THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS ON MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

by

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring in the workplace has become an increasingly popular trend because of its touted success at addressing the career and social related needs of employees. While the majority of the research on mentoring has examined protégé benefits, far fewer studies have examined the potential negative effects of mentoring. Moreover, little is known about the antecedents of negative mentoring experiences. A primary objective of the present study was to investigate relations between mentor and protégé perceptions of organizational politics and reports of functional and dysfunctional mentoring. In addition, I examined the joint contribution of functional and dysfunctional mentoring to a number of protégé outcomes. Data were collected from 93 mentor-protégé dyads employed across the United States by a marketing communications business. Results indicated that mentors who perceived their climate to be more political expressed greater motivation to mentor for their own self-enhancement and lesser motivation to mentor for their own intrinsic satisfaction. Protégés who perceived their climate to be more political reported a greater incidence of dysfunctional mentoring. Protégé reports of the functional mentoring they received accounted for unique variance in predicting supervisor ratings of their performance, whereas dysfunctional mentoring accounted for unique variance in predicting turnover intentions, stress, and job satisfaction. The results of this study broaden our understanding of the manner in which mentoring relationships can go awry.

I would like to dedicate this project in part to my parents, Jay Bencaz and Shirley Bencaz-Kvatek for their endless support and encouragement. They instilled in me the belief that I can achieve anything I put my mind to. Foremost though, I dedicate this project to the best thing in my life, my wife and “Sugar Mama” Charlotte. Without her patience, humor, and unconditional belief in me, I don’t know where I would be. I owe her big time and know without hesitation she is my soul mate and a major reason I will become Dr. Bencaz. We finally did it!!!

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The workplace has experienced vast changes in the past few decades, largely due to increased diversity, organizational restructuring (i.e., downsizing), and the impact of technology on the globalization of commerce. With these ever-increasing changes come implications for the worker. Namely, concerns hinge on how to remain within the organization and stay competitive. One way an employee can continue to remain a top performer is through the assistance of another who has successfully navigated through similar experiences – one who in the literature and organization is referred to as a mentor. Specifically, mentoring is conceptualized as a developmental relationship that occurs between a junior-level employee (i.e., protégé) and a higher-level individual (i.e., mentor) who is relatively more experienced (Dreher & Cox, 1996).

The question remains: Does mentoring aid in alleviating the concerns of the employee over how to succeed in the organization? In short, the answer is yes. Lately, mentoring programs have grown enormously in organizations, due to the associated career benefits the relationship brings to both parties: mentor and protégé (for a review, see Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Such benefits are to be expected since social exchange theory (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959) posits that individuals are more likely to develop and maintain a relationship when both parties perceive the rewards to be greater than the costs. Social exchange theory also suggests that relationships can be marked by both positive and negative experience. Accordingly occasions arise where the mentors view the costs in the relationship to be higher than the potential benefits, and the protégé may suffer as a consequence. When this situation occurs, the mentoring relationship is described as being dysfunctional.

Dysfunctional mentoring has been defined by Eby, McManus, Simon, and Russell (2000) as specific incidents between mentors and protégés that act to limit the mentor's ability to effectively provide guidance. These characteristics were broken down by Eby et al. (2000) into several categories of conduct ranging from general mismatch in personalities to the wielding of power tyrannically and acting through general self interest on the part of the mentor. The latter behaviors act to suppress potential protégé gains, where they are reflected through the protégé's negative experiences. Here, the mentor's actions are categorized as deceitful, credit taking, neglectful, sabotaging, and/or abusive. Such behavior should be most likely to occur with highly political organizational climates when the mentor also serves as the protégé's supervisor and is primarily motivated to mentor for the purpose of enhancing his/her own career. Dysfunctional mentoring is expected to lead to increased stress, turnover intentions, and lowered career satisfaction for the protégé.

Within organizations, politics refers to the "actions by individuals which are directed toward the goal of furthering their own self-interests without regard for the well-being of others or their organization" (Kacmar & Baron, 1999). Whether or not a political action actually occurs is a judgment call, and therefore less important than if one perceives such behavior is occurring. This subjective evaluation is referred to as the perception of politics, and it involves attributing intent regarding the extent to which the work environment/climate characterizes other's behavior as political. A high political climate can be very disruptive, as research shows perceptions of politics with a strong negative relation to variables ranging from job satisfaction (Ferris, Harrell-Cook, & Dulebohn, 2000; Valle & Perrewé, 2000) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999; Vigoda, 2000b), to in-role performance (Vigoda, 2000b). Further, responding to political perceptions may be more detrimental than the

actual behavior and could possibly lead to similar behavior. Therefore, along with influencing one's motives, a strong relationship should be expected with negative mentoring behaviors.

The present study extends the current research on mentoring in three important ways. First, although mentor motives have been linked to functional mentoring, no prior studies have investigated the relationship between mentor motives and dysfunctional mentoring. The present study will examine this relationship. Second, the political climate of an organization has been noted as an important antecedent of mentoring behavior; however, to date, no empirical research has investigated this relationship. The present research will examine the relationship between political climate and mentor motives, as well as the moderating effect of climate on the relationship between motives and dysfunctional mentoring. Third, prior research on dysfunctional mentoring has not investigated the role of the protégé in this regard. I posit that when protégés perceive their climate to be political, they will be more likely to engage in ingratiation attempts toward their supervisory mentors. Moreover, I expect that protégés who are politically skilled will increase their mentors liking of them through ingratiation behavior, whereas the reverse will be true for protégés who are not politically skilled. Well-liked protégés, in turn, will be more likely to receive functional mentoring and less likely to receive dysfunctional mentoring.

Purpose of the Current Study

In an effort to expand current knowledge on mentoring, this study attempted to explain the motives and behaviors of the mentor and the outcomes these motives had on the protégé. Additionally, it explored whether political climates can influence the protégé to act politically and potentially dissuade or offset potential negative mentoring experiences. Lastly, this study examined the role that organizational politics played in influencing both mentors and protégés within a supervisory mentoring relationship.

As mentioned earlier, dysfunctional mentoring can occur because of status differences in the relationship. It is important to note that political involvement is more likely to come from the supervisor, as Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, and Mayes (1980) noted that the majority of politics that occur are instigated by those in power and in higher organizational levels. Immediate supervisors are often in the best position to have frequent interactions with their protégés (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) and have shown to provide higher levels of career mentoring than non-supervisory mentors (Scandura & Williams, 2004). However, they also have direct influence over the protégé's progression in the company, making control and power issues more salient and in doing so creating tension and opportunities for abuse that may materialize more often than in non-supervisory mentoring. Further, role demands of a mentor and supervisor can be conflicting, creating strain on the relationship – making this pairing all the more interesting.

Fulfilling the objectives of this investigation required surveying a large number of supervisory mentoring dyads. Both mentors and their protégés were asked to fill out self-report measures online. All data was kept confidential so that neither member of the dyad was privy to another's completed measures. This assured confidentiality gave participants the ability to

answer all questions honestly so that proper assessments of the organization could be made. Further, all negative information gleaned (such as political climate or dysfunctional mentoring) was interspersed with distracter measures to ensure participants were not deterred from answering these necessary questions.

Figure 1 presents a model I created to represent hypothesized relationships among variables proposed in the study. Within the model as it applies to the mentor, the perceptions of politics should increase self-enhancement motives and strengthen the relationship between such motives and dysfunctional mentoring. The model also reflects the protégé's role within a political environment. Under the conditions of a high political climate, protégés are expected to increase their ingratiation attempts towards their supervisory mentors, but these attempts should only be effective for those protégés that are adept politically. Lastly, both positive and negative mentor functions provided are predicted to affect personal and organizational outcomes for the protégé. In summary, this investigation sought to resolve how protégés are affected by both downward influence attempts (by the mentor) and upward influence attempts (their own), leaving implications for how and when to use politics in the workplace, specifically within a supervisory mentoring arrangement.

The next part of the paper includes the literature review and the theoretical rational to support this study. The first section will cover mentoring – what is involved in the processes and functions that mentors provide and how they can lead to functional or dysfunctional outcomes. The following section will inspect the role politics plays in the development of dysfunctional mentoring. It will outline how politics can influence both motives and behavior, distinguish between perceptions of politics and actual political behavior, and discuss the role of social influence in organizations. The third section of the review will cover mentor motives, the role of

the protégé in the relationship, and outcomes of mentoring as perceived by the protégé. Finally, the last section will provide the hypotheses of this study and their respective theoretical and logical rationale.

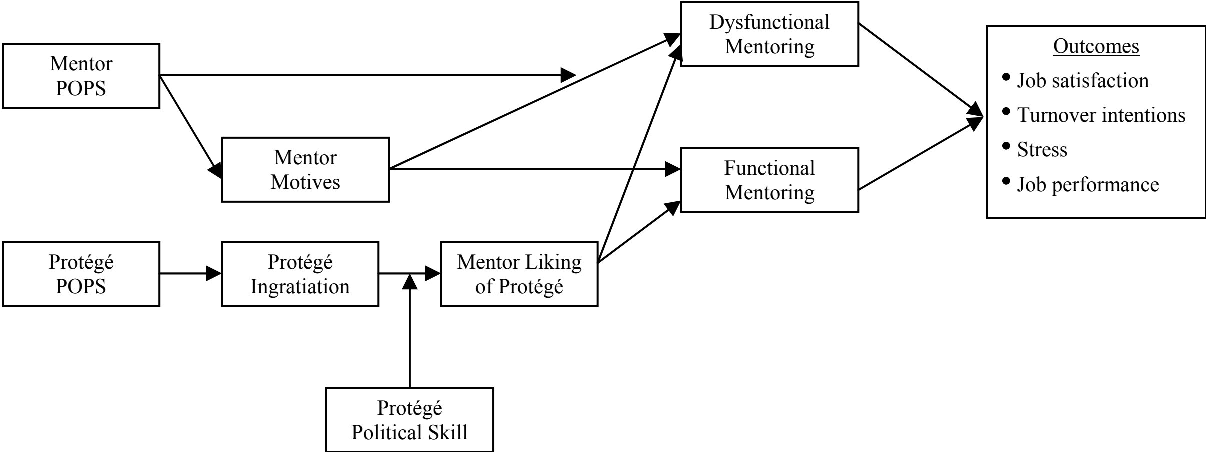

Figure 1 Graphical Representation of Hypothesized Relationships

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Mentoring Functions and Processes

The main reason given for why mentoring works (and why it leads to benefits for the protégé) is that it serves as a mechanism for information exchange and knowledge acquisition (Mullen, 1994). This process is explained through Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), where in relation to mentoring, the mentors serve as models of behavior that protégés can vicariously follow. Further, mentors provide protégés with the rules and norms of the organization that govern effective behavior in the organization. Two main functions exist to explain why mentors provide this valuable information to increase the success of their protégés (Kram, 1983, 1985): psychosocial support and career related support. Both of these have been shown to provide a wealth of benefits to protégés, and to the extent that this relationship is beneficial to both members, it can be characterized as functional.

Functional Mentoring

The support mentors provide is instrumental in the development and advancement of the protégé, and this support has been classified into the two functions listed above (Kram, 1985). Psychosocial support contributes to the protégé's personal growth and professional development, incorporating role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship. Career-related support (i.e., career development) enhances the protégé's advancement in the organization, and these specific functions include: sponsorship, coaching, protection, challenging assignments, and exposure. Both types of mentor functions are linked to career outcomes benefiting the protégé and the organization, which include but are not limited to: increased salary, promotions, job satisfaction, reduced turnover intentions, and lowered stress (Allen et al., 2004; Chao, 1997; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991).

Ragins and Cotton (1999) made an interesting suggestion when they discussed that processes within the mentoring relationship can affect the functions provided by the mentor, and consequently, one would suspect that they affect the benefits as well. Two processes of particular interest are mentor motivation and visibility. They stated that formal mentors (those assigned or matched to one another through an organization's assistance) may decide to mentor to show citizenship behaviors, and may enter the relationship in part to receive organizational recognition. Here, the mentor's best interests are of most concern. Secondly, they may be self-conscious in providing their mentoring functions because they could be perceived as favoritism by other subordinates (Myers & Humphreys, 1985). Whether it is self-interest or fear of providing adequate support, the protégé will suffer the consequences. Therefore, the mentoring relationship, just as any other relationship, can contain both functional and dysfunctional aspects (Duck, 1994). To her credit, over twenty years ago, Kram (1985) warned against oversimplifying mentoring as a unilateral positive experience. Hence, to ignore the negative outcomes of mentoring would be a disservice.

Dysfunctional Mentoring

Mentoring relationships can range at any given time from being highly effective (i.e., functional) to marginally effective to dysfunctional. Kram (1985) even described one of her 18 types of mentoring relationships as "destructive" (p. 10). This aspect of mentoring has not been considered until recently when dysfunctional mentoring has received attention in both theory (Feldman, 1999; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee, 1978; Scandura, 1998) and research (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby, Butts, Lockwood, & Simon, 2004; Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russel, 2000; O'Neil & Sankowsky, 2001; Simon & Eby, 2003). Feldman (1999) and Eby et al. (2000) characterize a dysfunctional relationship as one in which the mentor is actively involved

in disrupting the relationship. The proposed study will adopt a similar perspective and will identify dysfunctional mentoring through the protégé's negative experiences.

Dysfunctional mentoring has been called a low base rate phenomenon (Eby & Allen, 2002; Ragins & Scandura, 1997); however, this is misleading statement since 54% of protégés surveyed by Eby et al. (2000) reported involvement in at least one negative mentoring relationship. When this dysfunction occurs, its results can be quite harmful. In fact, Eby and Allen (2002) found that protégés with a history of negative mentoring experiences had higher stress and turnover intentions, as well as lower job satisfaction. In order to fully grasp this "dark side" of mentoring, it is necessary to first understand the origin and makeup of dysfunctional relationships, as it can take on many forms.

There are many thoughts on why mentoring relationships become dysfunctional (for a thorough review, see Scandura, 1998). One of the most commonly cited causes points to the unbalanced structure of the relationship as it relates to power (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1990). In particular, supervisory mentoring subjects itself to a greater risk of inappropriate influence because the supervisor possesses control over outcomes and opportunities for the protégé (Ashforth, 1994). Further, mentors also fear the potential costs of the relationship. For example, mentors may have concerns that a promising protégé would replace them, an aspiring protégé may sabotage them (Halatin & Knotts, 1982), and/or a poorly performing protégé may reflect negatively on them (Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1997). These concerns may block the progress of a protégé through five differing negative mentoring metathemes provided by Eby et al. (2000). Briefly, these five negative mentoring experiences are: Mismatch Within the Dyad (perceived differences in values, work styles, and personality); Lack of Mentor Expertise (mentor lacks either interpersonal or technical expertise or both); General Dysfunctionality (mentor displays a

negative attitude toward work or has personal problems that interfere with their ability to mentor); Distancing Behavior (neglecting and excluding the protégé, mentor self-absorption, or simply withdrawing from the relationship); and Manipulative Behavior (mentor inappropriately uses authority and/or takes credit for the protégé's work).

Eby et al. (2000) found Distancing Behavior (specifically mentor neglect) to be the most frequent type of negative mentoring reported. Further, Eby & Allen (2002) went so far as to group both Distancing Behavior and Manipulative Behavior together because both are marked by negative intent on the part of the mentor. Therefore, negative mentoring will be focused on these two types, with particular attention given to Manipulative Behavior due to its relevance with power issues and authority in supervisory mentoring.

There are two subthemes in the descriptions of Manipulative Behavior as being exploitative and politically motivated (Eby & Allen, 2002). The first theme is *position power*, and covers situations of tyranny and inappropriate delegating by using one's superior status in a hierarchy. For example, a mentor who insults a protégé to raise his/her own self-esteem would be exhibiting position power. The second theme is *politicking*, which includes credit taking, sabotage, and deceit. For example, a mentor who intentionally hinders the progress or reputation of the protégé displays this theme. While the mentoring literature subdivides these manipulative behaviors, literature in social influence, management, and organizational behavior classifies all of these as being *political* – that is, actions that further one's own self-interests without regard for fairness or the well being of others or the organization (Kacmar & Barron, 1999, p. 4). From this vantage point, organizational politics can be used to explain the emergence, consequences, and perceptions of mentor's manipulative behavior.

Organizational Politics

Hall, Hochwarter, Ferris, and Bowen (2004) concluded that the cornerstone of political activity is the maintenance of one's self-interest exercised through social influence. In addition to being self-serving and non-sanctioned, Kacmar & Baron (1999) found two additional commonalities of political activity: (1) the real motivations behind them are concealed from their target, and (2) they occur in competitive environments with unclear rules concerning the allocation of rewards and resources. Research in the field of politics can be divided among the level of analysis (i.e., "micro" or individual level vs. "macro" or subunit level) and the nature of analysis (i.e., political behavior vs. the perception of politics). This paper will limit its examination to micro-politics (Burns, 1961), while studying perception of politics and political behavior experienced and exhibited by both parties.

When individuals engage in political behaviors, it acts to blur the relationship between performance and reward for employees; and in doing so, negatively impacts the social/psychological contract (Andersson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995) between employer and employee (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997). This contract represents an implied mutually beneficial relationship, and this reciprocal treatment becomes undermined by parties who do not participate politically. This situation can result in jealously and resentment due to the perception of unfair distribution of rewards and recognition (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995). The key word to note is the *perception* of politics, a stream of work that has generated a vast amount of research in the past two decades.

Perception of Politics

The use of perception of politics (POPS) in this study is supported by a seminal empirical study by Gandz & Murray (1980) which suggested that politics should be conceived of as a

subjective evaluation rather than an objective reality. This article, along with the notion put forth by Lewin (1936) that individuals respond more to perceptions of reality than reality itself, influenced the theoretical model of Ferris, Russ, and Fandt (1989). Their original and recently updated model (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002) has been the motivation for the majority of research on POPS. The research testing this model has shown a connection from POPS to a variety of consequences, including lowered job satisfaction and job involvement, as well as increased job anxiety and turnover intentions (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Maslyn & Fedor, 1998; Valle & Perrewé, 2000; Witt, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2000).

So what exactly is POPS? Ferris, et al. (2000) stated that POPS "involves an individual's attribution to behaviors of self-serving intent, and is defined as an individual's subjective evaluation about the extent to which the work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who demonstrate such self-serving behavior" (p. 90). POPS emphasizes subjective feelings towards political behavior, and has been found to be conceptually distinct from actual political behavior (Hochwarter, 2003). Arguments have been made (Fedor & Maslyn, 2002; Kakabadse & Parker, 1984) that an individual's evaluation of whether or not he/she perceives politics may depend upon the outcome received from another's behavior (i.e., wins vs. losses: situations are not political if they work out in one's favor, but are political if they do not). From this perspective, the conclusion can be drawn that those who suspect political behavior and do not benefit from it are more likely to perceive organizational politics. For those who have the opportunity to change their situation (those in a power position, such as mentors), they may reduce the discrepancies of their perceived inequalities by acting out similarly to pursue their own self-interests. Some may see this "go along to get ahead" mentality as an opportunity to act politically themselves (if you can't beat them, join them). One such way individuals can do this,

especially those in a power position (such as mentors) is to take advantage of those below them in order to benefit themselves and reduce those perceived inequities. Within a political climate, when an opportunity to enter a mentoring relationship presents itself, potential mentors may have ulterior motives driving them to volunteer beyond the good intentions normally associated with such behavior.

Mentor Motives

In her handbook chapter, Kanfer (1990) recognized a commonality in nearly all motivational theories is that they refer to dynamic resource allocation processes. Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen (1980) provided an integrative theory that regards motivation as a personal resource allocation process in which persons distribute time and effort in a way that maximizes anticipated positive affect. In other words, expending one's time and effort is a function of how well an individual reaches their goals, and subsequently their level of satisfaction. For the mentor, the decision to enter a mentoring relationship involves expending resources (time and effort) towards the development of the protégé: a consideration that may affect the quality of mentoring provided (Allen, 2003; Allen et al., 1997; Lima, 2004).

Whether or not a mentor expends their time and effort in the relationship may be dependent upon what they expect in return. As mentioned, social exchange theory (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959) depicts how members examine expected costs and benefits when choosing to enter a relationship. This perspective reiterates a finding by Ragins and Scandura (1999) that anticipated costs and benefits were related to intentions to mentor. On one hand, mentors can benefit by feeling a sense of fulfillment and satisfaction in helping another, and mentors also have the added advantage of being recognized within the company along with potential increases in job performance from the support of the protégé. On the other hand, mentors may be

apprehensive from potential costs of these possible outcomes: replacement by their protégés, negative perceptions of the mentors because of poorly performing protégés, and the perception of showing favoritism to their protégés in comparison to other employees.

