5.56	1.1
I tell my protégé that I am always available to talk.	5.77	1.19
I try to discuss my ideas with my protégé.	5.59	1.14
I express concern to my protégé about his/her welfare.	5.20	1.39
I talk to my protégé about problems he/she is facing in the organization.	5.71	1.08
I give my protégé my opinion on things going on in his/her personal life.	4.89	1.49
I am honest in everything I say to my protégé.	5.58	1.18
I attempt to make the interactions with my protégé enjoyable.	5.92	1.05
I give my protégé compliments often.	5.70	1.03
I ask my protégé how his/her day is going.	5.90	1.13
I am typically polite when talking to my protégé.	5.89	1.10
I am cheerful when talking with my protégé.	5.91	.99
I am optimistic when speaking with my protégé about his/her development with the organization.	5.82	1.04
I do not interrupt my protégé when he/she is engaged in conversations with others.	5.61	1.12
I talk with my protégé like I would talk to a good friend.	5.66	1.26
I ask my protégé about his/her personal life.	5.13	1.40
I express my willingness to help my protégé out.	5.93	1.05
I make an effort to strike up conversations with my protégé.	5.87	1.05
I encourage my protégé to come to me with his/her thoughts and concerns about the organization.	5.79	1.03
I tell my protégé how I feel about his/her advancement in the organization.	5.55	1.18

Table 9

Pattern Matrix for Costs Scale (Phase 1)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	.93	-.13
I feel like my protégé is using me.	.89	-.10
I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	.89	-.10
I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	.81	.02
I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.	.74	.05
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.	.69	.15
I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	.67	.15
My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.	.62	.04
My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	.60	.20
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills as a mentor.	.58	.14
Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.	.58	.13
I don't want to deal with my protégés problems.	.58	.04
I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	.52	.30
My other relationships in the organization suffer because people believe I give an unfair advantage to my protégé.	.49	.18
Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	.38	.30
Sharing my knowledge with my protégé makes me feel like I am replaceable in my organization.	.38	.21
Other members of my organization could dislike me because of my protégé.	.37	.34
Mentoring my protégé has made me feel like I am a subpar employee or member of my organization	.25	.05
I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	-.15	.93
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	.07	.78
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.	.03	.75
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.	.18	.60
I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	.31	.54
My protégé takes too much of my time.	.36	.44
I run the risk of being perceived as incompetent if my protégé doesn't perform well.	.09	.41
When my protégé doesn't succeed, I blame it on myself.	-.09	.32

Table 10

Structure Matrix for Costs Scale (Phase 1)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	.84	.59
I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	.83	.64
I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	.82	.58
I feel like my protégé is using me.	.81	.58
I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	.78	.66
I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.	.77	.61
My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	.75	.66
I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	.75	.70
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills as a mentor.	.68	.58
Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.	.68	.57
My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.	.65	.52
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.	.65	.47
Other members of my organization could dislike me because of my protégé.	.63	.63
My other relationships in the organization suffer because people believe I give an unfair advantage to my protégé.	.62	.55
Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	.61	.59
I don't want to deal with my protégés problems.	.60	.48
Sharing my knowledge with my protégé makes me feel like I am replaceable in my organization.	.54	.50
Mentoring my protégé has made me feel like I am a subpar employee or member of my organization.	.29	.24
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	.67	.84
I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	.56	.81
I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	.72	.78
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.	.60	.77
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.	.64	.77
My protégé takes too much of my time.	.70	.72
I run the risk of being perceived as incompetent if my protégé doesn't perform well.	.40	.48
When my protégé doesn't succeed, I blame it on myself.	.16	.25

Table 11

Pattern Matrix for Benefits Scale (Phase 1)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.	1.07	-.30
I feel a sense of pride in passing my knowledge on to the next generation in my organization.	.88	-.04
Mentoring makes me more aware of the importance of communicating in a professional manner.	.87	-.10
By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization.	.82	-.08
Being a mentor sharpens my ability to effectively help others.	.76	.02
I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.	.75	.05
I have reaffirmed perception that I could work with other people through mentoring.	.74	.09
I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.	.69	.09
Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.	.67	.04
Being a mentor causes me to analyze the way in which I work.	.67	.15
Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my own talents.	.67	.15
Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.	.64	.22
I felt mentoring would help my organization in the long run.	.59	.17
Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my professional identity.	.55	.22
Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	.52	.34
Mentoring my protégé helps my own career development.	.48	.19
Mentoring my protégé rejuvenates me professionally.	.45	.42
I have gained recognition and status from others for effective mentoring.	.42	.33
Being a mentor prompts me to experiment with new ideas/techniques at work.	.42	.24
My protégé helps me implement new technology.	-.21	.70
Being a mentor meets my need to be needed.	.01	.70
My protégé makes me look more competent.	.001	.67
Being a mentor satisfies my need for authority.	-.10	.64
I feel more important because of my protégé.	.16	.61
I feel like my protégé's successes are my accomplishments as well.	.23	.54
Being a mentor keeps me on the cutting edge in my own field.	.23	.51
My protégé's success ensures a future for our organization.	.19	.45
Being a mentor is an ego booster.	.13	.43
My protégé provides me with affirmation and support.	.37	.40
Mentoring my protégé challenges me professionally.	.32	.38
Mentoring my protégé increases my contact with other organizational members.	.27	.36

Table 12

Structure Matrix for Benefits Scale (Phase 1)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I feel a sense of pride in passing my knowledge on to the next generation in my organization.	.85	.66
I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.	.83	.54
Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.	.81	.73
I have reaffirmed perception that I could work with other people through mentoring.	.81	.67
Mentoring makes me more aware of the importance of communicating in a professional manner.	.80	.59
Being a mentor causes me to analyze the way in which I work.	.79	.68
I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.	.79	.64
Mentoring my protégé rejuvenates me professionally.	.79	.78
Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	.79	.75
Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my own talents.	.79	.68
Being a mentor sharpens my ability to effectively help others.	.78	.63
I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.	.77	.64
By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization.	.76	.57
I felt mentoring would help my organization in the long run.	.73	.64
Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my professional identity.	.73	.66
Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.	.70	.57
I have gained recognition and status from others for effective mentoring.	.68	.66
Mentoring my protégé helps my own career development.	.63	.57
Being a mentor prompts me to experiment with new ideas/techniques at work.	.61	.57
I feel more important because of my protégé.	.64	.74
I feel like my protégé's successes are my accomplishments as well.	.65	.72
Being a mentor meets my need to be needed.	.56	.70
Being a mentor keeps me on the cutting edge in my own field.	.64	.70
My protégé provides me with affirmation and support.	.68	.69
My protégé makes me look more competent.	.53	.67
Mentoring my protégé challenges me professionally.	.62	.63
My protégé's success ensures a future for our organization.	.54	.60
Mentoring my protégé increases my contact with other organizational members.	.56	.58
Being a mentor satisfies my need for authority.	.40	.56
Being a mentor is an ego booster.	.47	.53
My protégé helps me implement new technology.	.34	.53

Table 13

Revised Costs Associated with Being a Mentor Instrument

A mentor is an organizational member (an employee) who is knowledgeable about the organization and typically has more experience and a better title than the person (s)he is mentoring (the protégé). Mentors provide their protégés with different forms of support, but generally it is believed that the mentor guides the protégé in an effort to further protégé's career or to help the protégé make a smooth transition into the organization or workplace.

