MENTOR CHARACTERISTICS AND PROTÉGÉ/MENTOR
PERCEPTIONS OF MENTORING FUNCTIONS AND QUALITY IN
KOREAN COMPANIES

BY

SOOYOUNG KIM

DISSERTATION

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Doctoral Committee:

      Associate Professor K. Peter Kuchinke, Chair
      Associate Professor Steven R. Aragon
      Professor Scott D. Johnson
      Associate Professor Allison M. Ryan

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between mentor characteristics and level of mentoring functions and quality as reported by both protégés and mentors in a Korean company. In particular, the current study explores the role of mentor learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy in relation to level of mentoring functions and quality.

The data were collected through an online survey with new employees (i.e., protégés) and their mentors who participated in a formal mentoring program at one Korean IT company in Korea in 2009. A total of 392 employees and their mentors were invited to participate and the final sample included 96 pairs of mentors and protégés.

Multiple regressions, in particular, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to analyze the data. Control variables included frequency of interaction (i.e., average hours of interaction per month and frequency of meetings, as reported by both mentors and protégés) and protégé learning goal orientation.

The key findings of the current study indicated that mentor characteristics were significantly related to mentor reports of level of mentoring functions (both psychosocial and career) and quality (both general relationship and learning relationship). However, the findings indicated that neither mentor learning goal orientation nor mentor leadership self-efficacy was associated with protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions and quality. The results also showed that protégé learning goal orientation was a strong predictor of protégé reports of level of mentoring functions and quality. Interestingly, mentor organizational level and organizational tenure were significantly and negatively related to protégé perceptions of mentoring quality (general relationship and learning relationship), but not mentoring functions. The higher the rank

and the longer the organizational tenure of the mentor, the lower the quality of mentoring their

protégé reported.

Analysis and recommendations for HRD practitioners and HRD researchers are also

discussed.

To my parents, Young Jae Kim and Myeong Ja Shin

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Organizations are continuously making enormous efforts to develop and retain excellent human resources. Mentoring is one of the interventions that have been implemented by management as a successful training method and career development tool for their employees. Many companies have formal mentoring programs in place to help them attract, retain, and develop high performers (Eddy, Tannenbaum, Alliger, D'Abate, & Givens, 2003; Hegstad & Wentling, 2004; Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). Mentoring is a developmental relationship whereby a senior, more experienced, and knowledgeable employee (i.e., the mentor) provides advice, support, and feedback in terms of personal and professional development to a less experienced and less knowledgeable employee (i.e., the protégé) (Kram, 1985; Wanberg et al., 2003). Considerable research has examined the benefits of mentoring relationships in the workplace (for reviews, see Allen, 2007; Bozionelos, 2004; Dougherty & Dreher, 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008; Lankau & Scandura, 2007; Noe, Greenberger, & Wang, 2002; Underhill, 2006; Wanberg, et al., 2003). Mentored individuals reported more psychosocial and career advancement (Kram, 1985), higher compensation, more promotions, greater career satisfaction, more intense career or organizational commitment, and higher job satisfaction compared to non-mentored individuals (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Egan & Song, 2008; Underhill, 2006; Wanberg et al., 2003). Recognizing the benefits of mentoring relationships, many organizations have begun initiating formal mentoring programs by assigning mentors to their employees, rather than expecting mentoring to occur naturally (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Eddy et al., 2003;Wanberg et al., 2003). More than one third of major

U.S. corporations have established formal mentoring programs, and this number has been growing (Allen & Eby, 2008; Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Nemanick Jr., 2000).

However, protégés often fail to obtain the maximum gain from formal mentoring relationships (Eby, Butts, Lockwood, & Simon, 2004; Eby & McManus, 2004; Phillips-Jones, 1983; Scandura, 1998). They tend to lack sufficient numbers of interactions with their mentors due to mentor distancing behaviors, schedule conflicts, and lack of, or low, motivation (Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russel, 2000; Fagenson-Eland, Marks, & Amendola, 1997). Mentors often fail to offer important career-enhancing tactics (Eby et al., 2004; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). Protégés in formal mentorships are more likely to report that their mentors are disinterested, self-absorbed, and neglectful compared to protégés in informal mentorships (Eby et al., 2004; Eby, Lockwood, & Butts, 2006). This demonstrates that some developmental relationships may be effective while others are not.

In spite of the prevalent use of mentoring programs in the workplace and a considerable amount of research conducted on mentoring benefits, little research has investigated what is actually taking place in mentoring relationships. In other words, little is known about what factors are related to the level of mentoring functions provided and mentoring quality (Day & Allen, 2004; Kammeyer-Muller & Judge, 2008; Wanberg et al., 2003). The more mentoring functions mentors provide to their protégés, the more benefits the protégés receive from the relationship (Kram, 1983, 1985). The level of mentoring functions is significantly related to both objective and subjective career outcomes for protégés (Allen et al., 2004). Thus, mentors must effectively provide guidance and feedback to their protégés by sharing their expertise and counsel as they discuss issues and problems, so that protégés obtain the maximum benefits available from the relationship (Noe et al., 2002; Wanberg et al., 2003).

The quality of the mentoring relationship is what determines a positive or a negative outcome (Allen et al., 2004; Ragins et al., 2000). Protégés in satisfying formal mentoring relationships reported greater organizational commitment, career commitment, job satisfaction, organizational-based self-esteem, organizational justice, and lower turnover intentions, than individuals in less satisfying formal mentoring relationships (Ragins et al., 2000).

In Korea, large companies have recently started introducing and implementing formal mentoring programs for the purpose of helping with the organizational adaptation of new employees as well as the career development of existing employees (Lee, M. K., 2007; Lee, K. M., 2007). Many organizations in Korea recognize the benefits of these interventions: mentors have an opportunity to acquire new skills and knowledge and enhance their leadership abilities, and protégés improve their job expertise, and experience an increased confidence in adjusting to organizational culture and life. Organizations also benefit from mentoring programs that prevent new employees from leaving companies, and programs that help organizations find and develop excellent human resources (Chung, 2004; Lee, K. M., 2007).

More attention has been paid to formal mentoring programs. This reflects the tendency of Korean corporate HRD to transform informal communicative practices found in workplace settings into formally structured HRD interventions. This extends HRD's control throughout all possible types of training and learning experiences occurring in the workplace (Kim, Kwon, & Pyun, 2008). A survey of 160 Korean companies in 2002 showed that 47.5% were already implementing formal mentoring programs, and 42.5% were considering introducing mentoring programs (Hunter Company, 2002).

Background

Recently, there has been a growing interest in examining the inside of mentoring relationships, in particularly the factors that are related to the effectiveness of mentoring relationships, i.e., the level of mentoring functions and quality (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). Recent research has started to pay attention to the characteristics of the participants (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Lentz, 2007; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003), and, in particular, to personality characteristics as factors in the effectiveness of mentoring relationships (Turban & Lee, 2007). Mentors are assigned to protégés within the context of formal mentoring programs; which, as a process, does not always result in high involvement of mentor and protégé in and high quality of mentoring relationships (Eby et al., 2004; Eby & McManus, 2004). Therefore, it is necessary to look at the characteristics of both participants (i.e., mentors and protégés) in order to identify what is and what is not related to the effectiveness of mentoring relationships (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007).

Research on the characteristics of participants has mostly focused on the characteristics of protégés (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Lentz, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003; Wanberg, Welsh, & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). These characteristics included individual difference variables such as abilities, personalities, and attitudes, as well as demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, and level of education) and history variables related to jobs and careers. The results of this research have, so far, been inconsistent (Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003).

Mentors are also key role players in mentoring relationships. Little is known about the characteristics of effective mentors, and research has been critical (Parise & Forret, 2008; Turban & Lee, 2007). The characteristics of the assigned mentors may be a more important determinant

of the success of formal mentoring relationships than the characteristics of their protégés (Allen & Eby, 2003; Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006a, 2006b; Noe, 1988), and the quality of the mentor plays an important role in the attitudes of protégés towards their jobs and their organizations (Ragins et al., 2000). Therefore, individual differences in mentors are likely related to effective mentoring relationships (Eby & McManus, 2004; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Previous research on mentor differences, though limited, has mainly been conducted on demographic variables such as age, gender, race, and level of education, and, similar to research conducted on protégés, the findings have either been insignificant or inconsistent (Lentz, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003).

It has been suggested that mentor personality affects their involvement in mentoring relationships (e.g., Fagenson, 1989; Kram, 1985; Scandura & Ragins, 1993; Turban & Dougherty, 1994; Turban & Lee, 2007). If mentors are motivated to become involved in developmental relationships, they are more likely to provide additional mentoring opportunities along with a higher quality of mentoring (Allen et al., 2004).

A small number of studies have investigated the relationship between mentor dispositional characteristics and the mentoring provided (e.g., Allen & Eby, 2008; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Wanberg et al., 2006). For instance, mentors rated by their protégés as being more committed, more proactive, or more open to experience, interacted more frequently with their protégés and provided greater career-related and psychosocial support (Allen & Eby, 2008), while mentor cognitive abilities were not related to the mentoring functions provided (Armstrong, Allison, & Hayes, 2002). Further research is needed on mentor personalities in relation to the level of mentoring provided and the mentoring quality (Lentz, 2007; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wu, Foo, & Turban, 2008).

Learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy are two individual mentor dispositional characteristics that are currently starting to receive attention. Learning goal orientation is defined as the desire to master new skills and new environments in order to improve one's competence (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). Therefore, they value efforts and improvement and seek challenging assignments and feedback; they are not afraid of failure, but regard failures as opportunities for growth, and try to make more efforts and employ new strategies (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997, 2001. 2003).

Individuals with high learning goal orientation tend to participate and persist in learning and development activities (i.e., mentoring relationships) (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Lentz, 2007; Maurer, 2002). In terms of social motivation, those with high learning goal orientation desire to increase their social competence and develop more relationships (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals who are assigned to being formal mentors in an organization, and are highly orientated to learning goals, would place greater value on excelling in their assigned mentor role. As such, these individuals would view mentoring as an opportunity for personal accomplishment (e.g., learning, developing social relationships, gaining recognition) (Eby & Lockwood, 2005) and seek to establish a high level of competence as a formal mentor (Hirschfeld, Thomas, & Lankau, 2006). Therefore, mentors with high learning goal orientations are expected to provide more mentoring functions and achieve higher mentoring quality.

The second variable that might relate to effective mentoring relationships is mentor leadership self-efficacy. Employees with positive beliefs in their leadership abilities (i.e., leadership self-efficacy) will perform better than those lacking confidence (Anderson, Drajewski, Goffin, & Jackson, 2008; Bandura, 1997; Johnson, 2000; Maxwell, 2005; Murphy & Kohles,

1996; Paglis & Green, 2002). For instance, people with high leadership self-efficacy tend to spend more time developing and coaching subordinates (Murphy & Kohles, 1996). Paglis and Green (2002) found that people with high leadership self-efficacy are more likely to set directions and to gain the commitment of their followers through building and maintaining good working relationships. Finally, those with high leadership self-efficacy tend to exert greater effort and persevere, even in the face of challenges, compared with those without leadership self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Paglis & Green, 2002).

There are many similarities between mentoring and leadership, and both offer similar functions for followers and protégés (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Leadership behaviors include such actions as supporting, motivating, inspiring, and developing similar to psychosocial support functions of mentoring. Clarifying roles and objectives, developing and networking by leaders is similar to the career support functions of mentoring. Leadership behaviors displayed by a mentor are likely to influence protégé perceptions of mentoring functions (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). That is, mentors with leadership behaviors can offer role modeling and career development to their protégés (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Scandura & Schriescheim, 1994; Sosik & Godshalk, Yammarino, 2004).

Effective mentoring relationships may be predicted by development-focused leadership qualities in mentors (Burke, 1984; Mackey, 1996; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000), i.e., planning and goal setting, building protégé self-efficacy, explaining the importance of the task in the relation to the "big picture," and giving individualized attention (Mackey, 1996). These behaviors parallel those exhibited by transformational leaders.

Problem Statement

Despite the prevalence of mentoring programs in practice and abundant research on mentoring benefits, little is known about the factors that relate to the level of mentoring provided and the quality of mentoring relationships (Lentz, 2007; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). One key factor that has received attention in recent studies (Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003) is individual differences among protégés. Little is known, however, about what characteristics motivate mentors to assist their protégés (Day, 2001; Day & Allen, 2004; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wu et al., 2008). Little research has been directed toward mentors as the key individuals influencing mentoring relationships (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). The current study focused on the role of mentor characteristics in relation to the level of mentoring functions provided and the quality of mentoring relationships.

Second, a small number of studies have investigated the demographic differences of mentors such as age, race, gender, and level of education in relation to the effectiveness of mentoring relationships (Lentz, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). Moving beyond categorical demographic variables (e.g., age, race, gender, level of education), this study examined whether or not differences in mentor disposition (i.e., learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) relate to the level of mentoring functions provided and the quality of mentoring relationships, as perceived by both protégés and mentors.

Prior research (e.g., Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003) has focused on similarities between mentor and protégé learning goal orientations on the level of mentoring functions. For instance, some researchers have found that similarities in learning goal orientations led to a higher level of mentoring functions gained by protégés (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Learning goal orientation itself is an important aspect of mentor characteristic (Dweck &

Leggett, 1988), therefore, the relationship between mentor learning goal orientations and the perceived levels of mentoring functions in protégés should be examined. Godshalk and Sosik (2003) investigated the dispositional trait of learning goal orientation, defined as the extent to which the individual focuses on learning and developing competency, which, in turn, leads to pursuing challenging tasks. They found that mentor learning goal orientation was related to protégé reports about receiving psychosocial and career mentoring. The present study is one of the few that examines both mentoring learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy together in relation to the level of mentoring functions provided and the quality of mentoring relationships.

Finally, previous research has not relied on multi-source data, but instead has focused heavily on protégé self-reports (Allen, Eby, O'Brien, & Lentz, 2008; Wanberg et al., 2003). A mentoring relationship is a developmental relationship between mentor and protégé and, therefore, data from both mentors and protégés are necessary to fully understand any mentoring relationship (Allen et al., 2008; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). Although there have been many studies examining protégé perception of the quality of mentoring (e.g., Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2005), only a few examined mentor perception/satisfaction of the quality of mentoring as an outcome (Allen, 2007; Allen, et al., 2005). In this study, mentor personality was self-reported and mentoring functions and quality of mentoring were self-reported by both mentors and protégés.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this current study was to examine whether or not mentor characteristics (e.g., learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) were related to protégé/mentor

perception of the effectiveness of mentoring relationships, i.e., protégé/mentor perception of the

level of mentoring functions and quality in formal mentoring contexts.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions are as follows, and all of the investigated relationships took into

consideration two control variables: (a) the frequency of interaction, and (b) protégé learning

goal orientation.

> Research Question 1: What is the relationship between mentor learning goal orientations
> and:
> > a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
> > b) mentor perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
> > c) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
> > d) mentor perceptions of mentoring quality?
>
> Research Question 2: What is the relationship between mentor leadership self-efficacy
> and:
> > a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
> > b) mentor perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
> > c) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
> > d) mentor perceptions of mentoring quality?
>
> Research Question 3: What is the relationship between mentor organizational level and:
> > a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
> > b) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
>
> Research Question 4: What is the relationship between mentor organizational tenure and:
> > a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
> > b) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
>
> Research Question 5: What is the relationship between protégé learning goal orientation
> and:
> > a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
> > b) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?

To answer the research questions above, 28 hypotheses were derived. Hypotheses 1-8

pertain to the first research question, and hypotheses 9-16 are associated with the second

research question. Hypotheses 17-24 are pertinent to the third and fourth research questions, and

hypotheses 25-28 are associated with the fifth research question.

H1 mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of psychosocial support.

H2: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of career support.

H3: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of psychosocial support.

H4: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of career support.

The above 4 hypotheses examine the relationship between mentor learning goal

orientation and the level of mentoring functions. The following 4 hypotheses investigate the

relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and mentoring quality.

H5: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H6: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of learning relationship quality.

H7: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of general relationship quality.

H8: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of learning relationship quality.

The following 4 hypotheses (H9-H12) examine the relationship between mentor

leadership self-efficacy and the level of mentoring functions. The other 4 hypotheses (H13-H16)

investigate the relationship between mentor leadership self-efficacy and mentoring quality.

H9: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perception of the level of psychosocial support.

H10: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of career support.

H11: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of psychosocial support.

H12: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of career support.

H13: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H14: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perceptions of learning relationship quality.

H15: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of general relationship quality.

H16: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of learning relationship quality.

The following 4 hypotheses (H17-H20) examine the relationship between mentor demographic characteristics and the level of mentoring functions. The other 4 hypotheses (H21-H24) investigate the relationship between mentor demographic characteristics and mentoring quality.

H17: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perception of the level of psychosocial support.

H18: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of career support.

H19: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H20: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perceptions of learning relationship quality.

H21: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of psychosocial support.

H22: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of career support.

H23: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H24: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perceptions of learning relationship quality.

The following 2 hypotheses (H25-H26) examine the relationship between protégé learning goal orientation and the level of mentoring functions, while the other 2 hypotheses (H27-H28) investigate the relationship between protégé learning goal orientation and mentoring quality.

H25: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of psychosocial support.

H26: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of career support.

H27: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H28: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of learning relationship quality.

Theoretical Framework

The relationship framework (Hinde, 1997; Wanberg et al., 2006), and the dynamic model of formal mentoring developed by Wanberg and colleagues (2003), provide the general theoretical framework for this study. Relationship framework notes the importance of individual differences in relationships, demonstrating that the characteristics that each individual brings to a relationship influence the level and quality of interactions (Hinde, 1997; Neyer, 2004; Young & Perrewe, 2000). The dynamic model proposes that antecedents, including mentor characteristics, influence the level of mentoring. The present study extends Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework to include the dispositional trait of learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy under the umbrella of mentor characteristics. In taking these two frameworks together, mentor

characteristics (i.e., learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) are expected to relate to the level of mentoring functions provided and the quality of mentoring relationships.

The link between these is also supported by social exchange theory and Maurer's (2002) learning and development framework. Social exchange theory suggests that individuals will engage in relationships when the perceived rewards outweigh the costs of participation (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). Mentoring relationships are often conceptualized as exchange relationships (e.g., Allen, 2004; Hunt & Michael, 1983; Lentz, 2007; McManus & Russel; 1997; Mullen, 1994; Young & Perrewe, 2000), and both mentors and protégés will consider the benefits and costs of getting involved in a mentoring relationship (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001). For instance, the perceived benefits for mentors may include the potential for learning from and/or enhancing the development of another person, as well as prestige and the experience of general interpersonal enjoyment in working with another person (Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Ensher et al., 2001). The perceived costs for mentors include time and energy spent (Allen & Eby, 2003; Eby, 2007; Ragins & Scandura, 1999).

Maurer's (2002) learning and development orientation framework suggests that individuals with favorable attitudes towards learning and development will participate and persist in development activities in order to shape their own growth. Likewise, mentors with learning and development orientations are likely to have positive attitudes towards, and actively engage in, learning activities (i.e., mentoring relationships) (Lentz, 2007). Therefore, mentors with high learning goal orientations were expected to have more interactions with their protégés, provide more mentoring functions, and achieve higher mentoring quality. In that same vein, consistent with both Maurer's (2002) and Murphy and Kohles's (1996) research, individuals with high leadership self-efficacy would have favorable attitudes towards engaging in mentoring

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relationships. They are more likely to provide guidance to their protégés based on their beliefs as leaders in setting directions, receiving protégé commitment by developing relationships, and overcoming obstacles to change. Thus, mentors with high leadership self-efficacy were expected to correlate with protégé/mentor perception of higher levels of provided mentoring functions and higher mentoring quality than those with low leadership self-efficacy.

Figure 1 illustrates the key relationships between mentor characteristics (i.e., learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy) and the level of mentoring functions provided and the quality of mentoring relationships.
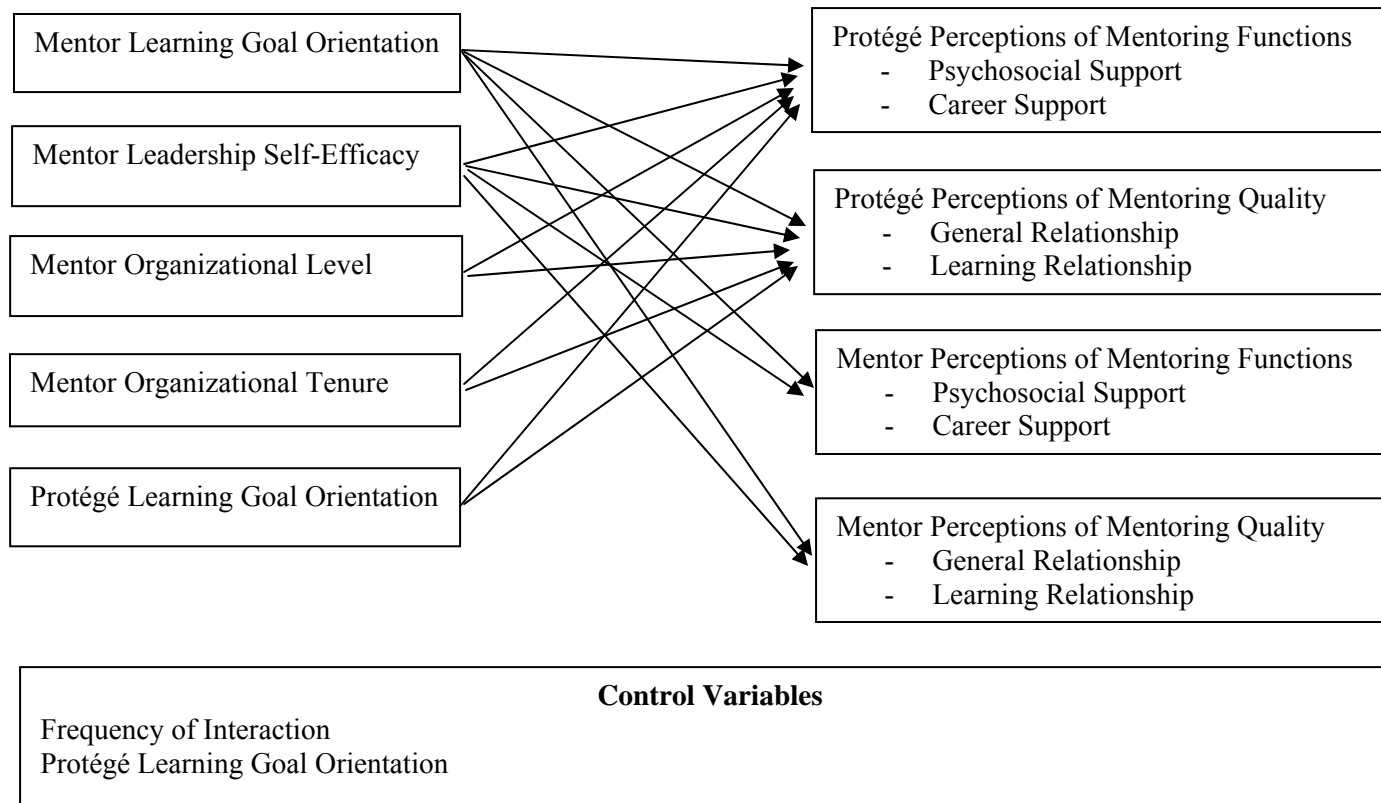
Figure 1. A conceptual model of mentor characteristics and protégé/mentor perceptions of nentoring functions and quality

Significance of the Study

The findings of the present study expand our knowledge of mentoring both in research and in practice. Key findings contribute to the mentoring literature in five ways. First, they address an important empirical gap by examining the role of learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy as important mentor dispositional characteristics in relation to mentoring functions and quality. This study is one of the few (e.g., Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Lentz, 2007) to explore the relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and effective mentoring relationships. The present study added leadership self-efficacy as one quality that mentors should possess to be effective in relationships. Little research has focused on mentor learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy as optimal conditions for maximum effects of mentoring (Wanberg et al., 2003).

Second, the present study focused on mentoring functions and quality as perceived by both mentors and protégés to fully understand mentoring relationships since mentoring is a dyadic developmental relationship. Previous research (e.g., Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2005) has emphasized protégé self-reports of mentoring effectiveness (Allen et al., 2008; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). Next, the findings of the present study added evidence to mentoring research that mentors benefit from mentoring relationships just as protégés do (Allen, 2007; Allen et al., 2006; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Lentz & Allen, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). The results of the present study indicated that mentors reported learning from protégés as "co-learners."

Fourth, this study investigated dispositional characteristics (i.e., learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) in a formal mentoring context, whereas previous research has focused on informal mentoring relationships in relation to these characteristics (e.g., Godshalk &

Sosik, 2003; Lentz, 2007). Lastly, this study contributes to extending the knowledge of workplace mentoring across nonwestern cultures since the study results were based on samples from South Korea. Approximately 80% of the previously published research has been based on samples from the United States only (Allen et al., 2008).