The balance of exchange mentors make between costs and benefits directly influences their anticipated affect, and in turn, their motivation. Ragins and Scandura (1999) showed that those without mentoring experience anticipated higher costs, and those with mentoring experience who expected greater costs had significantly lower intentions to mentor than those expecting low costs. This finding emphasizes a suggestion made by Chao, Walz, and Gardner (1992) that "motivation to participate in a mentorship be a primary concern for formal programs" (p. 634). With this in mind, three types of mentor motives found by Allen (2003) will be explored: self-enhancement motives, benefit others motives, and intrinsic satisfaction motives.

Self-enhancement Motive

One of the most disputed topics in economics, philosophy, psychology, and even evolutionary biology is that all human behavior can be attributed to self-interest (Etzioni, 1988; Kohn, 1990; Schwartz, 1986; Wallach & Wallach, 1983). Stemming back to the days of ethical egoists, Aristotle, Socrates, and Plato all believed that it is right and proper to pursue one's own self interests, because doing so leads to happiness. In relation to mentoring, mentors may be motivated out of self-enhancement in order to realize the rewards it can offer them (e.g., to increase their visibility in the organization, to earn respect from others). Mentoring can be seen as an opportunity to better one's performance through delegation (Zey, 1984) or to help accelerate a promotion by training one's replacement (Hunt & Michael, 1983). Whereas the former example places an emphasis on how the mentor can benefit without concern for the protégé, the latter shows an opportunity for both to profit. As long as the protégé's and mentor's

interests are both served, self-enhancement motives may be positively related to mentor functions. In fact, Lima (2004) found partial support that such motives were related to career development functions. This study will attempt to show that a motivation to mentor out of one's own self-enhancement cannot fulfill both parties' interests when the supervisor acts as mentor and while under the influence of POPS.

However, many examples in organizations demonstrate that motives can exist beyond self-enhancement. Individuals can reciprocate and help others when they become aware that their actions can become self-defeating – that is, they realize that no one benefits if everyone acts out of self-interest, since the company must first benefit in order to for the individual to also benefit (Colman, 2003; Ostrom, 1998). Correspondingly, mentors may show other forms of motives when political perceptions are low or non-existent.

Benefit Others Motive

This particular motive exists when mentors possess a desire to: benefit the organization, build a competent workforce, and/or help others succeed. Those high in benefit others motive have a genuine concern for the welfare of others. De Dreu (2004) describes this motive as "other orientation" and finds it to be independent and orthogonal from self-interest/self-concern. Additionally, Allen (2003) and Lima (2004) found that those mentors who were motivated to benefit others provided more psychosocial and career-related functions.

Intrinsic Satisfaction Motive

The final mentor motive found through factor analysis by Allen (2003) was intrinsic satisfaction. Individuals with high intrinsic satisfaction motives often choose to mentor or are attracted to mentor for reasons pertaining to the feelings they receive from providing advice to a protégé. This dimension consists of feelings ranging from the personal gratification and pride

from seeing a protégé develop, to a sense of self-satisfaction and enjoyment gained from passing on insights to another. Once more, beneficial results have been found when motives are not self–absorbed. As Allen (2003) and Lima (2004) showed, individuals with a motivation stemming from intrinsic satisfaction provided higher levels of psychosocial mentoring, but not career-related mentoring.

The Protégé's Role in Supervisory Mentoring

"Image is everything." This phrase in popular culture also holds true in organizations. Protégés enter into a mentoring relationship to better themselves and their relative position, and they need to develop a good rapport with mentors in order to accomplish this goal. Goffman (1955, 1959) introduced the idea that, based on the situation, individuals can alter the image they choose to present to others in order to obtain their goals. This argument was the basis for what is now referred to as impression management.

Impression management (IM) is defined as the process through which individuals manipulate information about themselves so that others perceive them as they desire to be viewed (Schlenker, 1980). Individuals can reach their goal of creating this desired image through a variety of tactics. Jones and Pittman (1982) identified five primary IM strategies that individuals are likely to use: ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, supplication, and intimidation. Among the five IM strategies, ingratiation appears to be the most empirically investigated (Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, Blass, Kolodinsy, & Treadway, 2002) and one of the most frequently used (Turnley & Bolino, 2001).

Ingratiation

Ingratiation, as put forth by Jones and Pitman (1982), involves doing favors or giving flattery in order to be perceived as likable. The focus of ingratiation behaviors is oriented on the

target (in this case, the mentor), by agreeing with the target's opinions, conforming to the target's personal values, and offering the target praise and flattery. While ingratiation has been labeled as a political tactic (Cheng, 1983), it is also a "soft" tactic. Unlike manipulative and distancing behaviors which are viewed in a negative light, ingratiation is a harmless upward influence attempt since it is not deemed to be injurious to any party (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Hall et al., 2004; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988). From this perspective, politics can be seen in light (ingratiation) and dark (distancing/manipulation) forms of influence, where one's intent distinguishes between the two. This "light" or "soft" side of politics can lead to many positive outcomes for the underling (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003).

Ingratiation has been positively associated with: performance evaluations (Gordon, 1996; Higgins et al., 2003; Varma, Toh, & Pichler, 2006), liking/affect (Gordon, 1996; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), and objective outcomes of salary and promotion (Higgins et al., 2003; Orpen, 1996; Watt, 1993). Conceivably, the success of subordinate ingratiation techniques could be attributed to its ability to create bias in evaluations. Wayne and Ferris (1990) theorized that successful ingratiation attempts can lead a supervisor to form a positive impression of and attribute desirable qualities to a subordinate. From this a supervisor may categorize these attributions, which may influence their affect, performance ratings, and later behaviors towards the ingratiator. This acts in accordance with halo error and schematic processing (Feldman,1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983). However, no strategy is foolproof, not even ingratiation, as Jones and Pittman (1982) caution that attempts at impression management strategies carry the risk of being perceived negatively. Therefore, subordinates must possess the talent in their ingratiation attempts so that their true intentions remain hidden – an attribute of social competency and astuteness more commonly known as political skill.

Political Skill

Organizations are inherently political arenas (Mintzberg, 1985), and in order to survive in such an atmosphere, individuals need to possess or develop political skill. Political skill is defined as "the ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004, p. 311). Used correctly, political skill has been found to: neutralize the negative effects of role conflict on strain (Perrewé, Zellars, Ferris, Rossi, Kacmar, & Ralston, 2004), moderate between impression management tactics and supervisor evaluations of performance (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, and Shaw (2007), and positively predict team performance (Ahearn et al., 2004).

Ferris et al. (2005) suggest that those high in political skill can adjust their behavior according to work context in such a way to both disguise one's intent and appear sincere. Similarly, Turnley and Bolino (2001) found that high self-monitors more effectively use ingratiation than do low self-monitors. The fundamental difference between the perceiver attributing the same behavior (ingratiation) as either political or one of citizenship is a function of the employee's political skill (Bolino, 1999; Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor, & Judge, 1995). Therefore, those using ingratiation tactics who are highly politically skilled are perceived as sincere, while the same tactics of those low in political skill are interpreted as political. Ferris, Perrewé, Anthony, and Gilmore (2000) suggest that "political skill does not make the interpersonal influence behavior; it makes the influence behavior better."

Synopsis

Organizational politics remains a common characteristic in most organizations, regardless of the direction of the influence behavior or its state as perceived or real. In fact, Murray and

Gandz's research (1980) showed 90% of those surveyed thought politics was common in organizations, and Frost and Egri (1990) go so far as to suggest that organizational politics are inevitable. Hence, for those involved in a political climate, a decision must be made: to withdraw from the organization, to remain in the organization and not become involved, or to become politically active.

The current study examined how individuals react to politics within mentoring relationships in an organizational setting. The next section details how POPS is expected to affect the mentor and protégé individually, and in doing so, demonstrate politics' role in mentoring functions provided (i.e., the protégé's mentoring experience), and how these functions influence protégé outcomes of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, stress, and performance.

Hypotheses and Rationale

The Mentor's Perspective

Within a mentoring relationship, the mentor can be regarded as the most vital member – as their input empowers the protégé to succeed. Nonetheless, how the mentor perceives their environment and their protégé has a distinct impact on the relationship development. Specifically, this section considers the role a political environment plays in mentor motives in addition to the types of functions the mentor eventually provides.

Mentor POPS and Self-Enhancement Motives

Climate is defined as the perception of formal and informal organizational policies, practices and procedures (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). As mentioned (Ferris et al., 1989; Kacmar & Barron, 1999), the perception of politics usually arises within environments that are ambiguous in nature (i.e., where no clear practices or policies exist) and in which there exists competition for scarce resources. Perceiving a climate as political can either be a shared

experience (known as organizational climate) or it can differ among individuals (known as psychological climate). When the frame of reference is a single individual, climate is conceptualized and measured at the individual level (Guion, 1973; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; James & Jones, 1974). To the extent that individuals find themselves in a political climate, motives for mentoring may be altered. For instance, the decision to mentor may be justified by the mentor back fitting their reasons for volunteering because of the political climate. In effect, their attitudes and motives to mentor have changed due to their own cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) between their attitudes on mentoring and behavior within a political climate. Specifically, cognitive dissonance may lead mentors to seek confirmatory evidence that their motives were due solely to the political climate, and to downplay any evidence to the contrary.

How political climate influences one's motives can also be explained through motivation theories of expectancy, equity, and control. By altering how rewards/outcomes are allocated, one can affect the performance-reward relationship, and in doing so, act to change instrumentalities (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964). Within a political climate, the perceived relationship between performance and expected outcomes can sway some to reconsider the best way to perform their jobs. In addition to these motivations, those who perceive others' behaviors as political may view several inequities between the ratios of their inputs to outputs in comparison to others. This viewpoint may stimulate or arouse them to adjust their effort in order to reduce discrepancies, all of which can determine one's direction, intensity, or persistence of similar behaviors.

When an opportunity to mentor presents itself, potential mentors who perceive a political climate may volunteer to be a mentor for reasons outside of helping the protégé, focusing more on how the protégé can help them (e.g., someone to give "busy work" to, bringing in new skills

to improve the mentor's job performance, etc.). Within a climate where self-interests are at the forefront, a number of self-enhancement motivations arise for serving as a mentor (Ragins & Scandura, 1999), such as organizational recognition, overtime pay, and promotional opportunities – allowing these benefits to become more salient. Using this logic, along with following a call from Ragins and Scandura (1999) who said that future research should look at additional variables influencing the decision to mentor such as the environment or climate, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1. Mentor POPS will be positively associated with mentor self-enhancement motives.

Mentor POPS, Self-Enhancement Motives, and Mentor Functions

The Mentoring and Politics literatures agree that one's behavior (whether it is referred to as dysfunctional or political) stems from individual motives. Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) said that in order to understand more fully the decision to engage in mentoring behavior, it is important to explore the motivational reasons that underlie an individual's choice to mentor others. While the three types of motives have been found to be positively related to each other (Allen, 2003), they may also explain unique variance in mentoring behavior. Moreover, the motives that prompt an individual's reason for mentoring may relate to the type of mentoring provided. On this note, the way that self-enhancement motives may relate to dysfunctional mentoring is of particular interest.

Within political literature, Mintzberg (1983, 1985) proposed and argued that before engaging in political behavior (i.e., dysfunctional mentoring via distancing and manipulative behavior), individuals need to demonstrate their willingness, or *motivation*, to expend personal

resources. He called this political will. For continuance, this paper will refer to those motives that are of a self-aggrandizing function as self-enhancement.

In the previous hypothesis, I argued that POPS can influence self-enhancement motives. In this current hypothesis, I am arguing that, in addition, POPS can also direct the manner in which these motives influence mentoring functions provided. Evidence is prominent that mentors may possess self-enhancement motives; however, this particular motive may not be destructive on its own.

Mentoring can and should be mutually beneficial, and conceivably self-enhancement motives aid the protégé in some way. For example, it was previously mentioned that a mentor may work towards his/her own promotion by helping to train a protégé. So, it is possible to advance the self while benefiting another, and research has even shown that self-enhancement motives can be related to functional mentoring (Allen, 2003; Lima 2004) – in this case, career development. However, a major limitation of these findings is that only the mentor reported that functional mentoring was given. Perhaps the protégé did not benefit and dysfunctional mentoring did occur, but it simply was not measured, and therefore needs to be further explored. Given this example, it would seem that mentoring for personal advancement is not necessarily negative for the protégé (which is yet to be determined); but in a highly political environment, one's tactics may change in order to achieve their goals via: sabotage, abuse of power, etc.

Normally, it is argued that POPS leads to decreases in performance because it acts to demotivate an individual by weakening the performance-reward link (Moorman, 1991; Witt, 1998). However, motives are not typically studied in politics literature, which tends to focus on the perspective of the employee's upward political tactics, and not the perspective of the supervisor. While demotivating for subordinates, superiors may see this "go along to get ahead"

mentality as an opportunity to act politically themselves. Especially for individuals in a power position, a way to gain from this situation is to take advantage of those below them in order to better their own outcomes. For supervisory mentors, POPS can especially influence the relationship between such motives and mentoring provided because the potential benefits of behaving politically are so high, and the risk is relatively low since these mentors are already in the power position and are currently holding control of rewards and resources.

Another reason POPS may shape the effect self-enhancement motives has on mentoring functions could be attributed to the fact that such motives may be more accepted in a highly political environment. In such an environment, selfish acts are more commonplace and therefore can be acted upon more freely. According to the law of effect (Thorndike, 1911), perceiving a climate that rewards self-serving activities not sanctioned by the organization can encourage similar behaviors to persist. In fact, Ferris, Zinko, Brauer, Buckley, & Harvey (2007) stated that POPS can act as a stimulant to political behavior or bullying by leaders as a means of regaining control over their environment, and leaders are in a position to issue this control. In this particular case, I am proposing that POPS would act as a stimulant to political behavior via a moderating variable (see Figure 2), and therefore it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2. Mentor POPS will moderate the relationship between self-enhancement motives to mentor and dysfunctional mentoring. Specifically, when mentor POPS is high, self-enhancement motives to mentor will be more strongly related to dysfunctional mentoring than when mentor POPS is low.

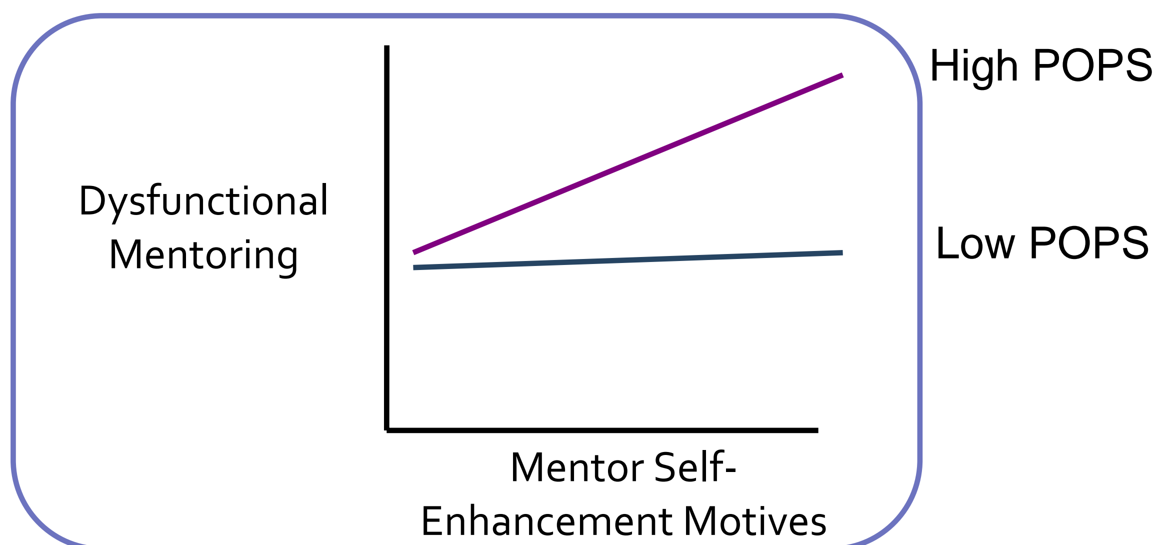

Figure 2 Graphical representation of interaction for Hypothesis 2

Other Mentor Motives and Accompanied Mentor Functions

Regarding the two mentor motives yet to be mentioned (benefit others and intrinsic satisfaction), logically one would suppose that those whose intentions are based on either a genuine desire to help others or pride in passing on insights would naturally provide or try to establish desirable experiences for the protégé. Allen (2003) found that those who were motivated to mentor in order benefit others reported providing both types of functional mentoring (career development & psychosocial functions), while Lima (2004) only found a relation to career development (through mentor ratings). Relating mentor motives of intrinsic satisfaction to mentor functions, both authors (Allen, 2003; Lima, 2004) found full support for a positive relation to psychosocial mentoring. The current study will be a replication and extension of these two prior studies, and will be the first to examine antecedents of dysfunctional mentoring for the protégé. Hence, it is predicted that:

Hypothesis 3. Mentors more strongly motivated to mentor for the benefit of others will provide (a) more functional mentoring, and (b) less dysfunctional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor for the benefit of others.

Hypothesis 4. Mentors more strongly motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction will provide (a) more functional mentoring, and (b) less dysfunctional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction.

The Protégé's Perspective

POPS and Ingratiation

One could imagine that because of their lower status, POPS may act to constrain a protégé's behavior – due to the fact that the intended political behavior would be targeted at those in control (the supervisors). However, not all political behavior involves overt sabotage and abuse of power that may endanger a subordinate's job security. In fact, "soft" political tactics can work equally well at obtaining goals, and so it may be better to characterize a protégé's actions under high POPS simply as being more cautious and filtered. In support, Jablin (1981) reported that subordinates who perceived their supervisors as highly political were less open in communication than subordinates who perceived their supervisors as being less politically involved. In addition, Tepper (1995) found that protégés who have supervisory mentors regulated their conversations with mentors by stretching the truth, faking enthusiasm, or using flattery. The inference here is that protégés may fear the consequences that come with a high political environment and believe they have to fake/flatter their mentors to attain sought after rewards and to remain in good standing with them. Here, the protégés' power to serve their own desired outcomes and keep their mentors appeased is wielded through the use of upward influence tactics, specifically ingratiation.

Essentially, the protégés are combating potential political behavior by behaving politically themselves, which Valle (1997) substantiated by finding that individuals respond to POPS by using proactive political behaviors (behaviors that promote self-interest). Ingratiation is a type of proactive political behavior that praises others (i.e., supervisors/mentors) in order to be liked and to keep the target content, and as a result is considered a "soft" yet self-serving tactic. Johns (1999) points out that self-serving behavior is stimulated when a situation (such as a high political climate) acts to either threaten one's identity or valuable resources. As previously mentioned, POPS arises under conditions of ambiguity and scarce resources, and a protégé cognizant of his/her surroundings may realize he or she is potentially viewed as a threat by the mentor – threatening identity (because the protégé could replace the mentor), and threatening resources (because the protégé may seek out pay raises or additional face time with clients to which the mentor might find objection). Therefore, in highly political environments, protégés try to offset potential political behaviors of mentors by increasing their ingratiation tactics. Thus:

Hypothesis 5. Protégé POPS will be positively correlated with their use of ingratiation towards their mentor.

Ingratiation and Political Skill

When ingratiation is used correctly, it establishes a favorable impact on someone higher in authority so that the subordinate will be viewed as likeable and friendly. The end goal of achieving this desired image is to positively skew the way in which the target may normally assess the ingratiator and increase the likelihood that the target will want to help him/her. Conceptual and empirical work supports this in demonstrating that subordinates who engage in ingratiation and similar impression management tactics can enhance their supervisors' liking of

them (Gordon, 1996; Jones & Wortman, 1973; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). However, the relative success of ingratiation is debatable, as its outcomes have been both positive (Orpen, 1996) and negative (Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Instinctively, ingratiating behaviors would seem to help the subordinates (protégés), but they may also backfire to negatively affect the same individuals.