When answering the following questions, please keep in mind the protégé with whom you have had the MOST experiences. These experiences can be either good or bad, it is just important that you answer all the questions about a specific mentoring relationship. As you answer the questions, please consider all interactions between you and your protégé rather than focusing on a few specific interactions.

Throughout this questionnaire, the person you have selected will be referred to as "your protégé."

Keeping all interactions with your protégé in mind, please indicate the degree to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements about the costs associated with being a mentor.

All questions will be answered on a one to seven scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, and 7 = strongly agree.

Costs Associated with Mentor Fears/Concerns

1. I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.
2. I feel like my protégé is using me.
3. I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.
4. I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.
5. I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am. ^a
6. I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job. ^a
7. I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.
8. My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature. ^a
9. My protégé takes too much and gives too little.
10. Training my protégé makes me feel that I lack skills as a mentor.
11. Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.
12. Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.

Costs Associated with Loss of Time

13. Dealing with my protégé's problems takes time away from my work. ^a
14. I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.

15. My other relationships in the organization suffer because people believe I give an unfair advantage to my protégé.
 16. I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.
 17. Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.
 18. Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.^a
 19. Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.^a
 20. My protégé distracts me from other important people in my life.
 21. I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.
 22. My protégé takes too much of my time.
 23. Overall, my work performance suffers when I am training my protégé.
-

^a Item deleted during phase 2

Table 14

Revised Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor Instrument

Again, keeping in mind all interactions with your protégé, please indicate the degree to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements about the benefits associated with being a mentor.

All questions will be answered on a one to seven scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, and 7 = strongly agree.

1. By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization.
2. Working with my protégé makes me feel more qualified to complete work tasks. ^a
3. Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my professional identity.
4. Mentoring helps my organization in the long run.
5. I analyze my work more because I am a mentor.
6. Being a mentor makes me feel that I am a needed member of my organization. ^a
7. I understand my job better because I am a mentor. ^a
8. I feel important when my protégé asks for advice. ^{ac}
9. Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my talents to my organization.
10. I work harder because I am a mentor. ^a
11. Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills. ^b
12. My protégé's organizational successes make me feel more accomplished at work.
13. I feel more motivated when working with my protégé. ^b
14. Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization. ^b
15. Mentoring my protégé ensures a future for my organization. ^b
16. Mentoring allows me to pass my knowledge on to the next generation at my organization. ^b
17. My friends and family look up to me because I am a mentor. ^a
18. I am better able to work with others because I am a mentor.
19. My protégé and I have become good friends. ^a
20. My protégé has introduced me to a new network of friends. ^a
21. Mentoring at work makes me want to help others outside of work. ^a
22. I feel a sense of pride when working with my protégé. ^c
23. Being a mentor helps me interact with people from different generations. ^a
24. I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.
25. I feel motivated when working with my protégé. ^b
26. Being a mentor builds my self-confidence. ^b
27. I complete my work tasks more efficiently because I am a mentor. ^{ab}
28. I am more able to effectively help others because I am a mentor. ^{ab}
29. Mentoring makes it easier to adopt new organizational directives. ^{ab}
30. Being a mentor has inspired me to communicate more professionally at work. ^b

^a Item added for phase 2

^b Item deleted during phase 2

^c Item deleted during phase 2 reliability analyses

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations for Costs of Being a Mentor (Phase 2)

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
C1	I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	1.48	.98
C2	I feel like my protégé is using me.	1.69	1.26
C3	I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	1.52	.98
C4	I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	2.02	1.59
C5	I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.	1.51	.77
C6	I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.	1.68	1.13
C7	I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	1.87	1.44
C8	My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.	1.23	.81
C9	My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	1.85	1.34
C10	Training my protégé makes me feel that I lack skills as a mentor.	1.98	1.38
C11	Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.	1.67	1.08
C12	Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	2.02	1.39
C13	Dealing with my protégé's problems takes time away from my work.	3.05	1.77
C14	I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	1.86	1.26
C15	My other relationships in the organization suffer because of the time I spend with my protégé.	1.86	1.21
C16	I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	2.94	1.85
C17	Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	2.51	1.70
C18	Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.	1.63	1.18
C19	Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.	1.61	1.11
C20	My protégé distracts me from other important people in my life.	1.75	1.16
C21	I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	2.12	1.33
C22	My protégé takes too much of my time.	2.26	1.46
C23	Overall, my work performance suffers when I am training my protégé.	2.05	1.33

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for Benefits of Being a Mentor (Phase 2)

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
B1	By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization.	5.63	1.02
B2	Working with my protégé makes me feel more qualified to complete work tasks.	5.15	1.24
B3	Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my organizational identity.	5.43	1.17
B4	Mentoring helps my organization in the long run.	6.07	.98
B5	I analyze my work more because I am a mentor.	5.64	1.09
B6	Being a mentor makes me feel that I am a needed member of my organization.	5.48	1.15
B7	I understand my job better because I am a mentor.	5.46	1.29
B8	I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.	5.64	1.15
B9	Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my talents to my organization.	5.58	1.21
B10	I work harder because I am a mentor.	5.13	1.44
B11	Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.	5.65	1.25
B12	My protégé's organizational successes make me feel more accomplished at work.	5.43	1.02
B13	I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.	5.54	1.25
B14	Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	5.51	1.10
B15	Mentoring my protégé ensures a future for my organization.	5.18	1.42
B16	Mentoring allows me to pass my knowledge on to the next generation at my organization.	5.92	1.02
B17	My friends and family look up to me because I am a mentor.	4.68	1.48
B18	I am better able to work with others because I am a mentor.	5.27	1.33
B19	My protégé and I have become good friends.	5.32	1.60
B20	My protégé has introduced me to a new network of friends.	3.77	1.70
B21	Mentoring at work makes me want to help others outside of work.	5.08	1.53
B22	I feel a sense of pride when working with my protégé.	5.69	1.08
B23	Being a mentor helps me interact with people from different generations.	5.43	1.37
B24	I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.	5.80	1.06
B25	I feel motivated when working with my protégé.	5.30	1.29
B26	Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.	5.38	1.32
B27	I complete my work tasks more efficiently because I am a mentor.	4.61	1.48
B28	I am more able to effectively help others because I am a mentor.	5.43	1.29
B29	Mentoring makes it easier to adopt new organizational directives.	5.13	1.28
B30	Being a mentor has inspired me to communicate more professionally at work.	5.35	1.30