This study yields implications for HRD practitioners in organizations regarding mentoring in three ways. First, the identification of successful mentor personalities would enable employees to assess their own capacity to serve as mentors. Employees may benefit from personality testing that enhances their own self-awareness about the way their personality may or may not facilitate an effective mentoring relationship. Second, HRD practitioners could use these characteristics to identify and train mentors (Wanberg et al., 2003). In that sense, the findings of this study may help HRD practitioners to design and implement an effective formal mentoring program. Finally, if both prospective and current mentor learning goal orientations and leadership self-efficacy are related to mentoring effectiveness, HRD practitioners could provide training or workshops to help introduce those characteristics.

Limitations of the Study

First, there was no causal relationship between any one specific mentor personality and protégé/mentor perceptions of effective mentoring relationships because this study adopted a cross-sectional survey design (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Next, learning goal orientation, leadership self-efficacy, mentoring functions, and mentoring quality were measured through self-reporting. Due to the nature of self-reporting, participant perceptions about their mentoring relationship might not reflect reality. However, this research used a measurement previously proven as valid and reliable both in the previous research and in pilot tests (Gall, et al., 2003).

Lastly, response bias might take place, since those who have positive mentoring relationships could show a bigger response rate, and those who have negative mentoring experiences might avoid participating in the study (Gall et al., 2003). The researcher cannot rule out that certain groups may have been more predisposed to respond to the questionnaire than others. The findings should be interpreted with caution.

Definitions of Major Terms

- Learning Goal Orientation: The extent to which individuals seek to increase competence by mastering new skills and/or by doing challenging work in a given activity (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

- Leadership Self-Efficacy: A person's judgment that he or she can successfully exert leadership by setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers in order to gain their commitments to change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change (Paglis & Green, 2002, p. 217).

- Leadership: The process of diagnosing where the work group is now and where it needs to be in the future, and formulating a strategy for getting there. Leadership also involves implementing change by developing a base of influence with followers, motivating them to commit and work hard in pursuit of change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change (Paglis & Green, 2002, p. 217).

- Mentoring: One-on-one developmental relationship between a more senior, experienced, or knowledgeable employee (i.e., mentor) and a more junior or less experienced organizational member (i.e., protégé), whereby the mentor provides guidance and support to the protégé in terms of the protégé's personal and professional growth (Kram, 1983, 1985). Mentoring functions include career and psychosocial support.

- Career functions: One mentoring function that mentors provide to their protégés for their preparation for career advancement. This includes sponsorship, challenging assignment, exposure and visibility, and coaching and protection (Kram, 1983; Wanberg et al., 2003).

- Psychosocial functions: One mentoring function that mentors provide to their protégés to enhance their sense of competence, and work-role effectiveness. They include acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship (Kram, 1983; Wanberg et al., 2003).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The present chapter reviews the literature about mentoring with an emphasis on mentor characteristics (learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy). Empirical studies and theories are reviewed. The chapter consists of four different sections; it begins with a literature review and overview of mentoring – i.e., definitions, functions, benefits of formal mentoring, negative experiences in formal mentoring, workplace mentoring in Korea -- and then factors for the effectiveness of mentoring are introduced. The last two parts are dedicated to an overview of learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy. They include a discussion of the role of learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy as key mentor characteristics for effective mentoring relationships.

Mentoring

Overview: Mentoring. In an effort to develop and retain employees with potentials, organizations have been implementing mentoring programs as means of career development and management training tools (Eddy et al., 2003; Hegstad & Wentling, 2004; Wanberg et al., 2003). Mentoring is traditionally defined as a relatively long-term, one-on-one, developmental relationship between a more senior, experienced, or knowledgeable employee (i.e., mentor) and a more junior, or less experienced, organizational member (i.e., protégé). Mentors provide guidance and support to their protégés in terms of personal and professional growth (D'Abate, Eddy, & Tannenbaum, 2003; Kram, 1985; Noe et al., 2002; Wanberg et al., 2003). The concept of mentoring has expanded to include multiple relationships (e.g., one-to-many or many-to-one;

peer mentoring or group mentoring) (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Noe et al., 2002; Wanberg et al., 2003).

Mentors provide two types of functions to their protégés, career and psychosocial functions (Kram, 1985). First, career functions prepare their protégés for career advancement. They include sponsorship, challenging assignments, exposure and visibility, and coaching and protection. That is, mentors nominate their protégés for desirable projects, lateral moves and promotions; they provide them with assignments that increase their visibility to organizational decision makers and exposure to future opportunities; they share ideas, provide feedback, and suggest strategies for accomplishing work objectives; and they reduce any unnecessary risks that might threaten their protégés' reputation, and provide challenging assignments. Second, mentors offer psychosocial functions. These functions enhance the protégés' sense of competence and work-role effectiveness. Psychosocial functions include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship. Mentors serve as role models for their protégés, convey unconditional, positive support, provide a forum in which the protégé is encouraged to talk openly about anxieties and fears, and interact informally with their protégé at work. The greater the number of functions mentors provide, the more benefits protégés will receive from the mentoring relationships (Kram, 1985; Allen et al., 2006).

Many studies demonstrate that mentoring is beneficial both at the individual (i.e., for both mentors and protégés) and organizational levels (Allen et al., 2004; Day & Allen, 2004; Dougherty & Dreher, 2007; Gibson, 2004; Noe et al., 2002; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003 for reviews). The benefits of mentoring include the improvement of individual and organizational effectiveness, which is also the ultimate goal of HRD (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005). The three major applications of HRD (i.e., career development, training and development, and

organizational development) can be served through mentoring (Burke, McKeen, & McKenna, 1993; Hegstad, 1999; Hezlett & Gibson, 2005).

First of all, protégés benefit from mentoring, including subjective and objective career success as well as psychosocial well-being; positive job attitudes; job satisfaction; higher career motivation; enhanced knowledge and creativity; problem solving; decision making and leadership skills; higher promotions; compensation; and more career opportunities. Mentoring also enhances organizational commitment and leads to a better understanding of the organizational culture and its structure (Carden, 1990; Day & Allen, 2004; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Fagenson, 1989; Forret, 1996; Gibson, 2004; Joiner, Bartram, & Garreffa, 2004; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993; Scandura, 1992).

Organizations also benefit from mentoring, including stronger connections among organizational members; employee socialization; enhanced organizational commitment; recruitment and the development and retention of talented human resources for organizations (Allen et al., 2006; Joiner et al., 2004; Scandura & Viator, 1994; O'Reily, 2001); expatriate adjustment; and the preparation of employees for managerial positions (Dockery & Saal, 1998; Laabs, 1998; Nemanick Jr., 2000; Noe et al., 2002). Mentoring also improves communication within an organization; leads to a better understanding of the organizational culture and its structure; assists in merging two different cultures in an organizational merger (Wilson & Elman, 1990, cited in Forret, 1996); and enhances morale and productivity in organizations (Carden, 1990).

Relatively less research has been done on the benefits that mentors receive from mentoring relationships (Wanberg, et al., 2003). These benefits include better support networks; intrinsic satisfaction from helping others; available access to information that facilitates job

performance; self-reported career success and career satisfaction; an opportunity to learn up-to-date technical skills from protégés; improved leadership and coaching skills; assistance when needed; and better understanding of the work styles of others (Allen, 2007; Allen et al., 1997; Collins, 1994; Forret, 1996; Johnson, Yust, & Fritchie, 2001; Kram, 1985; O'Reilly, 2001; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). A few current empirical studies found that providing greater amounts of mentoring was related to higher levels of subjective (e.g., a higher level of job satisfaction, greater organizational commitment, less turnover intentions, and lower perceptions of job content plateau) and objective (e.g., greater rate of promotion, a higher current salary, and higher perceptions of career success) career success outcomes (Allen, 2007; Allen, Lentz, & Day, 2006; Bozionelos, 2004; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Lentz & Allen, 2007). For example, Eby and Lockwood (2005) interviewed two formal mentoring program participants, whose findings were that mentors reported benefits such as learning, developing a personal relationship, personal gratification, and enhanced managerial skills.

Formal Mentoring. There are two different types of mentoring, informal and formal (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Informal mentoring occurs naturally based on mutual attraction and trust, with no specific rules. Formal mentoring relationships are typically initiated through an organizational matching process, have structured guidelines about how often the pair should meet, suggestions about topics to discuss, a goal setting process for protégés, training sessions to prepare both mentors and protégés for the experience, and a specified duration for the relationship (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Wanberg et al., 2003).

Formal mentoring has been widely implemented: about 20 % of organizations with five hundred or more employees are implementing formal mentoring programs (Douglas & McCauley, 1999; Nemanick Jr., 2000). It is designed to facilitate socialization of relatively new

employees or new managers; develop high-potential, fast-track managers and prepare them for key management positions; increase the number of women and people of color in leadership positions with the goal of enhancing diversity within the management ranks; and to meet the development needs of senior executives (see Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Douglas & McCauley, 1999; Hegstad & Wentling, 2004; McCauley & Douglas, 2004).

Research has indicated that informal mentoring is likely to be more beneficial than formal mentoring (e.g., Chao, Walz, and Gardner, 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). However, research has shown that formal mentoring is likely to bring positive outcomes both for individuals and organizations such as lower employee turnover; improved job performance; socialization of protégés into organizational roles (Burke & McKeen, 1989, cited in Viator, 1999; Chao et al., 1992); career commitment; organizational commitment; organizational self-esteem (Egan & Song, 2008; Ragin et al., 2000); and job satisfaction (Egan & Song, 2008; Siebert, 1999). This indicates that formal mentoring may potentially have the same positive benefits as informal mentoring.

Formal Mentoring and Negative Experiences. Previous research shows that both mentors and protégés in the formal mentoring relationship might face certain problems, such as negative mentoring experiences and low motivation, which might prevent mentors from providing full assistance to protégés (Kram, 1985; Ragins & Cottons, 1999). Negative mentoring experiences are likely to lead to unsatisfactory outcomes in terms of career related support, psychosocial support, and learning. Hence, it is vital to identify problems and figure out ways to overcome them for effective mentoring relationships.

Mentors face problems about how, when, and where to share expertise with protégés, and how to build and maintain commitment to the mentoring relationships (Ragins & Cotton, 1991,

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cited in Sosik & Lee, 2002). Protégés may be confused about unclear or unrealistic expectations and responsibilities, and may feel pessimistic about the value of the relationship. This may cause a lack of interaction, unwillingness to learn, lack of motivation, and may further lead to poor performance (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2000; Noe, 1988).

The difficulty of the mentoring relationship is conceptualized on a continuum (i.e., marginally effective to ineffective to truly dysfunctional) (Scandura, 1998; Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2000; Ragins et al., 2000). Five negative mentoring experiences (i.e., a mismatch within the dyad, distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, and general dysfunctionality) were identified (Eby & McManus, 2004). According to Eby and McManus (2004), the mismatch problem is likely to the one that employees reported the most, but mentor distancing behavior and lack of mentor expertise were more often reported in the separation phase.

Due to the nature of the relationships where mentors are assigned through a matching process, some mentors may be less motivated to mentor and not provide full support because they are from different functional units. Some protégés may participate involuntarily and they may be confused about role expectations (Kram, 1985; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Organizations that implement a formal mentoring program must decide on a method for matching mentors and protégés. Personal fit is important for a successful mentoring relationship (Pieper, 2004; Waters, 2004), which is likely to lead to job satisfaction and organizational commitment for both mentors and protégés. A lack of fit between mentor and protégé greatly brings about negative experiences (O'Reily, 2000; Viator, 1999). A personal fit between mentors and protégés can be matched by assessing career aspirations, values, and style. Mentors and protégés need to share general beliefs and goals (Armstrong et al., 2002; O'Reily, 2000; Pieper, 2004). For instance, Armstrong and

others (2002) found that congruence between cognitive styles within dyads enhances the quality of their relationships. Cognitive style was found to indirectly enhance mutual liking in the psychosocial and career mentoring process.

It is critical to select the right mentor and protégé for successful formal mentoring through needs analysis on who needs whom, and why. Organizational reward is one criterion by which mentors select protégés: mentors prefer highly willing protégés. The selection depends on mentor motives for mentoring others. If mentors want to improve themselves in terms of career development, they are likely to choose protégés with higher ability, while they are likely to select protégés with higher willingness to learn if they are motivated to help others (Allen, 2004).

Mentoring in Korea. In Korea, large companies have recently started introducing and implementing formal mentoring programs for the purpose of helping with the organizational adaptation of new employees as well as the career development of existing employees (Lee, M. K., 2007; Lee, K. M., 2007). Many organizations in Korea recognize the benefits of these interventions: mentors have an opportunity to acquire new skills and knowledge and enhance their leadership abilities, and protégés improve their job expertise, and experience an increased confidence in adjusting to organizational culture and life. Organizations also benefit from mentoring programs that prevent new employees from leaving companies, and programs that help organizations find and develop excellent human resources (Chung, 2004; Lee, K. M., 2007).

More attention has been paid to formal mentoring programs. This reflects the tendency of Korean corporate HRD to transform informal communicative practices found in workplace settings into formally structured HRD interventions. This extends HRD's control throughout all possible types of training and learning experiences occurring in the workplace (Kim et al., 2008, p88). A survey of 160 Korean companies in 2002 showed that 47.5% were already implementing

formal mentoring programs, and 42.5% were considering introducing mentoring programs (Job

Link- Hunter Company, 2002).

Taking HRD in Korea into consideration, the introduction of a formal mentoring program

is inevitable. The development of human resources is critical in Korea. Korea has abundant

manpower but limited natural resources and high population density. Korea has been a rapidly

developing country, and many Korean corporations recognize the importance of developing

human resources, which is a major resource for the country (Kim et al., 2008).

Training and development in the business setting has been a key tool for improving

organizational performance. HRD in Korean corporations is indispensable to maximizing

performance and profit. The current practice of corporate HRD in Korea ranges from individual

development and career development to organizational development (Lee, M. G., 2001; Kwon,

2003). Formal mentoring has started playing these roles in HRD (Lee, M. K., 2007; Lee, K. M.,

2007). The introduction of mentoring programs in Korea has taken place in public organizations,

governmental organizations, and private organizations (Lee, M. K., 2007).

The main purpose of mentoring programs in Korea is to help new hires adjust to

organizational value and culture, and have now been extended into the career development of

current employees (Chung, 2004). The type of mentoring programs ranges from job skill

development of new hires, to top talent mentoring, and to future leader mentoring. Formal

mentoring in Korea has been implemented in the form of on the job training at workplaces (Kim,

2004). For instance, mentors share the values of the organization and relay job related skills,

information, and expertise to their protégés through natural interaction with protégés at the

workplace (Kim, 2004; Lee, M. K., 2007).

Starting with McKinsey Consulting Company's compliment of formal mentoring programs (McKinsey Report, 2002), many Korean corporations started introducing and implementing mentoring programs. Despite the recognized importance and growing number of mentoring programs by many Korean companies, many programs have not been active due to lack of (a) systematic preparation, (b) committed organizational support, and (c) an HR practitioner's active intervention; hence, many companies in Korea have inactive mentoring programs. Both in practice and in research, systematic preparation and implementation of the mentoring program has been suggested for success. For example, qualified, effective, and well-trained mentor selections, and participant input into the matching process are some of the suggestions (Kim, J. B., 2004; Kim, J. H., 2004).

In sum, mentoring is a developmental relationship whereby the mentor provides guidance and support for a protégé's personal and professional development. Mentors provide two mentoring functions: career and psychosocial functions. Mentoring is beneficial for both individuals (mentors and protégés) and organizations. However, most studies have focused on the mentoring benefits, and less research has focused on the micro-process of mentoring (e.g., what is related to effective mentoring relationships) (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). Therefore, future research should focus on the micro-processes: what is related to enhance the effectiveness of mentoring relationships and, in particular, how participant personality differences are related. In this paper, mentor learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy will be investigated in relation to effective mentoring relationships. The next section will introduce the factors that we know are related to the effectiveness of mentoring relationships, and will discuss what has not yet been studied.

Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationships. The effectiveness of mentoring relationships can be reflected in their quantity and quality. In the present study, the researcher focuses on levels of mentoring functions and mentoring quality through a literature review (Allen & Eby, 2003; Wanberg et al., 2003). The first aspect of effective mentoring relationships is the level of mentoring functions provided. The more mentoring functions the mentor provides to the protégé, the more benefits the protégé receives from the relationship (Kram, 1983, 1985). The level of mentoring functions is significantly related to both objective and subjective career outcomes for protégés (Allen et al., 2004). Thus, the mentor must effectively provide guidance and feedback to the protégé by sharing their expertise, counseling, and discuss issues and problems at hand in order to obtain the maximum benefits available from the relationship (Noe et al., 2002; Wanberg et al., 2003).

The other aspect of the effectiveness of mentoring relationships is the quality of mentoring relationships. The quality determines positive or negative outcomes and the mere presence of the mentor may not automatically result in a positive outcome (Allen, et al., 2004; Ragins et al., 2000). In the present study, relationship quality and learning relationship quality will be examined. Both are considered as indicators of the effectiveness of mentoring relationships (Allen & Eby, 2003;Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Lankau & Scandura, 2002, 2007) in that learning is one key benefit of mentoring relationships (Kram, 1985; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Wanberg et al., 2003), and high quality relationships are the basis for more effective mentoring relationships (Allen & Eby, 2003).

Although formal mentoring has been extensively implemented in practice and its benefits have been conceptually supported, little is known about what factors are related to effective mentoring relationships (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). Previous

research shows that in a formal mentoring context, there are specific characteristics of the program antecedents, the participants, and the organizational context for effective mentoring relationships (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003, for reviews). First, the program should include specific goals that are linked to the company's strategic objectives, orientation or training, frequency of meeting guidelines, program objectives, matching processes, and processes of selecting participants for effective mentoring relationships. Next, the organizational context that is conducive to the mentoring program will enhance the effectiveness of mentoring relationships (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Egan & Song, 2008; Wanberg et al., 2003, for reviews). For example, an organizational culture should be supportive of learning and development, a work system should focus on collaboration rather than competition, and a reward system should be in place for employee development (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007). Lastly, the characteristics of the participants directly affect the mentoring relationships developed (Wanberg et al., 2003).

Mentor Characteristics in relation to Effective Mentoring Relationships. Of these factors related to the effectiveness of mentoring relationships, recent research has started to pay attention to the characteristics of the participants (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Lentz, 2007; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). The crucial point of the effectiveness of mentoring programs is the mentoring relationship itself. The fact that mentors are assigned to protégés within the context of a formal mentoring program does not necessarily mean that the protégé and the mentor will have an effective mentoring relationship. Therefore, it is necessary to look at the characteristics of the participants in order to find what is related to the effectiveness of mentoring relationships (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007).

Reflecting the research on the characteristics of the participants in mentoring, most previous studies have focused on protégé characteristics in relation to the level of mentoring functions (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Lentz, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). A few studies have investigated the relationship between protégé characteristics and the frequency of mentor-protégé interaction (Wanberg et al., 2003). Characteristics previously studied include individual difference variables, such as abilities, personality and attitudes, as well as demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, and educational level) and job/career history variables. The results have been inconsistent (Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003).

Given that the mentor, other key role player in the mentoring relationship, is vital for the success of formal mentoring programs (Allen & Eby, 2003; Allen et al., 2006a, 2006b), more research on mentors is critical (Parise & Forret, 2008). Further, Noe (1988) proposed that the characteristics of the assigned mentors might be more important determinants of the success of formal mentoring relationships. Mentor individual differences are likely to relate to effective mentoring relationships (Eby & McManus, 2004; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Limited previous research has been conducted mainly on mentor demographic differences such as age, gender, race, and educational level, and findings have been either insignificant or inconsistent (Lentz, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003).

A handful of studies have investigated the relationship between mentor dispositional characteristics and the mentoring provided (Allen & Eby, 2008; Fagenson, 1992; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Wanberg et al., 2003 for a review). For instance, mentors rated by their protégés as being more helpful, communicated more frequently with their protégés and provided more career-related and psychosocial support (Fagenson, 1992), while mentor cognitive ability is not related to the mentoring functions provided (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Research on the

relationships between the dispositional characteristics of the mentor and the effectiveness of

mentoring relationships is necessary (Lentz, 2007). The present study proposes mentor learning

goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy as key factors related to the effectiveness of

mentoring relationships. The following three sections are dedicated to showing the link between

these two variables and effective mentoring relationships. Theories and models suggesting such a

link will be introduced in the first section and learning goal orientation and leadership self-

efficacy as mentor characteristics will be introduced.

Theories and Models

The relationship framework (Hinde, 1997; Wanberg et al., 2006), and the dynamic model

of formal mentoring developed by Wanberg and colleagues (2003), provide the general

theoretical framework for this study. Relationship framework notes the importance of individual

differences in relationships, demonstrating that the characteristics that each individual brings to a

relationship influence the level and quality of interactions (Hinde, 1997; Neyer, 2004; Young &

Perrewe, 2000a). The dynamic model proposes that antecedents, including mentor

characteristics, influence the level of mentoring. The present study extends Wanberg et al.'s

(2003) framework to include the dispositional trait of learning goal orientation and leadership

self-efficacy under the umbrella of mentor characteristics. In taking these two frameworks

together, mentor characteristics (i.e., learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) are

expected to relate to the level of mentoring functions provided and the quality of mentoring

relationships.

Antecedent framework (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Koberg, Boss, & Goodman, 1998; Kram,

1985) also supports the link between mentor characteristics and mentoring functions and quality.

Mentoring is viewed as a dyadic exchange process between mentor and protégé that is affected by the characteristics that both bring to the relationship. Other antecedents include the protégé and mentor characteristics: individual differences, demographics, and organizational and group characteristics.

The link between these is also supported by social learning theory, social exchange theory, achievement theory, Maurer's (2002) learning and development framework, and self-efficacy theory (introduced below in the leadership self-efficacy section). Social learning theory posits that personal factors, behavior, and environment mutually influence each other (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1997). In other words, the personal factors of individuals (e.g., their learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) can affect their cognition, affect, and behavior, and the personal factors of individuals and their behavior are influenced by extra-personal factors (e.g., mentoring). Therefore, it is expected that the personal factors that mentors and protégés bring to a mentoring relationship affect the quality of their relationship, the mentoring functions, and ultimately even the individual outcomes of both the mentor and protégé (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Lima, 2004; Wanberg et al., 2003). According to achievement theory (Dweck, 1986), learning goal orientation motivates individuals to pursue more challenging assignments. Such motivation on the part of mentors is required to maximize the level of functions provided over the phases of the mentoring relationships (Kram, 1985).

Social exchange theory suggests that individuals will engage in relationships when the perceived rewards outweigh the costs of participation (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). Mentoring relationships are often conceptualized as exchange relationships (e.g., Allen, 2004; Hunt & Michael, 1983; Lentz, 2007; McManus & Russel, 1997; Mullen, 1994; Young & Perrewe, 2000), and mentors will consider the benefits and costs before getting involved in a mentoring

relationship (Ensher et al., 2001). For instance, the perceived benefits for mentors may include the potential for learning from and/or enhancing the development of another person, as well as prestige and the experience of general interpersonal enjoyment in working with another person (Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Ensher et al., 2001). The perceived costs for mentors include time and energy spent (Allen et al., 1997; Eby, 2007; Ragins & Scandura, 1999).

Maurer's (2002) learning and development orientation framework suggests that individuals with favorable attitudes towards learning and development will participate and persist in development activities in order to shape their own growth. Likewise, mentors with learning and development orientations are likely to have positive attitudes towards, and actively engage in, learning activities (i.e., mentoring relationships) (Lentz, 2007). Therefore, mentors with high learning goal orientations are expected to have more interactions with their protégés, provide more mentoring functions, and achieve higher mentoring quality. In that same vein, consistent with both Maurer's (2002) and Murphy and Kohles's (1996) research, individuals with high leadership self-efficacy will have favorable attitudes towards engaging in mentoring relationships. They are more likely to provide guidance to their protégés based on their beliefs as leaders in setting directions, receiving protégé commitment by developing relationships, and overcoming obstacles to change. Thus, mentors with high leadership self-efficacy are expected to correlate with protégé/mentor perception of higher levels of provided mentoring functions and higher mentoring quality than those with low leadership self-efficacy.

Learning Goal Orientation

One purpose of this study is to examine whether or not mentor learning goal orientation is related to the effectiveness of mentoring relationships. The previous section posits that mentor

characteristics should be researched as factors related to effective mentoring relationships. The section starts with an overview of learning goal orientation in contrast to performance goal orientation based on achievement goal theory, which includes definitions, implicit theory, and consequences (e.g., reaction to feedback seeking, reaction to task difficulty and challenge). Empirical studies on the link between learning goal orientation and mentoring are then discussed.

Overview: Learning Goal Orientation. The concept of "learning goal orientation" comes from achievement goal theory. This section includes the definition of learning and performance goal orientations, and empirical studies on the relationship between both orientations and performance in the context of achievement goal theory. Next, the origin and implicit theory behind learning and performance goal orientations will be included.