Crant (1996) stated that high levels of ingratiation can lead to negative outcomes. For instance, an employee who engages in high levels of ingratiation in an indiscriminate or unpolished manner is likely to be evaluated as less competent by a supervisor. Within a mentoring relationship, an ingratiating protégé may be viewed as an opportunist, which could bring out feelings of resentment or hatred toward the protégé (Eby & McManus, 2004). Stengel (2000) argued that in order to ingratiate effectively, an individual's attempts must be perceived as sincere, where this sincerity distinguishes between what is desired (praise) and what is not (flattery). Ultimately, the success of influence tactics is determined by the target's reception of the performed behavior, which is in line with Heider's (1958) balance theory. Balance theory involves reducing dissonance in dyadic exchanges by maintaining a balance of sentiments. In the case of a mentor-protégé dyad, when an ingratiation tactic is interpreted as sincere and positive, then the expected outcome is a reciprocated positive sentiment in the form of increased liking of the protégé (thus maintaining positive balance). However, those tactics viewed as insincere may result in disliking and eventual negative evaluations (Bolino, 1999; Ferris et al., 1995). Individuals with the ability to manage how the target receives ingratiation are labeled as being "politically skilled."

Harris, et al. (2007) along with Linden and Mitchell (1988) noted that politically skilled individuals are more likely to display influence behaviors that are appropriate for the given

context, thereby serving as a way to distinguish between those who appear sincere and those who appear self-serving. By using political skill, Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, and Thatcher (2007) mention how subordinates are able to effectively mask their self-serving intentions, thereby making the ingratiation attempts seem altruistic in nature. Individuals who are unable to mask their intentions (politically inept individuals) may embarrass their mentors through obsequious behavior or find their tactics to be perceived as suspicious and doubtful – both viewed as a cost to the mentor that could result in an aversion towards the protégé.

Therefore, the success of ingratiation and other impression management tactics is dependent upon how socially adept one is – which could explain the mixed findings between ingratiation and supervisor liking and assessment ratings expressed earlier. Harris et al. (2007) found individuals who used high levels of ingratiation and who were politically skilled achieved more desirable supervisor ratings than those who used the tactics but were not politically skilled. Additionally, Treadway et al. (2007) provided evidence that subordinates with high political skill were less likely than those with low political skill to have their ingratiation attempts perceived by supervisors as manipulative or self-serving.

Only one study thus far has examined how socially adept individuals can achieve liking through the use of ingratiation. Turnley and Bolino (1999) found that high self-monitors are more adept than low self-monitors at using ingratiation to achieve their desired likeable image. Political skill builds from self-monitoring in that both reflect the ability of individuals to regulate their own behavior. However, political skill distinguishes itself from self-monitoring in that political skill is used to effect change in a desired manner (i.e., influence liking), whereas self-monitoring describes individuals' attempts to demonstrate socially appropriate behavior. Since political skill incorporates the strengths of self-monitoring along with the ability to influence

their outcomes, and self-monitoring has shown to moderate the relationship between ingratiation and liking, one should expect an even stronger interaction with political skill (see Figure 3). Thus: From this, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 6. The protégé's political skill will moderate the relationship between the ingratiation attempts they direct at their mentor and their mentor's liking of them. Specifically, for those with low political skill, protégé ingratiation will be negatively related to liking, and for those with high political skill, protégé ingratiation will be positively related to liking.

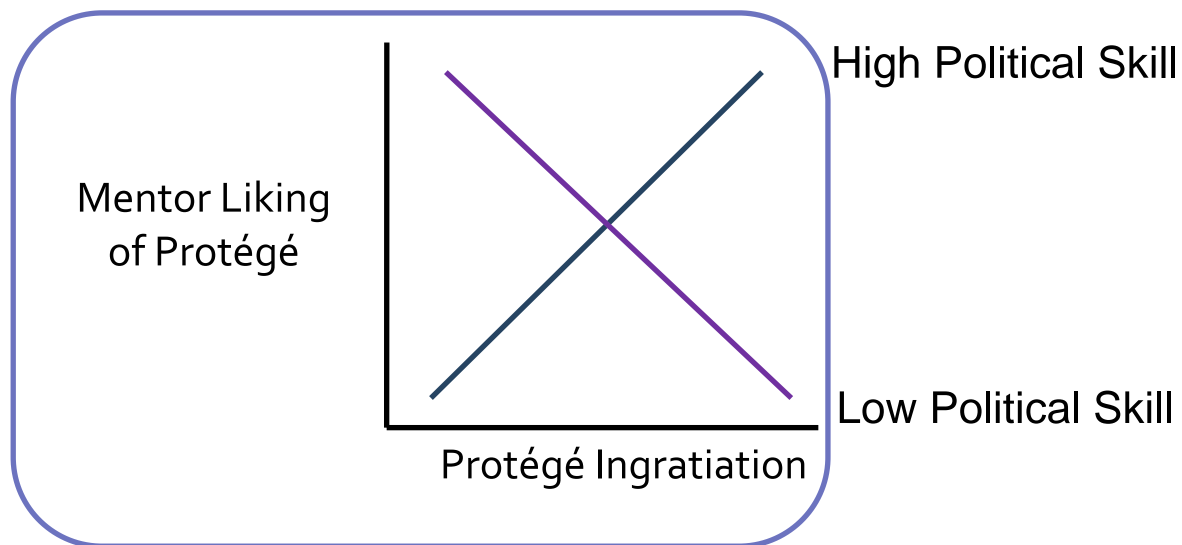

Figure 3 Graphical representation of interaction for Hypothesis 6

Liking and Perceived Mentor Functions

Though research describes how variables of ingratiation, political skill, and self-monitoring affect a supervisor's liking or impression of an employee (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewé, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007; Gordon, 1996; Harris et al., 2007; Turnley & Bolino, 1999), few studies explore how this fondness may influence subsequent behavior toward the subordinate – in this case, functional or dysfunctional mentoring. With regard to supervisory mentoring,

researchers have found liking related to supervisory responses of performance ratings (e.g., Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Kingstrom & Mainstone, 1985; Tsui & Barry, 1986; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and reward behavior (Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Pandey & Bohra, 1984; Podsakoff, 1982). Given these findings, it seems reasonable that liking may influence other supervisory behaviors, such as those associated with mentoring functions. Similarly, though lacking empirical support, Lankau, Riordan, and Thomas (2005) surmised that a mentor's liking or attraction to a protégé would cause the mentor to view the protégé as having more potential, resulting in the mentor's willingness to provide career development and psychosocial support.

Another reason liking may influence mentoring functions relates to how it influences leader/member exchange. Beyond performance ratings, Wayne and Ferris (1990) found that liking also affects the quality of the exchange relationship that develops between a supervisor and subordinate. Other researchers (Engle & Lord, 1997; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993) have shown further support that a supervisor's liking for the subordinate was significantly correlated with their LMX ratings. In turn, exchange quality or LMX theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) relates to a number of desirable outcomes for subordinates that parallel functional mentoring, such as supervisor support and guidance. Perhaps those protégés that are better liked become part of the "in group", and as a result, receive more attention and feedback from their mentor.

What about those members in the "out group"? Perhaps these members are viewed as an embarrassment or are not taken as seriously, and consequently, they may fall victim to behaviors of neglect, credit taking and/or delegated work. It was shown that positive affect can lead to positive behaviors, but could negative affect or dislike of a protégé be potent enough for the mentor to depart from their expected role and use distancing or manipulative behaviors? Spector (1997) argues that counterproductive behaviors such as sabotage, blackmail, and credit taking

may be the result of reactions to frustration – in this case, ill attempts at ingratiation spark frustration. Hence, poor ingratiation attempts can lessen one's liking for another, and consequently stimulate counterproductive behavior (i.e., dysfunctional behavior) on the part of the mentor. Mentors may also fear replacement by successful or sabotaging protégés (Ragins & Scandura, 1999), and these fears may be heightened by highly transparent ingratiation attempts. Such sycophantic protégé behavior would result in negative reactions, forcing subsequent political/dysfunctional actions by the mentor to allay their fears.

In essence, the mentor is more likely to sabotage the protégé if sabotage is already suspected by the mentor. Accordingly, the mentor's liking of the protégé or lack thereof will influence subsequent behavior, thereby affecting how the protégé will experience and receive mentor functions. Hence, the following is predicted:

Hypothesis 7. Protégés who are better liked by their mentor will report having received (a) greater functional mentoring and (b) less dysfunctional mentoring.

Mentoring Outcomes for the Protégé

Literature on mentoring, politics, and abusive behavior tends to converge on three specific job outcomes: job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and stress. This section will conclude by delineating how both positive and negative mentoring affects these three protégé outcomes, along with protégé performance. This is done as a response to Eby (2004), who requests more research to relate protégé perceptions and outcomes, specifically those associated with manipulative behavior of the mentor. Also, Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, and Kacmar (2007) similarly mentioned that the impact of abusive supervision within supervisor-subordinate dyads needs further exploration.

It is important to note at this point that positive and negative mentoring is not an either/or occurrence. Many have theorized and found that mentorships, just as any other kind of personal relationship (Duck, 1994), can be marked by both positive and negative experiences (Eby et al., 2004; Kram, 1985; Ragins et al.,2000; Scandura, 1998). Even the most functional of relationships can leave individuals feeling used, deceived, or neglected at times. From this, it should be understood that functional and dysfunctional mentoring can account uniquely to positive and negative protégé outcomes, as both types of mentoring have been found to be unique constructs (Eby et al., 2004). So then, the basic and logical expectation is that functional mentoring will lead to positive outcomes whereas dysfunctional mentoring will lead to negative outcomes. For instance, when mentors meet or exceed the expectations of the protégés by providing friendship, role modeling, counseling, sponsorship, etc., the job should become more enjoyable, less stressful, easier to perform well; and both parties should experience an increased desire to remain in the environment. Conversely, undermining and abuse in a relationship brings obvious implications inverse to those of functional mentoring and can be outlined through the literature on abusive supervision.

Abusive supervision aligns with negative mentoring experiences as a measure of a superior's behavior through the underling's perception. Tepper (2000) defines abusive supervision as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in sustained display of hostile, verbal and non-verbal behaviors excluding physical contact" (p. 178). Tepper (2000) and Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002) argued that abusive supervisor behaviors are conceptually similar to behaviors such as petty tyranny, defined as the oppressive use of one's power over another (Ashforth, 1994, 1997), and social undermining, which refers to behaviors that impair one's ability to succeed at work (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002). These

behaviors dovetail perfectly with the two dimensions of manipulative behavior (position power and politicking) and their negative impact to mentoring on the outcomes of interest will now be provided the attention they well deserve.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is concerned with the extent to which individuals like or dislike their jobs. One particular characteristic that can influence job satisfaction is how individuals make comparisons or discrepancies within their job. In his value-percept model, Locke (1976) suggested that such comparisons are made between what is desired and what is received from the job. Within the definition and framework of mentoring is the expectation for the protégé to advance in some fashion and receive certain benefits from the relationship – their intention when seeking a mentor.

From this perspective it can be reasoned that part of a protégé's overall job satisfaction is dependent upon whether their mentoring experience meets or exceeds expectations/desires, and dissatisfaction occurring from unmet expectations. Moreover, supervisory mentors are in a position to affect the protégé's work conditions (Kram, 1985) as well as their pay and promotions, all of which influence job satisfaction (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Research supports both positions of protégé expectations and mentor power by attributing functional mentoring to increased job satisfaction (Allen et al.,2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Koberg, Boss, Chappell, & Ringer, 1994), and dysfunctional mentoring, specifically manipulative/abusive behavior to decreased job satisfaction (Eby & Allen, 2002; Keashly, Trott, & McClean, 1994; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Therefore it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 8. Protégé job satisfaction will be (a) positively related to functional mentoring and (b) negatively related to dysfunctional mentoring.

Turnover Intentions

Voluntary turnover of employees is unwanted and detrimental to the organization. After all, the one thing that distinguishes successful organizations are its members, and losing valued workers can disrupt work flow and cost the company both in time and money to replace the individual. It is important to note that turnover intention is considered the last stage before actual turnover. In fact, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action postulates that "the best single predictor of an individual's behavior will be a measure of his intention to perform that behavior" (p. 369). This theory as it relates to turnover has received a large amount of support finding a strong relation between turnover intentions and actual turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000; Kraut, 1975; Mobley, Homer, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Prestholdt, Lane, & Matbews, 1987; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

One could postulate that mentors help reduce such intentions by "showing them the ropes" – providing the protégés role clarity within their jobs so they can better understand their jobs and how to best fit within the company. Hackman and Oldham (1980) illustrated that experiencing meaning in one's work was associated with reduced turnover. The learning experiences and support provided by a functional mentor may enable the protégé to develop faster and better enjoy the company, thereby wanting to remain in the organization. Perhaps this reasoning could explain why several other researchers have found functional mentoring leading to lowered turnover intentions (Joiner, Bartram, & Garreffa, 2004; Koberg, Boss, & Goodman, 1998; Viator & Scandura, 1991).

Abusive supervision literature has also found both theoretical and empirical links to turnover intentions. One reason suggested by Porter and Steers' (1973) "met expectations" model is that employees expect cordial supervisory relations, and when this is not the case and

expectations are unmet, turnover intentions should rise. Also, Tepper (2000) suggested abusive supervision causes one to dislike the job and supervisor, both of which are likely to promote withdrawal or at least withdrawal intentions. Additionally, previous research has found increased turnover intentions as a result of political behavior, abusive supervision, and dysfunctional mentoring (Anderson, 1994; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2004; Eby & Allen, 2002; Scandura, 1998; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). From these findings and knowledge that actual turnover may be best predicted by turnover intentions, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 9. Protégé turnover intentions will be (a) negatively related to functional mentoring and (b) positively related to dysfunctional mentoring.

Stress

Stress has been defined in several ways, generally as a relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or demanding, and that exceeds one's resources/abilities to cope, thereby endangering one's well-being (Kolbell, 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Selye, 1936, 1982). The demands which evoke the stress condition are known as stressors, and can be related to: tasks (time pressure, complexity), roles (ambiguity, conflict, overload), social interactions (problems with someone at work), and/or career issues (job security, career opportunities). A protégé's stress can either be exacerbated or placated depending on the mentoring functions received, and a supervisory mentor can have influence over all of the above stressors.

Functional mentoring is thought to alleviate stress through social support given by the mentor. The mentor acts to listen and provide affirmation and feedback, along with giving advice, time, and even labor. Research findings by Allen, McManus, and Russell (1999) along with Lima (2004) verify that positive mentoring can reduce stress. However, when supervisory

mentoring takes on a more abusive or dysfunctional tone, this support is replaced by potential credit taking and political actions, all of which can and have shown to heighten worker stress and anxiety (Anderson, 1994; Eby & Allen, 2002; Feldman, 1999; Levinger, 1979; Scandura, 1998; Sprecher, 1992; Tepper, 2000; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). These findings provide additional fuel to hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 10. Protégé stress will be (a) negatively related to functional mentoring and (b) positively related to dysfunctional mentoring.

Job performance

Job performance is the expected organizational value of an employee's behavior as it relates to the organization's goals. It has been argued that the main determinants or antecedents of job performance are: knowledge (both declarative and procedural), skills, abilities, and motivation – all of which a supervisory mentor can provide to or withhold from a protégé. Through the protégé's enhanced career advancement and psychosocial functions developed by a mentor, it should be expected that the protégé's job performance will increase. However, there are no studies that link mentoring with protégé job performance, and this study will be the first to hypothesize such a relationship.

Functional mentoring has been found to be related to objective outcomes such as promotion rate and compensation/salary level (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, Lima, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1999), each of which can be associated with positive or increased performance ratings. Further, functional mentoring parallels many characteristics of transformational leadership – which has shown to produce higher levels of performance (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). Both depict a leader who acts as a role model (i.e., offering psychosocial support), and who coaches and encourages (i.e., offering career-related support).

While functional mentoring would be expected to be positively associated with job performance, the converse should be expected for dysfunctional mentoring. One could reason that behaviors of neglect, withdrawal, credit taking and sabotage exhibited by a dysfunctional mentor would adversely affect antecedents of job performance, namely job knowledge and motivation. Being excluded would provide less opportunity for the protégé to learn what is needed to perform well, whereas continued abuse and deceit by the mentor would likely reduce one's choice to exert effort in the job. From this, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 11. Protégé job performance will be (a) positively related to functional mentoring and (b) negatively related to dysfunctional mentoring.

Summary

In conclusion, this study investigated the impact POPS has on two differing kinds of political behavior, a “light” side by the protégé of ingratiation and a “dark” side of manipulative behavior on the part of the mentor. In doing so, this study is unique in that it expands the typical politics model while incorporating a mentoring perspective to show the influence that POPS has on both protégé and mentor. Further, this study examines the eventual impact these colliding forces have on the protégé. Exploring dysfunctional mentoring in this manner captures the irony of mentoring in political organizations, since Perrewé’, Young, & Blass (2002) argued that a major focus of the mentoring process is on educating workers about the politics of the organization and building political skill. A key implication hoped to be gained from this study is that it may be possible to prevent political behavior by engaging in political behavior oneself.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants in this study were 125 protégés and 64 individuals who they listed as their mentors, from which a total of 93 mentor/protégé dyads were identified. Prior research examining the outcomes of protégés in functional and dysfunctional mentoring relationships generally produce small to medium effect sizes (see Allen et al., 2004; Eby & Allen, 2002; Harvey et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000). Given the 93 dyads, along with a moderate effect size (d = 0.15), $\alpha = .05$, and my largest equation containing 6 predictor variables, the resulting power for this study was .78 (Erdfelder & Buchner, 1996). This provided sufficient ability for the detection of the proposed effects. Prospective respondents within the dyad were employees (from five locations across the U.S.) of a Marketing Communications business sector affiliated with a large national corporation. All employees were potential participants and were recruited by way of a personalized e-mail sent by the head of Human Relations. This e-mail informed employees of the study's purpose, this author's third party affiliation, and provided a link for all individuals to complete the intended survey.

The initial protégé survey was sent to 470 employees across all five locations, and responses were collected from 194 individuals in four of the five locations. From those 194 respondents, 30 partially completed the survey (these mainly consisted of limiting responses to only demographic data while not providing answers to measures), and 164 fully completed the survey. Of the 164 individuals who filled out the protégé survey, 86 reported that their mentor was their current supervisor, 23 reported that their mentor was previously their supervisor, 16 reported that their mentor held a non-supervisory role, and 39 reported that they did not have a mentor.

Protégé ages ranged from a minimum of 20 years to a maximum of 68 years (*M* = 38 years); 73 reported to be male, 90 female, and two did not disclose their gender. The racial makeup consisted of a majority of Caucasians (130), followed by African Americans (19), Hispanics (8), Asians (4), and four individuals who selected "Other." There was also a wide range of highest education levels achieved by this sample, with degrees including: High School (48), Associate's Degree (20), Bachelors Degree (74), Master's Degree (20), Doctorate (1); two respondents did not provide data on highest degree. Further, organizational tenure (amount of time with the company) and job tenure (amount of time in one's current position) were measured. Organizational tenure ranged from 2 months to 383 months (*M* = 56 months, *Mdn* = 32 months), while job tenure ranged from 1 month to 383 months (*M* = 38 months, *Mdn* = 18 months).

Of the 64 mentors identified by participating protégés, 55 participated. The non-respondents consisted of: five who did not respond, a recently retired employee, an employee on maternity leave, and two who were unable to respond due to protégés providing false names. The number of protégés per mentor ranged from one to five; 40% of mentors having more than one protégé. Mentor ages ranged from a minimum of 24 years to a maximum of 67 years (*M* = 41 years). Mentors were 29 males and 25 females (one entry unfilled). The racial makeup was once more predominantly Caucasian (49), followed by Hispanic (3), and only one African American, Asian, and Other ethnicity listed. The mentor sample's level of education achieved included the following degrees: High School (10), Associates (7), Bachelors (28), Masters (20), Doctorate (1), and missing data for one individual. Further, mentor organizational tenure ranged from 7 months to 252 months (*M* = 91 months, *Mdn* = 79 months), and mentor job tenure ranged from 1 month to 143 months (*M* = 34 months, *Mdn* = 24.5 months). Last, mentors also provided

how many employees directly report to them as their supervisor. The number of mentor direct reports ranged from 1 to 21 (M = 6, Mdn = 6).