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for Relational Maintenance Item-Pool (Phase 2)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I inquire about my protégé's progress on organizational tasks.	5.89	.85
I tell my protégé that I am always available to talk.	5.95	.94
I try to discuss my ideas with my protégé.	5.62	1.01
I express concern to my protégé about his/her welfare.	5.38	1.36
I talk to my protégé about problems he/she is facing in the organization.	5.74	1.14
I give my protégé my opinion on things going on in his/her personal life.	4.36	1.71
I am honest in everything I say to my protégé.	6.05	.92
I attempt to make the interactions with my protégé enjoyable.	6.10	.85
I give my protégé compliments often.	5.75	1.02
I ask my protégé how his/her day is going.	6.05	.96
I am typically polite when talking to my protégé.	6.14	.85
I am cheerful when talking with my protégé.	5.88	.90
I am optimistic when speaking with my protégé about his/her development with the organization.	5.77	1.01
I do not interrupt my protégé when he/she is engaged in conversations with others.	5.44	1.26
I talk with my protégé like I would talk to a good friend.	5.18	1.47
I ask my protégé about his/her personal life.	4.93	1.63
I express my willingness to help my protégé out.	6.08	.81
I make an effort to strike up conversations with my protégé.	5.87	1.02
I encourage my protégé to come to me with his/her thoughts and concerns about the organization.	5.85	1.06
I tell my protégé how I feel about his/her advancement in the organization.	5.44	1.35

Table 18

Pattern Matrix for Costs Scale (Phase 2)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	.95	-.31
I feel like my protégé is using me.	.90	-.09
I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	.78	-.22
My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	.76	.13
I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	.69	.05
Other members of my organization disrespect me because of my protégé.	.69	-.09
My protégé distracts me from other important people in my life.	.69	.25
I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	.59	.05
Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	.58	.17
Training my protégé makes me feel that I lack skills as a mentor.	.44	.29
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.	.40	.36
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.	.37	.25
I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.	.24	.22
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	-.07	.92
I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	-.19	.91
My protégé takes too much of my time.	.04	.87
Overall, my work performance suffers when I am training my protégé.	-.03	.83
I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	-.15	.72
My other relationships in the organization suffer because of the time I spend with my protégé.	.24	.60
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.	-.04	.59
I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	.28	.58
Dealing with my protégé's problems takes time away from my work.	.00	.55
My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.	.19	.23

Table 19

Structure Matrix for Costs Scale (Phase 2)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I feel like my protégé is using me.	.86	.34
My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	.82	.50
I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	.81	.15
My protégé distracts me from other important people in my life.	.80	.58
I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	.72	.38
I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	.67	.15
Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	.66	.45
Other members of my organization disrespect me because of my protégé.	.65	.24
I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	.61	.34
Training my protégé makes me feel that I lack skills as a mentor.	.58	.50
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my friends.	.57	.55
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from spending time with my significant other.	.49	.42
I feel inadequate because my protégé is better than I am.	.35	.34
My protégé takes too much of my time.	.45	.89
Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	.37	.88
Overall, my work performance suffers when I am training my protégé.	.37	.82
I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	.24	.82
My other relationships in the organization suffer because of the time I spend with my protégé.	.53	.71
I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	.55	.71
I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	.20	.65
I feel that training my protégé will demonstrate my lack of skills in my position or job.	.24	.57
Dealing with my protégé's problems takes time away from my work.	.27	.55
My peers believe that my relationship with my protégé is sexual in nature.	.30	.32

Table 20

Pattern Matrix for Benefits Scale (Phase 2)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow as an organizational member.	.87	-.20
Working with my protégé makes me feel more qualified to complete work tasks.	.80	-.09
Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my organizational identity.	.79	.05
Mentoring helps my organization in the long run.	.78	-.17
I analyze my work more because I am a mentor.	.74	-.19
Being a mentor makes me feel that I am a needed member of my organization.	.64	.21
I understand my job better because I am a mentor.	.62	.03
I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.	.61	.14
Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my talents to my organization.	.57	.14
I work harder because I am a mentor.	.46	.24
Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.	.45	.36
My protégé's organizational successes make me feel more accomplished at work.	.44	.26
I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.	.43	.33
Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	.43	.35
Mentoring my protégé ensures a future for my organization.	.38	.36
Mentoring allows me to pass my knowledge on to the next generation at my organization.	.34	.19
My friends and family look up to me because I am a mentor.	-.29	1.05
I am better able to work with others because I am a mentor.	-.07	.87
My protégé and I have become good friends.	-.16	.77
My protégé has introduced me to a new network of friends.	-.13	.70
Mentoring at work makes me want to help others outside of work.	.14	.68
I feel a sense of pride when working with my protégé.	.10	.65
Being a mentor helps interact with people from different generations.	.06	.64
I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.	.11	.59
I feel motivated when working with my protégé.	.37	.51
Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.	.33	.45
I complete my work tasks more efficiently because I am a mentor.	.30	.43
I am more able to effectively help others because I am a mentor.	.40	.42
Mentoring makes it easier to adopt new organizational directives.	.32	.36
Being a mentor has inspired me to communicate more professionally at work.	.23	.34