Definition. Goals are standards individuals desire to meet (Locke & Latham, 1990). People engage in academic tasks or work projects in achievement situations for different reasons or purposes, i.e., achievement goals (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Elliot, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1985). Achievement goals are conceptualized into learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation. Learning goal orientation focuses on increasing competence by mastering new skills, while performance goal orientation emphasizes gaining favorable judgments of competence either by demonstrating competence or by avoiding demonstrating incompetence (Dweck & Elliot, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

With these different emphases, learning and performance goal orientation are likely to lead individuals to different interpretations (Dweck & Leggett, 1988) in terms of (a) success, (b) failure or mistakes, (c) value, and (d) source of satisfaction (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Anderman, Austin, & Johnson, 2002). For example, learning goal-oriented individuals define success in terms of progress and improvement, and therefore, they view failure or mistakes

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simply as part of the learning process (Ames & Archer, 1988). They value effort and learning, and feel a sense of satisfaction from taking on challenges because they aim to increase their ability by engaging in work (Dweck & Leggett, 1988) based on their absolute-intrapersonal standard (i.e., improvement and growth compared to their own previous ability rather than that of others) (Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Elliot, 2005; Nicholls, 1984). In contrast, performance goal-oriented people view success in terms of high grades (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Anderman et al., 2002), and they see mistakes or failures as demonstrations of low ability, both of which invoke anxiety. Thus, they place a value on high ability and feel satisfied by doing better than others (Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Elliot, 2005; Nicholls, 1984).

Goal Orientations and Performance. Learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation each leads to different patterns of processes and outcomes (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Elliot, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot, 2005; Elliott & Dweck, 1985). Learning goals predict positive outcomes consistently over a wide range of studies, while performance goals lead to inconsistent outcomes (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Middleton & Midgley, 1997; Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001; Pintrich, 2000; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

A positive relationship between learning goal orientation and positive educational outcomes (e.g., long-term learning, use of deep cognitive strategies, relating materials to prior knowledge, and high grades) has been consistently found in a wide array of studies (Ames & Archer, 1988; Anderman & Young, 1994; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Pintrich, 2000; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Pintrich & Garcia, 1991; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Research on the role of achievement goals in corporate settings has begun to draw the attention of a few researchers (VandeWalle, 2001, 2003; VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001; Vandewalle & Cummings,

1997). The benefits of learning goal orientation (e.g., higher feedback-seeking behavior, positive reactions to challenge or failure, better transfer of learning, and improved sales performance) have been identified (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Ford, Smith, Weissbein, Gully, & Salas, 1998; Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005; Porter & Tansky, 1999; Stevens & Gist, 1997; VandeWalle, 1997, 2003; VandeWalle et al., 2001; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997; VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla, & Brown, 2000).

In contrast, studies of the relationship between performance goal orientation and outcomes have been less consistent (e.g., Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Middleton & Midgley, 1997). Some studies showed positive effects (e.g., positive self-concept, affect, attitudes, and the valuing of academic work; Midgley, Arunkumar, & Urdan, 1996; Pajares, Britner, & Valiante, 2000; Pintrich & Garcia, 1991; Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996; Skaalvik, 1997), while others showed that the goals were negatively related or unrelated to the same outcome (Midgley et al., 2001). The following section will show how learning and performance goal-oriented people react differently to task difficulty and challenge, feedback seeking, goal setting, and strategic planning.

Reaction to Task Difficulty and Challenge. Different reasons for engaging in tasks in the achievement context lead individuals to respond differently to difficult and challenging tasks. Active learning goal orientation predicts active coping, sustained motivation, and higher achievement in the face of challenges. Performance goal orientation predicts withdrawal and poor performance in the face of challenges, but it provides a "boost" to performance when students meet with success (Grant & Dweck, 2003). Learning goal orientation leads to adaptive behaviors (e.g., challenge seeking, resilience in failure, high persistence) even in the face of difficulty, while performance goal orientation leads to helpless patterns of behaviors (e.g., challenge avoidance, low persistence) in the face of obstacles (Dweck, 1986; Pintrich, 2000).

Learning goal-oriented individuals maintain high persistence even after failure or setbacks since they view failure as an opportunity to grow and put in more effort, so they use different strategies to increase their competence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 2001). They are not afraid of failure and are likely to seek even challenging assignments in order to learn new skills or improve their competence. For instance, expatriate managers with strong learning goals are more likely to adapt to new environments (Porter & Tansky, 1999). In contrast, performance goal-oriented people are likely to avoid challenging tasks, adopt easy tasks, and withdraw from time and effort (Porter & Tansky, 1999; VandeWalle, 2001) because they view success in terms of innate high ability and high performance and they do not want to be seen by others as incompetent (Ames et al., 1988).

People who embrace learning goal orientation are more likely to acquire higher feedback-seeking behavior, while those who embrace performance goal orientation are not (VandeWalle, 1997, 2001, 2003; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 2000). Learning goal-oriented individuals tend to view feedback as useful diagnostic information about progress made, errors to be corrected, and the need for alternative strategies, while performance goal-oriented people view feedback as an evaluation of their personal worth and a judgment of their competency level. Negative feedback can be especially devastating when individuals hold a strong performance goal orientation because such feedback conflicts with their goal of appearing competent (VandeWalle, 2001).

Goal Setting and Strategic Planning. Learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation influence self-regulation processes such as goal setting and strategic planning. Learning goal-orientated people are more likely to engage in productive patterns of self-regulation to enhance their work-related performance than those who are more performance

goal-orientated (VandeWalle et al., 1999). For instance, learning goal-oriented people are more likely to set higher goals (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; VandeWalle, 1999, 2001), resulting in higher performance such as successful sales behavior (Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994) and higher sales records (VandeWalle, 1999, 2001); more likely to develop strategy (Sujan et al., 1994); participate in skill-maintenance activities such as presentation skills (Stevens & Gist, 1997); engage in planning; and put in more effort regardless of the complexity of the task (VandeWalle, 1999, 2001). Learning goal-oriented people are more likely to have a proactive, problem-solving response to setbacks, be creative and open to new ideas, develop skills for dealing with evolving task demands, adapt to new environments, and seek feedback for performance improvement (VandeWalle, 2001).

Origin and Implicit Theory. Why do children of equal ability display different responses to failure? Dweck and her colleagues conceptualized achievement goals while seeking to answer this question (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973, cited in Elliot, 2005; Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Elliott, 1983). They demonstrated that some children of equal ability display an adaptive response pattern, while others display a maladaptive, "helpless" response pattern. According to them, this is because children adopt different goals in achievement situations. They contend that children with learning goals tend to display an adaptive response pattern (e.g., high persistence and challenge seeking), while those with performance goals are likely to show a maladaptive, "helpless" response pattern (e.g., low persistence and challenge avoidance) (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

What makes people adopt different achievement goals? Implicit beliefs about ability predict whether individuals will be oriented toward learning or performance goals (Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Learning goal orientation is related to incremental

theory. This theory posits that intelligence or ability is a malleable trait and can be altered through effort, use of appropriate strategies, and persistence. People who believe that ability is malleable are likely to adopt a learning goal orientation. Therefore, learning goal-oriented people focus on improving competence and make an effort against failure. In contrast, performance goal orientation is associated with entity theory. This theory posits that intelligence or ability is innate or fixed and cannot really be changed. People who believe in the entity theory are likely to adopt a performance goal orientation. Therefore, performance goal-oriented people focus on demonstrating competence or avoid showing a lack of competence.

In summary, learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation have different implicit theories and lead to different interpretations of success and failure, effort, feedback behavior, and even different behaviors in the face of challenges or difficulties. Learning goal orientation leads individuals to adaptive patterns of behavior since they believe that ability can be developed through the use of different strategies and effort. In contrast, performance goal orientation leads people to helpless patterns of behavior since they focus either on validating their competence or on avoiding demonstrating a lack of competence. They believe that their ability cannot be altered, so they tend to adopt easy tasks, avoid challenging assignments, and even withdraw their time and effort so as to look competent.

Recent studies on learning goal orientation have shown consistent positive outcomes in a wide range of areas, while those on performance goal orientation have been inconsistent; however, this issue is beyond the scope of this study and will not be pursued further. In this study, learning goal orientation has been adopted as a key variable considering consistent previous findings, unlike the situation of performance goal orientation.

Learning Goal Orientation in Relation to Mentoring. Recently, attention has been paid to mentor characteristics as a major factor in effective mentoring relationships. Learning goal-oriented mentors are expected to motivate their protégés to take on challenging assignments so as to improve their ability, and they do so because learning goal-oriented individuals are more intrinsically motivated, and tend to perform better in a wide variety of arenas such as higher sales (Sujan et al., 1994) and more feedback-seeking behavior (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997, 2001).

Recently, several mentoring researchers have expanded the study of learning goal orientation (LGO) (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Lima, 2004; Sosik et al., 2004). Three studies (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Sosik et al., 2004) examined whether or not the similarity of LGO between mentor and protégé does in fact influence mentoring support and protégé outcomes. The independent variables were the similarity, or congruency, of LGO between mentor and protégé. The studies identified positive outcomes in terms of (1) mentoring functions received and (2) positive protégé outcomes. First, LGO similarities between mentor and protégé led to a higher level of mentoring functions received by protégés (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Sosik et al., 2004). For instance, mentor-protégé dyads with similarities in LGO led to higher levels of psychosocial support, career mentoring, and role modeling functions received by protégés (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Second, the more mentoring functions that were received led to more favorable mentoring outcomes such as idealized influence (Egan, 2005), higher enacted managerial aspiration, desired managerial aspiration, career satisfaction (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003), commitment to achieving goals (Egan, 2005), and reduced school-related stress level (Lima, 2004). Third, mentor learning goal orientation is related to how their behaviors are perceived by protégés. For example, if mentors are learning

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goal-oriented, they are more likely to display transformational leadership behaviors (Sosik et al., 2004).

The participants in the studies were either (a) working professional MBA students from different industries (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Sosik et al., 2004), (b) employees working in a large health care organization (Egan, 2005), or (c) college students (Lima, 2004). These quantitative studies employed different analyses: correlational (Lima, 2004; Sosik et al., 2004), multiple regression analyses (Lima, 2004), multiple analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003), and WABA (within analysis and between analysis) (Egan, 2005; Sosik et al., 2004).

Learning goal orientation is defined as the desire to master new skills and new environments in order to improve one's competence (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). Individuals with high learning goal orientation tend to participate and persist in development activities (i.e., mentoring relationships) (Lentz, 2007). In terms of social motivation, those with high learning goal orientations desire to increase their social competence and develop more relationships (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Therefore, they value efforts and improvement and seek challenging assignments and feedback; they are not afraid of failure, but regard failures as opportunities for growth, and try to make more efforts and employ new strategies (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997, 2000, 2001).

Individuals who are committed to being formal mentors in an organization, and are highly orientated to learning goals, would place greater value on excelling in their assigned mentor role. As such, these individuals would view mentoring as an opportunity for personal accomplishment (e.g., learning, developing social relationships, gaining recognition) (Eby & Lockwood, 2005) and seek to establish a high level of competence as a formal mentor

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(Hirschfeld et al., 2006). Therefore, mentors with high learning goal orientations are expected to provide more mentoring functions and achieve higher mentoring quality.

Leadership Self-Efficacy

     Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy is "belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Self-efficacy is a construct derived from social learning theory, which posits that there is a triadic reciprocal causation among behavior, cognition, and other personal factors along with the environment, with all of these variables influencing each other in a dynamic fashion (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). For instance, human behavior is determined by a person's belief that he or she is capable of formulating and accomplishing an activity (i.e., self-efficacy). The belief that people can do a specific task leads them to perform better at that task. Thus, self-efficacy has been a significant variable for predicting individual behavior (Pajares, 1997), meaning that the same person may perform poorly or well, depending on variations in his/her self-efficacy belief.

     Many empirical studies have shown consistent findings. That is, self-efficacy determines what activities people choose, how much effort they will expend, and how long they will sustain the effort in dealing with a stressful situation (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1997). Specifically, those with high self-efficacy for a certain task are more likely to choose to engage in the task, they will expend a greater amount of effort in accomplishing the task, and they will sustain their efforts for a longer period of time (Hill, Smith, & Mann, 1987; Schyns, 2004).

     The relationship between self-efficacy and performance in a task has received increasing attention in the literature of psychology, especially in areas related to organizational behavior and human resource management (Sadri & Robertson, 1993; Maxwell, 2005). Consistent with

social learning theory, a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance has been substantiated across numerous studies. Specifically, many studies (e.g., Jackson, 2002; Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1987; Mitchell, Hopper, Daniels, George-Falvy, & James, 1994; Pajares, 1997, 2002; Wood & Bandura, 1989) have reported significant positive correlations between self-efficacy and performance. For instance, self-efficacy has been correlated in academic performance such as exam scores (Jackson, 2002; Lent et al., 1987) and academic achievement, (Pajares, 1997, 2002), as well as work-related performance such as managerial decision-making (Wood & Bandura, 1989), life insurance sales performance (Barling & Beattie, 1983), and skills acquisition (Mitchell et al., 1994).

Those who think that they can perform well really do perform well (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Belief systems influence behavioral performance. So, how can we enhance self-efficacy? Belief in one's capabilities can be enhanced by four major sources of information: (a) enactive mastery experience, (b) vicarious experience, (c) verbal persuasion, and (d) physiological state (Bandura, 1997). Enactive mastery experiences are a person's direct experiences and thus are the most powerful source of efficacy information (Bandura, 1997; Woodfolk, 2003). If people succeed in task-related experiences, then their self-efficacy for the experiences increases.

Conversely, if previous experiences resulted in failure, self-efficacy is decreased. In contrast, vicarious experiences are indirect experiences. If people observe others succeeding in an activity, their self-efficacy increases. But when people observe others failing in an activity, their belief that they can do that activity decreases. Verbal persuasion is the third source of self-efficacy. Receiving encouragement, reassurance, and/or motivational speeches can enhance people's self-efficacy. However, negative persuasion can weaken self-efficacy. Lastly, psychological signs of anxiety are a source of inefficacy. If people feel anxious and worried

about the task they are facing, their self-efficacy is lowered. If they are excited about the task, their belief that they can do the task is enhanced (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

In sum, one's belief in one's capability of doing a task successfully can be increased by doing the task oneself, by observing others doing the task, by receiving encouragement or feedback, or by reducing anxiety about the task. Among these, mastery experience is the most powerful source of self-efficacy.

Leadership Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy has been a remarkably popular concept in industrial-organizational psychology (Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, & Rich, 2007). Now, self-efficacy has been extended into the leadership area (Chen & Bliese, 2002). Self-efficacy is task-specific (Bandura, 1986, 1997); for example, some people believe that they are good at cooking, while they may think they are not good at mathematics. Compared to self-efficacy, general self-efficacy is defined as the belief in performing well in a variety of situations.

Building upon Bendura's (1997) self-efficacy theory, leadership self-efficacy can be defined as positive beliefs in one's leadership abilities. Leadership self-efficacy determines what activities leaders choose, how much effort leaders will expend, and how long they will sustain the effort in dealing with a stressful situation. Specifically, those with high leadership self-efficacy are expected to be more likely to choose to engage in the leadership task, they will expend a greater amount of effort in accomplishing the task, and will sustain their efforts for a longer period of time (Hill et al., 1987; Schyns, 2004).

Empirical studies (Anderson, 2000; Anderson et al., 2008; Hendriks & Payne, 2007; Johnson, 2000; Maxwell, 2005; Murphy & Kohles, 1996; Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008; Paglis & Green, 2002; Sashkin, 2000; Schott, 2004) show the significant link between leadership self-efficacy and positive leadership behaviors. For instance, people with high leadership self-

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efficacy tend to spend more time developing and coaching subordinates (Murphy & Kohles, 1996). Paglis and Green (2002) found that managers who had greater confidence in setting directions and gaining commitment were rated by their subordinates as having made more attempts at leading change. Anderson and his colleagues (2000, 2008) found that managers who believed in their ability to define work roles, take responsibilities for setting priorities, and enact accountabilities demonstrated planning, executive, and evaluative work behavior with subordinates. Also, people with high leadership self-efficacy tend to motivate leading groups to perform better (Hoyt, Murphy, Halverson, & Watson, 2003).

Hoyt (2002) believes that female leaders who are high in leadership self-efficacy perform better, identify themselves with leadership, and have lower anxiety when facing negative stereotypes about female leadership abilities than female leaders who are low in leadership self-efficacy. The link between leadership self-efficacy and these positive leadership behaviors is critical because non-traditional leaders, specifically capable female leaders in the workplace, do not think they are able to do things as leaders because of the many challenges they face in leadership roles (McCormick, 2003), and because of negative stereotypes and biases (Hoyt, 2002).

Finally, Ng, Ang, and Chan (2008) examined matched data collected from 394 military leaders and found that leaders with higher beliefs about their abilities in specific areas of leadership such as task, conceptual, and interpersonal skills, performed better in planning ability, setting direction, delegating/assigning/coordinating tasks, ability to communicate, and ability to motivate others

Definition of Leadership and Leadership self-efficacy for this Study. There is no agreed-upon definition of leadership (Yukl, 1998). Leadership has been defined both broadly and

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narrowly. The common theme is that leadership is fundamentally a process of social influence, directed towards achievement of a common objective (e.g., House & Baetz, 1979; Yukl, 1998).

Recently organizations are being asked to rapidly respond to changing environments. They need individuals with leadership who can lead people in the context of all changes (Schyns, 2004). For instance, more employees are facing changing task demands due to organizational changing processes: organizational changes include such changes as flattening structure (Audia, Locke, & Smith, 2000); job changes such as relocation, lateral change, and employee career changes (Ostroff & Clark, 2001); and change in task demands due to the introduction of new technologies (Schyns, 2004). In the context of change, today's organizations need individuals with leadership who can successfully exert their leadership (Paglis & Green, 2002; Schyns, 2004). Thus, this current study will place an emphasis on leadership self-efficacy based on the definition of leadership defined and developed by Paglis and Green (2002). Their position is that perceptions of leadership self-efficacy are an important source of a leader's motivation for taking on the difficult task of attempting change initiatives at work.

According to Paglis and Green (2002), leadership is thought to include the process of diagnosing where the work group is now and where it needs to be in the future, and formulating a strategy for getting there. Leadership also involves implementing change through developing a base of influence with followers, motivating them to commit and work hard in pursuit of goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change (Paglis & Green, 2002, p.217). In other words, Paglis and Green (2002) posits that first, leaders need to be able to set a direction for their followers. Leaders need to be able to diagnose the strengths of their work group, along with their weaknesses and opportunities, and determine if changes are needed in order for the unit to survive and excel. Leaders need to be able to actively seek out new opportunities and lead their

followers forward. Secondly, organizations need leaders who can gain followers' commitment to changing goals through building relationships with followers and motivating them to commit and work hard in pursuit of changing goals (Paglis & Green, 2002; Yukl, 1989). This commitment increases employee sense of energy and enthusiasm, and, over time, employee satisfaction leads to the accomplishment of group goals (House & Podsakoff, 1994). Finally, leaders need to be able to help their followers overcome any obstacles confronted along the way (Paglis & Green, 2002).

The definition of leadership self-efficacy can be drawn from the definition of leadership developed by Paglis and Green (2002). Leadership self-efficacy is defined as "a person's judgment that he or she can successfully exert leadership by setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers in order to gain their commitment to change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change" (p.217).

Leadership in relation to Mentoring. Leadership and mentoring are distinct constructs. Not all leaders are mentors and not all mentors are leaders. However, those mentors and leaders who inspire, challenge, and advance their protégés and followers help to shape high-quality developmental relationships (Godshalk & Sosik, 2007, p.172). There are many similarities between mentoring and leadership, and both offer similar functions for followers and protégés (Godshalk & Sosik, 2007; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Bass (1985) identified mentoring as a core aspect of developmental behavior displayed by transformational leaders. Mentors provide psychosocial support and career development functions to their protégés (Noe, 1988; Scandura, 1992). Leadership behaviors include such actions as supporting, motivating, inspiring, and developing functions similar to psychosocial support. Clarifying roles and objectives, and developing and networking by leaders, is similar to the career support functions of mentoring

(Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Leadership behaviors displayed by a mentor are likely to influence protégé perceptions of mentoring functions (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Scandura & Schriescheim, 1994; Scandura & Williams, 2004; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Sosik, Godshalk, & Yammarino, 2004).

Effective mentoring relationships may be predicted by development-linked leadership qualities in mentors (Burke, 1984; Mackey, 1996). For instance, Mackey (1996) includes planning and goal setting, building protégé self-efficacy, explaining the importance of the task in the relation to the "big picture," and giving individualized attention. These behaviors are similar to those exhibited by transformational leaders. Transformational leaders are characterized by their abilities to (1) build trust by exhibiting idealized influence behaviors, (2) strive to develop followers through individualized consideration, (3) promote follower independence and critical thinking through intellectual stimulation, and (4) attach importance to human development through inspirational motivation (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

In this vein, mentors with leadership qualities such as leadership self-efficacy are expected to provide more mentoring functions to their protégés by setting direction, motivating, assigning assignments with a big picture, and provide higher quality mentoring relationships than those without.

Chapter 3

Method

This study adopted a quantitative research approach, and a cross-sectional survey design was utilized. The data were collected from participants through survey instruments that included the variables of interest. The data were then analyzed using statistical methods. This chapter addresses the following components; research design, organizational and program information, population and sample, variables and instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis method.

Research Design

This study is correlational in nature because it aims to examine the relationships between both mentor learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy, and protégé /mentor perception of mentoring functions and quality in a formal mentoring context. Moreover, this study is ex-post-factor research in that the variables naturally occur, and it involves no direct control of independent variables (mentor learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy) by the researcher (Gall et al., 2003).

Figure 1 shown in Chapter 1 illustrates the research design with the following variables: mentor learning goal orientation, mentor leadership self-efficacy, mentor organizational level, mentor organizational tenure, the level of mentoring functions, and the quality of mentoring relationships. Mentor learning goal orientation, mentor leadership self-efficacy, mentor organizational level and mentor organizational tenure represent a set of independent variables. The level of mentoring functions provided, along with the quality of mentoring, represent a set of dependent variables. The level of mentoring functions includes career support and psychosocial

support. Quality of mentoring encompasses general relationship quality and learning relationship quality.

Population and Sample

The population of this study was defined as participants (protégés and mentors) in a formal mentoring program defined as successful by the 2004 review of Korean company-based programs. The sampling frame was defined as all participants in the formal mentoring program in 2009 of the one company that had agreed to participate. Because of the voluntary nature of participation in the survey, the results of this study cannot be viewed as representative of the population.

The study adopted both purposive and convenience sampling strategies in order to identify an organization and to solicit participation (Gall et al., 2003; Patton, 1990). It was important that the company had a good mentoring program; thus, the chosen company was purposefully selected from a list of 10 Korean organizations that have been known to have good mentoring programs. This list was published in the March 2004 issue of *Monthly Human Resource Management* in which the following 10 companies with successful mentoring programs were introduced (Kim, J.B., 2004):

- Samsung Technology Win Co., Ltd.
- Samyang Corporation
- Hynix Semiconductor, Inc.
- The E-Land Group
- Dongyang Mechatronics
- POSDATA Co., Ltd.
- Doosan Corporation
- Woogjin Coway
- Samsung SDS
- Korea Development Bank

The mentoring programs of these 10 companies were thought to be strong as (a) management had always supported the mentoring program; (b) the HR department had actively participated in the analysis, design, implementation, and evaluation of the program; and (c) these companies had reported decreasing turnover rates of newly hired employees since the program was first implemented (Kim, J. B., 2004; Kim, J. H., 2004).

The availability of the company determined participation in this research. All ten companies were contacted by phone, and the researcher attempted to reach the senior HR manager or director. Four companies did not return the call despite repeated trials. Of the remaining six companies, only one consented to participate and this company was selected for the study.

Protégés were invited to participate in the survey first and then the mentors of those who responded were invited to participate. A unique code created by the protégés was used to link together protégé-mentor pairs.

A total of all 392 protégés were invited to participate in the survey, of whom 138 responded. The mentors of these 138 respondents were then each contacted and invited to participate, and 96 of them completed the survey. Generally, one mentor was assigned to one protégé; however, due to the smaller number of participating mentors, some mentors were assigned two protégés. In total, data from 96 matched pairs of protégés and mentors were analyzed. More detail on the selection of protégés and mentors was described later in a data collection procedure section.

There might be a response bias, as those who have positive mentoring relationships could show a bigger response rate, and those who have negative mentoring experiences might avoid participating in the study (Gall et al., 2003). The researcher cannot rule out that certain groups

may have been more predisposed to respond to the questionnaire than others. Therefore, the findings should be interpreted with caution.

Organizational and Program Information

The contact person in the participating organization was asked to provide information about their company and mentoring program. The information included the number of mentors and protégés, and information on the mentoring program (e.g., target population, duration of relationships, matching process, etc.).