Procedure

An initial meeting with the Human Resources department supervisors from all five companies was held to determine that they were an appropriate fit for the study conditions. Some of the conditions that were satisfied included: a large number of employees across departments separated geographically within the United States, and the roles of the supervisors in all companies was to teach, guide, and monitor their subordinates (enabling them to be considered as mentors). After establishing that these five companies fulfilled the study requirements, I collaborated with the HR department supervisors in drafting an e-mail to send to potential protégés. At this juncture, potential protégés included all employees (with a note to managers that there would be an upcoming follow up survey if they were selected as a mentor). The e-mail provided the study's purpose, its benefit to the company, an assurance of their response confidentiality, and a link to the survey website.

When the respondents opened the web link, participants (i.e., protégés) were first asked to agree to an online informed consent (see Appendix N) by typing their name – allowing them to later be matched to their chosen mentor. Next, participants were asked to provide demographic information and general measures not concerning interaction with a potential mentor. These were measures of: POPS (see Appendix A), political skill (see Appendix H), job stress (see Appendix J), job satisfaction (see Appendix I), and turnover intentions (see Appendix K).

Following this initial information, individuals were given a description of a mentor which read as follows,

> "A mentor is a person of greater experience who is committed to the personal and professional development and support of a less experienced individual (i.e., "protégé"). These relationships can be informal or formal (i.e., protégé is assigned to a mentor by the organization), and you may have more than one mentor at a time. Furthermore, mentoring relationships are not always 100% positive. Like other types of relationships, they can have their ups and downs."

Participants were first asked if they would consider their current supervisor to be their mentor based upon this description. This questioning was performed because the primary interest of this study focused on supervisory mentoring. If their answer was yes, they moved on to answer questions about their mentoring relationship with this individual (discussed shortly). If their answer was no, they were asked if they previously had a supervisor within the organization (who was and currently continued to be employed in the company) who they would consider to have been their mentor. If they responded yes (i.e., that a prior supervisor was their mentor), they were directed to questions specific to that relationship. If their answer was again no, they were given a third option asking if there was anyone currently with the company who has never been their formal supervisor, but whom they would consider to be their mentor. Those answering yes followed the same pattern of being directed to questions specifically concerning their nonsupervisory mentor. Individuals who responded no (who reported having no mentor of any type) were brought to a final page informing them that their participation was complete, at which time they exited from the survey.

Individuals who marked that they currently or previously had a mentor who was still employed in the company were asked to identify their mentor from a drop-down menu. This menu listed all persons who qualified as what HR termed "People Managers," and if their mentor was not provided in this list, they (along with those who indicated their mentor was never their supervisor) were given the opportunity to type in the name of their mentor. This was done in order to match protégés with their mentors, and was explained as a research need. At this point, individuals were reminded that all information provided was confidential, and that neither their chosen mentor nor anyone at their organization would ever see their responses to these questions. Following this explanation, protégés were asked to fill out a series of measures pertaining to their interaction and overall relationship with their mentor. These were measures of: functional mentoring received (see Appendix F), dysfunctional mentoring received (see Appendices D and E), and protégé ingratiation behavior (see Appendix G).

Once all attempts to have participants complete the protégé survey were exhausted and an adequate amount of responses were collected, a list was compiled which broke down all mentor-protégé dyads. I used this list to directly send an e-mail to all mentors. This action ensured confidentiality and prevented HR from becoming aware of any dyads. The personalized e-mail informed mentors that they had been selected as a mentor, named the individual(s) who perceived them to be a mentor, and offered a link to the survey website. Within the survey, mentors were first asked to identify themselves if they agreed to the informed consent (see Appendix N).

Next, mentors were asked to complete demographic questions and the POPS measure (see Appendix A). Immediately following, mentors were brought to a page that provided them with the same description of mentoring that was shown to the protégés. This page asked them to

type in the name of their protégé (or if more than one, simply the name of their first protégé), and indicate whether this protégé was a current subordinate, prior subordinate, or has never been a subordinate. Ensuing questions concerned only this specific protégé, and measured: motives to mentor the protégé (Appendix B), liking of the protégé (Appendix C), and functional mentoring provided to the protégé (Appendix F). Upon completing these measures, mentors were asked if they had any additional protégés that still needed to be rated. If the answer was no, the survey was complete. If the answer was yes, mentors were asked to once more to provide the protégé's name, their subordinate category (current, prior, never), and repeat measures concerning that specific protégé (mentioned above). Ratings for the performance measure (see Appendix L) were obtained from each protégés' current supervisor regardless of whether the supervisor was also their mentor. Last, all participants were informed that upon completion of the study, a summary of results would be sent to them and to the point of contact for the organization. Again, it was reiterated that the results shall not identify individuals who cooperated in the study.

Measures

Demographic Covariates

Both protégés and mentors were asked to respond to several items used to collect demographic information. First, both sets of participants were asked to provide their race, gender, highest education level, and to type in their age. Second, each participant was asked to report the location of their company, the department they worked under, along with their job and organizational tenure in months. Third, those individuals who reported they were in a mentoring relationship were asked to indicate their specific arrangement (i.e. current supervisor/subordinate, prior supervisor/subordinate, or nonsupervisory mentor/protégé). Participants in mentoring relationships were also asked to report on the duration of the relationship (in months), the

frequency of interaction with their dyad member (days/week), and if the relationship was still active (for all without a current supervisory mentor). The last covariate was separately asked of the mentors in order to capture the number of subordinates any given mentor had. Specifically, mentors were asked to provide how many individuals directly reported to them.

Perception of Politics

This measure was taken from both mentors and protégés and used the 15-item Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997) (see Appendix A). All items on this survey used a 6-point Likert scale, with anchors ranging from "1" = "strongly disagree" to "6" = "strongly agree". A sample item from this scale read: "People in this department attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down." Items within the measure were adapted to fit the needs of the study. For example, in the item given above, 'department' replaced the word 'organization'. The internal consistency estimate for the 15 items was 0.89 for protégés, and 0.90 for mentors. For protégés, actual scores ranged from 1.31 to 5.38 (M = 2.92, SD = 0.86). For mentors, actual scores ranged from 1.20 to 5.0 (M = 2.26, SD = 0.85). Scores were averaged to obtain perceptions for each person.

Mentor Motives

Mentor motives were obtained from mentors by an 11-item measure described by Allen (2003) (see Appendix B). Participants rated each item on a 6-point scale ranging from "1" = "no extent" to "6" = "great extent". Higher scores indicated that the specific factor was a stronger motivator, and it was made clear that the motives reported should be specific to each protégé separately. This measure was repeated for those mentors with more than one protégé. Three factors made up mentor motives, and each factor was placed in its own subscale as found by Allen (2003) – though reported *coefficient alphas* reflect results from the current study. The first

subscale (4 items; *alpha* = 0.74) represented a motive related to mentor self-enhancement (e.g., "To enhance your visibility within the organization"). The second (3 items; *alpha* = 0.95) consisted of items related to intrinsic satisfaction of the mentor (e.g., "The personal pride that mentoring someone brings"). The third subscale (4 items; *alpha* = 0.86) represented a motive to benefit the organization and others in the organization (e.g., "A desire to help others succeed in the organization"). Actual scores for self-enhancement ranged from 1.0 to 4.75 (*M* = 1.95, *SD* = 0.95), while scores for intrinsic satisfaction displayed a range of 1.0 to 6.0 (*M* = 4.33, *SD* = 1.31), and scores for benefit others displayed a range of 1.0 to 6.0 (*M* = 5.42, *SD* = 0.81).

Mentor Liking

Four items given to mentors were developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990) to determine the mentor liking of a protégé (see Appendix C). Items were measured using a 6-point Likert scale with response anchors of "1" = "strongly disagree" to "6" = "strongly agree". *Coefficient alpha* in the current study was .81. An example item from the scale read: "Supervising this protégé is a pleasure." Beyond substituting the word protégé for subordinate, one alteration was made to this measure so that all questions could use the same response format. The original first question asked "How much do you like this subordinate" using the anchors from *I don't like this subordinate at all* (1) to *I like this subordinate very much* (6). The alteration changed this simply to "I like this protégé". Actual scores displayed a range from 1.25 to 6.0 (*M* = 4.90, *SD* = 0.92).

Dysfunctional Mentoring

One measure with two subscales tapped this construct (see Appendices D and E), each developed by Eby et al. (2004) to assess negative protégé experiences. Participants were asked to describe their mentor (as established through the organization or department) and respond on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "1" = "strongly disagree" to "6" = "strongly agree". The first

scale consisted of questions regarding manipulative behavior (9 items, *alpha* = 0.94). One example of the manipulative behaviors read: "My mentor has intentionally hindered my professional development." The second measure consisted of questions regarding distancing behavior (7 items, *alpha* = 0.94). One example of the distancing behaviors read: "My mentor is preoccupied with his/her own advancement." Scores for manipulative behavior displayed a range from 1.0 to 6.0 ($M = 1.68$, $SD = 0.93$), and scores for distancing behavior also displayed a range of 1.0 to 6.0 ($M = 2.20$, $SD = 1.14$).

Functional Mentoring

Noe's (1988a) Mentor Function Scale was used to assess protégé and mentor self-reports of functional mentoring provided (see Appendix F). This scale used 14 items to measure psychosocial mentoring (e.g., "My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversations"), and seven items to measure career development mentoring (e.g., "My mentor helped me to meet new colleagues"). Items were adapted to correspond to the targeted audience. For instance, the last example shown when presented to the mentor would instead read "I helped my protégé to meet new colleagues." Participants were asked to indicate the extent that they received or provided functional mentoring using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "1" = "no extent" to "6" = "great extent". *Coefficient alpha* for protégé reports of psychosocial support and career development were .94 and .89, respectively. Mentor *alpha* levels of reported psychosocial support and career development were .93 and .89, respectively. Protégé scores for career development ranged from 1.0 to 6.0 ($M = 4.40$, $SD = 1.09$), and psychosocial support scores also ranged from 1.0 to 6.0 ($M = 4.62$, $SD = 1.01$). Mentor scores for both career development ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.11$), and psychosocial support ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 0.90$) ranged from 1.0 to 6.0.

Ingratiation

Ingratiation use was measured by 4 items from a scale developed by Bolino and Turnley (1999) (see Appendix G). Protégés were asked to report how frequently they had used and targeted certain behaviors at work to their mentor either over the past 6 months (for ongoing mentors), or during their relationship (for prior mentors). This measure employed a 6-point Likert scale ranging from “1” = “never” to “6” = “often”. All items were adapted to fit within the mentoring context. An example of an item for this measure read: “Do personal favors for your mentor to show them that you’re friendly.” *Coefficient alpha* for this measure was .93, and actual scores ranged from 1.0 to 5.25 (M = 1.95, SD = 1.11).

Political Skill

Political skill was measured using an 18-item measure developed and validated by Ferris et al. (2005) (see Appendix H). This self-reported measure assessed protégé’s perceptions of their own political skill. A 6-point scoring format was used ranging from “1” = “strongly disagree” to “6” = “strongly agree”, and *coefficient alpha* in this study was .92. An example from this measure read: “I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.” Scores displayed a range of 2.28 to 6.0 (M = 4.31, SD = 0.77).

Job Satisfaction

This measure, developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983) as part of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (see Appendix I), was given to protégés. The measure used three items to describe an employee’s subjective response to working in his or her job and organization, which is a global indication of worker satisfaction with a job. *Coefficient alpha* in the current study was .83, and responses were obtained using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from “1” = “strongly disagree” to “6” = “strongly agree”. A sample item

was: "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." Scores displayed a range of 1.0 to 6.0 (*M* = 4.71, *SD* = 1.13).

Job Stress

Job stress was measured using the Work Tension Scale developed by House and Rizzo (1972), which describes an employee's psychological or psychosomatic symptoms associated with tension experienced at work (see Appendix J). *Coefficient alpha* for this scale was .92, and responses were obtained using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "1" = "strongly disagree" to "6" = "strongly agree". A sample item from this measure was: "I often 'take my job home with me' in the sense that I think about it when doing other things." Scores displayed a range of 1.0 to 6.0 (*M* = 3.01, *SD* = 1.32).

Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions (see Appendix K) were measured using three items adopted from Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991). Items included, "How likely is it that you will look for a job outside of this organization in the next year?"; "How often do you think about quitting your job at this organization?", and "If it were possible, how much would you like to get a new job?" Anchors were representative of the questions asked (e.g. *very unlikely to very likely for the first item)* and used a 6-point Likert scale. The internal consistency estimate, i.e., *coefficient alpha*, for this scale was.91. Scores displayed a range of 1.0 to 6.0 (*M* = 2.98, *SD* = 1.59).

Job Performance

Job performance (see Appendix L) was measured using two items I created. While these were very similar to items from a performance evaluation tool used by the parent company, the company's measure was not used. This was because of a fear that performance ratings given in performance evaluations would be biased by external pressures (their close relation to salary,

and reflection on management). This item was an attempt to separate itself from such pressures as it held no consequences to the subordinate or supervisor and was kept confidential. Items included: "How would you rate this individual's current performance?", and "How would you rate this individual's overall potential for advancement?" Ratings were obtained for each protégé from their current supervisor whether or not that supervisor was also their mentor. Supervisors were asked to rate their answers to these two questions regarding their subordinates on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "1" = "poor" to "6" = excellent". The two items were averaged to reach one performance score, given that they were so highly related. The internal consistency for this measure was .74, and scores ranged from 2.0 to 6.0 (M = 4.44, SD = 0.98).

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

All analyses were conducted on SPSS 14.0 for Windows, and the alpha level was set at .05. Before reporting analyses in which my experimental hypotheses were tested, I would like to bring attention to some noteworthy correlations between study variables, the results of Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) analyses done to test for nested effects, and Analyses of Variance to examine differences between mentored and non-mentored participants. All hypotheses not involving nested relationships (or where nested relationships were not found through hierarchical linear modeling) were tested via multiple regression or correlational analysis. Lastly, to eliminate the potential for bias and spurious relationships, control variables were included in the analysis where appropriate.

Preliminary Findings

Correlational Results

In Table 1, the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among study variables are displayed. Before detailing the results of specific hypotheses, there are a few intriguing relationships found in the data that were not hypothesized but worth mentioning. First, protégé POPS had several relationships worth noting. Protégés who perceived a high level of POPS also reported higher levels of dysfunctional mentoring [$r(107) = .34$, $p < .01$], stress [$r(163) = .41$, $p < .01$], and turnover intentions [$r(161) = .51$, $p < .01$], while reporting lower levels of functional mentoring [$r(110) = -.28$, $p < .01$], and job satisfaction [$r(163) = -.61$, $p < .01$]. Interestingly, mentor age had an inverse relationship with protégé POPS [$r(91) = -.25$, $p < .05$]. Protégés with younger mentors tended to perceive the political climate as higher than those with older mentors. Second, mentor liking of protégés [$r(93) = .32$, $p < .01$] and job performance ratings [$r(88) = .28$, $p < .01$] increased as a function of relationship duration. This correlation indicated protégés in

longer mentoring relationships were better liked by their mentors and received higher performance ratings than those whose relationship was shorter in duration.

Third, there were some noteworthy correlations involving functional and dysfunctional mentoring. Protégés who reported engaging in more ingratiatory behaviors also reported receiving more dysfunctional mentoring [$r(106) = .33, p < .01$], but not less functional mentoring [$r(108) = -.05, p > .05$]. The duration of the mentoring relationship was positively associated with functional mentoring received [$r(110) = .23, p < .05$], but unrelated to dysfunctional mentoring received [$r(107) = .11, p > .05$]. Interestingly, female mentors reported providing greater amounts of overall functional than male mentors [$r(94) = .21, p < .05$]. This included greater amounts of psychosocial support [$r(92) = .26, p < .05$], but not career development [$r(92) = .09, p > .05$].

Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Mentor Function data

There was a significant positive relation of moderate size between mentor and protégé reported functional mentoring [$r(93) = .49, p < .01$]. However, correlations between psychosocial support and career development within source were much higher and were similar in size for protégés [$r(109)= .75, p < .01$] and mentors [$r(93) = .70, p < .01$]. Although mentors did not provide dysfunctional mentoring ratings, protégé reports showed a strong negative association between reported overall functional and dysfunctional mentoring [$r(107) = -.49, p < .01$]. Further, a large positive correlation was found between the two subscales of dysfunctional mentoring, namely distancing and manipulative dysfunctional mentoring [$r(98) = .82, p < .01$].

Relations between Mentor POPS and Protégé POPS

When investigating the relation between mentor POPS and protégé POPS, only those dyads involving a current supervisor were examined. Only these dyads gave the assurance that the mentoring relationship was active and that members shared a department and location. In this correlation, virtually no relationship was found between mentor POPS and protégé POPS [$r(64) = .02, p > .05$]. This finding may have also been an early indicator that department and organizational location did not influence political climate.

Relations among Mentor Motives

Motivation to mentor for intrinsic satisfaction was positively related to the motivation to mentor out of self-enhancement [$r(93) = .21, p < .05$] and the motivation for the benefit of others [$r(93) = .41, p < .01$]. Self-enhancement and benefit others motivations, however, were not related to each other [$r(93) = .07, p > .05$]. This finding shows that there is a distinction between those who volunteer to mentor in order to seek external recognition and those who volunteer to mentor out of a genuine concern for the welfare of others.

Table 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Protégé											
1. Gender	1.55	4.9	---								
2. Age	37.78	10.95	.01 d	---							
3. Org. Tenure	55.88	65.04	.03 c	.31** c	---						
4. Job Tenure	38.41	62.53	.09 c	.36** c	.64** c	---					
5. POPS	2.92	0.86	.05 d	.03 d	.11 c	.08 c	(.89)				
6. Political skill	4.31	0.77	-.02 d	.03 d	-.06 c	.05 c	-.02 d	(.92)			
7. Ingratiation	1.95	1.11	-.04 c	.00 b	-.04 b	-.11 a	.03 c	.16 b	(.93)		
8. C.D. functions	4.40	1.09	.03 c	-.11 b	-.03 b	-.10 a	-.28** c	.17 c	-.02 c	(.89)	
9. P.S. functions	4.62	1.01	-.04 c	-.12 b	-.03 b	-.07 a	-.26** c	.17 c	-.06 c	.75** c	(.94)
10. Funct. Mentoring	4.54	0.97	-.02 c	-.12 b	-.03 b	-.09 a	-.28** c	.19 c	-.05 c	.89** c	.97** c
11. Manipulative	1.68	.93	-.19 b	.06 b	.05 a	-.01 a	.29** b	.04 b	.24** b	-.41** b	-.46** b
12. Distancing	2.20	1.14	-.14 c	.19 b	.07 a	.02 a	.34** c	-.01 b	.25** c	-.43** c	-.48** c
13. Dsyf. Mentoring	1.91	0.97	-.22* c	.09 b	.09 a	-.05 a	.34** c	-.07 b	.33** c	-.38** c	-.41** c
14. Job Satisfaction	4.71	1.13	.09 d	.07 d	-.10 c	.00 c	-.61** d	.23** d	-.02 c	.17 c	.20* c
15. Job Stress	3.01	1.32	-.05 d	-.06 d	-.11 c	-.14 c	.41** d	.01 d	.09 c	-.02 c	-.05 c
16. Turnover Int.	2.98	1.59	-.12 d	-.04 d	.00 c	-.12 c	.51** d	.00 d	.04 c	-.20 c	-.16 c
17. Job Performance	4.44	0.98	.07 b	.01 a	.01 a	-.09 a	-.15 b	.00 a	-.14 b	.45** b	.37** b
18. Current Supervisor	1.48	0.50	-.05 d	.13 d	.24** c	.18* c	.22** d	.17 d	-.05 c	-.18 c	-.17 c
19. Duration of Rel.	20.24	21.18	.08 d	.02 d	.29** c	.09 c	-.03	.11 d	.02 c	.26** c	.19* c
Mentor											
20. Gender	1.46	0.50	.43** b	-.29** b	-.23 a	-.17 a	-.05 b	.17 b	.04 b	.22* b	.17 b
21. Age	41.10	11.07	.02 b	.09 b	.02 a	-.02 a	-.25* b	.01 b	-.13 b	.24* b	.20 b
22. Org. Tenure	91.19	60.41	.08 b	.02 b	.09 a	-.04 a	.04 b	.01 b	-.02 b	.07 b	-.09 b
23. Job Tenure	33.79	33.79	.18 b	.04 b	.05 a	-.01 a	-.11 b	-.07 b	.19 b	.16 b	.09 b
24. No. direct reports	6.05	4.99	-.01 b	.08 b	-.07 a	.02 a	.09 b	.07 b	.11 b	-.02 b	.11 b
25. POPS	2.26	0.85	.05 b	-.19 b	-.03 a	-.03 a	-.01 b	-.02 b	-.03 b	-.01 b	-.11 b
26. Liking	4.90	0.92	-.05 b	-.05 b	.12 a	-.11 a	-.02 b	-.10 b	.02 b	.37** b	.39** b
27. SE motives	1.95	0.95	.02 b	.03 b	.05 a	.25* a	-.11 b	-.10 b	-.07 b	-.01 b	.04 b
28. BO motives	5.42	0.81	.12 b	-.21 b	-.04 a	-.09 a	-.06 b	.11 b	.03 b	.26* b	.18 b
29. Int. Sat. motives	4.33	1.31	.11 b	-.15 b	.17 a	.18 a	.09 b	-.02 b	-.07 b	.00 b	.04 b
30. C.D. mentoring	4.41	1.11	.03 b	-.19 b	-.17 a	.18 a	-.14 b	-.11 b	-.04 b	.42** b	.41** b
31. P.S. mentoring	4.63	0.90	.14 b	-.16 b	-.02 a	-.06 a	-.08 b	-.09 b	-.08 b	.38** b	.47** b
32. Funct. mentoring	4.57	0.90	.12 b	-.19 b	-.08 a	-.11 a	-.11 b	-.10 b	-.08 b	.43** b	.48** b

Note. N's are shown by letters a-d. N_a = 66-79. N_b = 80-99. N_c = 100-119. N_d = 135-164. *p < .05, **p < .01. Reliabilities are on the diagonals. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female, & mentor was a current supervisor as 1 = Yes, 2 = No.