Table 21

Structure Matrix for Benefits Scale (Phase 2)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my organizational identity.	.83	.65
Being a mentor makes me feel that I am a needed member of my organization.	.80	.70
Working with my protégé makes me feel more qualified to complete work tasks.	.73	.52
Being a mentor sharpens my listening skills.	.72	.70
By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow as an organizational member.	.72	.47
I feel important when my protégé asks for advice.	.71	.60
Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	.69	.67
I feel more motivated when working with my protégé.	.68	.66
Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my talents to my organization.	.67	.57
Mentoring my protégé ensures a future for my organization.	.65	.65
Mentoring helps my organization in the long run.	.65	.43
I work harder because I am a mentor.	.65	.59
I understand my job better because I am a mentor.	.64	.50
My protégé's organizational successes make me feel more accomplished at work.	.64	.60
I analyze my work more because I am a mentor.	.60	.38
Mentoring allows me to pass my knowledge on to the next generation at my organization.	.48	.44
My friends and family look up to me because I am a mentor.	.52	.84
I am better able to work with others because I am a mentor.	.60	.82
I feel motivated when working with my protégé.	.76	.79
Mentoring at work makes me want to help others outside of work.	.66	.79
I am more able to effectively help others because I am a mentor.	.73	.73
I feel a sense of pride when working with my protégé.	.60	.73
Being a mentor builds my self-confidence.	.67	.70
Being a mentor helps interact with people from different generations.	.54	.68
I feel honored to have been selected as a mentor.	.56	.68
I complete my work tasks more efficiently because I am a mentor.	.62	.65
My protégé and I have become good friends.	.43	.65
Mentoring makes it easier to adopt new organizational directives.	.60	.60
My protégé has introduced me to a new network of friends.	.40	.60
Being a mentor has inspired me to communicate more professionally at work.	.49	.52

Table 22

<i>Means and Standard Deviations for Final Costs of Being a Mentor Scale Items (Phase 3)</i>			
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
F1	I fear my protégé might steal my job or position.	1.79	1.16
F1	I feel like my protégé is using me.	1.79	1.20
F1	I am afraid my organization will replace me with my protégé.	1.90	1.20
F1	I believe my protégé could stab me in the back.	2.00	1.36
F1	I am afraid that my protégé will talk badly of me to other members of the organization.	2.11	1.42
F1	My protégé takes too much and gives too little.	2.10	1.28
F1	Training my protégé makes me feel that I lack skills as a mentor.	1.98	1.38
F1	Other members of my organization could disrespect me because of my protégé.	2.12	1.28
F1	Interacting with my protégé is physically exhausting.	2.26	1.39
F1	My protégé distracts me from other important people in my life.	1.75	1.16
	Composite Mean for Factor 1	2.03	.97
F2	Interacting with my protégé keeps me from getting my work done.	2.54	1.55
F2	I am unable to spend time on my organizational projects because I am interacting with my protégé.	2.26	1.35
F2	I am less productive on days I interact with my protégé.	2.69	1.61
F2	I can't perform the core roles of my job or position because of the time my protégé takes.	2.13	1.34
F2	My protégé takes too much of my time.	2.22	1.27
F2	My other relationships in the organization suffer because of the time I spend with my protégé.	2.08	1.26
F2	Overall, my work performance suffers when I am training my protégé.	2.05	1.33
	Composite Mean for Factor 2	2.29	1.08

Table 23

<i>Means and Standard Deviations for Final Benefits of Being a Mentor Scale Items (Phase 3)</i>			
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
F1	Mentoring my protégé gives me an opportunity to show my talents to my organization	5.63	1.14
F1	Being a mentor makes me feel needed at my organization.	5.48	1.15
F1	Mentoring my protégé helps reinforce my organizational identity.	5.39	1.19
F1	My protégé's organizational successes make me feel more accomplished at work.	5.56	1.17
F1	By mentoring my protégé I become more aware of how I can improve or grow in the organization	5.73	1.05
F1	I work harder because I am a mentor.	5.09	1.42
F1	I understand my job better because I am a mentor.	5.57	1.27
F1	I analyze my work more because I am a mentor.	5.63	1.10
F1	Mentoring helps my organization in the long run.	5.89	1.02
F1	Working with my protégé makes me feel more qualified to complete work tasks.	4.98	1.44
	Composite Mean for Factor 1	5.50	.90
F2	I am better able to work with others because I am a mentor.	5.44	1.18
F2	My friends and family look up to me because I am a mentor.	4.78	1.24
F2	My protégé and I have become good friends.	5.53	1.36
F2	Being a mentor helps me interact with people from different generations.	5.12	1.41
F2	Mentoring at work makes me want to help others outside of work.	5.38	1.43
F2	My protégé has introduced me to a new network of friends.	4.09	1.57
	Composite Mean for Factor 2	5.06	1.20

Table 24

Means and Standard Deviations for Relational Maintenance Item-Pool (Phase3)

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
F1	I express my willingness to help my protégé out.	5.98	.97
F1	I ask my protégé how his/her day is going.	5.95	1.07
F1	I tell my protégé that I am always available to talk.	5.84	1.11
F1	I tell my protégé how I feel about his/her advancement in the organization	5.51	1.24
F1	I inquire about my protégé's progress on organizational tasks.	5.68	1.03
F1	I talk to my protégé about problems he/she is facing in the organization.	5.72	1.10
F1	I encourage my protégé to come to me with his/her thoughts and concerns about the organization.	5.81	1.04
F1	I express concern to my protégé about his/her welfare.	5.27	1.38
F1	I am honest in everything I say to my protégé.	5.75	1.11
Composite Mean for Factor 1		5.72	.83
F2	I attempt to make the interactions with my protégé enjoyable.	5.98	.98
F2	I am typically polite when talking to my protégé.	5.98	1.02
F2	I give my protégé compliments often.	5.72	1.02
F2	I am cheerful when talking with my protégé.	5.90	.95
F2	I am optimistic when speaking with my protégé about his/her development with the organization.	5.80	1.03
F2	I do not interrupt my protégé when he/she is engaged in conversations with others.	5.55	1.17
Composite Mean for Factor 2		5.82	.82
F3	I give my protégé my opinion on things going on in his/her personal life.	4.70	1.59
F3	I talk with my protégé like I would talk to a good friend.	5.49	1.36
F3	I ask my protégé about his/her personal life.	5.06	1.49
Composite Mean for Factor 3		5.08	1.20

Table 25

Pattern Matrix for Relational Maintenance Scale (Phase 3)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
I encourage my protégé to come to me with his/her thoughts and concerns about the organization.	.86	-.27	.05
I inquire about my protégé's progress on organizational tasks.	.85	-.09	-.11
I express my willingness to help out my protégé.	.68	.27	-.18
I ask my protégé how his/her day is going.	.67	.11	.11
I tell my protégé that I am always available to talk.	.63	.24	-.17
I tell my protégé how I feel about his/her advancement in the organization.	.60	-.14	.13
I talk to my protégé about problems he/she is facing in the organization.	.58	.06	.11
I express concern to my protégé about his/her welfare.	.57	-.03	.23
I am honest in what I say to my protégé.	.52	.02	.07
I try to discuss my ideas with my protégé.	.27	.24	.18
I am cheerful when talking with my protégé.	-.17	.86	.07
I do not interrupt when my protégé is engaged in conversation.	-.26	.83	-.07
I give my protégé compliments often.	.11	.67	.11
I attempt to make interactions with my protégé enjoyable	.04	.65	.23
I am typically polite when talking to my protégé.	.26	.48	-.38
I am optimistic when speaking with my protégé about his/her development with the organization.	.19	.48	-.10
I make an effort to strike up conversations with my protégé.	.22	.40	.37
I give my protégé my opinion on things going on in his/her personal life.	.04	-.17	.78
I talk with my protégé like I would talk to a good friend.	-.11	.02	.72
I ask my protégé about his/her personal life.	.18	-.01	.64