The organization belongs to the IT industry, specifically, a database system company. This company is the one of the leading organizations in the IT industry. It provides an integrated IT service, including systems integration, systems management, consulting and networking services. Their headquarters is also based in Seoul, Korea. The headquarters of this company surpassed 2.5 trillion KRW (South Korea Won) (1.9 billion USD) in sales and 259.7 billion KRW (204 million USD) in net profits in 2008. It employs over 7,000 people.

Due to the rapid advances and competitive nature of IT industry, many talented new employees tend to leave the company or transfer to other companies. The IT services of this company are a "people business". Its HRD system enables employees to search for career path and activates mentoring between employees and their managers (Barbour et al., 2005). Since 1996, the company has been creating an organizational culture to foster knowledge sharing and collaboration among its personnel. Mentoring helps organizations to create a context where personnel share knowledge and collaborate. It also helps organizations to retain high quality persons by creating a high touch atmosphere, which encourages human interaction, between mentors and protégés in the era of the war for talent in the 21-century.

The company has been known for excellent training programs in Korea and used to have a formal mentoring program for all employees, which focused on career support functions of mentoring, so called, "on the job" training. The company found it necessary to develop a formal mentoring program specifically for newly hired employees since high turnover rates of newly hired employees and their lack of adjustment to the organization at an early stage of their careers had become a major concern.

The company first initiated a formal mentoring program for newly hired employees in 2008. Over 1,060 employees have participated in this mentoring program since its inception. Newly hired employees can sometimes have a hard time adjusting to their new jobs and the organizational culture, and many tend to leave the organization during the early stages of their careers. The company initiated the mentoring program in order to facilitate the adjustment of new employees to the organization, to help relay work-related information, and to help new employees learn how to work in the company. The program was intended to strengthen the psychosocial bond to the organization, to encourage mentors to help their protégés emotionally in their daily lives at work, and to help train them on the job.

The duration of the mentoring program was nine months in total and was mandatory for all newly hired employees. Two programs were implemented each year since the company hired new employees twice a year.

The mentors were recommended by section managers and selected by HR managers. The criteria for selecting mentors were based on their competency at work, their work experience, and their loyalty to the company. HR managers preferred mentors who had shown good job performance at work, had worked more than three years as an assistant manager, and who had had more than three years of work experience in the same task as their protégé. In addition, most

mentors were selected from the same location as their protégés and, therefore, were experienced in the specific job responsibilities of the protégées. Mentors' positions tended to be two levels higher than that of their protégés.

Mentors were given a one-day orientation, and protégés were given two hours of orientation before the start of the mentoring program. The orientation for mentors focused on the concept of mentoring, frequency of interaction, and guidelines for how to mentor protégés. One half of the orientation consisted of a lecture on the concepts and benefits of mentoring, and the other half dealt with practical issues about mentoring implementation, including setting mentoring goals that were to be accomplished over the 9-month period. The orientation for protégés introduced general ideas of mentoring.

Mentors and protégés were asked to set goals for what they wished to achieve, and how to achieve such goals through the 9 months of mentoring. Protégés were asked to set a weekly plan for how to improve their capabilities on the job. They were also asked to keep a weekly work journal. The journal included information on what the protégés did to improve their capabilities at work. Mentors provided weekly feedback on the journals that their protégés kept, and these journals were used in evaluating their mentoring activities. In addition, mentors and protégés were asked to meet at least once each month, and the company supported any expenses associated with these meetings.

The HR department initially monitored mentoring activities through an online monitoring system; however, this information was not kept current due to lack of HR staff. Instead, the HR department evaluated the mentoring activities based on (a) the journals that protégés kept, (b) the feedback that their mentors provided, and (c) protégé capability development. At the end of the program, excellent mentors and protégés were chosen for an award.

Organizational and Program Information for a Pilot-Test

A pilot-test was conducted from a large company located in Seoul. Korea. It belongs to the electronics industry, specifically, a mobile communications company. The participants are R & D department employees. Their headquarters is based in Seoul, Korea. The company surpassed 3.9 trillion KRW (South Korea Won) (3 billion in USD) in sales and 262.6 billion KRW (208 million in USD) in net profits during the first quarter of 2008. The employees of this department consist of 20% of all the employees of this large organization, including factory and office employees.

The purpose of a formal mentoring program in this company is to help new employees adjust to the organization and to learn work-related information. The company also designed the formal mentoring program to stop new hires from leaving the company or from transferring to other competing companies. The formal mentoring program started in 2004 and is currently in its 6th year. The R & D department introduced the program for the first time in this large organization, and they have had the most active mentoring program in the whole organization. All new hires are assigned mentors after a short period of training time, and the program lasts for 6 months. The coordinator/manager assigns mentors who are good performers at work, have the same job duties as their protégés, and are loyal to the organization. Mentors are usually 3 or more years senior than their protégés.

Variables and Instruments

The following variables were used to test the proposed hypotheses. Each variable, and each instrument used to measure the variable, are described in detail below. The contents of the

instruments are summarized in Tables 1 and 2. These instruments are listed in the Appendix. Validity and reliability of the instruments follow.

Dependent Variables.

Mentoring Functions. This mentoring variable consists of career support and psychosocial support (Kram, 1983; Wanberg et al., 2003). Mentoring is defined as a one-on-one developmental relationship between a more senior, experienced, or knowledgeable employee (i.e., mentor) and a more junior, or less experienced, organizational member (i.e., protégé), whereby the mentor provides guidance and support to the protégé in terms of the protégé's personal and professional growth (Kram, 1983, 1985). Career functions prepare protégés for career advancement with mentors providing sponsorship, challenging assignments, exposure and visibility, and coaching and protection. Psychosocial functions enhance the protégé's sense of competence and work-role effectiveness through mentor acceptance and confirmation, counseling, role modeling and friendship (Kram, 1983).

Protégés were asked to assess the level of mentoring functions provided by mentors. The Mentoring Functions Scale (MFS) was developed and validated by Noe (1988) to assess the full range of mentoring functions provided by mentors from the protégés' perspectives. The instrument consists of (a) career support measured with seven items (e.g., "The mentor gave you assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills"), and (b) psychosocial support measured with fourteen items (e.g., "My mentor had encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detracted from my work.").

Twenty-one items were used to measure mentoring functions on a five-point response scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Prior research and the pilot test performed by the researcher provide support for the reliability of these mentoring measures. For

instance, the coefficient alpha for the protégé sample was 0.89 (Noe, 1988) and 0.93 (pilot-test) for career mentoring, and 0.92 (Noe, 1988) and 0.96 (pilot test) for psychosocial mentoring.

The researcher used different wording for several items because the original instrument was administered to college students, therefore several terms were not fit for this study (e.g., "My protégé agrees with my attitudes and values regarding *education*."). The researcher used the term *work* instead of *education* from the original item. A panel of experts was asked to review and validate the content of each item of the instrument. In this study, these 21 items were modified to reflect mentor perspective (e.g., "I gave my protégé assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.").

Mentoring Quality. The quality of mentoring depends on both relationship quality and learning quality (Allen & Eby, 2003). Mentoring quality was measured using two scales, general relationship quality and learning relationship quality measurements. General relationship quality was measured with the five-item scale originally developed by Allen and Eby (2003) from the mentor perspective and modified by Allen et al. (2006) from the protégé perspective. Mentorship quality included items such as: "My protégé and I enjoyed a high quality relationship" for mentors, and "My mentor and I enjoyed a high quality relationship" for protégés (alpha: protégés = 0.92, mentors = 0.91).

The learning relationship quality measurement developed by Allen and Eby (2003) was modified to reflect the protégé perspective and pilot-tested for validity. The reliability tested by the pilot test is 0.95 (relationship quality) and 0.92 (learning relationship quality). A sample item for relationship-based learning includes such items as, "I learned a lot from my mentor" for mentors, and "I learned a lot from my protégé" for protégés. Responses to both measurements

were made on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicate greater quality and a greater degree of learning.

Independent Variables.

Learning Goal Orientation. Learning goal orientation is a variable used for measuring mentor characteristics. The learning goal orientation variable is defined as the extent to which individuals seek to increase competence by mastering new skills or by performing challenging work in a given activity (Button et al., 1996; Dweck & Legget, 1988).

Mentor and protégé learning goal orientation were measured using the Goal Orientation Items developed and validated by Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996). A sample item reads, "The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me." Eight items are used to measure learning goal orientation on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The reliability of the measure for mentors was 0.86 (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003) and 0.81 (pilot-test), and for protégés it was 0.86 (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003) and 0.80 (pilot-test).

Leadership Self-Efficacy. Generally, leadership self-efficacy is the belief that people can perform well in leadership positions, which is a strong predictor of leadership behaviors (Johnson, 2000; Maxwell, 2005; Paglis & Green, 2002). The current study pursued the definition of leadership self-efficacy developed by Paglis and Green (2002), who defined leadership self-efficacy as a person's judgment that he or she can successfully exert leadership by setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers in order to gain their commitments to change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles (p. 217).

Leadership self-efficacy was measured using items from the Leadership Self-Efficacy Scale, developed and validated by Paglis and Green (2002). A sample item reads, "I can figure out the best direction for where my unit needs to go in the future." The scale consists of 12 items,

which are assessed on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Originally, it was an 11-point response scale ranging from (1) 0% confident to (11) 100% confident. But it has been changed to a five-point Likert scale for the consistency of the measurement compared to other measurements used in this study. Their coefficient alpha was 0.89 (Paglis & Green, 2002), 0.95 (pilot-test, mentors), and 0.93 (pilot-test, protégés).

Control variables.

Frequency of Interaction. The more frequently protégés interact with their mentors, the more positive effects and satisfaction protégés have with their mentors (Higgins, 2001; Lyons & Oppler, 2004; Noe et al., 2002; Viator, 1999), because protégés must interact with their mentors in order to receive support and guidance pertaining to personal and professional issues (Kram, 1985). The more frequent interaction mentors (protégés) have with their protégés (mentors), the more mentors (protégés) provide (receive) mentoring functions (Allen et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2008).

The frequency of interaction indicates the extent to which the mentor and protégé interact with each other. The frequency of interaction in the present study were measured in two ways: (1) average hours of the protégé's interaction with the mentor per month (A single item reads, "On average, how many hours per month did you interact with your mentor (or protégé)?") and (2) frequency of their meetings (A single item reads, "How often did you interact with your mentor (protégé) during the intervention?). Both mentor and protégé perceptions of frequency of interaction were measured in the current study.

Protégé Learning Goal Orientation. Certain personality characteristics (e.g., protégé learning goal orientation) may influence a protégé's likelihood of receiving mentoring (Turban & Dougherty, 1994). The items of protégé learning goal orientation are the same for mentors.

Demographic Measures. Protégés and mentors were asked to respond to several demographic variables. Individual demographic items included gender, age, and educational level. Participants were also asked to provide information regarding current organizational level, organization tenure, and job tenure. Content of the survey is summarized in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1

Constructs of the Survey for Mentors

Construc	Dimensions	Related Hypotheses	Number of Items	Level of Measurement
Mentoring Provided	Psychosocial Support	H3, H11	14	Ordinal
	Career support	H4, H12	7	
Mentoring Quality	General relationship quality	H7, H15	5	Ordinal
	Learning relationship quality	H8, H16	5	
Learning Goal Orientation		H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8	8	Ordinal
Leadership Self-Efficacy		H9, H10, H11, H12, H13, H14, H15, H16	12	Ordinal
Frequency of Interaction	Average hours per month	Control variable	1	Continuous
	Frequency of meetings	Control variable	1	Ordinal
Age		Descriptive purpose	1	Ordinal
Gender		Descriptive purpose	1	Categorical
Organizational Level		H17, H18, H19, H20	1	Ordinal
Organizational Tenure		H21, H22, H23, H24	1	Continuous
Job Tenure		Descriptive purpose	1	Continuous
Educational Level		Descriptive purpose	1	Ordinal

Table 2

Constructs of the Survey for Protégés

Construct	Dimensions	Related Research Questions	Number of Items	Level of Measurement
Mentoring Provided	Career support	H1, H9, H17, H21, H25	7	Ordinal
	Psychosocial Support	H2, H10, H18, H22, H26	14	
Mentoring Quality	Relationship quality	H5, H13, H19, H23, H27	5	Ordinal
	Learning quality	H6, H14, H20, H24, H28	5	
Frequency of Interaction	Average hours per month	Control variable	1	Continuous
	Frequency of meetings	Control variable	1	Ordinal
Learning Goal Orientation		Control variable; H25, H26, H27, H28	8	Ordinal
Age		Descriptive purpose	1	Ordinal
Gender		Descriptive purpose	1	Categorical
Organizational Level		Descriptive purpose	1	Ordinal
Organizational Tenure		Descriptive purpose	1	Continuous
Job Tenure		Descriptive purpose	1	Continuous
Educational Level		Descriptive purpose	1	Ordinal

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments.

Validity. Based on the literature review, the researcher decided to use the existing instruments to identify the variables concerned: (a) learning goal orientation, (b) mentoring functions, (c) leadership self-efficacy, and (d) quality of mentoring. For the mentoring function instrument developed by Noe (1988), the researcher made a few changes in wording, because the original instrument was administered to college students and this instrument were administered to company employees.

A panel of four individuals consisting of a faculty member in Educational Psychology and three doctoral students in Human Resource Education were asked to provide their opinions about the survey questionnaire. The professor with expertise in motivation reviewed the scale of learning goal orientation. The other three students reviewed each item for appropriateness and clarity. They were also asked to review the instruments to verify that the items in the scale actually reflected the definitions of the constructs and variables. These three doctoral students with experience in developing instruments and expertise in mentoring examined the instrument mainly for content.

Before the survey was administered, the HR person who is in charge of a formal mentoring program was asked to review each item of the survey for the content validity for his organization. He confirmed that the content and words are valid for the organization.

Questionnaire Translation. The questionnaire consisted of four existing instruments and participant information for the study. An English version of the survey was translated into Korean because the researcher planned to administer the survey to Korean employees working at a Korean organization. To ensure the accuracy of the translation, a forward-backward translation process was used. One particular technique for making conceptual equivalence across languages

more likely is back-translation (Maxwell, 1996), i.e., the translation of a document that was translated into a foreign language is once again translated back to the original language. If at all possible, the back-translation should be done by a different translator than the original translator. After the back-translation, both the original and back-translated instruments are compared and points of divergence are noted. The translation is then corrected to more accurately reflect the intent of the wording in the original language.

First, the original English questionnaire was translated into Korean (forward translation) by a doctoral student in Electrical Engineering at the University of Illinois who is bilingual in Korean and English. The emphasis in the translation process was on keeping the core meaning of the original.

When the Korean translation was finalized, the items were back-translated into English by a doctoral student in linguistics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign who is bilingual in Korean and English, who holds a bachelor's degree in English Literature, and a master's in Education. This student had been exposed to an English-speaking environment since childhood and is very fluent in both speaking and writing.

A panel of four bilingual judges in the departments of Human Resource Education (HRE) and Educational Psychology (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) compared every item in the back-translated English instrument with the original English items. They evaluated the back-translated instrument to ensure that item meanings were the same in both the original English and the back-translated version. If differences in meaning were indicated, those items underwent the forward- and back-translation process again to reach substantial meaning equivalence.

Each panel member was also given the questionnaire written in Korean. They checked whether or not the Korean translation reflected the meaning and nuance of the original instrument correctly, and reviewed each item for appropriateness and clarity. After the panel reviewed each item, the researcher divided the panel into two groups, and had meetings with each of the two groups to discuss any further revision. Inappropriate wordings and translations were discussed and revised during these meetings.

Pilot Test. The questionnaire was pilot tested in two stages as follows. In the first stage, the pilot test was tested with a group of four Korean students in HRE at UIUC. The pilot test was conducted in the form of individual meetings. In each case, the researcher asked the Korean students to complete the survey and identify questions that are not clear or are difficult to answer, or that contain unfamiliar terms. The questionnaire was revised accordingly but they were a few minor changes.

The second stage of the two pilot tests was conducted. The first pilot test was carried out with 45 mentors and 77 protégés who were working for one big Korea-based bank. The same procedure that was used for the first stage of the pilot test was carried out but in the form of mail. The researcher asked them to complete the survey and identify questions that were not clear or were difficult to answer or that contained unfamiliar terms and write them on the survey questionnaire. The survey questionnaire was finalized after considering their feedback. There were no major changes. The second pilot test was conducted with 95 mentors and 139 protégés who were working for one large electronics company based in Seoul, South Korea.

Factor analyses were conducted to test the validity of learning goal orientation, leadership self-efficacy, mentoring functions, and mentoring quality measures in the samples included in both the second pilot-test and in the present study. Exploratory factor analyses were performed

through the use of principal components analysis with varimax rotation within SPSS version 17.0

in order to prevent multicollinearity among the extracted factors (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, &

Black, 1994). The number of extracted factors was based on an examination of the eigen values.

Factors with eigen values of less than 1 (Kaiser, 1960) were deleted.

Over two mentor and protégé samples from the pilot study, learning goal orientation

formed one distinct construct with an eigen value greater than 1 (Table 3), whereas it formed two

different constructs with eigen values greater than 1 in the present study (Appendix A). The

factor structure of the pilot study was consistent with previous studies (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik,

2003). This factor represents that which was originally proposed by this study. The main

analysis in the present study supports the literature (e.g., Button et al., 1996; Egan, 2005;

Godshalk & Sosik, 2003) in that learning goal orientation formed one distinct construct.

Both in the pilot study and in the present study, leadership self-efficacy formed two

distinct constructs that have eigen values greater than 1 (Table 4; Appendix A). The present

study analyzed the data based on one construct, since the main interest was the overall level of

mentor leadership self-efficacy, and it was calculated as the means of relevant items (1-12).

From the sample of mentors (N=95) in the pilot study, mentoring quality formed two

distinct constructs with eigen values greater than 1 (Appendix A). The factor structures were

consistent with those originally proposed. Hence, the general relationship quality factor can be

calculated as the means of relevant items (items 1 through 5), and the learning relationship

quality factor can be calculated as the mean of responses on items 6 through 10. On the other

hand, from the samples of protégés (N=139), mentoring quality formed one single distinct

construct with an eigen value greater than 1 (Appendix A). The same pattern was observed in the

present study as mentoring quality formed two distinct constructs from the mentor samples

(N=95), and one distinct construct from the protégé sample (N=95). The analysis in the present study supports the literature (e.g., Allen & Eby, 2003) in that mentoring quality formed two distinct constructs: general and learning relationship quality.

Mentoring functions formed three distinct constructs with eigen values greater than 1 in the pilot study, and four distinct constructs over mentor and protégé samples in the current study (Appendix A). The factor structures were not consistent with those originally proposed (i.e., two distinct constructs: psychosocial and career support). However, the career support factor can be calculated as the mean of relevant items (items 15-21), which is clearly distinct from the rest of the items (1-14), both in the pilot study and the present study. The analysis in the present study supports the literature (Noe, 1988) in that mentor functions form two distinct constructs: psychosocial and career support.

Table 3

Factor Loadings for Learning Goal Orientation Items

Survey Items	Mentors (N=95)	Protégés (N=139)
	Factors	
	1	1
1. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.	0.737	0.746
2. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.	0.715	0.661
3. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.	0.824	0.721
4. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.	0.786	0.719
5. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task.	0.693	0.632
6. I try hard to improve on my past performance.	0.691	0.749
7. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.	0.639	0.651
8. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.	0.745	0.758
Eigen value	4.272	3.988
% of Variance Explained	53.403	49.847

Table 4

Factor Loadings for Leadership Self-Efficacy Items Perceived by Mentors (N = 95)

Survey Items	Factors	
	1	2
1. I can figure out the best direction for where my unit needs to go in the future.	**0.722**	0.339
2. I can identify the most critical areas for making meaningful improvements in my unit's effectiveness.	**0.607**	0.513
3. I can develop plans for change that will take my unit in important new directions.	**0.597**	0.575
4. I see the path my unit needs to take in order to significantly improve our effectiveness.	**0.691**	0.389
5. I can develop trusting relationships with my employees such that they will embrace change goals with me.	**0.801**	0.330
6. I can obtain the genuine support of my employees for new initiatives in the unit.	**0.809**	0.236
7. I can develop relationships with my employees that will motivate them to give their best efforts at continuous improvement.	**0.834**	0.253
8. I can gain my employees' commitment to new goals.	**0.728**	0.380
9. I can figure out ways for overcoming resistance to change from others whose cooperation we need to improve things.	0.529	**0.639**
10. I can figure out ways for my unit to solve any policy or procedural problems hindering our change efforts.	0.347	**0.794**
11. I can work with my employees to overcome any resource limitations hindering our efforts at moving the unit forward.	0.239	**0.851**
12. I can find the needed supporters in management to back our change efforts.	0.313	**0.838**
Eigen value	7.487	1.011
% of Variance Explained	62.388	8.428

Reliability. Cronbach's alpha was employed to measure internal reliability (consistency of the items). The reliability coefficients of learning goal orientation, leadership self-efficacy, mentoring functions and mentoring quality from previous studies and from these two pilot-tests are higher than a conservative minimum level of Cronbach alpha (.70) (Nunnally, 1967; Vogt, 1999). Their reliability coefficients ranged from .80-96 (Table 5).

Table 5

Reliability Coefficients of Mentor Characteristics and Mentoring Functions and Quality

Variable	Scale	α			
		2nd Pilot-test		1st Pilot-test	
		Mentor (N=95)	Protégé (N=139)	Mentor (N=45)	Protégé (N=77)
Learning Goal Orientation	Overall	.87	.85	.81	.80
Leadership Self-Efficacy	Overall	.95	n/a	.95	.93
Mentoring Functions	Psychosocial support	.93	.94		.96
	Career Support	.87	.89		.93
Mentoring Quality	General Relationship	.92	.93		.95
	Learning Relationship	.94	.88		.92

Data Collection Procedure

To protect the rights of the human subject, the researcher received IRB approval for all data collection procedures. The researcher identified lists of Korean companies that are known for mentoring programs from online articles (retrieved from one online newspaper article on February 8, 2008). After receiving agreement from HR personnel to participate in the study, the researcher emailed an introductory letter with attachments containing: 1) the outline of the study, 2) the consent form, which includes data collection procedures, and 3) the confidentiality form.

One company sent an approval email to the researcher indicating that HR manager agreed to participate in the research and allow the researcher to solicit participation among the employees currently in mentoring relationships at the organizations. The procedure employed by Lentz (2007) was adopted, revised, and employed by the researcher tailored to this current study.

A total of all 392 protégés were invited to participate in the survey, of whom 138 responded. The mentors of these 138 respondents were then each contacted and invited to participate, and 96 of them completed the survey. In total, data from 96 matched pairs of protégés and mentors were analyzed. More detail on the selection of protégés and mentors was as follows:

Participation request emails were sent out by the HR manager via a list-serve. The participation request email that was sent to protégés included a web link to the survey. Upon entering the website, protégés were first presented with a consent page explaining the purpose of the study, the procedures involved, and a statement of voluntary participation. On the second page of the survey, participants were asked to create a code and to enter their name and their mentor's email address. After the protégé had finished completing the online survey, his or her mentor was then invited by email to participate in the study and complete the mentor survey. The protégé's name was included in the subject line of the email invitation in order to prevent the email from being categorized as "spam" and to let a mentor know that his or her protégé had participated in the study. The mentors were then asked to enter the same code that had been created by their protégés, and they were informed that the study required data from both mentors and protégés. Codes, email addresses, and names were used only for the purpose of this survey, and only the researcher had access to these identifiers.

The online survey for both mentors and protégés included a consent page that briefly described the nature of the study. It was made clear that participation was voluntary and that it was possible to withdraw from participating at any time. The form also gave guarantee that the identity of each participant would be kept confidential in any future presentations or publications to be developed from this research. The completion of the survey was considered consent.

Data Analysis

This section first describes how the score of each variable is computed. Then, methods of statistical analysis are presented. To run statistical analyses, composite scores of the variables were calculated. The ways to code each variable, and to compute scores of each variable, are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Scoring of the Variables

Construct	Scoring
Learning Goal Orientation	Mean score of learning goal orientation scores (possible range: 1-5)
Leadership Self-Efficacy	Mean score of leadership self-efficacy (possible range: 1-5)

Mentoring Functions Provided
    Career Support
    Psychosocial Support
	Mean score of mentoring provided (possible range: 1-5)

Mentoring Quality
    General Relationship Quality
    Learning Relationship Quality
	Mean score of mentoring quality value (possible range: 1-5)

Frequency of Interaction
    Average hours per month
    Frequency of meetings
	Interaction hour(s) per month reported
	Frequency of meetings (possible range: 1-7)

The software program SPSS 17.0 for Windows was used for all descriptive statistics, namely, mean and standard deviation for correlational and multiple regression analyses (Pedhazur, 1997). First, descriptive statistics (i.e., frequency, mean, and standard deviation) were measured to analyze the demographic information of the participants. Second, preliminary data analyses were conducted: Cronbach's alpha was computed for each scale as a measure of the reliability of the instruments. Finally, as the primary data analysis, multiple regression analyses were conducted to answer the research questions as presented in Chapter 1. Multiple regression analysis, in particular hierarchical multiple regression analysis, was used to test for a relationship between independent variables and a dependent variable, while controlling for extraneous

variables (Pedhazur, 1997). A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the change in the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variables. The regression coefficients indicated the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables.