Variable	M	SD	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Protégé											
1. Gender	1.55	4.9									
2. Age	37.78	10.95									
3. Org. Tenure	55.88	65.04									
4. Job Tenure	38.41	62.53									
5. POPS	2.92	0.86									
6. Political skill	4.31	0.77									
7. Ingratiation	1.95	1.11									
8. C.D. functions	4.40	1.09									
9. P.S. functions	4.62	1.01									
10. Funct. Mentoring	4.54	0.97	(.95)								
11. Manipulative	1.68	0.93	-.47**$_b$	(.94)							
12. Distancing	2.20	1.14	-.49**$_c$	.82**$_b$	(.94)						
13. Dsyf. Mentoring	1.91	0.97	-.44**$_c$	.93**$_b$	.93**$_c$	(.96)					
14. Job Satisfaction	4.71	1.13	.21*$_c$	-.22*$_b$	-.14$_c$	-.28**$_c$	(.83)				
15. Job Stress	3.01	1.32	-.04$_c$	.07$_b$	.11$_c$	.23*$_c$	-.45**$_d$	(.92)			
16. Turnover Int.	2.98	1.59	-.19*$_c$	.26*$_b$	.19$_c$	.28**$_c$	-.64**$_d$	.45**$_d$	(.91)		
17. Job Performance	4.44	0.98	.43**$_b$	-.34**$_a$	-.30**$_b$	-.19$_b$	.17$_b$	.11$_b$	-.14$_b$	(.74)	
18. Current Supervisor	1.48	0.50	-.19*$_c$	.29**$_b$	.32**$_c$	.30**$_c$	-.31**$_d$	.09$_d$	.27**$_d$	.-.27*$_b$	---
19. Duration of Rel.	20.24	21.18	.23*$_c$	.01$_b$	.03$_c$	.11$_c$	.07$_d$	.03$_d$	-.06$_d$	.28**$_b$	-.06$_d$
Mentor											
20. Gender	1.46	0.50	.20$_b$	-.01$_b$	-.19$_b$	-.21$_b$	.15$_b$	-.14$_b$	-.19$_b$	.10$_b$	-.10$_b$
21. Age	41.10	11.07	.23*$_b$	-.16$_b$	-.16$_b$	-.15$_b$	.10$_b$	-.23*$_b$	-.12$_b$	.32**$_b$	-.21$_b$
22. Org. Tenure	91.19	60.41	-.03$_b$	.13$_b$	.15$_b$	.03$_b$	.01$_b$	.04$_b$	.07$_b$	.18$_b$	.15$_b$
23. Job Tenure	33.79	33.79	.13$_b$	-.06$_b$	-.04$_b$	-.03$_b$	.12$_b$	-.17$_b$	-.17$_b$	.30**$_b$	-.13$_b$
24. No. direct reports	6.05	4.99	.06$_b$	-.08$_b$	.03$_b$	-.10$_b$	.03$_b$	-.02$_b$	.21*$_b$	-.11$_b$	-.25*$_b$
25. POPS	2.26	0.85	-.08$_b$	-.13$_b$	-.15$_b$	-.08$_b$	-.06$_b$	.03$_b$	-.05$_b$	-.12$_b$	.17$_b$
26. Liking	4.90	0.92	.41**$_b$	.03$_b$	.03$_b$	.05$_b$	-.06$_b$	.11$_b$	.04$_b$	.39**$_b$	.25*$_b$
27. SE motives	1.95	0.95	.02$_b$	-.29**$_b$	-.25*$_b$	-.18$_b$	.07$_b$	-.06$_b$	-.09$_b$	-.09$_b$	-.14$_b$
28. BO motives	5.42	0.81	.22*$_b$	-.02$_b$	-.02$_b$	-.03$_b$	.12$_b$	-.04$_b$	-.16$_b$	.29**$_b$	-.04$_b$
29.Int. Sat. motives	4.33	1.31	.02$_b$	.05$_b$	.05$_b$	.01$_b$	-.04$_b$	-.03$_b$	.05$_b$	.21$_b$	-.05$_b$
30. C.D. mentoring	4.41	1.11	.45**$_b$	-.20$_b$	-.22*$_b$	-.14$_b$	-.02$_b$	.05$_b$	-.11$_b$	.37**$_b$	-.12$_b$
31. P.S. mentoring	4.63	0.90	.47**$_b$	-.20$_b$	-.16*$_b$	-.06$_b$	-.01$_b$	.00$_b$	-.03$_b$	.26*$_b$	.05$_b$
32. Funct. mentoring	4.57	0.90	.49**$_b$	-.22*$_b$	-.21$_b$	-.10$_b$	-.01$_b$	.02$_b$	-.06$_b$	.34**$_b$	-.03$_b$

Note. N's are shown by letters a-d. N_a = 66-79. N_b = 80-99. N_c = 100-119. N_d = 135-164. *p < .05, **p < .01. Reliabilities are on the diagonals. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female, & mentor was a current supervisor as 1 = Yes, 2 = No.

Variable	M	SD	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
Protégé											
1. Gender	1.55	4.9									
2. Age	37.78	10.95									
3. Org. Tenure	55.88	65.04									
4. Job Tenure	38.41	62.53									
5. POPS	2.92	0.86									
6. Political skill	4.31	0.77									
7. Ingratiation	1.95	1.11									
8. C.D. functions	4.40	1.09									
9. P.S. functions	4.62	1.01									
10. Funct. Mentoring	4.54	0.97									
11. Manipulative	1.68	0.93									
12. Distancing	2.20	1.14									
13. Dsyf. Mentoring	1.91	0.97									
14. Job Satisfaction	4.71	1.13									
15. Job Stress	3.01	1.32									
16. Turnover Int.	2.98	1.59									
17. Job Performance	4.44	0.98									
18. Current Supervisor	1.48	0.50									
19. Duration of Rel.	20.24	21.18	---								
Mentor											
20. Gender	1.46	0.50	-.04$_b$	---							
21. Age	41.10	11.07	.24*$_b$	-.05$_b$	---						
22. Org. Tenure	91.19	60.41	.25*$_b$	.28**$_b$	.25*$_b$	---					
23. Job Tenure	33.79	33.79	.35**$_b$	.21$_b$	.41**$_b$	.38**$_b$	---				
24. No. direct reports	6.05	4.99	-.04$_b$	-.25*$_b$	-.06$_b$	-.37**$_b$	-.14$_b$	---			
25. POPS	2.26	0.85	-.06$_b$	.26*$_b$	-.31**$_b$	-.12$_b$	-.16$_b$	-.21*$_b$	(.90)		
26. Liking	4.90	0.92	.32**$_b$	.16$_b$	-.08$_b$	.18$_b$	.11$_b$	-.13$_b$	.05$_b$	(.81)	
27. SE motives	1.95	0.95	-.08$_b$	.10$_b$	.10$_b$	-.28**$_b$	-.11$_b$	.07$_b$	-.11$_b$	-.29**$_b$	(.74)
28. BO motives	5.42	0.81	-.02$_b$	.12$_b$	.08$_b$	.03$_b$	.05$_b$	-.21*$_b$	-.14$_b$	.11$_b$	.07$_b$
29.Int. Sat. motives	4.33	1.31	.10$_b$	.11$_b$	.34**$_b$	.23*$_b$	-.03$_b$	-.05$_b$	-.27**$_b$	.02$_b$	.21*$_b$
30. C.D. mentoring	4.41	1.11	.00$_b$	.09$_b$	.06$_b$	-.13$_b$	.12$_b$	-.14$_b$	-.21*$_b$	.24*$_b$	.03$_b$
31. P.S. mentoring	4.63	0.90	.13$_b$	.26*$_b$	-.06$_b$	-.07$_b$	.05$_b$	-.06$_b$	.00$_b$	.29**$_b$	.14$_b$
32. Funct. mentoring	4.57	0.90	.08$_b$	.21*$_b$	.00$_b$	-.08$_b$	.11$_b$	-.10$_b$	-.09$_b$	.28**$_b$	.10$_b$

Note. N's are shown by letters a-d. N_a = 66-79. N_b = 80-99. N_c = 100-119. N_d = 135-164. *p < .05, **p < .01. Reliabilities are on the diagonals. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female, & mentor was a current supervisor as 1 = Yes, 2 = No.

Variable	M	SD	28	29	30	31	32
Protégé							
1. Gender	1.55	4.9					
2. Age	37.78	10.95					
3. Org. Tenure	55.88	65.04					
4. Job Tenure	38.41	62.53					
5. POPS	2.92	0.86					
6. Political skill	4.31	0.77					
7. Ingratiation	1.95	1.11					
8. C.D. functions	4.40	1.09					
9. P.S. functions	4.62	1.01					
10. Funct. Mentoring	4.54	0.97					
11. Manipulative	1.68	0.93					
12. Distancing	2.20	1.14					
13. Dsyf. Mentoring	1.91	0.97					
14. Job Satisfaction	4.71	1.13					
15. Job Stress	3.01	1.32					
16. Turnover Int.	2.98	1.59					
17. Job Performance	4.44	0.98					
18. Current Supervisor	1.48	0.50					
19. Duration of Rel.	20.24	21.18					
Mentor							
20. Gender	1.46	0.50					
21. Age	41.10	11.07					
22. Org. Tenure	91.19	60.41					
23. Job Tenure	33.79	33.79					
24. No. direct reports	6.05	4.99					
25. POPS	2.26	0.85					
26. Liking	4.90	0.92					
27. SE motives	1.95	0.95					
28. BO motives	5.42	0.81	(.86)				
29.Int. Sat. motives	4.33	1.31	.41** b	(.95)			
30. C.D. mentoring	4.41	1.11	.53** b	.18 b	(.89)		
31. P.S. mentoring	4.63	0.90	.51** b	.22* b	.70** b	(.93) b	
32. Funct. mentoring	4.57	0.90	.56** b	.23* b	.88** b	.95** b	(.95)

Note. N's are shown by letters a-d. N_a = 66-79. N_b = 80-99. N_c = 100-119. N_d = 135-164. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01. Reliabilities are on the diagonals. Gender was coded as 1 = male, 2 = female, & mentor was a current supervisor as 1 = Yes, 2 = No.

Tests of Nested Effects

Perceptions of Politics

Mentors and protégés were each members of two nested organizational groups: job department and organizational location. Consequently, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) was used (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002), to determine whether membership in these organizational groups was associated with either mentor POPS or protégé POPS. First, protégé POPS was regressed on the random factor of protégé location (*Wald's* $Z = 0.759$, $p > .05$) and on protégé department (*Wald's* $Z = 0.939$, $p > .05$). Similarly, mentor POPS was regressed on the random factor of mentor location (*Wald's* $Z = 0.411$, $p > .05$), and on mentor department. I was unable to compute a test statistic when regressing POPS on the random factor of mentor department, and therefore it was not ascertained. This was due to a failure of the Hessian matrix to be positive definite, despite satisfying convergence criteria. None of the tests found a nested effect for department or location on either mentor or protégé POPS.

Mentor reported Dependent Variables

Many participants in this study were nested within mentors (i.e., some mentors provided ratings for more than one protégé) or performance raters (i.e., participants had the same current supervisors). To account for the nonindependence of data in these cases, HLM was again used. The analysis included mentors (and performance raters when applicable) as a random effects Level 1 control in the analyses.

All of the measures which a mentor would have had to complete multiple times for different protégés or subordinates were checked to determine whether the nested effect for mentor or supervisor accounted for unique variance. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 2. First, all three mentor motives were regressed separately onto the random factor of

mentor. Results showed that the random factor of mentor was significant for: motivation to mentor for one's own self-enhancement (*Wald's Z* = 4.12, $p < .01$), motivation to mentor for the benefit of others (*Wald's Z* = 3.17, $p < .01$), and motivation to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction (*Wald's Z* = 4.53, $p < .01$). Next, mentor liking was regressed onto the random factor of mentor (*Wald's Z* = 3.01, $p < .01$), indicating a significant nested effect. Third, protégé performance was regressed on the random factor of performance rater and the covariate of current supervisor (since the majority of performance raters were current supervisors). While the covariate was significant ($\gamma = -0.42$, $F = 3.84$, $p < .05$), the random factor did not show unique variance (*Wald's Z* = 1.64, $p > .05$). Specifically, participants received higher performance ratings from their current supervisors when those current supervisors were also listed as their mentor.

Protégé reported Dependent Variables

Last, HLM was also used to determine whether a nested effect existed in the prediction of protégé-reported functional and dysfunctional mentoring received. I was unable to compute a test statistic for the dependent variable protégé-reported functional mentoring due to a failure of the Hessian matrix to be positive definite, although convergence criteria were satisfied. Thus it is not represented in the table. However, when both subscales of dysfunctional mentoring were regressed separately onto the random factor of mentor, results indicated that the random factor of mentor was not significant for either manipulative behavior (*Wald's* Z = 0.55, $p > .05$), or distancing behavior (*Wald's* Z = 1.59, $p > .05$).

In sum, nested effects for the mentor were found for the following dependent variables, mentor liking, and all three mentor motivations. Subsequent hypothesis tests involving these dependent variables will therefore be conducted using HLM. Hypothesis tests involving variables where nested effects were not found will be conducted using correlation or regression.

Table 2 HLM of all Dependent Variables in Nested Relationships

Effect	Variable	Performance		Liking		Self-Enhancement Motives (S.E.)		Intrinsic Satisfaction Motives (I.S.)		Benefit Others Motive (B.O.)	
Fixed		*SE*	*t*	*SE*	*t*	*SE*	*t*	*SE*	*t*	*SE*	*t*
	Current Supervisor	.215	-1.96*	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Random											
	Variance of Residual	.14**	---	.09**	---	.05**	---	.06**	---	.07**	---
	Variance of Mentor	---	---	.18**	---	.19**	---	.35**	---	.15**	---
	Variance of Performance Rater	.14	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Model Fit	-2 log likelihood	231.39	---	235.56	---	227.23	---	268.93	---	212.94	---
	AIC	235.39	---	239.56	---	231.23	---	272.93	---	216.94	---

Effect	Variable	Career Development	Psychosocial Functions	Manipulative Behavior	Distancing Behavior
Random		*SE*	*SE*	*SE*	*SE*
	Variance of Residual	---	---	.17**	.20**
	Variance of Mentor	---	---	.14	.19
Model Fit	-2 log likelihood	---	---	229.31	277.17
	AIC	---	---	233.31	281.17

Note: *p < .05, p** < .01. Similar to other researchers (see Bloom, 1999; Trevor & Wazeter, 2006), results were presented in conventional regression format to facilitate readability. AIC = Akaike's Information Criterion.

Comparisons among Unmentored, Current Supervisory, Prior Supervisory and Nonsupervisory Mentored Participants

In an effort to test for mean differences across groups of unmentored participants and participants mentored by current or past supervisors or by non-supervisors, univariate Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) were run. I originally intended to collect data only from current supervisory mentor dyads. However, the surveys were initially sent to all employees. Rather than lose potentially valuable information, I collected and analyzed mentoring data from other individuals as well. I collected mentoring data from individuals with nonsupervisory and prior supervisory mentors in addition to those with current supervisory mentors. Moreover, participants who reported they were unmentored completed the first part of the survey only, providing demographic information and general measures not concerning interaction with a potential mentor. These were measures of: POPS (see Appendix A), political skill (see Appendix H), job stress (see Appendix J), job satisfaction (see Appendix I), and turnover intentions (see Appendix K). These particiaptns were included to increase the study's power in examining nested effects on the POPS variable.

Collecting this supplemental data allowed me to compare groups, identify the impact of this grouping variable, and examine whether the type of mentor may be associated with greater benefits. The ANOVA results indicated whether, in general, there were significant differences across mentoring functions and outcome variables for each participant group. The participant groups consisted of those with: a current supervisory mentor, a prior supervisory mentor, a non-supervisory mentor, or no reported mentor. For those analyses showing significant main effects, follow up paired comparisons tests were examined. Summarized results are displayed in Table 3.

Job Satisfaction.

The ANOVA testing group effect on job satisfaction revealed a significant main effect among the groups, $F(3,160) = 5.60$, $p < .01$. From this, paired comparisons indicated a significant difference between those in the no mentor group ($N = 39$, $M = 4.34$, $SD = 1.03$) and the current supervisory mentor group ($N = 86$, $M = 5.02$, $SD = 1.03$), [$^{p}{}_{no}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(47) = -.68$, $p < .01$]. Further, a significant difference was also found between the nonsupervisory ($N = 16$, $M = 4.14$, $SD = 1.11$), and current supervisory groups, [$^{p}{}_{nsup}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(70) = -.88$, $p < .01$] as well as for the prior supervisory ($N = 23$, $M = 4.49$, $SD = 1.33$) and current supervisory groups [$^{p}{}_{prior}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(63) = -.53$, $p < .05$)]. These results indicate that protégés with current supervisory mentors reported a higher job satisfaction level than all other groups.

Job Stress.

The job stress ANOVA did not reveal a significant main effect among groups, $F(3,160) = 2.29$, $p > .05$. Since results were unable to detect stress differences among the four groups, no further tests were analyzed.

Turnover Intentions.

The turnover intentions ANOVA showed a significant difference among groups, $F(3,158) = 4.38$, $p < .01$. Therefore, additional paired comparisons tests were examined displaying a significant main effect among two groups. First, significance was found between the no mentor ($N = 39$, $M = 3.46$, $SD = 1.66$) and current supervisory groups ($N = 85$, $M = 2.57$, $SD = 1.48$), [$^{p}{}_{no}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(46) = .89$, $p < .01$]. Secondly, a significant difference was found between the nonsupervisory group ($N = 15$, $M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.39$), and the current supervisory group [$^{p}{}_{nsup}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(70) = 1.09$, $p < .05$]. These results display that individuals with a current supervisory mentor reported lower turnover intentions than those with no mentor or a nonsupervisory mentor. No

significant difference was found between the turnover intentions of those with current supervisory mentors and those with prior supervisory mentors ($N = 23$, $M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.67$).

Job Performance

The job performance ANOVA revealed a significant main effect $F(2,85) = 3.55$, $p < .05$, with paired comparisons finding a difference between nonsupervisory ($N = 11$, $M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.01$) and current supervisory groups ($N = 56$, $M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.04$) [$^{p}{}_{nsup}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(45) = -.73$, $p < .05$]. The results indicated that protégés with a current supervisory mentor had higher performance ratings than those with nonsupervisory mentors, but indicated no significant differences with protégés who had prior supervisory mentors ($N = 21$, $M = 4.19$, $SD = 0.73$).