Table 26

Structure Matrix for Relational Maintenance Scale (Phase 3)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
I ask my protégé how his/her day is going.	.81	.62	.54
I express my willingness to help out my protégé.	.76	.64	.33
I inquire about my protégé's progress on organizational tasks.	.72	.43	.32
I encourage my protégé to come to me with his/her thoughts and concerns about the organization.	.71	.34	.40
I tell my protégé that I am always available to talk.	.69	.58	.30
I express concern to my protégé about his/her welfare.	.68	.47	.54
I talk to my protégé about problems he/she is facing in the organization.	.67	.50	.46
I am honest in what I say to my protégé.	.58	.41	.38
I tell my protégé how I feel about his/her advancement in the organization.	.58	.32	.40
I try to discuss my ideas with my protégé.	.53	.50	.45
I give my protégé compliments often.	.63	.80	.50
I attempt to make interactions with my protégé enjoyable	.61	.79	.57
I am cheerful when talking with my protégé.	.46	.78	.39
I make an effort to strike up conversations with my protégé.	.70	.73	.68
I do not interrupt when my protégé is engaged in conversation.	.26	.61	.18
I am optimistic when speaking with my protégé about his/her development with the organization.	.45	.55	.23
I am typically polite when talking to my protégé.	.36	.47	-.01
I ask my protégé about his/her personal life.	.53	.42	.73
I give my protégé my opinion on things going on in his/her personal life.	.36	.23	.72
I talk with my protégé like I would talk to a good friend.	.31	.30	.67

Table 27

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Mentor's Use of Relational Maintenance Strategies (N = 232)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>p</i>
Step One				
Investment in the Relationship	.35	.03	.64	.000*
Step Two				
Time as Mentor	-.01	.03	-.01	.79
Step Three				
Organizational Tenure	-.01	.01	-.06	.27
Step Four				
Age	-.04	.03	-.11	.09
Sex	.09	.09	.05	.29

*significant at the .000 level

Appendix C: Figures

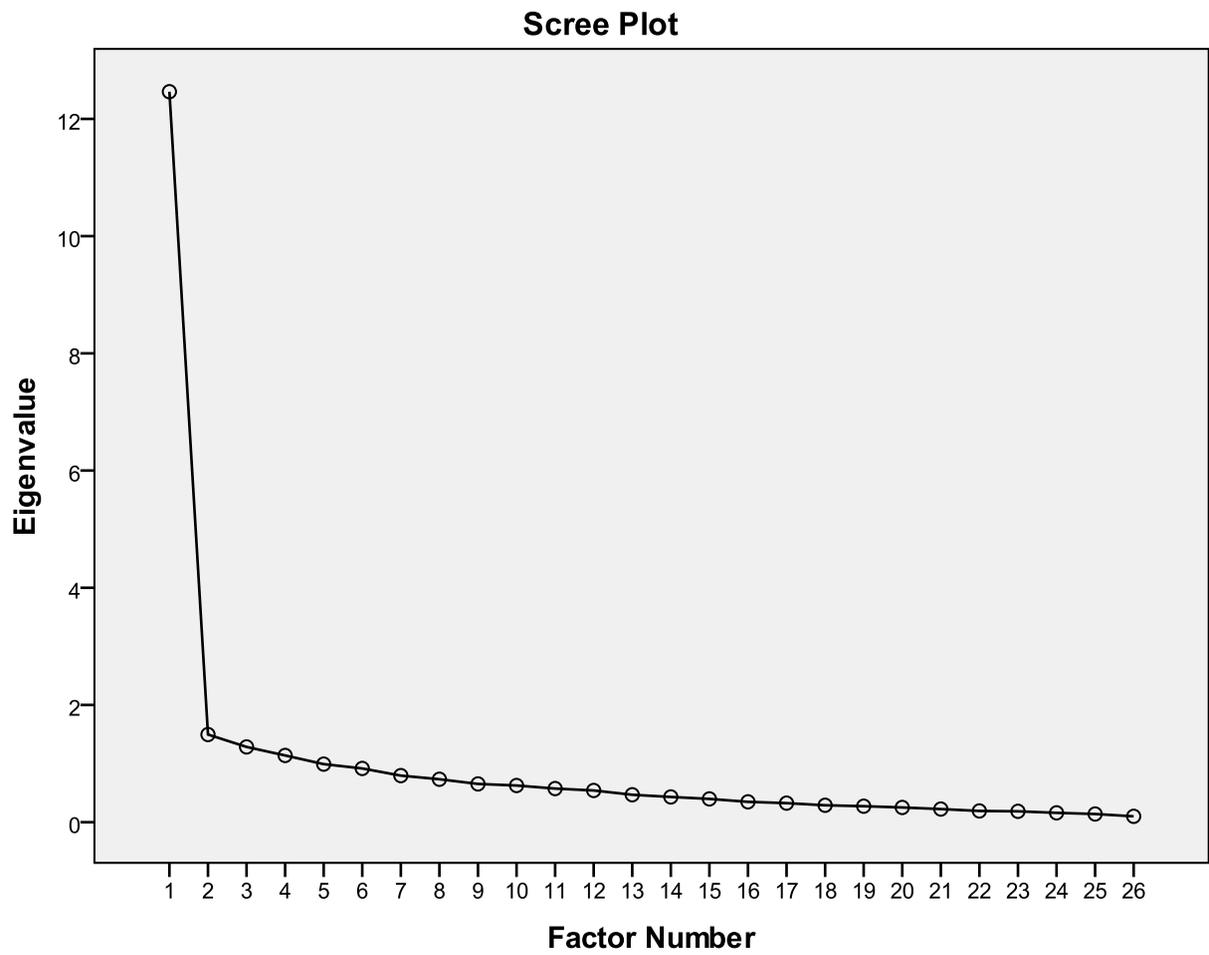


Figure 1. Scree Plot for Costs Associated with Being a Mentor (Phase One).