There were five control variables, i.e., average hours of interaction per month as reported by both mentors and protégés, and protégé learning goal orientation for the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. They were controlled in the multiple regression analysis, since these five control variables are identified as factors that might relate to relationships between mentor characteristics and the mentoring functions provided (Wanberg et al., 2003). In order to control these variables, a hierarchical regression analysis was employed. That is, in the first step, these five control variables were entered as predictors in the first block. In the second step, independent variables were entered as predictors in the second block. Mentor learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy were put in the second block. This process excludes the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable accounted for by the control variables. This also produces a change in the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variables as well as the regression coefficients.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis of surveys completed by 96 pairs of protégés and mentors who were working for a Korean IT company, and who had been participating in a formal mentoring program. Descriptive statistics are presented first, followed by the results of the research questions.

Descriptive Statistics

This section presents profiles of the participating protégés and mentors, along with demographic information for the participants and descriptive statistics of the variables of interest. In order to identify protégé-mentor pairs, protégé and mentor scores were matched, based on a unique code created by the protégés. The protégé and mentor databases were merged to create a final database with each protégé-mentor relationship representing one case in the dataset. This merged database was then used for all subsequent analyses. First, profiles and demographic information for the participants are presented, and then differences of profiles and demographic information between mentors and protégés are also included. Second, descriptive statistics of the variables for research questions 1 and 2 are presented, and then differences in the means on the study constructs between mentors and protégés are offered.

Demographic Information for Participants. The final sample included responses from 96 matched protégé-mentor pairs. The researcher conducted a population sample for protégés. One hundred and thirty-eight out of 392 protégés and 97 out of 138 mentors that were contacted participated in the study. Forty-one out of 138 mentors did not participate. One mentor did not provide enough information for data analysis purposes, and that survey was excluded. The final

number of questionnaires used for the data analysis, therefore, was 96 protégés and 96 mentors. The response rates for matched mentors and protégés in the organization was 25% (Table 7).

The number of all the employees home and abroad is 9,750 as of January 2010. The number of new employees depends on the economic situation: 690 in 2008 and 370 in 2009 were hired. Mentors are recommended by the head of the department and approved by HR department. Anyone who works for more than 3 years in this company and has good performance records at work could be a candidate for mentors.

The response rates of mentors were higher than those of protégés. One reason for this may be because the participation request email clearly indicated both protégé and mentor responses were required for the study. Protégés were encouraged to contact their mentors regarding study participation. By the time mentors received the participation request email from the researcher, they would have been informed that their protégés had already participated in the survey because the subject line of the email provided protégés' names and indicated that they had been identified as mentors by their protégés. Thus, informing mentors that their protégés had already participated in the study and the researcher would not been able to use data without mentors' participation might have encouraged them to participate. It appears to have resulted in a higher response rate on the part of mentors than protégés.

Table 7

Sample Sizes and Response Rates of Participants

	Sample size	Respondents	Response rates
Protégé	392	138	35%
Mentor	138	96	70%
Pair	392	96	25%

A demographic summary of the participants is presented in this section. Demographic summaries are organized in two parts. First, descriptive statistics of variables for protégés and for

mentors are presented. Second, paired t-tests were run to see if there was a difference between protégé-mentor reports. Tables 8 and 9 summarize the demographic information for the protégés and mentors, and the results of chi-squared and paired t-tests.

As presented in Table 8, sixty-one protégé respondents were male (67.7%), and there were 31 (32.3%) female participants. Sixty-seven mentor respondents were male (69.8 %), and there were 27 (28.1%) female participants. The age range of the protégés was from the early 20s to 30 years of age, and a majority of them (74%) were between 26-30 years of age. Mentor age ranged from 26 to 45 years of age, and 50% of them were between 31-35 years of age and 26% were between 36-40 years of age. Almost all of the protégés had earned a bachelor's degree (99.9%). A majority of the mentor respondents had earned a bachelor's degree (79.2%), and some of them had earned a master's degree (14.6%). All of the protégé respondents (99%) were new employees, and the organizational levels of the mentor respondents ranged from employees (4.2%) to assistant managers (33.3%), managers (50%), and senior managers (8.3%).

As presented in Table 9, the average number of years of service in the current organization for protégés was less than one year (8.6 months), and their average number of years of working at the same task was also less than one year (7.9 months). The average number of years of service in the current organization for mentors was 8.6 years, and their average number of years of working at the same task was 3.9 years. Paired t-tests were run to see if there was a difference in job tenure and organizational tenure between the protégés and mentors. Mentors reported statistically longer job tenure, t (94) =11.13, $p<$. 001, and longer organizational tenure, t (94) =20.02, $p<$. 001, than did protégés (Table 9).

Table 8

Demographic Information of Participants

Variable	Total Sample N=192		Protégé Sample N=96		Mentor Sample N=96	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gender						
Male	132	68.8	65	67.7	67	69.8
Female	58	30.2	31	32.3	27	28.1
Age						
25 or younger	25	13.02	25	26	0	0
26-30	83	42.23	71	74	12	12.5
31-35	48	25.0	0	0	48	50
36-40	25	13.02	0	0	25	26
41-45	10	5.21	0	0	10	10.4
Education						
High School Degree	1	0.5	0	0	1	1.0
Some College/Associate Degree	1	0.5	0	0	1	1.0
Bachelor's Degree	171	89.06	95	99	76	79.2
Master's Degree	15	7.81	1	1.0	14	14.6
Doctorate Degree	3	1.56	0	0	3	3.1
Organizational Level						
Employee	99	51.56	95	99	4	4.2
Assistant Manager	32	16.66	0	0	32	33.3
Deputy Manager	3	1.56	0	0	3	3.1
Manager	48	25	0	0	48	50
Deputy Senior Manager	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Manager	8	4.16	0	0	8	8.3

$*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001$; N = Number of participants; % = Percentage of participants

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of Participants

Variables	Protégé Scores				Mentor Scores					Size Difference		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	M_{diff}	SD	df	*t*
Job Tenure (in years)	0.66	0.20	0.33	2	3.93	2.86	0.58	14	3.26	2.86	94	11.13***
Organizational Tenure (in years)	0.71	0.18	0.5	2	8.59	3.78	1.25	23.33	7.88	3.84	94	20.02***

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; N = 96 protégés; 95-96 mentors; SD = Standard deviation;
Min = Observed minimum score; Max = Observed maximum score; M_{diff}=Mean differences; *df*=degree of freedom

Descriptive Statistics. Protégé and mentor scale scores were computed by taking the average response across items for each measure. Table 10 displays the mean, standard deviation, observed minimum score, and observed maximum score for the constructs for protégé and mentor variables and differences in means or percentage between the protégés and mentors on each construct. With the exception of frequency of interaction and average hours per month, protégé and mentor responses tended to have modest variance. On average, protégés and mentors had considerably high learning goal orientation. Mentors reported that they had considerably high leadership self-efficacy. On average, the protégés and mentors reported that they received or provided considerable mentoring support and had considerable mentoring quality. The mean difference between psychosocial and career support was statistically significant for both protégés and mentors, t (94) =9.50, p<.001, and t (90) =9.64, p<.001.Therefore, it could be inferred that protégés and mentors received or provided more psychosocial support than career support.

Table 10 also indicates that protégés reported statistically higher learning goal orientation, t (92) =2.68, p<. 01, psychosocial support, t (94) =3.60, p<. 01, career support, t (91) =2.36, p<. 05, general relationship quality, t (95) =4.88, p<. 001, and learning relationship quality, t (93) =3.20, p<. 01, than did mentors. Therefore, it could be concluded that protégés took more advantage of developmental mentoring relationships than their mentors. It may be because all the participating protégés were new employees and they needed support to adjust to the organization.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Protégé Scores				Mentor Scores				Size differences			
	Mean	*SD*	Min	Max	Mean	*SD*	Min	Max	M_{diff}	*SD*	*df*	t/χ^2
Learning Goal Orientation	4.36	0.44	2.38	5	4.18	0.44	3.13	5	.17	.63	92	2.68**
Leadership Self-Efficacy	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	3.74	0.53	2.58	5	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Mentoring Functions												
Psychosocial Support	4.06	0.57	2.50	5	3.81	0.49	1.71	5	.26	.70	94	3.60**
Career Support	3.49	0.77	1.43	5	3.25	0.73	1.29	5	.23	.92	91	2.36*
Mentoring Quality												
General Relationship	3.98	0.66	2	5	3.55	0.64	1.4	5	.43	.86	95	4.88***
Learning Relationship	3.92	0.7	1.60	5	3.6	0.69	1.8	5	.31	.93	93	3.20**
Frequency of Interaction	6.78	2.48	2	9	6.16	2.35	1	9			56	90.83**
Average Hours per Month	45.6	66.27	0	300	25.99	51.23	0	300	19.62	64.98	95	2.96**

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; N = 95-96 protégés; 92-96 mentors; *SD* = Standard deviation; Min = Observed minimum score; Max = Observed maximum score; M_{diff}=Mean differences; df=degree of freedom

Reliability. Cronbach's alpha was employed to measure internal reliability of the study

constructs. Cronbach's α of each construct for the study variables ranged from .83 - .92 (Table

11). α should be .70 (a conservative minimum level) or higher (Nunnally, 1967; Vogt, 1999).

All constructs showed a satisfactory Crobach's α level.

Table 11

Reliability Coefficients of the Study Constructs

Variable	Scale	Mentor		Protégé	
		α	N	α	N
Learning Goal Orientation	Overall	.84	94	.83	95
Leadership Self-Efficacy	Overall	.92	94	n/a	n/a
Mentoring Functions					
	Psychosocial support	.91	95	.92	96
	Career Support	.90	96	.89	95
Mentoring Quality					
	General Relationship	.90	96	.90	96
	Learning Relationship	.87	95	.90	95

Inter-Correlations among the Study Variables. Pearson correlation coefficients

between variables were measured. Cohen (1982, 1988) has suggested the criterion on the effect

sizes of correlations for the social sciences: small effect size, $r = .10 - .23$; medium, r

$= .24 - .36$; large, $r = .37$ or larger. Correlations among mentor study variables, among protégé

study variables, correlations between mentor characteristics and protégé dependent variables, and

control variables are presented.

Correlations among Mentor Study Variables. Zero-order correlation coefficients for

mentor study variables are displayed in Table 12. Mentor learning goal orientation was

significantly related to mentor reports of psychosocial (r =.38, p < .001), and career(r = .28, p <

.01) support. It was also significantly associated with mentor reports of general relationship (r =

.29, p < .01).

Mentor leadership self-efficacy was significantly related to mentor reports of the level of mentoring functions (psychosocial, and career support) at the level of $p<.001$. It was also significantly related to mentor reports of general relationship (r = .45, p < .001), and learning relationship (r = .32, p< .01) quality. Frequency of interaction was significantly related to mentor reports of level of mentoring functions at p<.01. It was significantly related to mentor reports of general relationship (r = .31, p < .01).

Correlations among Protégé Study Variables. Zero-order correlation coefficients for protégé study variables were also examined (Table 13). Protégé learning goal orientation was significantly related to protégé reports of psychosocial (r = .35, p < .001), and career (r = .28, p<.01) support. It was also significantly associated with protégé reports of mentoring quality (general relationship and learning relationship quality) at the level of $p<.001$. Frequency of interaction was significantly related to protégé reports of career (r = .32, p< .01) support.

Correlations among Mentor Characteristics and Protégé Study Variables. The correlations among mentor characteristics and protégé study variables are presented in Table 14. Cross-over correlations between mentor characteristics and protégé perceptions of mentoring functions and quality were not significant. Specifically, mentor learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy were not significantly related to protégé reports of level of mentoring functions and quality.

Frequency of interaction was significantly associated with protégé perceptions of career support (r=.29, *p*<.01). Mentor organizational level had a significant negative relationship with protégé reports of general relationship (r=-.26, *p*<.05) and learning relationship (r=-.32, p<.01). Mentor organizational tenure was also significantly and negatively related with protégé perceptions of general relationship (r=-.24, *p*<.05) and learning relationship (r=-.28, *p*<.01).

Table 12

Correlations Among Mentor Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Learning Goal Orientation	(.84)							
2. Leadership Self-Efficacy	.61***	(.92)						
3. Psychosocial Support	.38***	.47***	(.91)					
4. Career Support	.28**	.56***	.67***	(.90)				
5. General Relationship Quality	.29**	.45***	.79***	.62***	(.90)			
6. Learning Relationship Quality	.20*	.32**	.68***	.52***	.74***	(.87)		
7. Frequency of Interaction	.01	-.00	.27**	.34**	.31**	.20	-	
8. Average Hours per Month	-.08	.02	.07	.15	.15	.02	.45***	-

*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p<.001; N ranged from 92 to 96 mentors

Table 13

Correlations Among Protégé Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Learning Goal Orientation	(.83)						
2. Psychosocial Support	.35***	(.92)					
3. Career Support	.28**	.64***	(.89)				
4. General Relationship Quality	.35***	.78***	.52***	(.89)			
5. Learning Relationship Quality	.45***	.77***	.62***	.79***	(.91)		
6. Frequency of Interaction	.19	.21*	.32**	.22*	.22*	-	
7. Average Hours per Month	.13	.13	.13	.15	.20*	.46***	-

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; N ranged from 95 to 96 protégés

Table 14

Correlations Between Mentor Characteristics and Protégé Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Organizational Level - M	-										
2. Organizational Tenure - M	.64***	-									
3. Job Tenure - M	-.01	.15	-								
4. Learning Goal Orientation - M	.08	.01	-.07	-							
5. Leadership Self-Efficacy - M	.19	.13	.02	.61***	-						
6. Frequency of Interaction - M	-.09	-.09	-.05	.01	-.00	-					
7. Average Hours per Month -M	-.27**	-.13	-.24*	-.08	.02	.49***	-				
8. Psychosocial Support - P	-.18	-.19	-.12	.08	-.06	.16	.10	-			
9. Career Support - P	-.06	-.15	-.04	-.02	-.03	.29**	-.04	.64***	-		
10. General Relationship Quality - P	-.26*	-.24*	-.16	-.10	-.16	.12	.09	.78***	.52***	-	
11. Learning Relationship Quality - P	-.32**	-.28**	-.23*	.00	-.16	.16	.06	.77***	.62***	.79***	-

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; N ranged from 93 to 96 mentors, and from 95 to 96 protégés
P = protégé; M = mentor

Control Variables. Previous research exploring the impact demographic variables may have on the mentoring relationship has been mixed (see Wanberg et al., 2003, for a review). The purpose of the present study was to examine characteristics beyond demographic characteristics. Using correlation matrices, each demographic item was examined as a potential control variable. In an effort to preserve statistical power, only demographic items significantly related to study variables were controlled for main data analyses.

Mentor frequency of interaction was related to all of the mentor study outcomes except learning relationship quality. Specifically, mentor perceptions of frequency of interaction were significantly related to mentor perceptions of psychosocial ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), and career ($r = .34$, $p < .01$) mentoring provided. Mentor frequency of interaction was also significantly related to mentor perceptions of general relationship ($r = .31$, $p < .01$) quality (Table 12). These findings suggest that mentors who reported more interaction tend to provide more mentoring functions and higher quality of general relationships.

Protégé frequency of interaction was related to all of the protégé study outcomes. Specifically, protégé perceptions of frequency of interaction were significantly related to protégé perceptions of career ($r = .32$, $p < .01$) support (Table 16). These findings suggest that protégés who interact more often with their mentors tend to report more mentoring functions provided.

Control variables for cross-over effects are mentor organizational level and organizational tenure. Mentor organizational level was significantly and negatively correlated with protégé perceptions of general relationship ($r = -.26$, $p < .05$), and learning relationship quality ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$). Mentor organizational tenure was also significantly negatively related to protégé reports of general relationship ($r = -.24$, $p < .05$), and learning relationship quality ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$) (Table 14).

Findings

This section presents the results of statistical analyses of surveys completed by 96 pairs of protégés and mentors working for an IT company in Korea. The findings are organized by the order of the research questions. A hierarchical regression analysis with a blockwise method was used to examine how much mentor learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy explained the amount of variance in the level of mentoring functions and mentoring quality, respectively. The blockwise multiple regression method allowed for an analysis of whether mentor learning goal orientation or leadership self-efficacy accounted for additional variance in the level of mentoring functions and mentoring quality beyond the control variables (Pedhazur, 1997). Mentor and protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions and mentoring quality were examined. Control variables included protégé learning goal orientation, mentor perceptions of frequency of interaction and of average hours per month, and protégé reports of frequency of interaction and of average hours per month. These control variables were included in the first block, and mentor learning goal orientation (research question 1) and mentor leadership self-efficacy (research question 2) were each included in the second block.

Research Questions 1a and 1b. Research questions 1a and 1b examined the relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and the level of mentoring provided. A multiple regression analysis with a blockwise method was used to investigate how much mentor learning goal orientation explained the amount of variance in the level of mentoring functions.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between mentor learning goal orientations and:
   a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
   b) mentor perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?

Figure 2. A conceptual model of mentor learning goal orientation and protégé/mentor perceptions of mentoring functions

To answer research question 1a, the first set of hypotheses (H1-H2) was tested.

H1: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of psychosocial support.

H2: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of career support.

Hypotheses 1-2 proposed that when mentors rated themselves higher on learning goal orientation, their protégés would report that they received more career and psychosocial support from their mentors beyond the control variables. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 15.

Results indicated that mentor learning goal orientation was significantly related to protégé perceptions of neither level of psychosocial support (*beta* = .12, n.s.) nor level of career support (*beta* = .00, n.s.). As shown in Table 18, mentor learning goal orientation accounted for only 1% (psychosocial) and 0% (career support) of additional variance beyond the control

variables at the level of mentoring functions perceived by protégés, and it was not a significant predictor of protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions. In sum, hypotheses 1-2 were not supported. It could be inferred that mentor learning goal orientation is not a significant predictor of protégé reports of level of mentoring functions provided beyond the control variables.

To answer research question 1b, the second set of hypotheses (H3-H4) was tested.

H3: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of psychosocial support.

H4: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of career support.

Hypotheses 3-4 proposed that mentors who rated themselves higher on learning goal orientation would report that they provided more career and psychosocial support to their protégés beyond the control variables. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 15.

Results indicated that mentor learning goal orientation was significantly related to mentor perceptions of both psychosocial support (*beta =*. 40, p < .001) and career support (*beta* = .31, p < .01). As shown in Table 18, mentor learning goal orientation accounted for 15% (psychosocial) and 9% (career support) of additional variance beyond the control variables at the level of mentoring functions perceived by mentors, and it was a significant predictor of mentor perceptions of level of mentoring functions. In sum, hypotheses 3-4 were supported.

Interestingly, protégés who had mentors with a higher learning goal orientation reported receiving statistically insignificant mentoring support from their mentors (H1-H2). However, mentors with a higher learning goal orientation reported providing statistically significant mentoring support to their protégés (H3-H4). Descriptive statistics show that on average, protégés reported statistically higher mentoring support provided than did their mentors (Table

13). However, mentors with a higher learning goal orientation may overestimate mentoring effectiveness.

Table 15

Hierarchical Regression Results for Mentor Learning Goal Orientation Predicting Protégé/Mentor Perceptions of Mentoring Functions (N = 96)

	Protégé		Mentor	
Predictor Variable	Psycho-social β	Career β	Psycho-social β	Career β
Step 1 (Control Variables)				
Frequency of Interaction – P	.13	.24[a]	-.02	.03
Average Hours per month – P	-.01	.01	.07	.18
Frequency of Interaction –M	-.02	.19	.32*	.34*
Average Hours per Month -M	.07	-.19	-.10	-.08
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.34**	.21*	-.02	-.14
R^2	.15*	.20**	.09	.17**
Step 2				
Mentor Learning Goal Orientation	.12	.00	.40***	.31**
$R^2 \Delta$	.01	.00	.15***	.09**

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; [a] = marginal p < .10

Research Questions 1c and 1d. Research questions 1c and 1d examined the relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and mentoring quality. A multiple regression analysis with a blockwise method was used to investigate how much mentor learning goal orientation explained the amount of variance in mentoring quality.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between mentor learning goal orientations and:
     c) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
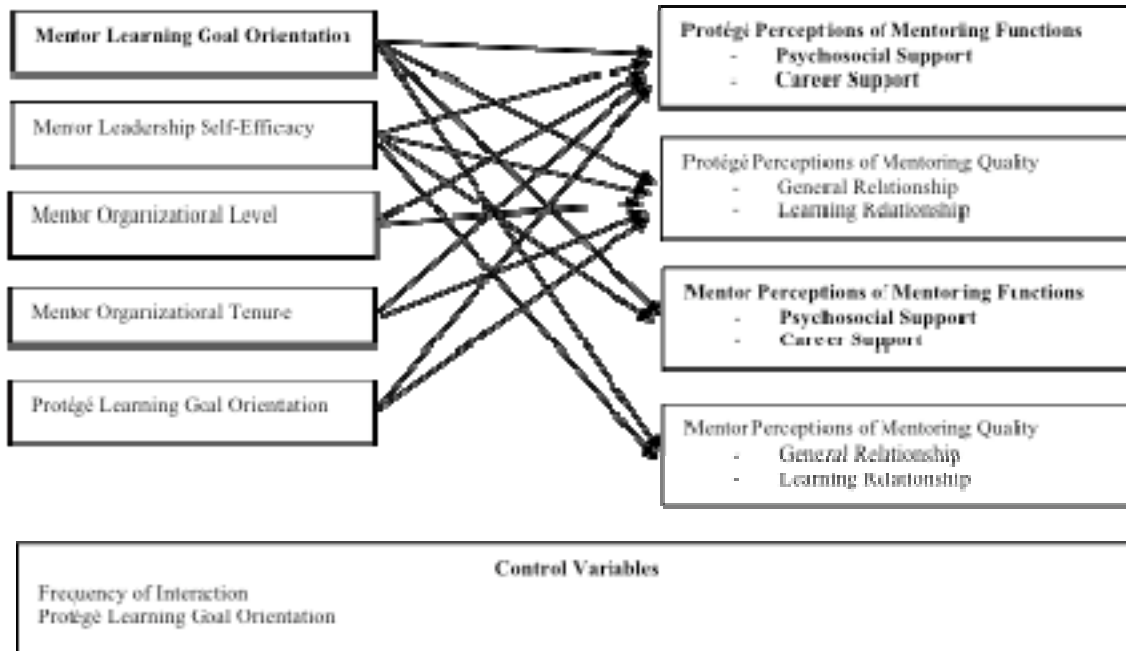   *d) mentor perceptions of mentoring quality?*

Figure 3. A conceptual model of mentor learning goal orientation and protégé/mentor perceptions of mentoring quality

To answer research question 1c, the set of hypotheses (H5-H6) were tested.

H5: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H6: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of learning relationship quality.

Hypothesis 5-6 proposed that when mentors rated themselves higher on learning goal orientation, their protégés would report higher mentoring quality with their mentors beyond the control variables. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 16.

Results indicated that mentor learning goal orientation was significantly associated with protégé perceptions of neither general relationship quality (*beta* = -.07, n. s.) nor learning relationship quality (*beta* = .04, n.s.). As shown in Table 19, mentor learning goal orientation

accounted for only 1% (general relationship), and 0% (learning relationship) of additional variance beyond the control variables on mentoring quality perceived by protégés, and was not a significant predictor of protégé perceptions of mentoring quality. In sum, hypotheses 5-6 were not supported. These findings do not provide evidence that protégés perceive that mentors with a higher learning goal orientation will provide a higher quality of mentoring relationships with their protégés than mentors with a lower learning goal orientation.

To answer research question 1d, the set of hypotheses (H7-H8) were tested.

H7: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of general relationship quality.

H8: mentor learning goal orientation is positively related to mentor perceptions of learning relationship quality.

Hypotheses 7-8 proposed that mentors who rated themselves higher on learning goal orientation would report higher mentoring quality with their protégés beyond the control variables. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 16. Results indicated that mentor learning goal orientation was significantly related to mentor perceptions of both general relationship quality (*beta* = .31, p < .01) and learning relationship quality (*beta* = .22, p < .05). As shown in Table 19, mentor learning goal orientation accounted for 10% (general relationship) and 5% (learning relationship) of additional variance beyond the control variables on mentor perceptions of mentoring quality, and was a significant predictor of mentor perceptions of mentoring quality. In sum, hypotheses 7-8 were supported.