Functional Mentoring

Separate ANCOVAs were performed to uncover main effects among groups for both career development and psychosocial support functions. In both of these analyses, duration of the relationship was used as a covariate. The ANCOVA involving career development indicated a main effect for condition $F(2,105) = 4.71$, $p < .05$, along with the covariate of relationship duration $F(1,105) = 7.54$, $p < .01$. Further, protégés with nonsupervisory mentors ($N = 14$, $M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.40$) and with current supervisory ($N = 73$, $M = 4.54$, $SD = 1.00$) mentors displayed significant mean differences [$^{p}{}_{nsup}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(59) = -.91$, $p < .01$], indicating those with current supervisory mentors reported more career development than those with nonsupervisory mentors, while showing no difference with prior supervisory mentoring protégé groups ($N = 22$, $M = 4.47$, $SD = 0.95$). The ANCOVA involving psychosocial support as the dependent variable did not reveal a significant difference among groups, $F(2,106) = 2.38$, $p > .05$, although the covariate of relationship duration was significant $F(1,105) = 4.49$, $p < .05$.

Dysfunctional Mentoring

Last, ANOVAs were run to uncover potential differences among groups for manipulative and distancing behaviors. The manipulative ANOVA revealed significant main effects $F(2,95) = 5.59$, $p < .01$, with paired comparisons finding a difference between prior supervisory ($N = 18$, $M = 2.29$, $SD = 1.30$) and current supervisory groups ($N = 68$, $M = 1.51$, $SD = 0.67$) [$^{p}{}_{nsup}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(50) = .782$, $p < .01$]. Secondly, the distancing ANOVA also revealed significant main effects among groups, $F(2,95) = 5.89$, $p < .01$. Specifically, differences were found between nonsupervisory ($N = 13$, $M = 2.62$, $SD = 1.29$) and current supervisory groups ($N = 72$, $M = 1.95$, $SD = 1.09$), [$^{p}{}_{nsup}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(59) = .67$, $p < .05$], along with prior ($N = 21$, $M = 2.78$, $SD = 0.95$) and current supervisory groups [$^{p}{}_{prior}$ - $^{p}{}_{curr}(51) = .83$, $p < .01$]. These results show that protégés with current supervisory mentors reported less manipulative behavior than those with prior supervisory mentors. Additionally, it shows that these same individuals with current supervisory mentors report less distancing behavior than those who with prior or nonsupervisory mentors.

In sum, those with current supervisory mentors tended to score higher on positive variables (i.e. functional mentoring, job performance, etc.) and lower on negative variables (i.e. turnover intentions, and dysfunctional mentoring) than those with prior supervisory mentors or nonsupervisory mentors. Thus, this current supervisory variable was used as a control variable in many of the hypotheses that follow this section.

Table 3 Analysis of Variance for Outcome Variables and Mentor Functions

Job Satisfaction			
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	2262.27	1922.44**
Participant group	3	6.59	5.60**
Error	160	1.18	

Note. MS = mean square. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Job Stress			
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	1126.16	656.09**
Participant group	3	3.92	2.29
Error	160	1.72	

Note. MS = mean square. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Turnover Intentions			
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	1130.24	472.94**
Participant group	3	10.45	4.38**
Error	158	2.39	

Note. MS = mean square. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Job Performance			
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	1036.81	1131.41**
Participant group	2	3.26	3.55*
Error	85	.92	

Note. MS = mean square. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Career Development			
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	625.05	602.82**
Relationship duration	1	7.54	7.27**
Participant group	2	4.89	4.71*
Error	105	1.04	

Note. MS = mean square. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Psychosocial Support			
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	739.56	769.79**
Relationship duration	1	4.49	4.68*
Participant group	2	2.38	2.48
Error	106	.96	

Note. MS = mean square. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

	Manipulative Behavior		
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	201.48	256.26**
Participant group	2	4.39	5.59**
Error	95	.79	

Note. MS = mean square. *p < .05, **p < .01.

	Distancing Behavior		
Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Intercept	1	390.32	330.94**
Participant group	2	6.95	5.89**
Error	103	1.79	

Note. MS = mean square. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis tests will be discussed sequentially - in the order in which they were proposed in the theoretical section. I first examined antecedent variables of mentor motives, and then began analyses involving functional and dysfunctional mentoring as the dependent variable. Next, I analyzed data involving the protégé – examining antecedents of ingratiation behaviors, mentor liking, and functional and dysfunctional mentoring. Finally, relationships among

protégé-perceived mentoring functions (functional and dysfunctional) and individual protégé outcomes were examined.

The Mentor's Perspective

Hypothesis 1: Mentor POPS and Self-Enhancement Motives

Hypothesis 1 stated that mentor perceptions of organizational politics would be positively associated with mentor self-enhancement motivation. Given that earlier findings revealed a significant nested effect for mentor on the motivation to mentor for self-enhancement (as displayed in Table 2), this hypothesis was tested with hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). As reported earlier, self-enhancement and intrinsic satisfaction motivations were positively correlated. Thus, in order to parse out an overall general motivation factor that the two may have in common, intrinsic satisfaction was included as a covariate. Specifically, self-enhancement motivation was regressed on the random effect for mentor, mentor POPS, and intrinsic satisfaction motivation. Results showed the random factor for mentor accounted for unique variance, (*Wald's* $Z = 3.81$, $p < .01$), as did intrinsic satisfaction [$\gamma = 0.16$, $F = 3.80$, $p < .05$ (one-tailed)], and mentor POPS [$\gamma = 0.27$, $F = 3.21$, $p < .05$ (one-tailed)]. Results (as shown in Table 4) indicated support for Hypothesis 1, showing mentors with high POPS reported more self-enhancement motivation to mentor.

Although not hypothesized, the relations between mentor POPS and the two other motivators (intrinsic satisfaction and benefit others) were also tested. Again, since earlier results showed a nested effect for mentor on both of the remaining motivations (see Table 2) these relations were also tested with HLM. First, the relation between mentor POPS and intrinsic satisfaction motivation was investigated. As mentioned previously, the motive to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction was significantly correlated with both mentor motives towards benefiting

others and of self-enhancement motives, and therefore both were used as covariates. Mentor intrinsic satisfaction was regressed on the random effect for mentor, the covariates of self-enhancement and benefit others motives, and mentor POPS. Once more, the random factor for mentor accounted for unique variance (*Wald's Z* = 4.34, $p < .01$). Of the covariates, only benefit others motivation proved to be significant ($\gamma = 0.53$, $F = 19.28$, $p < .01$), while mentor POPS showed to be a unique predictor ($\gamma = -0.46$, $F = 6.70$, $p < .05$). This finding shows that mentors with high POPS tended to report less intrinsic motivation to mentor.

Second, the relation between mentor POPS and the motivation to mentor for the benefit of others was also investigated. Here, the degree to which a mentor was motivated by benefiting others was regressed on the random effect for mentor, the covariate of motivation to mentor for intrinsic satisfaction, and mentor POPS. The random effect for mentor accounted for unique variance (*Wald's Z* = 3.38, $p < .01$), and the covariate of intrinsic satisfaction was significant ($\gamma = 0.31$, $F = 19.63$, $p < .01$). However, mentor POPS was not a unique predictor for benefit others motive ($\gamma = -0.04$, $F = .114$, $p > .05$), meaning mentor POPS did not influence one's motivation to become a mentor for the benefit of others. A summary of findings for these supplemental analyses can be found in Table 4.

Table 4 Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results of Mentor POPS and Mentor Motives

		Dependent Variables					
Effect	Variable	Self-Enhancement Motives (S.E.)		Intrinsic Satisfaction Motives (I.S.)		Benefit Others Motive (B.O.)	
Fixed		*SE*	*t*	*SE*	*t*	*SE*	*t*
	POPS	.15	1.79*	.18	-2.59*	.12	-.34
	I.S.	.08	1.95*	---	---	.07	4.43**
	S.E.	---	---	.12	1.01	---	---
	B.O.	---	---	.12	4.39**	---	---
Random							
	Variance of Residual	.06**	---	.05*	---	.05**	---
	Variance of Mentor	.19**	---	.26*	---	.12**	---
Model Fit	-2 log likelihood	227.33	---	247.13	---	198.10	---
	AIC	231.33	---	251.13	---	202.10	---

Note: *p < .05, p** < .01. AIC = Akaike's Information Criterion.

Hypotheses 2 through 4: Mentor POPS, Mentor Motives, and Mentor Functions Received

Hypothesis 2 stated that mentor POPS would moderate the relationship between self-enhancement motivation to mentor and dysfunctional mentoring. Specifically, it was expected that when mentor POPS is high, self-enhancement motivation to mentor would be more strongly related to dysfunctional mentoring than when mentor POPS is low. Earlier, it was shown that there was no significant nested effect for the mentor on protégé-reports of dysfunctional mentoring received (see Table 2). Because the nested variable was unrelated, I proceeded to test Hypothesis 2 using multiple regression analysis, where dysfunctional mentoring was regressed on a dichotomous variable representing whether the participant reported on a current supervisor or not (since it was previously shown that current supervisors were negatively related to dysfunctional mentoring), mentor POPS (mPOPS), mentor self-enhancement motives (MSE), and the cross product term of mPOPS and MSE (mPOPS x MSE). Results from this analysis did

not support the hypothesis, ($\beta = -.073$, $t(79) = -.200$, $p > .05$). The same equation was run to determine whether Hypothesis 2 was supported using either of the two dysfunctional mentoring subscales separately as the dependent variable. However, these analyses did not yield support for Hypothesis 2 either.

Hypotheses 3a and b proposed that mentors more strongly motivated to mentor for the benefit of others would provide (a) more functional mentoring, and (b) less dysfunctional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor for the benefit of others. Additionally, Hypotheses 4a and b stated that mentors more strongly motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction would provide (a) more functional mentoring, and (b) less dysfunctional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction. Hypothesis 3a was partially supported by the significant zero-order correlation between mentors' reported motivation to benefit others and protégé-reported functional mentoring overall [$r(93) = .22$, $p < .05$]. However, only the career support [$r(92) = .26$, $p < .05$] subscale was related to benefit others motivation. Motivation to mentor for the benefit of others was not significantly correlated with the overall dysfunctional mentoring scale [$r(90) = -.02$, $p > .05$] or either the distancing [$r(89) = -.02$, $p > .05$] or manipulation [$r(82) = -.02$, $p > .05$] subscales. Thus, Hypothesis 3b was not supported. The motivation to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction was not significantly correlated with protégé-reported functional mentoring overall [$r(93) = .02$, $p > .05$], nor the psychosocial [$r(92) = .04$, $p > .05$] or career [$r(93) = .00$, $p > .05$] subscales. Thus, Hypothesis 4a was not supported. Additionally, the intrinsic satisfaction motivation to mentor was not significantly correlated with the overall dysfunctional mentoring scale [$r(90) = .07$, $p > .05$] nor the distancing [$r(89) = .05$, $p > .05$] or manipulative [$r(82) = .05$, $p > .05$] subscales. Thus, Hypothesis 4b was not supported. Contrary to expectations, motivation to mentor out of one's own self-enhancement motivation

was negatively associated with both manipulative behavior [$r(82) = -.29, p < .01$], and distancing behavior [$r(89) = -.25, p < .05$], but unrelated to any of the functional mentoring scales.

The Protégé's Perspective

Hypothesis 5: Protégé POPS and Ingratiation

Hypothesis 5 stated that protégé POPS would be positively correlated with the use of ingratiation towards the mentor. Since there were no significant control variables found, correlational analysis was used to test this hypothesis. Results were not supportive for the hypothesis, [$r(108) = .03, p > .05$].

Hypothesis 6: Protégé Ingratiation, Political Skill, and Mentor Liking

Hypothesis 6 proposed that protégés' political skill would moderate the relationship between the ingratiation attempts they directed at their mentor and their mentors' liking of them. Specifically, I expected that protégé ingratiation would be negatively related to liking for those with low political skill, and positively related to liking for those with high political skill. Results related to this hypothesis are shown on Table 5. Recalling that mentor liking was significantly related to the nested variable (see Table 2), this hypothesis was tested using HLM. Here, mentor liking was regressed onto the random factor of mentor, the covariate of relationship duration (as duration was previously shown to be related with liking), protégé ingratiation, protégé political skill, and the product term of ingratiation and political skill. Results indicated that the random factor of mentor accounted for unique variance (*Wald's Z* = 3.06, $p < .01$), as did the covariate of relationship duration ($\gamma = 0.01$, $F = 9.82$, $p < .01$). This finding demonstrated that mentors with multiple protégés had a systematic tendency to express greater or lesser protégé liking, and that those in longer relationships similarly benefited. However, neither main effects for protégé ingratiation ($\gamma = 0.49$, $F = 1.76$, $p > .05$) and political skill ($\gamma = 0.16$, $F = .68$, $p > .05$), nor their

expected interaction reached significance (γ = -0.09, $F = 1.24$, $p > .05$). Therefore Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Table 5 Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results for Ingratiation, Political Skill, and Liking

Effect	Variable	Mentor Liking	
Fixed		*SE*	*t*
	Relationship Duration	.00	3.13**
	Ingratiation	.37	1.33
	Political Skill	.19	.82
	Ingratiation x Political Skill	.08	-1.11
Random			
	Variance of Residual	.09**	
	Variance of Mentor	.19**	
Model Fit			
	-2 log likelihood	221.76	
	AIC	225.76	

Note: *p < .05, p** < .01. AIC = Akaike's Information Criterion.

Hypothesis 7: Mentor Liking, Functional and Dysfunctional Mentoring

Hypotheses 7a and b stated that protégés who were better liked by their mentors would report having received (a) greater functional mentoring and (b) less dysfunctional mentoring. Results for this hypothesis were obtained using multiple regression because no nested effects were found for either functional or dysfunctional mentoring. First, overall functional mentoring, as well as its subscales of career support and psychosocial support were regressed in separate equations on mentor liking, benefit others motive, current supervisor, and relationship duration. Benefit others motive was included to uncover any unique relationships predicting mentor functions, since earlier results showed such motivation associated with functional mentoring. Similarly, as shown earlier, whether the mentor was a current supervisor and the relationship duration were used as control variables given their relationship with functional mentoring. As indicated in Table 6, mentoring liking of a particular protégé, current supervisor, and relationship duration all contributed uniquely to overall functional mentoring as well as career mentoring, and

psychosocial support, whereas the motivation to mentor for the benefit of others was not a unique predictor of psychosocial mentoring. Thus, Hypothesis 7a was supported.

Next, overall dysfunctional mentoring, along with distancing and manipulative mentoring subscales were regressed in separate equations on mentor liking, self-enhancement motivation, current supervisor and protégé ingratiation. Once more, self-enhancement, current supervisor, and ingratiation were used as control variables due to their relation with dysfunctional mentoring shown previously. Mentor liking did not show significance with overall dysfunctional mentoring or its subscales; however, self-enhancement motivation was a unique predictor of the manipulative subscale, while current supervisor and ingratiation accounted for significant variance in both subscales, as well as for overall dysfunctional mentoring. Thus, Hypothesis 7b did not receive support. These findings indicated that a mentor's liking of a protégé can result in more functional mentoring, but not less dysfunctional mentoring.

Table 6 Regression of Functional and Dysfunctional Mentoring on Benefit Others Motive, Self-Enhancement Motive, and Mentor Liking

	Dependent Variables											
	Functional Mentoring						Dysfunctional Mentoring					
Predictor Variables	Career Development			Psychosocial Support			Manipulative Behavior			Distancing Behavior		
	B	*SE B*	*β*	B	*SE B*	*β*	B	*SE B*	*β*	B	*SE B*	*β*
1. Benefit Others Motive	.319**	.116	.237**	.169	.110	.138						
2. Self-enhancement Motive							-.224*	.113	-.214*	-.207	.127	-.166
3. Relationship duration	.017**	.005	.287**	.010*	.005	.187*						
4. Current supervisor	-.754**	.201	-.329**	-.708**	.191	-.338**	.704**	.212	.343**	.938**	.241	.385**
5. Ingratiation							.243**	.084	.288**	.303**	.099	.295**
6. Mentor Liking	.427**	.109	.356**	.443**	.103	.411**	-.136	.110	-.131	-.144	.128	-.113

Note. N = 81-92 *$p < .05$, $p^{**} < .01$. Mentor Liking and Benefit Others Motive were both uniquely related to Career Development, but when both were inputted simultaneously, only Mentor Liking was significantly related to Psychosocial Support. Total adjusted R^2 for regression of career development on benefit others motive, mentor liking, current supervisor, and relationship duration = .343. Total adjusted R^2 for regression of psychosocial support on benefit others motive, mentor liking, current supervisor, and relationship duration = .285. Total adjusted R^2 for regression of manipulative behavior on self-enhancement motive, mentor liking, current supervisor, and ingratiation = .255. Total adjusted R^2 for regression of distancing behavior on self-enhancement motive, mentor liking, current supervisor, and ingratiation = .229.

	Dependent Variables					
Predictor Variables	Overall Functional Mentoring			Overall Dysfunctional Mentoring		
	B	*SE B*	*β*	B	*SE B*	*β*
1. Benefit Others Motive	.216*	.101	.183*			
2. Self-enhancement Motive				-.087	.083	-.111
3. Relationship duration	.012**	.004	.235**			
4. Current supervisor	-.734**	.175	-.363**	.847**	.202	.403**
5. Ingratiation				.234**	.064	.362**
6. Mentor Liking	.436**	.094	.419**	-.053	.085	-.065

Note. N = 81-92 *p < .05, p** < .01. Total adjusted R^2 for regression of functional mentoring on benefit others motive, mentor liking, current supervisor, and relationship duration = .352. Total adjusted R^2 for regression of dysfunctional mentoring on self-enhancement motive, mentor liking, current supervisor, and ingratiation = .210.

Mentoring Outcomes for Protégés

Hypotheses 8 – 11 involved predicted relationships between mentoring functions and individual outcomes for the protégé (i.e., satisfaction, turnover intentions, stress, and performance). As discussed earlier, significant differences were found among participant groups (specifically the current supervisory group) relating to job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and job performance (see Table 3). Hypotheses 8 -11 were analyzed using multiple regression, and where appropriate hypotheses involving these variables (i.e. hypotheses 8, 9, & 11) will be tested using current supervisor as a control variable. Table 7 summarizes the results of these hypotheses.

Hypothesis 8: Mentor Functions and Job Satisfaction

Hypotheses 8a and b proposed that protégé job satisfaction would be (a) positively related to functional mentoring and (b) negatively related to dysfunctional mentoring. Job satisfaction was regressed on both functional and dysfunctional mentoring, along with the covariate of the variable representing whether or not their mentor was their current supervisor. My regression results (see Table 7) initially revealed that current supervisor was significant [β = -.227, $t(99)$ = -2.26, $p < .05$], dysfunctional mentoring approached significance [β = -.176, $t(99)$ = -1.66, $p > .05$], and functional mentoring was nowhere near significance [β = .085, $t(99)$ = .823, $p > .05$]. I subsequently ran the regression again without the functional mentoring variable and found that both the control variable of current supervisor [β = -.239, $t(100)$ = -2.41, $p < .05$] and dysfunctional mentoring [β = -.207, $t(100)$ = -2.08, $p < .05$] accounted for unique variance. These results show Hypothesis 8a was not supported while support was found for Hypothesis 8b.

Hypothesis 9: Mentor Functions and Turnover Intentions

Hypotheses 9a and b proposed that protégé turnover intentions would be (a) negatively related to functional mentoring and (b) positively related to dysfunctional mentoring. Turnover intentions were once more regressed on functional mentoring, dysfunctional mentoring, and current supervisor. Results provided no support for Hypothesis 9a. However, as shown in Table 7, current supervisor [β = .186, $t(98)$ = 1.84, $p < .05$ (one-tailed)], and perceived dysfunctional mentoring [β = .256, $t(98)$ = 2.39, $p < .05$] did have a significant positive relation on turnover intentions, supporting Hypothesis 9b.

Hypothesis 10: Mentor Functions and Job Stress

Hypotheses 10a and b proposed that protégé job stress would be (a) negatively related to functional mentoring and (b) positively related to dysfunctional mentoring. Job stress was

regressed on functional [β = -.015, $t(98)$ = -.138, $p > .05$] and dysfunctional [β = .226, $t(98)$ = 2.07, $p < .05$] mentoring. While results showed (in Table 7) that Hypothesis 10a did not reach significance, support was found for Hypothesis 10b.