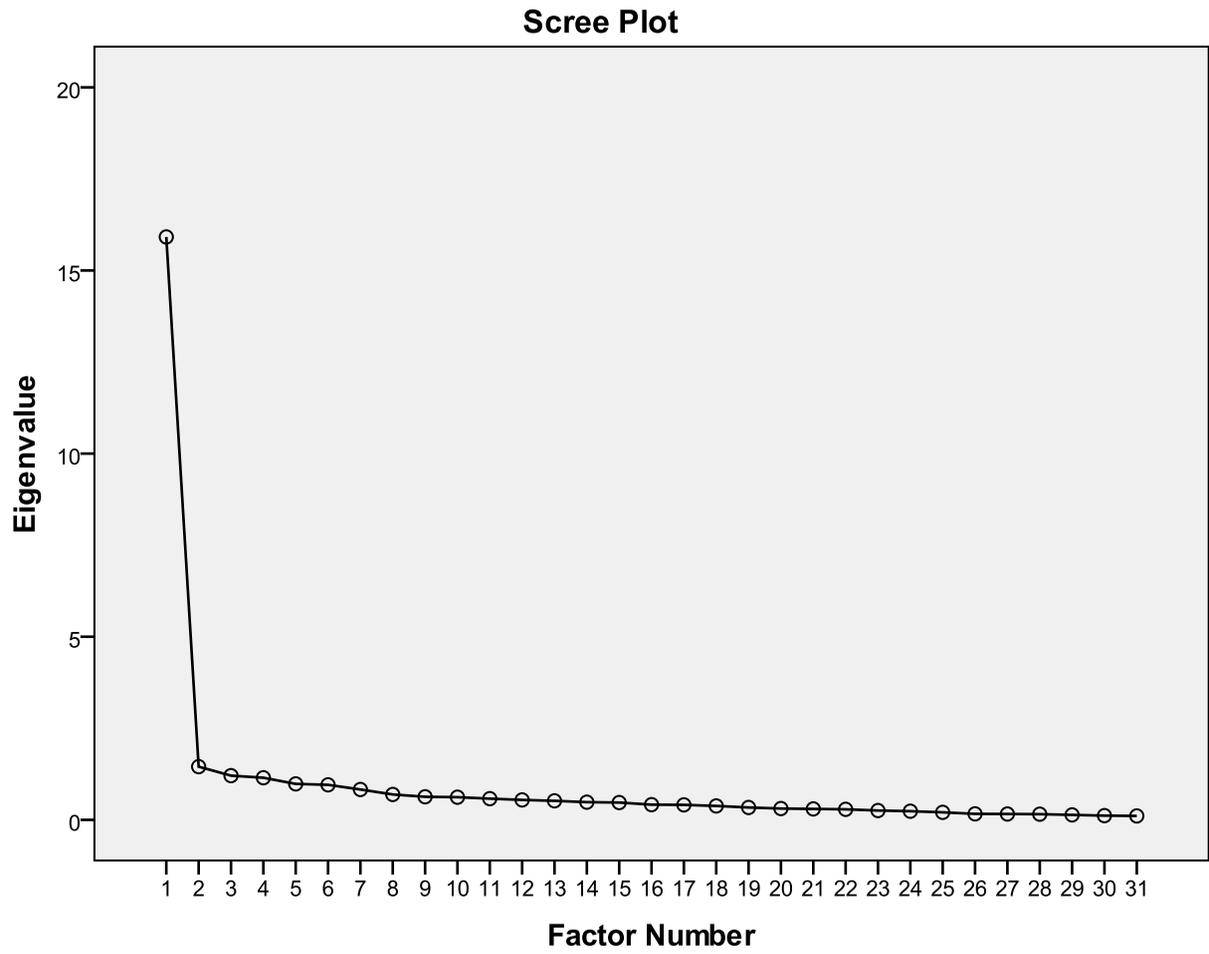


Figure 2. Scree Plot for Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor (Phase One).