Interestingly, protégés who had mentors with a higher learning goal orientation reported having statistically insignificant mentoring quality (H5-H6). However, mentors with a higher learning goal orientation reported having statistically significant mentoring quality (H7-H8). Descriptive statistics show that on average, protégés reported having statistically higher

mentoring quality than did their mentors (Table 13). However, mentors with a higher learning

goal orientation may overestimate mentoring effectiveness.

Table 16

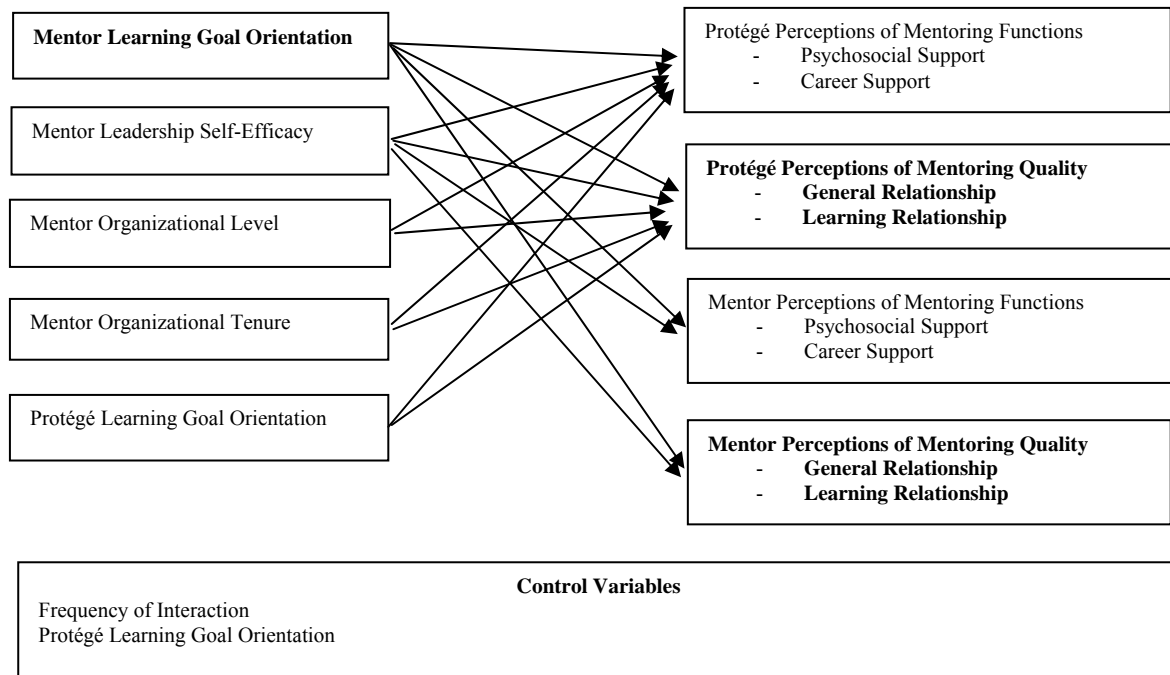*Hierarchical Regression Results for Mentor Learning Goal Orientation Predicting Protégé/Mentor Perceptions of Mentoring Quality (N = 96)*

Predictor Variable	Protégé		Mentor	
	General Relation-ship β	Learning Relation-ship β	General Relation-ship β	Learning Relation-ship β
Step 1 (Control Variables)				
Frequency of Interaction – P	.17	.15	.08	.08
Average Hours per Month –P	.04	.10	.06	.12
Frequency of Interaction –M	-.08	-.06	.30*	.25[a]
Average Hours per Month -M	.06	-.00	-.03	-.15
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.34**	.44***	-.04	-.10
R^2	.16*	.25***	.13*	.10
Step 2				
Mentor Learning Goal Orientation	-.07	.04	.31**	.22*
$R^2 \Delta$	.01	.00	.10**	.05*

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001 [a] = marginal p < 0.10

Research Questions 2a and 2b. Research questions 2a and 2b examined the

relationships between mentor leadership self-efficacy and mentoring provided beyond the control

variables.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between mentor leadership self-efficacy and:
a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
b) mentor perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?

Figure 4. A conceptual model of mentor leadership self-efficacy and protégé/mentor perceptions of mentoring functions

To answer research question 2a, the first set of hypotheses (H9-H10) was tested.

H9: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of psychosocial support.

H10: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perceptions of the level of career support.

Hypotheses 9-10 proposed that when mentors rated themselves higher on leadership self-efficacy, their protégés would report that they received more career and psychosocial support from their mentors. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 17.

Results indicated that mentor leadership self-efficacy was significantly related to protégé perceptions of level of neither psychosocial support (*beta* = .02, n.s.), nor career support (*beta* = .03, n.s.). As shown in Table 20, mentor leadership self-efficacy accounted for 0% (psychosocial) and 0% (career support) of additional variance beyond the control variables at the

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level of mentoring functions perceived by protégés, and was not a significant predictor of protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions. In sum, hypotheses 9-10 were not supported. These findings do not provide evidence that protégés perceive that mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy will actively engage in a mentoring relationship and provide more psychosocial and career supports to their protégés than mentors with a lower leadership self-efficacy.

To answer research question 2b, the set of hypotheses (H11-H12) were tested.

H11: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of psychosocial support.

H12: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of career support.

Hypotheses 11-12 proposed that when mentors rated themselves higher on leadership self-efficacy, they would also report that they provided more career and psychosocial support to their protégés. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 17.

Results indicated that mentor leadership self-efficacy was significantly associated with mentor perceptions of level of both psychosocial support (*beta* = .51, p < .001), and career support (*beta* = .57, p < .001). As shown in Table 17, mentor leadership self-efficacy accounted for 24% (psychosocial) and 30% (career support) of additional variance beyond the control variables at the level of mentoring functions perceived by mentors and was a significant predictor of mentor perceptions of level of mentoring functions. In sum, hypotheses 16-18 were supported.

Interestingly, protégés with mentors who had a higher leadership self-efficacy reported receiving statistically insignificant mentoring support from their mentors (H9-H10). However, mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy reported providing statistically significant

mentoring support to their protégés (H11-H12). It may be because mentors with a higher

leadership self-efficacy overestimated mentoring effectiveness. Mentors who overestimated their

leadership behavior were associated with lower perceived mentoring support according to

protégés (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000).

Table 17

Hierarchical Regression Results for Mentor Leadership Self-Efficacy Predicting Protégé/Mentor
Perceptions of Mentoring Functions (N = 96)

Predictor Variable	Protégé Psycho-social β	Career β	Mentor Psycho-social β	Career β
Step 1 (Control Variables)				
Frequency of Interaction – P	.11	.20	-.01	.04
Average Hours per Month – P	-.00	.01	.04	.18
Frequency of Interaction –M	.02	.23[a]	.28*	.30*
Average Hours per Month – M	.06	-.21[a]	-.07	-.05
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.32**	.20*	-.02	-.15
R^2	.14*	.19**	.07	.16*
Step 2				
Mentor Leadership Self-Efficacy	.02	.03	.51***	.57***
$R^2 \Delta$	.00	.00	.24***	.30***

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; [a] = marginal p < .10

Research Questions 2c and 2d. Research questions 2c and 2d examined the

relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and mentoring quality beyond the control

variables.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between mentor leadership self-efficacy and:
        c) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
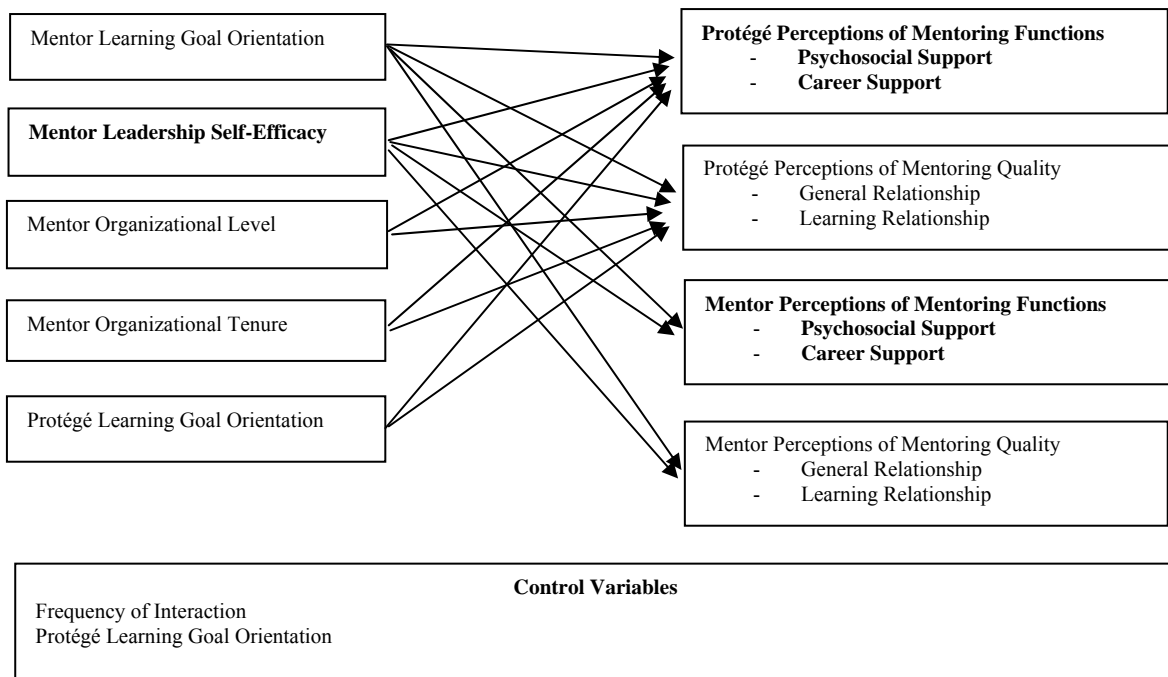   *d) mentor perceptions of mentoring quality?*

Figure 5. A conceptual model of mentor leadership self-efficacy and protégé/mentor perceptions of mentoring quality

To answer research question 2c, the set of hypotheses (H13-H14) were tested.

H13: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H14: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to protégé perceptions of learning relationship quality.

Hypotheses 13-14 proposed that when mentors rated themselves higher on leadership self-efficacy, their protégés would report higher mentoring quality. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 18.

Results indicated that mentor leadership self-efficacy was significantly related to protégé perceptions of neither general relationship quality (*beta* = -.10, n.s.), nor learning relationship

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quality (*beta* = -.09, n.s.). As shown in Table 21, mentor leadership self-efficacy accounted for only 1% (general relationship) and 1% (learning relationship) of additional variance beyond the control variables for mentoring quality perceived by protégés, and was not a significant predictor of protégé perceptions of mentoring quality. In sum, hypotheses 13-14 were not supported. The findings are in line with Godshalk and Sosik (2000)'s findings that mentors who overestimated their leadership behavior were associated with lower perceived quality of mentoring relationship according to protégés. In the same vein, mentor who overestimated their capabilities as leaders were associated with protégé perceived mentoring quality.

To answer research question 2d, the set of hypotheses (H15-H16) were tested.

H15: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of general relationship quality.

H16: mentor leadership self-efficacy is positively related to mentor perceptions of learning relationship quality.

Hypotheses 15-16 proposed that mentors who rated themselves higher on leadership self-efficacy would report higher mentoring quality with their protégés. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 18.

Results indicated that mentor leadership self-efficacy was significantly associated with mentor perceptions of both general relationship quality (*beta* = .49, p <.001) and learning relationship quality (*beta* =.33, p < .01). As shown in Table 18, mentor leadership self-efficacy accounted for 22% (general relationship) and 10% (learning relationship) of additional variance beyond the control variables for mentor perceptions of mentoring quality, and was a significant predictor of mentor perceptions of mentoring quality. In sum, hypotheses 15-16 were supported. The contribution of this study on mentoring literature is that mentors themselves benefit from

mentoring relationships. They learn from their protégés and see themselves and their protégés as co-learners.

Interestingly, protégés who had mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy reported having statistically insignificant mentoring quality (H13-H14). However, mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy reported having statistically significant mentoring quality (H15-H16). It may be because mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy possibly overestimate mentoring effectiveness.
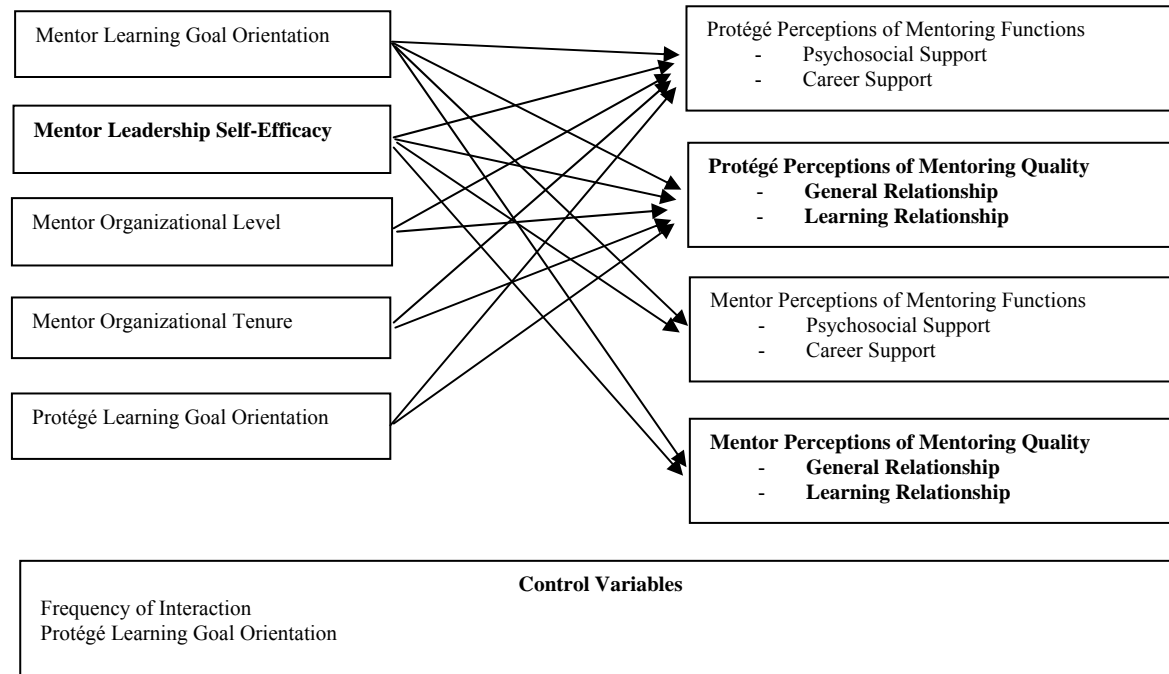
Table 18

Hierarchical Regression Results for Mentor Leadership Self-Efficacy Predicting Protégé/Mentor Perceptions of Mentoring Quality (N = 96)

Predictor Variable	Protégé		Mentor	
	General Relation-ship β	Learning Relation-ship β	General Relation-ship β	Learning Relation-ship β
Step 1 (Control Variables)				
Frequency of Interaction - P	.16	.11	.10	.09
Average Hours per Month - P	.02	.11	-.00	.06
Frequency of Interaction –M	-.07	-.01	.25[a]	.19
Average Hours per Month - M	.06	-.02	.03	-.09
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.33**	.42***	-.05	-.11
R^2	.15*	.23***	.10[a]	.06
Step 2				
Mentor Leadership Self-Efficacy	-.10	-.09	.49***	.33**
$R^2 \Delta$	.01	.01	.22***	.10**

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; [a] = marginal p < .10

Research Questions 3a and 3b. Research questions 3a and 3b examined the

relationships between other mentor characteristics, i.e., mentor organizational level and

organizational tenure and the level of mentoring functions and quality.

The zero-order correlation matrices showed several significant relationships between

other mentor characteristics, i.e., mentor organizational level and organizational tenure and the

level of mentoring functions and quality. Mentor organizational level and organizational tenure

(see Table 13 for more details) are control variables for cross-over effects besides

protégé/mentor perceptions of frequency of interaction and average hours of interaction per

month.

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between mentor organizational level and:
a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
b) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
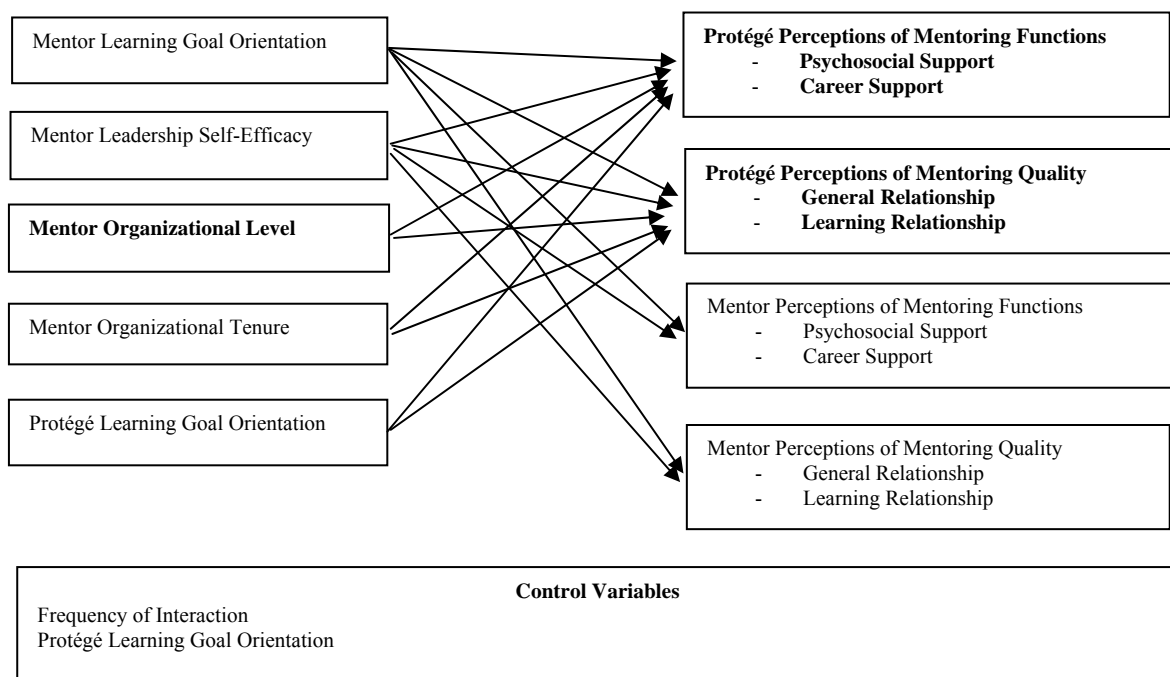
Figure 6. Figure 4. A conceptual model of mentor organizational level and protégé perceptions
of mentoring functions and quality

To answer research question 3a, the set of hypotheses (H17-H18) were tested.

H17: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perceptions of psychosocial support.

H18: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perception of career support.

Hypotheses 17-18 proposed that the higher rank their mentors were in, the higher mentoring support protégés would report receiving. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 19.

Results indicated that mentor organizational level was not significantly related to protégé perceptions of neither psychosocial support (*beta* = -.16, n.s.), nor career support (*beta* = - .07, n.s.). As shown in Table 19, mentor organizational level accounted for only 2% (psychosocial), and 0% (career support) of additional variance beyond the control variables at the level of mentoring functions perceived by protégés, and was not a significant predictor of protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions.

To answer research question 3b, hypotheses 19-20 were tested.

H19: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H20: mentor organizational level is positively related to protégé perception of learning relationship quality.

Hypotheses 19-20 proposed that the higher rank their mentors were in, the higher mentoring quality protégés would report acquiring. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 19.

Results indicated that mentor organizational level was significantly related to protégé perceptions of both general relationship quality (*beta* = -.24, p < .05), and learning relationship quality of mentoring (*beta* = -.30, p < .01). In other words, the higher ranks mentors are in, the

lower mentoring quality protégés are likely to have from their mentors. Protégés may have lower

general relationship and learning relationship quality from their mentors who are higher in rank.

As shown in Table 19, mentor organizational level accounted for 5% (general relationship), and

8% (learning relationship quality) of additional variance beyond the control variables for the

quality of mentoring perceived by protégés and was a significant predictor of protégé perceptions

of mentoring quality.

Table 19

Hierarchical Regression Results for Mentor Organizational Level Predicting Protégé
Perceptions of Mentoring Functions and Mentoring Quality (N = 96)

Predictor Variable	General Relation-ship β	Learning Relation-ship β	Psycho-social β	Career β
Step 1 (Control Variables)				
Frequency of Interaction - P	.14	.10	.09	.20[a]
Average Hours per Month - P	.03	.12	.02	.02
Frequency of Interaction - M	-.10	-.03	-.01	.23[a]
Average Hours per Month - M	.07	-.02	.06	-.21[a]
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.34*	.43***	.33**	.20*
R^2	.15**	.23***	.14*	.20**
Step 2				
Mentor Organizational Level	-.24*	-.30**	-.16	-.07
$R^2 \Delta$	.05*	.08**	.02	.00

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; [a] = marginal p < .10

Research Questions 4a and 4b. Research questions 4a and 4b examined the

relationships between mentor organizational tenure and level and quality of mentoring.

Research Question 4: What is the relationship between mentor organizational tenure and:
 a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?
 b) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?
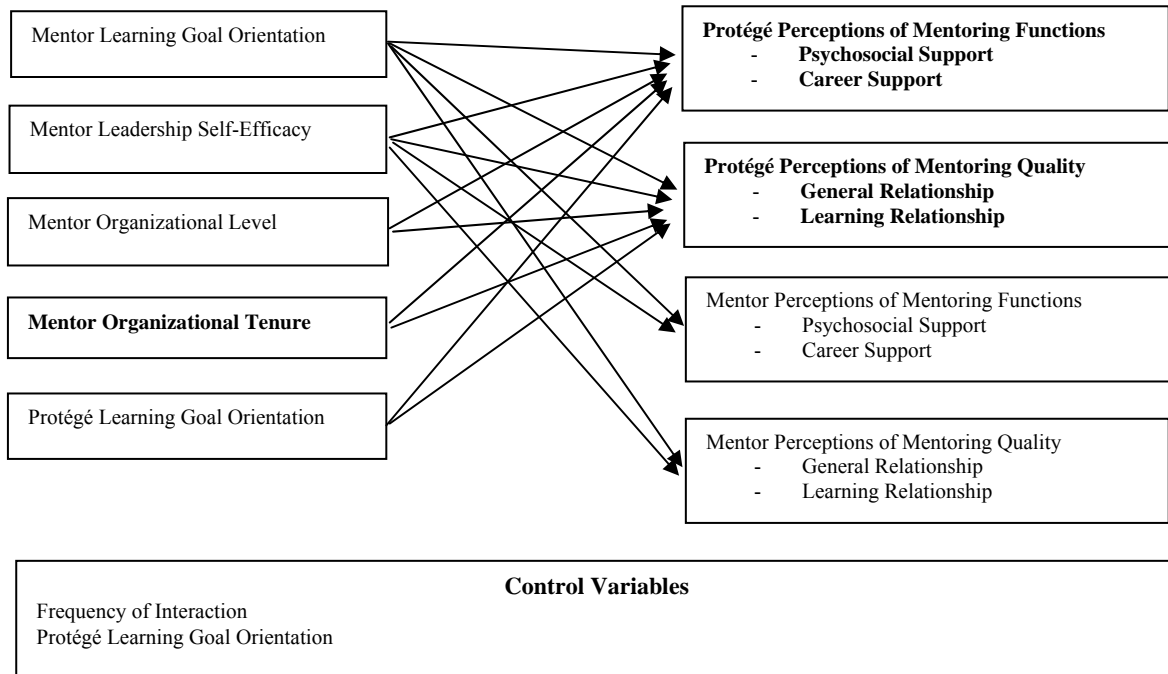
Figure 7. A conceptual model of mentor organizational tenure and protégé perceptions of mentoring functions and quality

To answer research question 4a, the set of hypotheses (H21-H22) were tested.

H21: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perceptions of psychosocial support.

H22: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perception of career support.

Hypotheses 21-22 proposed that the longer their mentors worked for an organization, the higher mentoring support protégés would report receiving. The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 20.

Results indicated that mentor organizational tenure was marginally significantly related to protégé perceptions of level of psychosocial support ($beta = -.17$, $p < .10$). Mentor

organizational tenure was not significantly related to protégé reports of level of career support

(*beta* = -.16, n.s.). As shown in Table 20, mentor organizational tenure accounted for only 3%

(psychosocial), and 3% (career support) of additional variance beyond the control variables at the

level of mentoring functions perceived by protégés, and was not a significant predictor of

protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions.

To answer research question 4b, hypotheses 23-24 were tested.

H23: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H24: mentor organizational tenure is positively related to protégé perception of learning relationship quality.

Hypotheses 23-24 proposed that the longer mentors worked for a company, the higher

mentoring quality protégés would report acquiring. The hierarchical multiple regression results

are presented in Table 20.