Supplemental Analyses: Protégé POPS as a Potential Mediator

Although not hypothesized, protégé POPS (pPOPS) was tested as a mediating variable between dysfunctional mentoring and those outcome variables predicted by dysfunctional mentoring. This decision was made after analyzing trends in the results showing pPOPS related to dysfunctional mentoring, satisfaction, turnover intentions, and stress, while unrelated to mPOPS. The Baron and Kenny (1986) guidelines for establishing mediation were followed in an attempt to show full mediation for all three outcome variables.

First, Table 7 revealed that dysfunctional mentoring was significantly related to the three outcome variables of interest. Second, pPOPS were regressed onto dysfunctional mentoring and the covariate of current supervisor. Results showed that both dysfunctional mentoring [β = .273, $t(98)$ = 2.83, $p < .01$], and the covariate of current supervisor [β = .231, $t(98)$ = 2.39, $p < .05$] were able to account for unique variance in protégé POPS. Third, each of the outcome variables was separately regressed onto pPOPS, dysfunctional mentoring, and the covariate of current supervisor (where appropriate). In predicting turnover intentions, results showed significance for pPOPS [β = .756, $t(196)$ = 3.75, $p < .01$], but not for the covariate of current supervisor [β = .098, $t(96)$ = 2.39, $p > .05$] or dysfunctional mentoring [β = .119, $t(96)$ = 1.22, $p > .05$]. In job satisfaction, again results showed significance for pPOPS [β = -.566, $t(97)$ = -6.57, $p < .01$], but not for the covariate of current supervisor [β = -.110, $t(97)$ = -1.30, $p > .05$] or dysfunctional mentoring [β = -.055, $t(97)$ = -.647, $p > .05$]. Last, in predicting job stress, results showed significance for pPOPS [β = .302, $t(98)$ = 3.02, $p < .01$], but not for dysfunctional mentoring [β

= .129, $t(98) = 1.29$, $p > .05$]. Such results provide evidence in support of pPOPS fully mediating the relationship between dysfunctional mentoring and outcomes of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and job stress.

Hypothesis 11: Mentor Functions and Job Performance

Hypotheses 11a and b proposed that protégé job performance would be (a) positively related to functional mentoring and (b) negatively related to dysfunctional mentoring. Job performance was regressed on overall functional and dysfunctional mentoring along with the covariate of relationship duration, and current supervisor. The latter two variables were used as covariates due to earlier results indicating their significant relations with functional mentoring. Perceptions of functional mentoring [$\beta = .204$, $t(77) = 1.68$, $p < .05$ (one-tailed)], and both covariates of current supervisor [$\beta = -.221$, $t(77) = 1.92$, $p < .05$ (one-tailed)], and relationship duration [$\beta = .183$, $t(77) = 1.69$, $p < .05$ (one-tailed)], were able to account for unique variance in job performance. Therefore, results (shown in Table 7) are in support of Hypotheses 11a, but not 11b.

Table 7 Regression of Functional and Dysfunctional Mentoring on Job Satisfaction, Job Stress, Turnover Intentions, and Job Performance

Variable	Job Satisfaction			Job Stress			Turnover Intentions			Job Performance		
	B	*SE B*	*β*	B	*SE B*	*β*	B	*SE B*	*β*	B	*SE B*	*β*
1. Functional Mentoring	.114	.139	.085	-.024	.173	-.015	-.038	.192	-.020	.232***	.138	.204***
2. Dysfunctional Mentoring	-.254	.153	-.176	.421*	.204	.226*	.511**	.213	.256**	-.090	.162	-.070
Covariates												
3. Current Supervisor	-.539*	.239	-.227*				.612***	.332	.186***	-.433***	.225	-.221***
4. Relationship Duration										.008***	.005	.183***

Note. N = 81-106. *$p < .05$, p** < .01, p ***<.05 (one-tailed). Total adjusted R^2 are reported for each dependent variable. $R^2 = .114$ for job satisfaction, $R^2 = .035$ for job stress, $R^2 = .113$ for turnover intentions, and $R^2 = .146$ for job performance.

Variable	Job Satisfaction		
	B	*SE B*	*β*
1. Dysfunctional Mentoring	-.299*	.143	-.207*
Covariates			
3. Current Supervisor	-.567*	.236	-.239*

Note. N =102. *$p < .05$. Total adjusted R^2 for job satisfaction = .117

Table 8 Summary of Study Hypotheses Results

Hypothesis	Result
1. Hypothesis 1:	
Mentor perceptions of organizational politics will be positively associated with mentor self-enhancement motives.	Supported through HLM analysis using intrinsic satisfaction motivation as a covariate and Mentor as the nested variable
2. Hypothesis 2:	
Mentor POPS will moderate the relationship between self-enhancement motives to mentor and dysfunctional mentoring. Specifically, when mentor POPS is high, self-enhancement motives to mentor will be more strongly related to dysfunctional mentoring than when mentor POPS is low.	Not Supported
3. Hypothesis 3:	
a. Mentors more strongly motivated to mentor for the benefit of others will provide more functional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor for the benefit of others.	Supported by a positive correlation between benefit others motivation and functional mentoring received.
b. Mentors more strongly motivated to mentor for the benefit of others will provide less dysfunctional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor for the benefit of others.	Not Supported
4. Hypothesis 4:	
a. Mentors more strongly motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction will provide more functional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction.	Not Supported.

Hypothesis	Result
5. Hypothesis 4:	
b. Mentors more strongly motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction will provide less dysfunctional mentoring than those less motivated to mentor out of intrinsic satisfaction.	Not Supported
6. Hypothesis 5:	
Protégé POPS will be positively correlated with their use of ingratiation towards their mentor.	Not Supported
7. Hypothesis 6:	
The protégé's political skill will moderate the relationship between the ingratiation attempts they direct at their mentor and their mentor's liking of them. Specifically, for those with low political skill, protégé ingratiation will be negatively related to liking, and for those with high political skill, protégé ingratiation will be positively related to liking.	Not Supported
8. Hypothesis 7:	
a. Protégés who are better liked by their mentor will report having received greater functional mentoring.	Supported through Multiple Regression using Mentor as Current Supervisor, Benefit Others Motivation, and Relationship Duration as covariates.
b. Protégés who are better liked by their mentor will report having received less dysfunctional mentoring.	Not Supported

Hypothesis	Result
9. Hypothesis 8:	
a. Protégé job satisfaction will be positively related to functional mentoring.	Not Supported
b. Protégé job satisfaction will be negatively related to dysfunctional mentoring.	Supported through Multiple Regression using the covariate of current supervisor.
10. Hypothesis 9:	
a. Protégé turnover intentions will be negatively related to functional mentoring.	Not supported
b. Protégé turnover intentions will be positively related to dysfunctional mentoring.	Supported through Multiple Regression using the covariate of current supervisor.
11. Hypothesis 10:	
a. Protégé stress will be negatively related to functional mentoring.	Not Supported
b. Protégé stress will be positively related to dysfunctional mentoring.	Supported through Multiple Regression.
12. Hypothesis 11:	
a. Protégé job performance will be positively related to functional mentoring.	Supported through Multiple Regression using the covariates of Relationship Duration, and current supervisor.
b. Protégé job performance will be negatively related to dysfunctional mentoring.	Not Supported.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Summary of Results

The objective of the current investigation was to examine how organizational politics influence mentoring relationships. Specifically, the investigation sought to determine the effect of mentors' and protégés' response to politics on mentoring functions and what eventual impact such functions would have on protégé outcomes (i.e., performance, stress, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction). Following the proposed model (refer to Figure 1), results first indicated that mentors who reported greater POPS were more motivated to mentor for self-enhancement and less motivated to mentor for their own intrinsic satisfaction. However, protégés' POPS did not influence their ingratiation attempts as originally expected, though protégé POPS were related to higher reports of dysfunctional mentoring. Further, protégé political skill did not act to moderate the proposed relation between ingratiation attempts and mentor liking.

Second, results showed that protégé received more functional mentoring from mentors who were more motivated to mentor for the benefit of others and by mentors who liked them better. By contrast, protégés received less dysfunctional mentoring from mentors if they engaged in less ingratiatory behavior.

Third, results supported the notion that functional and dysfunctional mentoring can impact individual outcomes for the protégé. In this regard, functional mentoring contributed unique variance in the prediction of job performance, whereas dysfunctional mentoring accounted for unique variance in the prediction of turnover intentions, stress, and job satisfaction. However, supplemental analysis showed protégé POPS actually mediated the relationship from dysfunctional mentoring to these outcome variables. It should be reiterated that protégés' perceptions of negative mentoring experiences (captured as dysfunctional mentoring) are

empirically distinct from positive experiences (i.e., functional mentoring) and do not simply reflect the absence of positive or functional mentoring. In fact, Eby et al. (2004) showed empirical evidence through confirmatory factor analysis and regression results that positive and negative mentoring are unique constructs. To summarize, results of this study showed that mentor POPS influenced mentor motives, which along with mentor liking of their protégés and the degree to which their protégé used ingratiation, acted to explain variance in functions provided. These mentor functions (both functional and dysfunctional) then accounted for variance towards individual outcomes for the protégé.

Theoretical Implications

Mentor and Protégé Perception of Politics

The central aim of this study was to observe the effects of political perceptions on mentor-protégé dyads. Theoretically, POPS was intended to influence both the mentor and protégé in distinct ways – influencing self-enhancement motivation to mentor, protégé ingratiation attempts, and the manner in which each was expressed. However, an impact of POPS was shown for mentors, but not for protégés, with two mentor motives showing an effect. This finding may be due to the variables involved (perhaps a construct other than ingratiation would have been influenced by protégé POPS) or simply a matter of model misspecification. Nonetheless, the finding was unique in that it was the first to explore and potentially find antecedent variables for mentor motives. Moreover, while it is suspected (and was hypothesized) that POPS influence motives and not the other way around, longitudinal studies should seek to uncover the true direction of this relationship.

POPS and Climate

Another unique finding in this research is evidence pertaining to the POPS and its impact on climate. Correlational analysis initially showed that mentor and protégé POPS were unrelated. This suggests either that different variables separately influence mentor and protégé POPS, or that certain variables influence mentor and protégé in distinct manners. It further indicates that department or location may not systematically influence POPS. Using HLM, this study was unable to find mentor or protégé POPS related to either company department or location. This was despite showing modest standard deviations of POPS across the sample for both department and location, which can be interpreted to mean there was not a homogeneous climate on whole. Since POPS could not be mapped onto a tangible contextual variable, one could make a strong argument that POPS is largely an individual difference variable.

Perhaps perceiving politics truly lies in the eye of the beholder. It may be that individual differences in personality or goal orientation influence both mentor motives and the manner in which a political climate is perceived. This notion would be consistent with my failure to find a nested effect for location or department on POPS. Moreover, some sects of climate research (Patterson, Payne, & West, 1996) cover this same notion, showing that membership in collective climates did not represent either social group membership or job type. Although this study focused on psychological climate at an individual level, results call into question a large amount of research in the politics literature since the majority of this literature uses the same perspective. Further, organizational politics literature is based largely on political perceptions originating from environmental and organizational influences – using aggregation to show that these perceptions are shared by others in similar departments or organizations. Therefore, it would be wise to more carefully consider multi-level issues and personality when measuring political perceptions.

POPS and Motives

Consistent with prior speculation (Eby et al., 2000; Lima, 2004; Scandura, 1998), findings within this study now add compelling evidence that mentor motives are linked to political perceptions, specifically self-enhancement and intrinsic satisfaction motives. The concept that one's decision to enter a mentoring relationship out of a desire to provide insight or an opportunity for self benefit is due to situational ambiguity and competition deserves further attention. Mentoring research may be well served by incorporating more aspects of political perceptions to further uncover those variables which influence mentors to join mentoring relationships. Future studies should look into discovering if antecedent variables to POPS are differentially related to status in mentor-protégé dyads, especially those involving supervisory mentors. In addition, research should examine contextual variables such as organizational centralization and formalization as they relate to mentor motives and functions. Research by Eby, Lockwood, and Butts (2006) showcased the value context can have, as they found perceived management support for mentoring positively related to both types of functional mentoring.

Protégé Influence and Mentor Functions

Unexpectedly, this study found that neither protégé ingratiation attempts, political skill, nor their interaction were able to effectively sway their mentor's liking. In addition, ingratiation and political skill were not significantly correlated (given their similarities, one would expect to see evidence of mono-method bias here). However, there are potential explanations for these findings. Self report measures were used, and individuals may not have accurately assessed their own political skills or ingratiation attempts. If this were the case, this study limited itself by not collecting this measure from the mentor, one's peers, or a third party observer to more accurately gauge their political skill level and ingratiation usage. One additional reason may have to do with

the impression management tactic chosen. While ingratiation did not interact with political skill to explain mentor liking, if more than one impression management tactic was chosen an interaction may have been found. After proposing this, an article by Kolodinsky, Treadway, and Ferris (2007) actually hypothesized and found political skill moderating the effects of rationality (the use of reasoning or rational persuasion to influence others) on supervisor liking of the subordinate.

Protégé Influence

Although ingratiation attempts did not influence mentor liking, ingratiation (despite a low mean and variance) was found to be positively related to dysfunctional mentoring. It seems then that ingratiation attempts do not seem to work in one's favor, as they may do more harm than good. This follows trends from previous research showing the use of ingratiation attempts alone can negatively impact oneself (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Prior work in dysfunctional mentoring discusses how either protégés are affected by dysfunctional mentors or how mentors are affected by dysfunctional or difficult protégés. This was the first study to empirically investigate how protégé behavior can lead to dysfunctional mentoring. However, since these results are merely correlational, it is also possible to that dysfunctional mentoring led protégés to use ingratiation tactics – trying to offset their mentor's manipulative and distancing behaviors. Future research should discern which of these variables comes first temporally in order to determine the direction of influence. Perhaps though the relationship between ingratiation and dysfunctional mentoring is curvilinear – that a small amount of ingratiation may lead to benefits, but as ingratiation attempts increase they may produce diminishing returns in the form of dysfunction mentoring behavior. In addition, research should examine other potential antecedents of dysfunctional mentoring. Whether this be protégé actions that incite the mentor

to manipulative or distancing behaviors, or if dysfunctional mentoring is a function of particular traits certain mentors hold that lead them to act out dysfunctionally, research should be undertaken from both perspectives in an effort to prevent such dysfunction.

Political skill was not related to mentor liking either directly or in combination with protégé ingratiation. However, political skill was positively associated with job satisfaction. One way to explain such a finding is that belief in possessing such a skill may provide a sense of empowerment to employees helping them feel as though they can take control of their environment in comparison to others low on this skill. This may lead to those who scored themselves high on this ability to have a high level of job satisfaction. More simply, individuals who find they can successfully influence others towards attaining their own agenda would naturally be more satisfied than those who cannot. This sentiment was reported by Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, and Ferris (2004). However, when they added the nonlinear political skill term into the regression equation, it accounted for a significant increment in variance explained, suggesting an inverted U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction – increasing the complexity of interpersonal skill related constructs.

Mentor Liking

While none of the above protégé variables were significantly associated with mentor liking, the nested term of mentor did predict liking. It seems that mentor liking has more to do with the mentor than the protégé, at least for the variables looked at in this study. One variable not investigated that may help to explain mentor liking is positive affectivity. Individuals high on positive affectivity experience pleasurable engagement with their environment and espouse positive views of themselves and the world in general (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Perhaps mentors who like their protégés are simply high on positive affectivity, and therefore, may simply have an affinity toward most people. Further, mentor liking showed an effect on mentor functions provided. Previous research had not evaluated the impact of liking on mentor functions, and the present study was an attempt to expand our understanding by addressing this omission. The closest that prior research has come in this area was in two studies. Wayne and Ferris (1990) found supervisor liking to positively influence exchange quality with their subordinates. A second study by Allen, Day, and Lentz (2005) focused on interpersonal comfort which shares with liking a sense of getting along with others. These researchers showed consistent findings that interpersonal comfort was positively associated with career mentoring. The current study similarly found that mentor liking positively related to greater protégé perceived functional mentoring, but not less perceived dysfunctional mentoring – fulfilling half of the proposed hypotheses involving liking and mentor functions.

The finding that dislike of a protégé was unrelated to dysfunctional mentoring may be a result of the lower reported incidence of dysfunctional mentoring for this sample. Whether dysfunctional mentoring occurs more rarely than functional mentoring, or if participants were simply reluctant to report it to its true extent, is unknown. It is known that dysfunctional mentoring was not associated with the random factor of mentor. This means that mentors who engaged in dysfunctional behavior did not necessarily do so with all of their protégés. However, the association of mentor liking and functional mentoring suggests previous assertions relating mentor liking to LMX ratings and viewing the protégé as having more potential (thus receiving greater mentoring) may have merit. Moreover, this line of reasoning may also help to explain the significant correlation found between mentor liking and job performance – that either protégés who are better liked become members of the "in group" and have better opportunities to

increase performance, or supervisors simply like high performing employees. Future research should attempt to discover or parse out the specific processes that follow mentor liking as they relate to their relationship with the protégé.

The Role of Mentor Motives

Beyond liking, another way variance accounted for mentor functions were through mentor motives. The motivation to mentor for the benefit of others was positively correlated with functional mentoring, while a relation with mentor functions and motivation to mentor for self-enhancement or intrinsic satisfaction was not found. Consistent with prior research, Allen (2003) found mentor benefit others motive related to both psychosocial and career development functions, and Lima (2004) only found a relation to career development. Both studies also found significant positive relations between functional mentoring with self-enhancement and intrinsic satisfaction motives. Unlike these two studies though, the current investigation is unique in finding such relationships using protégé perceived mentoring, rather than mentor reports of such functions.

Future Work with Mentor Functions

To summarize, these results indicate that functional or dysfunctional mentoring relates to both the mentor and the protégé, through: mentor motives, mentor liking of their protege, and protégé ingratiation. In light of such findings, future theoretical and empirical research should continue to examine a greater range of impression management tactics, more thoroughly account for the power differences inherent in typical mentoring relationships, as well as the interpersonal processes that influence the mentor. On top of this, research should simultaneously investigate mentors' and protégés' negative mentoring experiences to more fully understand each member's perspective and how these negative perceptions are shaped. For example, Eby, Durley, Evans,

and Ragins (2008) measured mentor's perceptions of negative mentoring experiences as well as relating them to protégé perceived functional mentoring. These researchers were able to find distinct types of negative experiences with protégés as well as identify several antecedents of protégé perceptions of relational quality. Future research should continue in this direction by expanding on the relational processes and exchanges that occur in an attempt to strive for increased balance within the dyad.

Mentoring Outcomes

Significant Outcomes and Speculations

Mentoring functions accounted for variance in job satisfaction, job stress, turnover intentions and job performance. In particular, dysfunctional mentoring accounted for variance in job satisfaction, job stress, and turnover intentions while functional mentoring accounted for variance in protégé job performance. In contrast to prior findings that have shown a relation between both types of mentor functions and job satisfaction, stress, and turnover intentions, these results appear to make dysfunctional mentoring carry slightly more weight than functional mentoring. Within this study, feeling manipulated or neglected had a greater impact on stress as well as attachment to the organization (i.e. satisfaction and intent to turnover), whereas functional mentoring had more of an impact on their actual performance. Whereas managers may be more concerned about increasing performance, the damaging outcomes that accompany dysfunctional mentoring may in fact outweigh the potential gains in performance. In particular, the costs associated with organizational turnover and health issues related to work stress can become quite severe. The notion of negative asymmetry and prospect theory can further be used to explain this line of thinking. First, negative asymmetry proposes that negative relational experiences carry more weight in predicting outcomes than do positive relational experiences,

and has been supported by both theoretical (LaBianca & Brass, 2006) and empirical (Taylor, 1991) research. Further, revisiting Kahneman and Tversky's prospect theory (1979), explains that individuals are risk seeking regarding losses and risk averse regarding possible gains. This means that losses (or in this case dysfunctional mentoring) hurt more than an equal gain (i.e. functional mentoring) pleases.

Additionally, finding that functional mentoring explained variance in job performance provided results yet to be found in the literature thus far, though previously tested by Scandura and Schriesheim (1994). A major strength of this study in predicting job performance was that data came from two sources, thus eliminating the threat of mono-method bias, whereas the majority of mentoring studies only use self-report data. These results imply that job performance should be added as a variable of interest in subsequent mentoring studies. While it may have been previously inferred that job performance is affected by mentoring through indicators of promotion rates or salary, evidence now affirms these assumptions. Future research should also begin to examine how mentor outcomes are affected by their own mentoring functions towards the protégé (through both self and protégé reports). It would be valuable to know if mentors who provide dysfunctional mentoring receive more instrumental benefits of job performance or organizational recognition (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2006) than who give less dysfunctional mentoring.