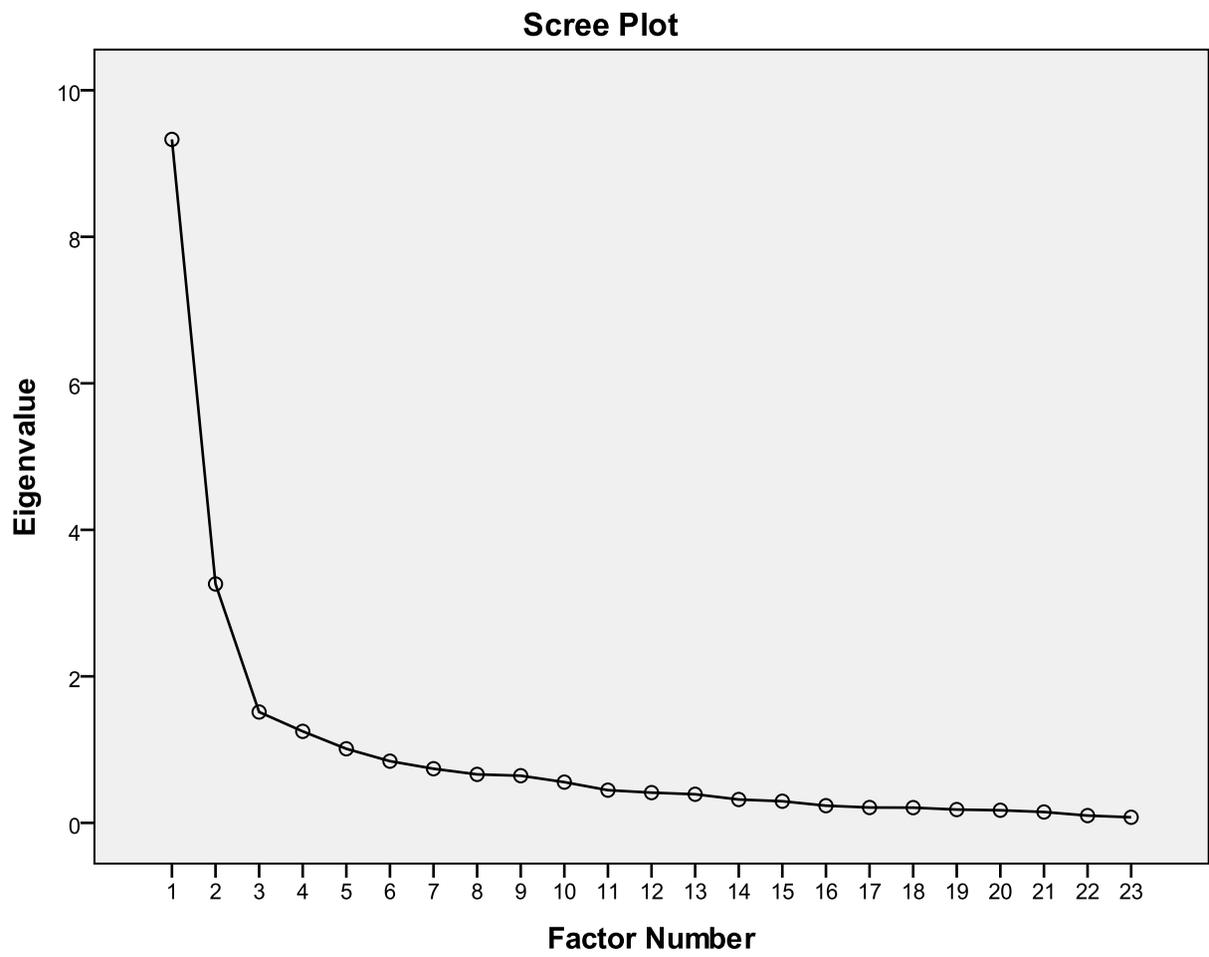


Figure 3. Scree Plot for Costs Associated with Being a Mentor (Phase Two).

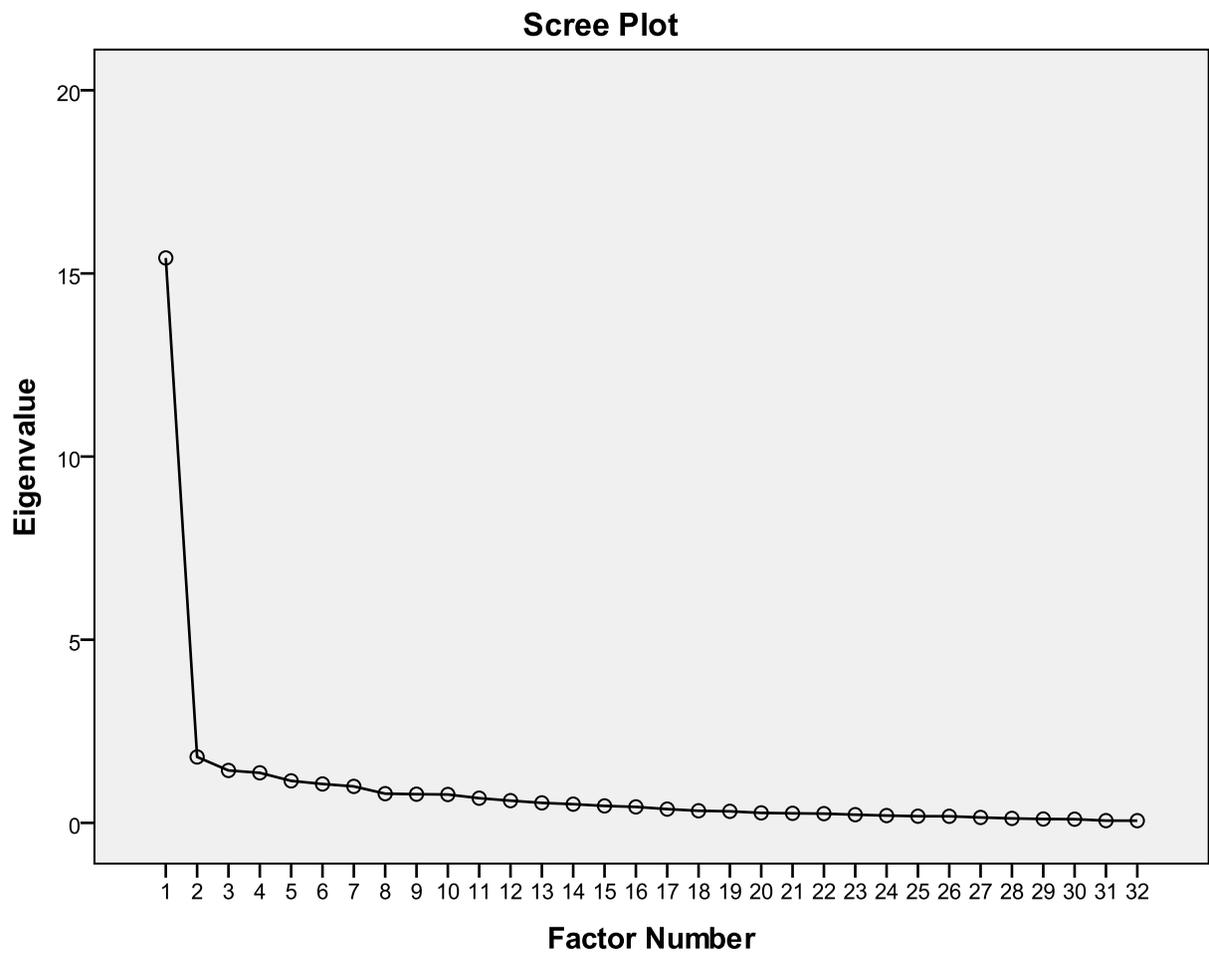


Figure 4. Scree Plot for Benefits Associated with Being a Mentor (Phase Two).