Results indicated that mentor organizational tenure was significantly related to protégé

perceptions of both general relationship quality (*beta* = -.23, p < .05), and learning relationship

quality of mentoring (*beta* = -.26, p < .01). In other words, the longer mentors work for the

organization, the less their protégés are likely to be satisfied with mentoring relationships with

mentors and to learn from them. As shown in Table 20, mentor organizational tenure accounted

for 5% (general relationship), and 7% (learning relationship quality) of additional variance

beyond the control variables for quality of mentoring perceived by protégés, and was a

significant predictor of protégé perceptions of mentoring quality.

Table 20

Hierarchical Regression Results for Mentor Organizational Tenure Predicting Protégé Perceptions of Mentoring Functions and Mentoring Quality (N = 96)

Predictor Variable	General Relation-ship β	Learning Relation-ship β	Psycho-social β	Career β
Step 1 (Control Variables)				
Frequency of Interaction - P	.14	.10	.09	.20[a]
Average Hours per Month - P	.03	.12	.02	.02
Frequency of Interaction - M	-.10	-.03	-.01	.23[a]
Average Hours per Month - M	.07	-.02	.06	-.21[a]
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.34**	.43***	.33**	.20*
R^2	.15*	.23***	.14*	.20**
Step 2				
Mentor Organizational Tenure	-.23*	-.26**	-.17[a]	-.16
$R^2 \Delta$	.05*	.07**	.03[a]	.03

$*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001;$ [a] $=$ marginal $p < .10$

To summarize, exploratory regression analyses suggested that mentor characteristics, particularly mentor organizational level and mentor organizational tenure were significantly negatively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship and learning relationship qualities, but they were not significantly related to psychosocial and career support.

Research Questions 5a and 5b. Research questions 5a and 5b examined the relationships between protégé learning goal orientation and protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions and quality were examined. Multiple regression method, i.e., simultaneous and hierarchical regression was employed (Pedhazur, 1997).

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between protégé learning goal orientation and:
*   a) protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions provided?*
*   b) protégé perceptions of mentoring quality?*
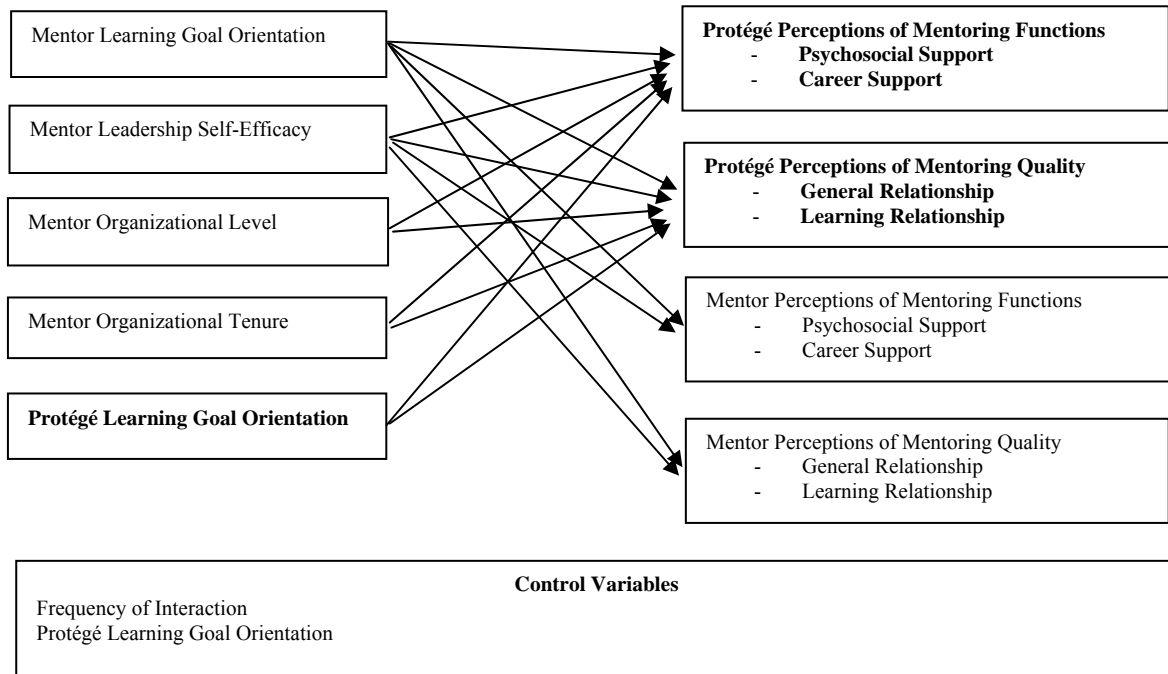
Figure 8. A conceptual model of protégé learning goal orientation and protégé perceptions of mentoring functions and quality

To answer research question 5a, the set of hypotheses (H25-H26) were tested.

H25: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of psychosocial support.

H26: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perception of career support.

Hypotheses 25-26 proposed that when protégés rated themselves higher on learning goal orientation, they would report that they received more career and psychosocial support from their mentors. Simultaneous and hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Tables 21 and 22.

Simultaneous multiple regression analyses revealed that learning goal orientation was

significantly related to protégé perceptions of psychosocial (beta=. 34, *p*<. 01) and career support

(beta=. 21, p<. 01) (Table 21). Hierarchical regression analyses also indicated that protégé

learning goal orientation was significantly related to protégé perceptions of both psychosocial

support (*beta* = .34, p < .01), and career support (*beta* = .34, p <. 01) (Table 22). Protégé learning

goal orientation accounted for 11% (psychosocial support) and 4% (career support) of additional

variance beyond the control variables at the level of mentoring functions perceived by protégés,

and was a significant predictor of protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions.

To answer research question 5b, the set of hypotheses (H27-H28) were tested.

H27: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perceptions of general relationship quality.

H28: protégé learning goal orientation is positively related to protégé perception of learning relationship quality.

Hypotheses 27-28 proposed that when protégés rated themselves higher on learning goal

orientation, they would report that they acquired higher general relationship and learning

relationship quality. Simultaneous and hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in

Tables 21 and 22.

Results revealed that learning goal orientation was significantly related to protégé

perceptions of general relationship (beta=. 31, *p*<. 01) and learning relationship (beta=. 41, p<.

001) quality (Table 21). Hierarchical regression analyses also indicated that protégé learning

goal orientation was significantly related to protégé learning goal orientation was significantly

related to both general relationship quality (*beta* = .31, p < .01), and learning relationship quality

(*beta* = .41, p < .001) (Table 22). As shown in Table 22, protégé learning goal orientation

accounted for 9% (general relationship), and 15% (learning relationship quality) of additional

variance beyond the control variables for quality of mentoring perceived by protégés, and was a

significant predictor of protégé perceptions of mentoring quality.

Table 21

Multiple Regression Results for Protégé Learning Goal Orientation Predicting Protégé Perceptions of Mentoring Functions and Mentoring Quality (N = 96)

Predictor Variable	General Relationship β	Learning Relationship β	Psycho-social β	Career β
Frequency of Interaction - P	.14	.08	.06	.18
Average Hours per Month - P	.07	.19	.10	.05
Frequency of Interaction - M	-.09	-.01	-.00	.24[a]
Average Hours per Month - M	-.04	-.16	-.02	-.25*
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.31***	.41**	.34**	.21*
Mentor Age	.13	.33*	.46**	.22
Mentor Organizational Level	-.27	-.48**	-.42*	-.11
Mentor Job Tenure	-.16	-.26**	-.15	-.06
Mentor Organizational Tenure	-.11	-.12	-.16	-.21
R^2	.23**	.41***	.26**	.24**

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; [a] = marginal p < .10

Table 22

Hierarchical Regression Results for Protégé Learning Goal Orientation Predicting Protégé Perceptions of Mentoring Functions and Mentoring Quality (N = 96)

Predictor Variable	General Relationship β	Learning Relationship β	Psycho-social β	Career β
Step 1 (Control Variables)				
Frequency of Interaction - P	.17	.11	.09	.20[a]
Average Hours per Month - P	.08	.21[a]	.11	.06
Frequency of Interaction - M	-.04	.06	.05	.27*
Average Hours per Month - M	-.07	-.20[a]	-.05	-.27*
Mentor Age	.08	.26[a]	.41*	.19
Mentor Organizational Level	-.29	-.50**	-.43*	-.12
Mentor Job Tenure	-.16	-.26*	-.15	-.06
Mentor Organizational Tenure	-.10	-.11	-.14	-.20
R^2	.14[a]	.26**	.15[a]	.20*
Step 2				
Protégé Learning Goal Orientation	.31**	.41***	.34**	.21*
$R^2 \Delta$	.09**	.15***	.11**	.04*

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p<.001; [a] = marginal p < .10

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Chapter 5

Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The present study examined the relationships between mentor dispositional characteristics (i.e., learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) and level of mentoring functions and quality as perceived by both formally mentored protégés and their mentors in a Korean IT company. This chapter includes a summary and discussion of the findings, followed by conclusions and recommendations for HRD practitioners and HRD researchers.

Discussion of the Findings

A summary of the results is briefly presented, followed by a discussion of the findings.

Mentor Learning Goal Orientation. Hypotheses 1-2 tested the relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and protégé reports of level of mentoring functions (psychosocial and career). It was predicted that protégés who had mentors with a higher learning goal orientation would report receiving more psychosocial and career support, compared to protégés who had mentors with a lower learning goal orientation. However, a significant relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and protégé reports of level of mentoring functions (H1-H2) was not found.

Previous studies have shown mixed results regarding the relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions. For example, some research (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003) has shown that mentor learning goal orientation was positively and significantly associated with protégé reports of level of mentoring functions, in particular when both mentors and protégés have a high learning goal orientation. Specifically, 143 protégés paired with their mentors in a large health organization reported that

mentor learning goal orientation was positively and significantly related to protégé reports of role modeling behavior, which is a psychosocial support in the current study (Egan, 2005). However, other studies (Lentz, 2007; Lima, 2004) have found no significant cross-over relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and level of psychosocial and career support as perceived by protégés. For instance, a study with a sample of 91 college students paired with their 91 mentors in a university did not find a significant relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and career mentoring (Lima, 2004).

Hypotheses 5-6 examined the relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and mentoring quality (general relationship and learning relationship) in this study. It was expected that protégés who had mentors with a higher learning goal orientation would report having higher mentoring quality, compared to protégés who had mentors with a lower learning goal orientation. However, no significant relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and protégé reports of level of mentoring quality was found (H5-H6). Lentz (2007) also found no significant cross-over relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and protégé reports of mentoring quality. Little is known about whether or not, or how, individual differences of protégés or mentors are related to mentoring quality (Turban & Lee, 2007).

Contrary to expectations, the present study found no significant relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and level of mentoring functions and quality as reported by protégés. The most likely reason for this result is that protégés may receive mentoring-types of support from sources other than their formal mentors. It might reduce the need to receive mentoring support from their formally assigned mentors and, therefore, reduce the level of formal mentoring effectiveness. Research posits that protégés benefit from multiple mentors (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Higgins & Thomas, 2001; Eby, 1997) and they might receive

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psychosocial and career support from informal mentors (e.g., supervisors, co-workers, and friends) and benefit from developmental relationships with them (Raabe & Beehr, 2003) rather than their formally assigned mentors. Future research that includes whether or not protégés have other sources of support than formally assigned mentors is needed in order to exclude other possibilities (i.e., existence of other sources) and better understand the relationships between mentor personality characteristics and the level of mentoring functions and quality.

Another possible explanation is that mentor ability and knowledge of organization and industry was not taken into consideration in the present study. Some mentors might have higher ability, and broader knowledge of organization and industry, and thus may be able to provide more career related and psychosocial support to their protégés (Allen, 2007; Allen & Poteet, 1999). Even though mentors are learning goal oriented, if they do not have the ability and knowledge of organization and industry, they may have difficulty guiding protégés.

Another possible explanation may be that the mentoring program might not be as effective as previously thought, and the shortage of HR staff may have kept the program from utilizing useful online monitoring systems.

Next, there may be behavior that mentors engage in on behalf of their protégés that are outside of the protégés' awareness (Allen, 2007). In other words, even when mentors provide mentoring support, protégés might not know that mentors are providing mentoring functions. However, all of the participating protégés in the study were newly hired employees, who might need some time to get accustomed to their new jobs, new supervisors, and new organizational environment. Perhaps, having mentors with a high learning goal orientation might not always be beneficial for newly hired employees who have many tasks to master in the early stages of their jobs. For example, mentors with a high learning goal orientation may encourage protégés to do

challenging assignments when protégés are not motivated to do such tasks due to many other assignments. Therefore, they might feel incompetent and frustrated, and would not be able to receive appropriate mentoring support and be satisfied with their general mentoring and their learning relationships with mentors.

Finally, generational differences in values, worldviews, and attitudes toward authority may stand in the way of effective general mentoring relationships and diminish the potential for protégés to learn from their mentors. As shown in previous research, indicates that generational differences tend to create conflicts in the workplace and prevent managers and employees from understanding each other's work perspectives (Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008; Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009).

All of the participating protégés belonged to "Generation Y" (i.e., under 30 years of age), while most of the mentors (86.4%) belonged to "Generation X" (i.e., 31-50 years of age). Members of Generation X tend to be self-reliant and competitive. They work well in isolation and are not comfortable with too many meetings or working in teams. In contrast, members of Generation Y tend to prefer collaboration and working in teams. In this study, protégés from Generation Y may not have had as many desired opportunities to observe their mentors and to learn from them as role models.

Differing attitudes towards authority between mentors belonging to Generation X and protégés from Generation Y may have decreased their willingness to interact with each other, resulting in fewer opportunities for protégés to learn from their mentors. In addition, individual belonging to Generation Y tend to respond less enthusiastically to autocratic managers, as they believe that managers should try to get to know everyone as individuals and provide personal attention to each employee. They have a tendency to question formal rules and workplace norms,

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including those governing employee-supervisor relations. They tend to work best when they have personal contact, strong leadership, and direction. In contrast, individuals belonging to Generation X tend to like having friends in high places and prefer communicating directly with upper management so that they can participate in developing goals. Individuals belonging to Generation X do not think very highly of those belonging to Generation Y because they believe that Generation Y does not understand the nature of business and that they want to be thanked for doing what they are supposed to be doing (Gursoy et al., 2008).

Hypotheses 3-4 examined the relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and mentor reports of level of mentoring functions. Findings showed that mentor learning goal orientation was significantly related to level of mentoring functions (psychosocial and career) as reported by mentors themselves. Hypotheses 7-8 examined the relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and mentor perceptions of mentoring quality (general relationship and learning relationship) in this study. It was expected that mentors with a higher learning goal orientation would report having higher mentoring quality, compared to those with a lower learning goal orientation. A significant relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and mentor reports of level of mentoring quality was found (H7-H8).

The findings are consistent with previous empirical research. For example, Lentz (2007) posited that mentors with a higher learning goal orientation provide more mentoring functions, and are satisfied with their relationship with their protégés and learn from them. The analysis was based on data collected from many different organizations, and mostly from informal mentoring relationships. The same results were found in the present study, which was based on data collected from participants in a formal mentoring program in one large Korean IT company.

These results are consistent with a learning and development framework (Maurer, 2002) and learning goal theory (Button et al., 1996; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). For example, according to a learning and development framework, individuals who possess a learning and development orientation are likely to actively participate in, and benefit from, learning activities to shape their own growth (i.e., mentoring relationships) (Maurer, 2002). Specifically, learning goal researchers suggest that individuals with a learning goal orientation strive to increase their competence in a given situation by mastering new tasks and environments. Hence, they value effort and learning, view challenge as an opportunity for learning, and are motivated to perform tasks well (Button et al., 1996; Dweck & Leggett, 1988), ultimately to increase their abilities. Likewise, mentors with a higher learning goal orientation are likely to exert more effort and actively participate in, and benefit from, engaging in a mentoring relationship. The results of the present study are congruent with a learning and development orientation framework and, in particular, learning goal theory.

The findings of the present study contribute to mentoring research in two ways. First, they provide evidence of the role of learning goal orientation as an important mentor dispositional characteristic in the provision of mentoring functions and mentoring quality. Second, the current study is one of the few to explore the relationship between mentor learning goal orientation and mentor perceptions of mentoring functions and quality. Previous research (e.g., Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2005) has emphasized protégé self-reports of mentoring functions and quality (Allen et al., 2008; Turban & Lee, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). The findings of the present study may be beneficial by adding evidence to mentoring research that mentors benefit from mentoring relationships just as protégés do (Allen, 2007; Allen et al., 2006; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Lentz & Allen, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003).

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Mentor Leadership Self-Efficacy. Hypotheses 9-10 examined the relationships between mentor leadership self-efficacy and protégé reports of level of mentoring functions. It was predicted that protégés who had mentors with higher leadership self-efficacy would report receiving more psychosocial and career support, compared to protégés who had mentors with lower leadership self-efficacy. Contrary to this prediction, a significant relationship between mentor leadership self-efficacy and protégé reports of level of mentoring functions was not found.

Hypotheses 13-14 investigated the relationship between mentor leadership self-efficacy and level of mentoring quality. It was expected that protégés who had mentors with higher leadership self-efficacy would report having a higher quality of mentoring (general relationship and learning relationship), compared to protégés who had mentors with lower leadership self-efficacy. However, the results did not support a significant relationship between mentor leadership self-efficacy and protégé reports of level of mentoring quality.

The findings are not consistent with previous research suggesting that development-linked leadership qualities in mentors are significantly related to protégé perceptions of effective mentoring relationships (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Scandura & Schriescheim, 1994; Scandura & William, 2004; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Sosik et al., 2004). For example, mentors with transformational leadership behaviors are likely to influence protégé reports of mentoring functions (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

The most likely reason may be that beliefs and behaviors are not always the same. Mentor self-reports of leadership self-efficacy may be overestimated in terms of their actual leadership behaviors. Overestimated leadership self-efficacy might not represent the actual leadership behaviors. Godshalk and Sosik (2000) revealed that mentors who overestimated their

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leadership behaviors did not influence the quality of mentoring relationships compared to mentors who underestimated their behaviors. Future research should include the actual leadership behaviors counted by co-workers or supervisors in order to explore the role of mentor leadership qualities at the level of mentoring functions and quality.

Another reason may be that protégés may have different expectations towards mentoring relationships (Young & Perrewe, 2004). Unmet expectations may prevent protégés from receiving mentoring support and acquiring a high quality of mentoring. The higher the career and social expectations for a mentoring partner in the mentoring relationship, the higher the perceptions of career and social support, respectively.

Another possible explanation is that protégés may be intimidated, and may not perceive relationships with mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy as satisfying and effective. Protégés may be frustrated since mentors with a high leadership self-efficacy may have a hard time relating to the struggle and insecurity that new employees sometimes face. They might judge protégé performance at work with their own standards. Having mentors with high leadership self-efficacy may, in fact, be a burden to protégés.

Hypotheses 11-12 and 15-16 examined the relationships between mentor leadership self-efficacy and mentor perceptions of mentoring functions and quality. Findings showed that mentor leadership self-efficacy was significantly related to level of mentoring functions as reported by mentors themselves (H11-12). Results also showed that mentor leadership self-efficacy was significantly associated with mentor perceptions of level of mentoring quality (H13-14).

The significant association between mentor leadership self-efficacy and level of mentoring functions and quality as reported by mentors was expected conceptually. First, the

findings of the study are congruent with a learning and development framework (Maurer, 2002; Lentz, 2007), which posits that individuals with a learning and development orientation (e.g., leadership self-efficacy) are likely to actively participate in, and benefit from, learning activities (e.g., a formal mentoring program). More specifically, mentors who believe that they can perform well as leaders are likely to provide more mentoring functions and have a higher mentoring quality, compared with those with a lower leadership self-efficacy.

Second, the results of the present study are consistent with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997), which suggests that individuals who believe in their abilities tend to perform better than those without any leadership self-efficacy. It contends that people who believe in their capabilities as leaders are likely to perform better as leaders (Anderson et al., 2008; Johnson, 2000; Maxwell, 2005; Murphy & Kohles, 1996; Paglis & Green, 2002).

The findings of the present study may also be consistent with empirical research (Murphy & Kohles, 1996; Ng et al., 2008). For instance, people with high leadership self-efficacy tend to spend more time developing and coaching subordinates (Murphy & Kohles, 1996). The results of another empirical study (Ng et al., 2008) indicates that individuals with higher leadership self-efficacy perform better in setting directions, delegating and/or assigning tasks, communicating, and in their ability to motivate others. All of which are similar to mentoring functions.

The strong associations found in the present study provide evidence for the role of mentor leadership self-efficacy in mentor perceptions of level of mentoring functions and quality. The findings of the present research would help HRD practitioners to plan and design a formal mentoring program. They would identify and choose mentors with a high leadership self-efficacy for themselves, in order to actively participate in, and benefit from, mentoring relationships.

To summarize, mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy are likely to actively participate in a mentoring relationship in order to learn from the developmental relationship, compared to mentors with a lower leadership self-efficacy. The findings of the present study revealed significant relationships between mentor dispositional characteristics and mentor reports of the level of mentoring functions and quality. However, protégés who have mentors with a higher leadership self-efficacy did not report receiving more mentoring support and acquiring a higher quality of mentoring relationships.

These findings contribute to the mentoring literature by identifying mentor leadership self-efficacy as important dispositional characteristics related to mentor perceptions of the level of mentoring functions and quality. These findings are consistent with a learning and development framework, in that those with a learning and development orientation are likely to actively engage in, and benefit from, learning and development opportunities in order to increase their own growth. However, further research should be conducted to examine the cross-over relationships between mentor leadership self-efficacy and protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions and quality.

Protégé Learning Goal Orientation. Hypotheses 25-26 examined the relationships between protégé learning goal orientation and protégé reports of level of mentoring functions. Findings showed that protégé learning goal orientation was significantly related to level of mentoring functions (psychosocial and career) as reported by protégés themselves. Hypotheses 27-28 examined the relationships between protégé learning goal orientation and protégé perceptions of mentoring quality (general relationship and learning relationship) in this study. It was expected that protégés with a higher learning goal orientation would report having higher mentoring quality, compared to those with a lower learning goal orientation. A significant

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relationship between protégé learning goal orientation and protégé reports of level of mentoring quality was found (H27-H28). In other words, protégés with a higher learning goal orientation did report receiving more psychosocial and career support from their mentors, and acquiring a higher quality of mentoring relationship.

The findings are consistent with previous studies (e.g., Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Lentz, 2007). The higher degree of learning goal orientation that protégés have, the more mentoring support they receive from their mentors. For instance, Godshalk and Sosik (2003) have shown that protégés reported receiving more psychosocial and career support when both protégés and mentors were high in learning goal orientation. These findings are also in line with a learning and development framework (Maurer, 2002), which posits that those with a learning and development orientation tend to actively participate in, and benefit from, learning opportunities.

Discrepancy and Agreement of Mentor and Protégé Perceptions. Discrepancies between mentor and protégé perceptions about mentoring functions and quality were observed. Mentors and protégés may not perceive the mentoring functions provided and mentoring quality in the same way. First, on average, protégés reported statistically higher psychosocial and career support, and higher general relationship and learning relationship quality, than did mentors. It could be inferred that protégés took more advantage of mentoring relationships than their mentors. It may be that all participating protégés were new employees and they might have needed support from their mentors to adjust to new jobs, co-workers, superiors, and the organization.

Second, in the current study, mentor and protégé perceptions of career mentoring had a moderate correlation ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.05$), while mentor and protégé perceptions of psychosocial

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support, and general relationship and learning relationship quality, did not. It could be a signal of an underdeveloped/misunderstood relationship. Previous studies (Raabe & Beehr, 2003; Lima, 2004) reported non-significant or weak correlations between mentor and protégé reports of mentoring functions. Disagreement about perceptions of level of mentoring functions may result in being dissatisfied with their mentoring counterparts.

On the other hand, on average, the protégés and mentors reported that they received or provided considerably high mentoring support, and had considerably high mentoring quality. First, the mean difference between psychosocial and career support was statistically significant for both protégés and mentors. It could be inferred that protégés and mentors received or provided more psychosocial support than career support, which is consistent with Kram (1983). More psychosocial support is provided during the initiation phase of mentoring relationships.

Second, the mean difference between general relationship quality and learning relationship quality was not statistically significant for both protégés and mentors. It may be that participants in a mentoring program who are satisfied with their relationships with their partners may learn from each other. It could be inferred from the findings that general relationship and learning relationship quality were significantly and positively correlated for both mentors and protégés.

Mentor Organizational Level and Organizational Tenure. The study also explored what is related to protégé perceptions of mentoring level and quality. The relationships between mentor organizational level and mentor organizational tenure, and protégé perceptions of mentoring functions and quality, were examined. It was predicted that mentor organizational level and mentor organizational tenure would each be significantly and positively related to protégé reports of mentoring functions and quality.