An additional significant finding relating to mentoring outcomes was evidence showing an advantage for current supervisory mentored groups over all other participant groups. There are two main possibilities to explain why this group would report more benefits than other groups in general (i.e., higher satisfaction and functional mentoring, lower turnover intentions and dysfunctional mentoring). The first possibility is that protégés with current supervisory

mentors actually received more mentoring – that these particular mentors were more attentive, supportive, and had a greater impact than all other mentors. The other option that cannot be ignored is the possibility that that protégés of current supervisory mentors were reluctant to say negative things about their supervisor out of a fear that their supervisor would see their data. While all reasonable options were made to assure confidentiality and anonymity, future research should begin taking creative steps to either prevent these guarded tendencies or control for them statistically. Furthermore, future research should look at the possibility of whether the grouping variable (i.e. the type of mentor one has) acts to moderate the relationship between POPS and dysfunctional mentoring. Though I was unable to test this due to a low sample size, I suspect the amount of dysfunctional mentoring received may be a function of the type of mentor one has, and how pervasive one believes the political climate to be.

POPS and Dysfunctional Mentoring

Last, the significant correlation between protégé POPS and dysfunctional mentoring deserves mention. Due to the nature of the analyses, no temporal precedence can be set, and therefore, causality cannot be implied leaving a possible reciprocal relationship. This means that either dysfunctional mentoring occurs in political climates or that protégé POPS may have been the result of perceived dysfunctional mentoring. There are a few reasons that suggest the latter (viewing a mentoring relationship as dysfunctional leads one to view the climate as political). First, if POPS were related to dysfunctional mentoring, the most logical argument would be that mentors who perceived high levels of politics would react by demonstrating dysfunctional mentoring behavior; however, this was not found. Theoretically, protégé POPS would not cause mentor behavior, strengthening the argument that that mentor behavior caused protégé POPS. Further, it was found that protégé POPS and dysfunctional mentoring were both individually

related to job stress, satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Although, results showed that when protégé POPS and dysfunctional mentoring were inputted together, only protégé POPS was related to the outcome variables. Therefore, following logic given by Barron and Kenny (1986), I saw a trend for protégé POPS to act as a mediator.

This reasoning fits in part with the revised model of organizational politics perception provided by Ferris et al. (2002), wherein job/work influences such as interactions with a supervisor and political behavior are predicted to influence POPS. However, it should be pointed out that the model of Ferris et al. (2002) shows a reciprocal relationship between political behavior and political perceptions. Future research should further test the mediating role of protégé POPS found in this study, as such knowledge could change the way mentoring and supervisory relationships are studied by taking into account that dysfunctional mentoring plays a vital role in how politics are perceived. In addition, future research should also look into distinguishing influences on POPS from perspectives of the mentor and protégé separately.

Practical Implications

My results have practical implications for the screening, training, and selection of both mentoring dyad members working in organizations. One implication is that screening methods should be in place for mentors in an effort to increase the overall effectiveness of the mentorship. This study was able to show that mentoring functions were related to specific mentor motives. In particular, the motivation to mentor out of a desire to benefit others was positively related to functional mentoring. When recruiting or asking for mentors in organizations, the likelihood of increasing functional mentoring could be amplified by assessing and screening for the motivation to benefit others. Having a better understanding of why an individual wants to become a mentor can aid in determining how well they will provide or withhold needed mentoring functions.

In comparing this study to past functional and dysfunctional mentoring research, there are similarities in effect sizes that are practically significant for application in organizational settings. For example, while effect sizes for turnover intentions (.08), job satisfaction (.08), and stress (.05) were quite small and consistent with prior research (see Allen et al., 2004; Eby & Allen, 2002; Harvey et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000), the effect size for job performance was .18. This indicates that while dysfunctional mentoring may affect a larger number of outcomes, functional mentoring has the greatest impact.

Mentor and Protégé Training Needs

Given the relationship found between ingratiation and dysfunctional mentoring, there is a need for training on the part of both parties. This investigation uncovered a positive relationship between ingratiation and dysfunctional mentoring, though no causal direction could be determined. Training needs are evident in either purported direction of the relationship between ingratiation and dysfunction, and this training should instruct both members on what effective relationships involve and what to look out for in terms of dysfunctional mentoring. In the case of mentor dysfunction leading to protégé ingratiation, mentors should receive additional training reminding them that the primary goal of mentoring is to benefit the protégé, and that their benefits are more auxiliary. Additionally, it should be reiterated to mentors that the basic inequality of a supervisory mentoring relationship places the onus of responsibility primarily on the mentor (Moberg & Velasquez, 2004). For mentors, training should help them better understand what type of support to provide in order to meet protégé expectations (Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Young & Perrewé, 2000) and to increase interpersonal comfort (Allen, et al., 2005), allowing them to become more effective as mentors and to prevent potential dysfunction.

The protégé, when potentially facing dysfunction, should initially receive assertiveness training in order to offset and confront mentor dysfunctional behaviors when they occur in order to restore balance in the relationship. In the case of a protégé's ingratiation attempts causing dysfunctional behavior towards themselves, protégés should be trained not to use ingratiation. Using results from this study, it should be made clear to protégés that attempting to praise, flatter, and conform to the values of their mentor will not win their mentor over; rather, these actions could potentially inflame the relationship. While all protégés desire to be liked by their mentor, ingratiation tactics are not the correct way to earn this admiration.

Mentor Liking and Relation to Choice

This study also highlighted the importance of a mentor's fondness for the protégé. The fact that a mentor's liking of a protégé explained variance for protégé perceived functional mentoring calls for organizations to be more flexible in their pairing arrangements. The implication here is that formal mentoring programs provide interested members with a choice in whom they are matched with. This choice may allow a greater chance for the pairing to like each other, since those who choose one another will more than likely be similar. In fact, this implication is backed by research, whereby Kendall (2007) found that allowing protégés to choose their mentors actually increased perceived similarity between dyad members. Following this, similarity is associated with liking through the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne & Griffitt, 1969), suggesting that individuals like those who are similar to themselves. So then, providing members with a choice should increase liking, and in doing so, should increase functional mentoring provided.

Impact of Supervisory Mentoring

Last, organizations with existing mentoring programs should consider reinforcing the need for supervisors to become mentors. This increased need for managers and supervisors to create close relationships with their subordinate protégés is stressed by the current findings involving current supervisory mentors. This study was able to show a distinct advantage of those protégés with current supervisory mentors over other participant groups through higher job performance, satisfaction, and reported functional mentoring, to name a few. Training current supervisory mentors could effectively elevate the benefits shown for this particular dyad. These results stress how the importance of developing healthy supervisory mentoring relationships cannot be underscored as it acts to benefit both parties.

Limitations

While this study exhibited many strengths, there were bound to be limitations. One notable limitation of the study was that data were collected cross-sectionally, thereby preventing any inference of causality. As such, participants provided responses to items at just one point in time. Given the subjective nature of most of the items, it is possible that respondents would have provided different responses at different times based on additional interaction with their supervisor or how they were feeling that day. A longitudinal design would have helped to overcome this limitation, and would have been better suited to demonstrate causal relationships proposed.

A second limitation is mono method bias due to the fact that several of the hypotheses involved the use of single-source, self-reported data. This casts doubt over the accuracy of ratings provided, and these concerns were alleviated only for those hypotheses employing responses from both mentors and protégés (i.e. the prediction of: mentor liking, mentor functions, and job performance). Also, because of the nature of potential dysfunctional relationships,

employees may have been reluctant to report negative information about their supervisors. Therefore, despite an inability to show a restriction of range, I suspect levels of these sensitive variables may have been artificially suppressed. Another explanation to follow this logic is that despite research showing the two dysfunctional variables used in this study (distancing and manipulative behaviors) are unique negative experiences (Eby et al., 2000; Eby et al. 2004), they are highly correlated. This means that if protégés are reluctant to report manipulative behavior they will be equally reluctant to report distancing behavior. So then, in addition to studying more impression management tactics, this study may have benefited by collecting the entire range of dysfunctional mentoring.

As a third limitation, one of the five office branches was not represented at all. For an unknown reason, no surveys were completed from this particular company, which was composed of approximately 100 employees. Through further investigation with the main Human Resources contact, I learned that this particular company was going through several managerial changes and drastic layoffs during the time of data collection. To further hinder results, this facility (a marketing call center) also had limited access to computers, which were necessary considering that this survey was conducted online. Given this information, certain limitations come to mind. One could infer that individuals within an organization experiencing managerial changes and downsizing may perceive the political climate as quite high. Therefore, results involving POPS and perceiving dysfunctional mentoring may have been strengthened, or perhaps reached significance – especially when considering the impact in power an additional 100 employees would offer.

Finally, the results of this study bear external validity limitations. The companies who participated in the study were all in the marketing and communications fields, and were only

representing the eastern United States. It is uncertain whether these results would transfer outside of this work niche, much less outside of the United States or to academic settings, although it is suspected that an academic setting would display similar results, given the inherent supervisory mentoring role professors have with their students.

Conclusion

This study adds to the existing literature in several ways. First, this was the only investigation (beyond a small phenomenological study by Gibson in 2006) to explore how political climate affects mentoring relationships, bringing the two research streams together. As mentioned throughout the paper, there are many parallels in the business, management, organizational, and social science literatures covering topics such as: dysfunctional mentoring, organizational politics, supervisory mentoring, and abusive supervision. The core of this investigation's effort was to bridge these concepts and literature bases, and I believe this study was successful in this goal, although many questions still remained unanswered. The results of this study can aid future researchers in hopes to expand current viewpoints and models while condensing the overflow of redundant research in similar fields.

Additionally, current literature is benefited by further investigating dysfunctional mentoring relationships. While I personally promote mentoring in the workplace, its disadvantages and potential drawbacks should by no means be concealed or overshadowed by rosier outlooks that most mentoring articles cover. As discussed previously, mentoring is by no means a "black and white" issue, as its benefits will always be accompanied by costs, and therefore both the light and dark sides of mentoring should be investigated in future mentoring research. However, an unanticipated benefit this study uncovered (amid a political climate) was showing that protégés with current supervisory mentors received more functional mentoring, less

dysfunctional mentoring, greater job performance and satisfaction, along with lower turnover intentions than other groups. This finding replicates and extends prior research, which found a greater degree of career development from supervisory mentors over nonsupervisory mentors (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Scandura & Williams, 2004). Last, to my knowledge, this investigation was the first of its kind in mentoring literature to study nested effects of multiple protégés within a mentor.

In summary, the current study provides insight into both mentor and protégé perspectives by examining the influence of climate, motives, and interpersonal influence as it relates to outcomes for the protégé. Further, an emphasis was made on important theoretical and practical contributions that could be useful in the development of future empirical research and work applications. Finally, this study took strides in answering as well as raising new questions in a humble attempt to resolve the dearth in the dysfunctional mentoring literature.

APPENDIX A: PERCEPTION OF POLITICS SCALE

Please indicate on the scale from 1-5 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
1. People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. There is no place for yes-men around here; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. It is not best to rock the boat in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than fight the system.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. It is safer to think what you are told than make up your own mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I can’t remember when a person received a pay increase or promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
12. None of the raises I have received are consistent with how raises should be determined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay raises and promotions are determined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Promotions around here are not valued much because how they are determined is so political.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX B: MENTOR MOTIVES

Please indicate on the scale from 1 – 6 the extent to which each item motivated or influenced your decision to mentor another.

	No Extent					**Great Extent**
1. To enhance my visibility within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. To enhance my reputation within this department.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. To earn respect from others in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. To increase my support base within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. To benefit this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. A desire to build/develop a competent work force within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. A desire to help others succeed in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. To ensure that knowledge and information is passed onto others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. The personal pride that mentoring someone brings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The personal gratification that comes from seeing the protégé grow and develop.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. To gain a sense of self-satisfaction from passing on insights.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX C: LIKING SCALE

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
1. I like this subordinate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I get along well with this subordinate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Supervising this subordinate is a pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I think this subordinate would make a good friend.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D: DYSFUNCTIONAL MENTORING / MANIPULATIVE BEHAVIOR.

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

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

APPENDIX E: DYSFUNCTIONAL MENTORING / DISTANCING BEHAVIOR.

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
1. My mentor is reluctant to talk about things that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. My mentor seems to have "more important things to do" than to meet with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. When I interact with my mentor, he/she does not give me their full attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My mentor is more concerned about his/her own career than helping me develop in mine.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. My mentor is preoccupied with his/her own advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. My mentor does not include me in important meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My mentor keeps me "out of the loop" on important issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX F: FUNCTIONAL MENTORING.

Please report the extent to which the following took place during your mentoring relationship.

	No Extent					Great Extent
1. My mentor shared the history of their career with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. My mentor has encouraged me to prepare for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. My mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I try to imitate the work behavior of my Mentor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values regarding work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I respect and admire my mentor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I will try and be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. My mentor has discussed my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors and work/family conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	No Extent					Great Extent
13. My mentor has kept feeling and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. My mentor reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of me remaining in the organization or getting a promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. My mentor helped me finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. My mentor helped me meet new colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. My mentor gave me assignments that increased my visibility within the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. My mentor assigned responsibilities that increased my contact with those who may judge my potential for future advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. My mentor gave me assignments or tasks that prepared me for a higher job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. My mentor gave me assignments that presented opportunities to learn new skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX G: INGRATIATION

For each of the 4 strategies, describe how frequently you have used each in the last six months while at work. Use the following rating scale to record your answers:

	Never					**Often**
1. Compliment your mentor so him/her will see you as likable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Take an interest in your mentor’s personal life to show him/her that you are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Praise your mentor for their accomplishments so he/she will consider you a nice person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Do personal favors for your mentor to show him/her that you're friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX H: POLITICAL SKILL

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
1. I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am good at using my connections and networks to make things happen at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work who I can call on for support when I really need to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I try to show a genuine interest in other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I always seem to instinctively know the right thing to say or do to influence others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I pay close attention to people's facial expressions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I understand people very well.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
15. It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I am good at getting people to like me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX I: JOB SATISFACTION

Please rate from 1-6 how strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. In general, I don't like my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. In general, I like working here.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX J: JOB STRESS

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
1. My job tends to directly affect my health.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I work under a great deal of tensions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. If I had a different job, my health would probably improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I have felt nervous before attending meetings in this company.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I often "take my job home with me" in the sense that I think about it when doing other things.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX K: TURNOVER INTENT

Please respond the questions based upon the representative anchors given.

	Very Unlikely					**Very Likely**
1. How likely is it that you will look for a job outside of the organization during this next year?	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very Seldom					**Very Often**
2. How often do you think about about quitting your job at this organization?	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very **Little**					Very **Much**
3. If it were possible, how much would you like to get a new job?	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX L: JOB PERFORMANCE

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your rating based on the following statements.

	Poor				Excellent	
1. How would you rate this individual's overall current performance?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. How would you rate this individual's overall potential for advancement?	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX M: IRB APPROVAL LETTER

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901, 407-882-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Notice of Expedited Initial Review and Approval

From : **UCF Institutional Review Board**
FWA00000351, Exp. 5/07/10, IRB00001138

To : **Nic Bencaz**

Date : **December 05, 2007**

IRB Number: **SBE-07-05327**

Study Title: **Dynamics of Mentor/Protege Relationships**

Dear Researcher:

Your research protocol noted above was approved by **expedited** review by the UCF IRB Vice-chair on 11/29/2007. **The expiration date is 11/28/2008.** Your study was determined to be minimal risk for human subjects and expeditable per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.110. The category for which this study qualifies as expeditable research is as follows:

7. Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

A **waiver of documentation of consent** has been approved for all subjects. Participants do not have to sign a consent form, but the IRB requires that you give participants a copy of the IRB-approved consent form, letter, information sheet, or statement of voluntary consent at the top of the survey.

All data, which may include signed consent form documents, must be retained in a locked file cabinet for a minimum of three years (six if HIPAA applies) past the completion of this research. Any links to the identification of participants should be maintained on a password-protected computer if electronic information is used. Additional requirements may be imposed by your funding agency, your department, or other entities. Access to data is limited to authorized individuals listed as key study personnel.

To continue this research beyond the expiration date, a Continuing Review Form must be submitted 2 – 4 weeks prior to the expiration date. Advise the IRB if you receive a subpoena for the release of this information, or if a breach of confidentiality occurs. Also report any unanticipated problems or serious adverse events (within 5 working days). Do not make changes to the protocol methodology or consent form before obtaining IRB approval. Changes can be submitted for IRB review using the Addendum/Modification Request Form. An Addendum/Modification Request Form **cannot** be used to extend the approval period of a study. All forms may be completed and submitted online at http://iris.research.ucf.edu .

Failure to provide a continuing review report could lead to study suspension, a loss of funding and/or publication possibilities, or reporting of noncompliance to sponsors or funding agencies. The IRB maintains the authority under 45 CFR 46.110(e) to observe or have a third party observe the consent process and the research.

On behalf of Tracy Dietz, Ph.D., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 12/05/2007 08:53:44 AM EST

Joanne Muratori

IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX N: PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT

INFORMED VOLUNTARY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

You are among several employees who are being asked to participate in a confidential online mentoring survey entitled "Dynamics of Mentoring Relationships" that will take approximately ten minutes to complete. Your participation and honest answers are crucial for assessing mentoring issues as they relate to the workplace. Lastly, your responses will only be viewed by a third party researcher who has NO affiliation with the organization. **Therefore, in no manner will your personal responses be shared with the organization or with your respective supervisor / supervisee.**

- This survey is completely voluntary. I may choose not to participate or not to answer any specific questions. I may skip any question I am not comfortable answering. **I can decline to participate in this survey without affecting employee status.**
- **I will not take this survey if I am under the age of 18.**
- **Please answer questions honestly.**
- The purpose of this research is to demonstrate the dynamics of mentoring relationships in order to further research on existing formal mentoring programs and training for developing ones.
- The investigator believes that there are no risks or discomforts associated with participation, and I will not incur out of pocket costs nor receive compensation of any form as a result from my voluntary participation.
- I understand that I will receive no direct benefits other than:
    - Knowledge that participation in this study will aid efforts to improve my social relationships and/or job performance.
    - Knowledge that participation in this study will aid efforts to facilitate future mentoring relationships.
    - A copy of any publications resulting from the current study if requested.

Thank you for taking the time and thought to complete this survey. We sincerely appreciate your participation. Your time and effort in helping us gather information is greatly appreciated and will ultimately help your organization as well as enable an aspiring doctoral student to fulfill his dissertation requirement so that he may graduate.

Sincerely,

Nic Bencaz
Doctoral Candidate
Industrial/Organizational Psychology
University of Central Florida

Disclaimer:

My privacy and research records will be kept confidential to the extent of the law through the use of a coded identification number which will later be used to identify respondents. The list connecting me with this number will be kept in a locked file. The confidentiality of the information related to my participation in this research will be ensured by maintaining records that are stored by participants' numbers rather than names. Thus, my name will not be directly associated with any data. Upon completion of the study and after an adequate amount of time has passed, all data will be properly destroyed. Only authorized research personnel, the UCF Institutional Review Board and its staff, and other individuals acting on behalf of UCF, may inspect the records from this research project, unless otherwise indicated by law.

- If I have any questions about this study, I should contact the following individual:
  - Principal Investigator: Dr. Kim Jentsch Phone: 407-823-3577
  - E-mail: kjentsch@mail.ucf.edu
- The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from my responses will be combined with data from others in the publication. **The published results will not include my name or any other information that would personally identify me in any way.**
- This research study has been reviewed and approved by the UCF Institutional Review Board. Questions or concerns about research my rights as a participant may be directed to UCF Institutional Review Board Office, the University of Central Florida, Office of Research and Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246. The phone numbers are (407) 882-2276 and (407) 823-2901. The office is open from 8:00 am to 5:00 pm Monday through Friday except on UCF official holidays.

*If you agree to the terms above, please write your Full Name (first and last) in the field below and read the following. By typing my name, I give my voluntary informed consent to participate in the research as it has been explained to me.
**If you do not agree, please exit from this survey at this time.

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