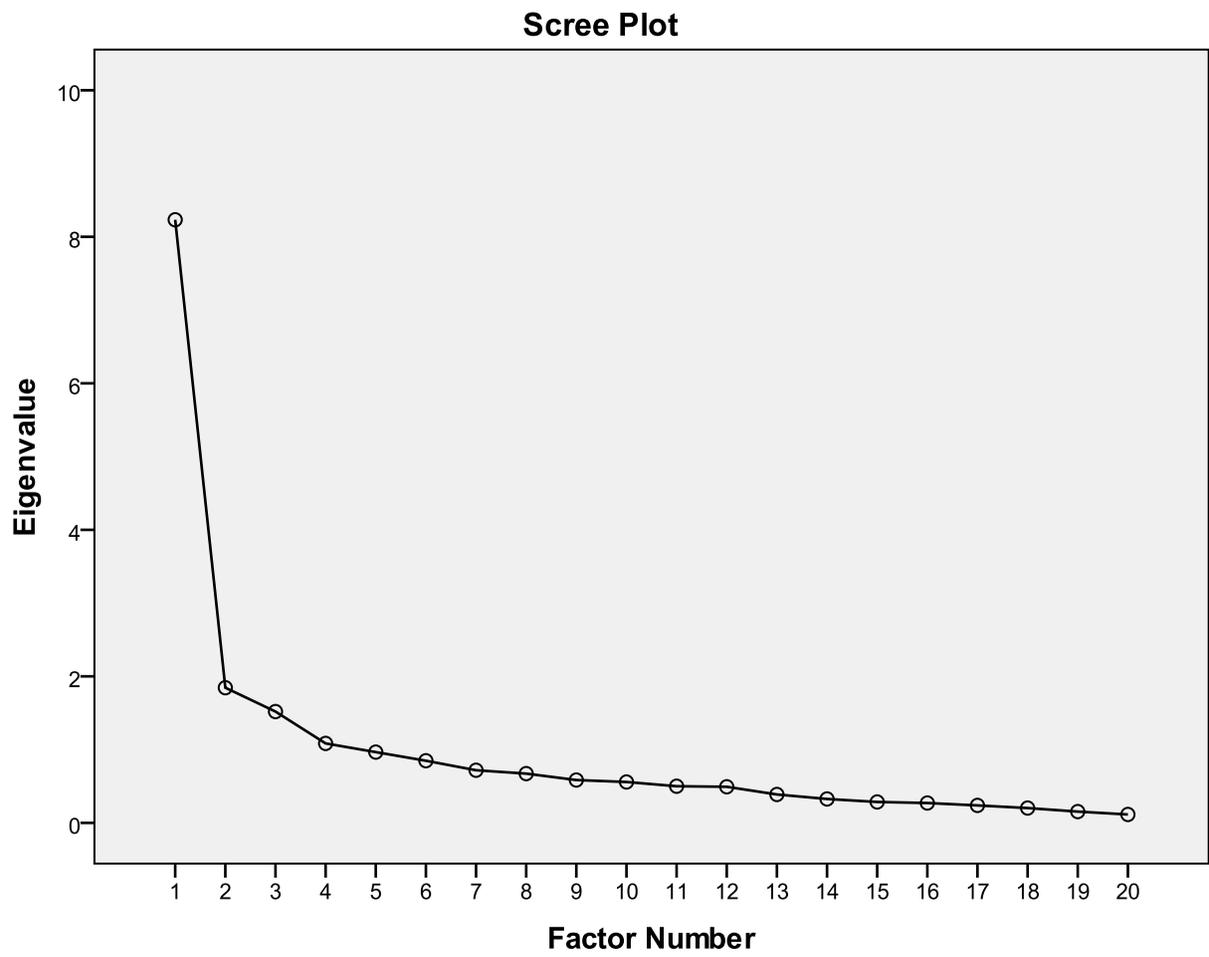


Figure 5. Scree Plot for Relational Maintenance Strategies (Phase Three).

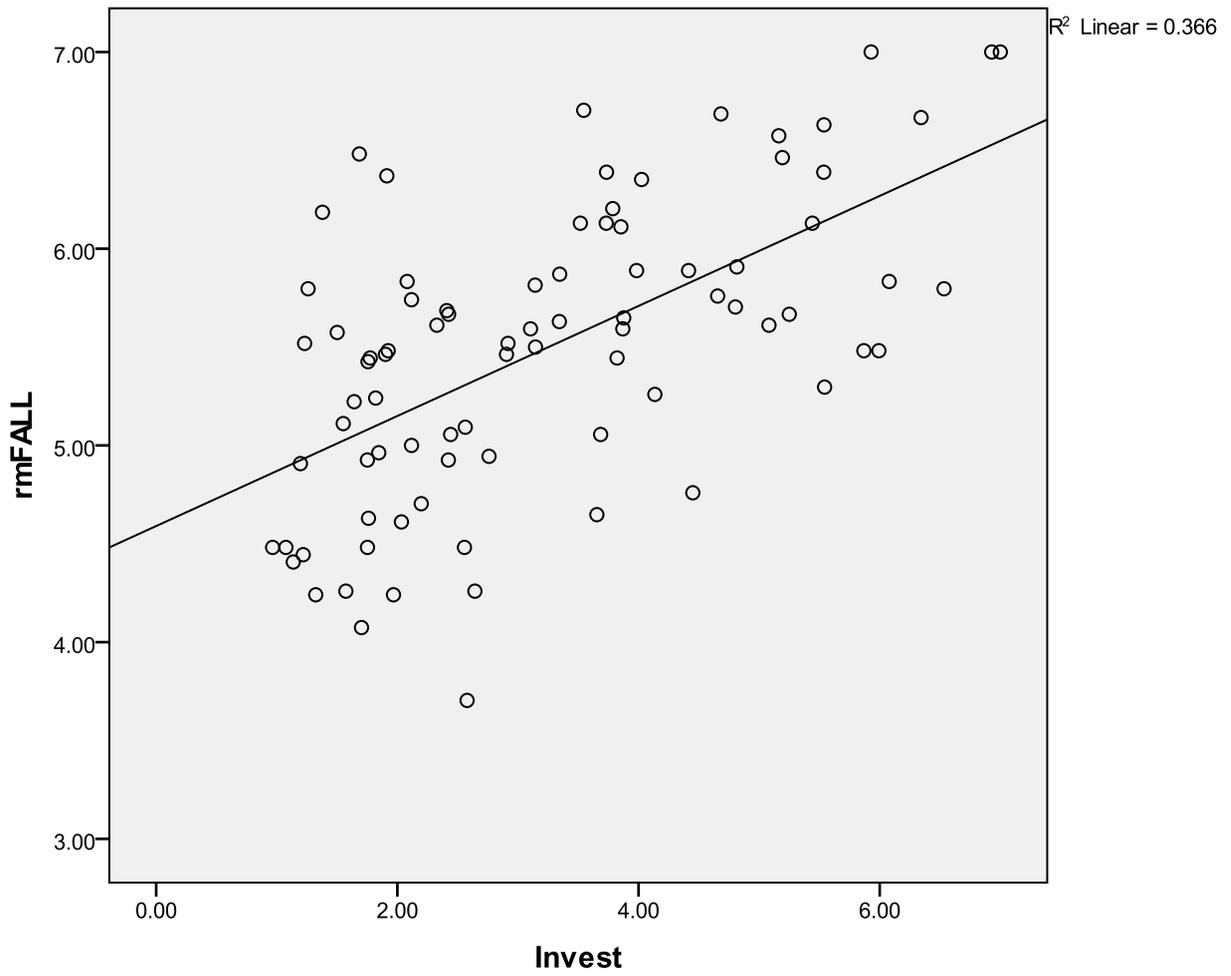


Figure 6. Scatterplot between average relational maintenance strategies used (y-axis) and relationship investment (x-axis).

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