It is very surprising that the findings revealed that mentor organizational level and mentor organizational tenure, were each significantly but *negatively* associated with protégé reports of mentoring quality. No significant relationships were found in protégé perceptions of mentoring functions associated with mentor organizational level and organizational tenure. In other words, protégés whose mentors were higher in an organizational level or had worked for a longer amount of time within the organization, were perceived to have a lower quality of general relationship and learning relationship with their mentors, compared to protégés whose mentors were lower in rank or had worked for a shorter amount of time within the organization. However, this interpretation should be taken with caution. It may suggest that protégés might not feel comfortable with mentors with a higher organizational level because Korea has a higher power distance than the U.S. Power distance is the degree to which the less powerful members of organizations accept that power is unequally distributed (Hofstede, 1997). This orientation may prevent a cooperative interaction across power levels and a more interactive cultural environment. Protégés might feel a power distance between their mentors and themselves, which might prevent them from learning from their mentors and being satisfied with their relationships with their mentors. When protégés feel uncomfortable with their mentors, they tend not to have a high quality of mentoring relationship (Allen & Eby, 2003).

Mentors who are higher in an organizational rank or who have worked for a longer period of time for the organization might have more responsibilities and commitment compared to other mentors with a lower organizational rank and shorter organizational tenure, so that they might not be able to provide appropriate support to their protégés and consider protégés as co-learners. Mentors may have difficulty sympathizing with their protégés. They might forget that they once had a hard time adjusting to the organizational culture and job as new employees. Mentors might

not know what newcomers to organizations need to know and learn since mentors went through

the process a long time ago. Due to the many different situations mentors and protégés are in,

protégés may not see the relationship with their mentors as satisfying and effective and consider

their mentors as co-learners and learn from them.

Conclusions

To summarize, the following major conclusions could be made based on the findings of

the present study:

1. Learning goal orientation was associated with perceptions of amount of mentoring functions and quality. Mentors and protégés disagreed on the amount and quality they provided/received. High learning goal-oriented mentors reported providing more mentoring functions and having a higher mentoring quality compared to those with a lower learning goal orientation. However, having a mentor with a higher learning goal orientation was not related to protégé perceptions of mentoring functions and quality.

2. Leadership self-efficacy was related to perceptions of mentoring support and quality. Mentors and protégés disagreed on the amount and quality they provided/received. Mentors with higher leadership self-efficacy reported providing more mentoring functions and having a higher mentoring quality compared to those with lower leadership self-efficacy. However, having a mentor with a higher leadership self-efficacy was not associated with protégé reports of mentoring functions and quality.

3. Protégé learning goal orientation was associated with protégé perceptions of amount of mentoring functions and quality. Protégés who rated themselves higher in learning goal orientation reported receiving more mentoring functions and having a higher mentoring quality.

4. Discrepancies between mentor and protégé perceptions about the level of mentoring functions and quality were observed. Protégés received more psychosocial and career support and had a higher general relationship and learning relationship quality than those reported by mentors. Mentors and protégés had different perceptions about key study constructs, including psychosocial support, a general relationship quality and learning relationship quality, but not about career support. Mentors and protégés both reported higher levels of psychosocial support than career support, which is consistent with Kram (1983).

5. Mentor organizational level and organizational tenure were correlated with protégé perceptions of mentoring quality, but interestingly, the directions of association were opposite to the hypotheses. The higher the rank and the longer the organizational tenure of the mentors, the lower the general and learning relationship quality their protégés reported.

Recommendations

The results of this study provide several practical and theoretical implications for mentoring research and practice. Based on the results of this study, recommendations for HRD practitioners and HRD researchers are presented as follows.

Recommendations for HRD Practitioners. The findings of the present study have important implications for HRD practitioners. First, considering the finding that mentor learning goal orientation is significantly associated with mentor reports of level of mentoring functions and quality, it is crucial for HRD practitioners to conduct mentor analyses before a formal mentoring program is planned or developed. Knowing and understanding prospective mentors will be crucial for HRD practitioners in deciding whether or not mentors need additional support, how a mentoring program is monitored, and what kind of interventions should be done to help both mentors and protégés fully benefit from developmental relationships.

Second, HRD practitioners may benefit from selecting mentors with higher levels of learning goal orientation or leadership self-efficacy to participate actively in a formal mentoring program. Conversely, organizations may identify prospective mentors with lower levels of learning goal orientation or leadership self-efficacy who may need additional guidelines to reap the same benefits as their higher learning goal orientation or leadership self-efficacy counterparts. It might be helpful for HRD practitioners to provide prospective mentors with workshops or orientations to introduce the role of learning goal orientation/leadership self-

efficacy in order for them to benefit from developmental learning opportunities (i.e., mentoring relationships) at their maximum.

The findings that protégé learning goal orientation was significantly related to self-reported levels of mentoring functions and quality also have implications for HRD practitioners. First, organizations may benefit from recruiting new/junior employees with higher learning goal orientation to participate in formal mentoring programs (Lentz, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). Conversely, it would be helpful for organizations to identify new/junior employees with lower levels of learning goal orientation who may need additional assistance or support in order to reap the same benefits as their higher learning goal counterparts.

Another important implication concerns mentor benefits. Most previous research on mentoring has emphasized protégé benefits (Allen et al., 2004; Wanberg et al., 2003). However, results from the present study are consistent with emerging research that suggests that mentors benefit from the mentoring relationships as well (e.g., Allen et al., 2006). Given these benefits, HRD practitioners could attract managers to serve as mentors by promoting these benefits of mentoring relationships.

Recommendations for HRD Researchers. The findings of the present study revealed several important implications for HRD researchers. First, a theoretical implication is revealed. Mentor dispositional characteristics are significantly associated with the quality and quantity of mentoring at an individual level (mentors or protégés). Mentors with a higher learning goal orientation are likely to actively participate in, and benefit from, mentoring relationships, as did protégés with higher learning goal orientations. Future research on a dyadic level, as well as an individual level, should be conducted (Sosik et al., 2004).

Next, follow-up qualitative research is necessary to explore what ways mentoring relationships between mentor and protégé are effective, what benefits each party gains from the relationship, and what they learn from each other, in order to understand the benefits at a deeper level. The present study only found significant relationships between mentor learning goal orientation and mentor leadership self-efficacy, and mentor reports of level of mentoring functions and quality.

These conclusions were based on data collected from mentors and protégés in one large Korean IT organization. It would be beneficial to replicate the present study with different types of organizational settings. In addition, it may be interesting to explore these relationships with different populations within an organization. Data used for this study were collected from newly hired protégés. Future research should include other ranks of protégés.

These results provide no evidence of cross-over relationships between mentor dispositional characteristics (i.e., learning goal orientation and leadership self-efficacy) and protégé perceptions of level of mentoring functions and quality. As discussed earlier, multiple sources (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, or friends) should be taken into account to explore the cross-over relationships in future research. In addition, it may be interesting to add one variable (e.g., whether or not mentors are supervisors) to explore the relationships between mentor personality characteristics and the level of mentoring functions and quality. Raabe and Beehr (2003) found that mentoring types of support were performed better by supervisors and coworkers rather than assigned formal mentors.

It might be interesting to include mentor motives for engaging in mentoring relationships to order to examine the relationships between mentor dispositional characteristics and protégé perceptions of the level of mentoring functions and quality. Allen and his colleagues (1997)

identified self-focused motives and other-focused motives for mentoring. Mentors with self-focused motives are likely to improve the welfare of the self, such as the desire to increase personal learning and the gratification of developing others. Mentors with other-focused motives are likely to improve the welfare of others, such as the desire to help others and to help the organization succeed (Allen et al., 1997). Thus, protégés whose mentors have other-focused motives would perceive more mentoring functions provided and higher quality of mentoring relationships compared to those whose mentors have self-focused motives. Future research should consider mentor motives to fully understand the relationships between the study variables.

Another interesting research topic would be whether or not the level of protégé and mentor willingness to engage influences the relationship between mentor dispositional characteristics and the level of mentoring functions and quality. Willingness to engage is a key factor in relation to the level of participation in learning activities (Young & Perrewe, 2000). Considering that formal mentoring programs for new employees in Korea are mandatory, it may be worth examining the relationships between mentor/protégé willingness to engage in a formal mentoring program and the level of mentoring provision and quality.

Follow-up research to this study might include mentor leadership behaviors observed by co-workers and supervisors. The present study was based on mentors' beliefs of their capabilities as leaders. One's beliefs might not always be fully reflected in one's behavior. It might be interesting to explore the relationships between mentor leadership behaviors and level of mentoring functions and quality.

Lastly, follow up qualitative research is recommended to identify what barriers prevent protégés from receiving mentoring functions and having a higher quality of mentoring

relationships. The present study explored the relationships between mentor dispositional

characteristics and protégé perceptions of the level and quality of mentoring support. Further

qualitative research is essential to fully understand what mentor characteristics may impede or

encourage protégé reception of mentoring support.

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Appendix A

Factor Analyses

Table A1

Factor Loadings for Learning Goal Orientation Items (Present Study)

Survey Items	Mentors (N=94)		Protégés (N=95)	
	Factors			
	1	2	1	2
9. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.	**.661**		**.621**	
10. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.	**.577**			**.844**
11. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.		**.900**	**.861**	
12. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.		**.865**	**.866**	
13. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task.	**.725**			**.656**
14. I try hard to improve on my past performance.	**.767**			**.737**
15. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.	**.666**		**.610**	
16. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.	**.666**		**.498**	
Eigen value	3.849	1.049	3.731	1.084
% of Variance Explained	48.111	13.115	46.643	13.551

Table A2

Factor Loadings for Leadership Self-Efficacy Items (N = 94) (Present study)

Survey Items	Factors	
	LSE1	LSE2
1. I can figure out the best direction for where my unit needs to go in the future.		**.806**
2. I can identify the most critical areas for making meaningful improvements in my unit's effectiveness.		**.845**
3. I can develop plans for change that will take my unit in important new directions.		**.760**
4. I see the path my unit needs to take in order to significantly improve our effectiveness.		**.770**
5. I can develop trusting relationships with my employees such that they will embrace change goals with me.	**.606**	
6. I can obtain the genuine support of my employees for new initiatives in the unit.	**.728**	
7. I can develop relationships with my employees that will motivate them to give their best effort at continuous improvement.	**.744**	
8. I can gain my employees' commitment to new goals.	**.728**	
9. I can figure out ways for overcoming resistance to change from others whose cooperation we need to improve things.	**.632**	
10. I can figure out ways for my unit to solve any policy or procedural problems hindering our change efforts.	**.674**	
11. I can work with my employees to overcome any resource limitations hindering our efforts at moving the unit forward.	**.792**	
12. I can find the needed supporters in management to back our change efforts.	**.774**	
Eigen value	6.350	1.352
% of Variance Explained	52.918	11.267

Table A3

Factor Loadings for Mentoring Quality Items Perceived by Mentors (N=95) (Pilot-Test)

Survey items	Factors	
	Learning Relationship	General Relationship
1. The mentoring relationship between my protégé and I was very effective.	0.322	**0.840**
2. I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my protégé and I developed.	0.335	**0.819**
3. I was effectively utilized as a mentor by my protégé.	0.159	**0.817**
4. My protégé and I enjoyed a high-quality relationship.	0.409	**0.814**
5. Both my protégé and I benefited from the mentoring relationship.	0.542	**0.689**
6. I learned a lot from my protégé.	**0.806**	0.417
7. My protégé gave me a new perspective on many things.	**0.826**	0.283
8. My protégé and I were "co-learners" in the mentoring relationship.	**0.885**	0.224
9. There was reciprocal learning that took place between my protégé and I.	**0.869**	0.306
10. My protégé shared a lot of information with me that helped my own professional development.	**0.798**	0.381
Eigen value	6.697	1.238
% of Variance Explained	66.969	12.375

Table A4

Factor Loadings for Mentoring Quality Items Perceived by Protégés (N=139) (Pilot-Test)

Survey items	Mentoring Quality
1. The mentoring relationship between my mentor and I was very effective.	0.867
2. I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my mentor and I developed.	0.882
3. My mentor was effectively utilized as a mentor by me.	0.900
4. My mentor and I enjoyed a high-quality relationship.	0.876
5. Both my mentor and I benefited from the mentoring relationship.	0.790
6. I learned a lot from my mentor.	0.858
7. My mentor gave me a new perspective on many things.	0.786
8. My mentor and I were "co-learners" in the mentoring relationship.	0.789
9. There was reciprocal learning that took place between my mentor and I.	0.780
10. My mentor shared a lot of information with me that helped my own professional development.	0.759
Eigen value	6.891
% of Variance Explained	68.906

Table A5

Factor Loadings for Mentoring Quality Items Perceived by Mentors (N=95) (Present Study)

Survey items	Factors	
	Learning Relationship	General Relationship
1. The mentoring relationship between my protégé and I was very effective.		**.736**
2. I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my protégé and I developed.		**.826**
3. I was effectively utilized as a mentor by my protégé.		**.881**
4. My protégé and I enjoyed a high-quality relationship.		**.719**
5. Both my protégé and I benefited from the mentoring relationship.	**.661**	
6. I learned a lot from my protégé.	**.867**	
7. My protégé gave me a new perspective on many things.	**.830**	
8. My protégé and I were "co-learners" in the mentoring relationship.	**.835**	
9. There was reciprocal learning that took place between my protégé and I.	**.783**	
10. My protégé shared a lot of information with me that helped my own professional development.	**.561**	
Eigen value	6.697	1.238
% of Variance Explained	66.969	12.375

Table A6

Factor Loadings for Mentoring Quality Items Perceived by Protégés (N=95) (Present Study)

Survey items	Factors
	Mentoring Quality
1. The mentoring relationship between my mentor and I was very effective.	.826
2. I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my mentor and I developed.	.822
3. I effectively utilized my mentor as a mentor.	.787
4. My mentor and I enjoyed a high-quality relationship.	.812
5. Both my mentor and I benefited from the mentoring relationship.	.783
6. I learned a lot from my mentor.	.781
7. My mentor gave me a new perspective on many things.	.697
8. My mentor and I were "co-learners" in the mentoring relationship.	.763
9. There was reciprocal learning that took place between my mentor and I.	.799
10. My mentor shared a lot of information with me that helped my own professional development.	.748
Eigen value	6.126
% of Variance Explained	61.258

Table A7

Factor Loadings for Mentoring Functions Items (N = 234) (Pilot-Test)

Survey Items	Factors (Combined)		
	1	2	3
1. Mentor has shared history of his/her career with me.	0.247	**0.710**	0.262
2. Mentor has encouraged me prepare for advancement.	0.374	**0.679**	0.074
3. Mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving in my job.	0.395	**0.711**	0.293
4. I try to imitate the work behavior of my mentor.	**0.597**	0.321	0.354
5. I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values regarding education.	**0.748**	0.222	0.345
6. I respect and admire my mentor.	**0.786**	0.261	0.135
7. I will try to be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career.	**0.671**	0.173	0.422
8. My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversation.	**0.621**	0.381	0.310
9. My mentor has discussed my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors of work/family conflicts.	0.214	**0.688**	0.303
10. My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems.	0.278	**0.763**	0.318
11. My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work.	0.412	**0.522**	0.441
12. My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her.	0.486	**0.510**	0.291
13. My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence.	**0.650**	0.312	0.124
14. My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual.	**0.741**	0.391	0.162
15. Mentor reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion.	0.411	0.214	**0.596**
16. Mentor helped me finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	0.405	0.279	**0.538**
17. Mentor helped me meet new colleagues.	0.256	0.479	**0.545**
18. Mentor gave me assignments that increased written and personal contact with key features in the organization.	0.197	0.356	**0.695**
19. Mentor assigned responsibilities to me that have increased my contact with people in the district who may judge my potential for future advancement.	0.194	0.328	**0.776**
20. Mentor gave me assignments or tasks in my work that prepare me for a higher rank in the organization.	0.128	0.093	**0.780**
21. Mentor gave me assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.	0.493	0.245	**0.539**
Eigen value	11.023	1.337	1.097
% of Variance Explained	52.49	6.37	5.22

Table A8

Factor Loadings for Mentoring Functions Items Perceived by Protégés (N = 92) (Present Study)

Survey Items	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
1. Mentor has shared history of his/her career with me.	.667			
2. Mentor has encouraged me prepare for advancement.	.683			
3. Mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving in my job.			.484	
4. I try to imitate the work behavior of my mentor.			.690	
5. I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values regarding education.			.818	
6. I respect and admire my mentor.			.769	
7. I will try to be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career.			.742	
8. My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversation.				.594
9. My mentor has discussed my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors of work/family conflicts.	.732			
10. My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems.	.712			
11. My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work.	.675			
12. My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her.	.827			
13. My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence.	.557			
14. My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual.	.573			
15. Mentor reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion.		.564		
16. Mentor helped me finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.		.685		
17. Mentor helped me meet new colleagues.		.658		
18. Mentor gave me assignments that increased written and personal contact with key features in the organization.		.805		
19. Mentor assigned responsibilities to me that have increased my contact with people in the district who may judge my potential for future advancement.		.780		
20. Mentor gave me assignments or tasks in my work that prepare me for a higher rank in the organization.				.679
21. Mentor gave me assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.		.771		
Eigen value	9.378	2.072	1.543	1.105
% of Variance Explained	44.656	9.867	7.349	5.260

Table A9

Factor Loadings for Mentoring Functions Items Perceived by Mentors (N = 92) (Present Study)

Survey Items	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
1. Mentor has shared history of his/her career with me.		**.694**		
2. Mentor has encouraged me prepare for advancement.		**.793**		
3. Mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving in my job.		**.703**		
4. I try to imitate the work behavior of my mentor.				**.760**
5. I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values regarding education.				**.654**
6. I respect and admire my mentor.				**.539**
7. I will try to be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career.	**.678**			
8. My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversation.			**.544**	
9. My mentor has discussed my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors of work/family conflicts.		**.673**		
10. My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems.			**.543**	
11. My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work.	**.611**			
12. My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her.	**.539**			
13. My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence.			**.837**	
14. My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual.			**.698**	
15. Mentor reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion.	**.702**			
16. Mentor helped me finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	**.619**			
17. Mentor helped me meet new colleagues.	**.598**			
18. Mentor gave me assignments that increased written and personal contact with key features in the organization.	**.716**			
19. Mentor assigned responsibilities to me that have increased my contact with people in the district who may judge my potential for future advancement.	**.736**			
20. Mentor gave me assignments or tasks in my work that prepare me for a higher rank in the organization.	**.852**			
21. Mentor gave me assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.	**.661**			
Eigen value	9.169	2.175	1.242	1.033
% of Variance Explained	43.664	10.359	5.914	4.917

Appendix B

Cover Letters and Instrument

For Protégés

Consent Form

June 10, 2009

Dear Participant:

You are invited to participate in a research project: "Mentor Characteristics and Protégé/Mentor Perception of Mentoring Functions and Quality in Korean Companies". This study is being conducted by Sooyoung Kim as her dissertation, under the supervision of Dr. Peter Kuchinke, in the Department of Human Resource Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC). The purpose of the study is to examine how mentor characteristics relate to protégé/mentor perception of mentoring functions and quality.

If you agree to participate in this project, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that should take approximately 15 minutes. Your participation is completely voluntary. Your choice to participate or not will not impact your job or your relationship with the organization. You are free to withdraw at any time and for any reason without penalty. We anticipate no risks greater than normal life and hope the project will increase our understanding of how mentor characteristics relate to effective mentoring relationships.

The survey data will be used for the research purpose only. You will identify a code that will be used to replace any identifying information in order to protect you and your company's confidentiality. The code will also be used to connect you and your mentor. Once data are collected and participants have received $10 certificates, all identifying information will be destroyed. The results of the research may be disseminated as part of a dissertation project and in a journal article or academic presentation. You may have a summary of the results if requested.

If you complete a survey, you will receive a $10 gift certificate through email for participating in the study.

If you have any questions or concerns about this research project, please contact Sooyoung Kim or Dr. Peter Kuchinke by e-mail or telephone as noted below. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may contact the Bureau of Educational Research at ber@uiuc.edu or 217-333-3023. Thank you for your participation and anticipated cooperation. Please keep, or print a copy of this consent letter for your records.

Dr. Peter Kuchinke, Thesis Advisor: +1-217-333-0807, kuchinke@illinois.edu
Sooyoung Kim, Doctoral Student: +1-217-766-1430, skim48@illinois.edu
351 Education building, 1310 South Sixth Street, Champaign, IL 61820, USA

In order to gain a better understanding of the mentoring relationship, we are asking both members of the relationship to participant. As part of the survey, you will be asked to create a unique **code** so that I can identify protégé-mentor pairs in data analysis. **No other identifying information will be used to identify pairs**.

Additionally, you will be asked to provide **an email address for your mentor** so I may send them a copy of the mentor survey. The mentor will not see your survey results. Those are confidential.

Because of the prevalence of email spam, please enter **your name** so that your mentor will be able to recognize the email and who has identified him/her as their mentor. This will be provided to your mentor in the subject line of the email. Your name will not be used for any other identifying purposes.

If possible, please let your mentor know that he/she will be sent an email requesting participation in my dissertation study. The subject line will contain the following information "[Your first name/last name] has identified you as his/her mentor. Please participate in a Mentoring Survey being conducted at the University of Illinois."

Thank you in advance for your participation!

Section 1: Identifying Protégé-Mentor Pairs

*1. Please type your unique code (the code should be at least 6 letters, numbers, or a combination of both): _____

*2. Mentor email address (type in space provided): _____

*3. YOUR name (type in your first and last name): _____

Section 2: Mentoring Experience

Part A:

Please respond to the following questions regarding your mentoring experience.

1. How often did you interact with your mentor?

____Never

____Once or twice during the intervention

____Once a month

____Twice a month (once every two weeks)

____Three times a month

____Four times a month (once a week)

____Once every two or three days

____Almost every day

____A few or several times every day

2. On average, how many hours per month did you interact with your mentor (type average number of hours in space provided): _____

3. Have you had a mentor except this one?

____No

____Yes

4. If yes, how long have you had a mentoring relationship?

Years (e.g., 3) _____

Months (e.g., 6) _____

Part B:
1: Mentoring Relationship Items
Please read each of the following statement regarding your mentoring relationships and check the number that reflects how much you agree or disagree with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers.

Please use the scale below to mark your responses to each statement:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. The mentoring relationship between my mentor and I was very effective.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my mentor and I developed.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My mentor was effectively utilized as a mentor by me.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My mentor and I enjoyed a high-quality relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Both my mentor and I benefited from the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I learned a lot from my mentor.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My mentor gave me a new perspective on many things.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My mentor and I were "co-learners" in the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
19. There was reciprocal learning that took place between my mentor and I.	1	2	3	4	5
20. My mentor shared a lot of information with me that helped my own professional development.	1	2	3	4	5

2: Mentoring Function Items
Please read each of the following statement regarding the mentoring functions that your mentor provided to you and check the number that reflects how much you agree or disagree with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers.

Mentoring functions are defined as guidance and support that mentors provide to their protégés in terms of personal and professional growth through the mentoring relationships.

Please use the scale below to mark your responses to each statement:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Mentor has shared history of his/her career with me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Mentor has encouraged me prepare for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I try to imitate the work behavior of my mentor.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values regarding education.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I respect and admire my mentor.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I will try to be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My mentor has discussed my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors of work/family conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Mentor reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Mentor helped me finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Mentor helped me meet new colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Mentor gave me assignments that increased written and personal contact with key features in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Mentor assigned responsibilities to me that have increased my contact with people in the district who may judge my potential for future advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Mentor gave me assignments or tasks in my work that prepare me for a higher rank in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Mentor gave me assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Personal Characteristics
1: Learning Goal Orientation Items

Instructions: Individuals have different views about how they approach work. Please read each of the following statement and check the number that reflects how much you agree or disagree with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers.

Please use the scale below to mark your responses to each statement:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
17. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
18. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5
20. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I try hard to improve on my past performance.	1	2	3	4	5
23. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
24. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4: Background Information

Please provide the following information as requested below. This information will remain confidential and will only be used in aggregate form for statistical purposes.

1. Your Age (choose one):
____25 or younger
____26-30
____31-35
____36-40
____41-45
____46-50
____51-55
____56-60
____61 or older

2. Your Gender (select one):
____Male
____Female

3. Highest Level of Education Completed (select one):
____High school degree/certificate
____Some college/Associate degree
____Bachelor degree
____Master degree
____Doctorate degree

4. What is the current position in your organization?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Employee	Assistant Manager	Deputy Manger	Manager	Deputy Senior Manager	Senior Manager	Executive

(Other: (please specify what your current job title is._____)

5. How long have you held this job title (type years/months in space provided):
Years (e.g., 3) _____
Months (e.g., 6) _____

6. How long have you been employed in your present organization (type years/months in space provided):
Years (e.g., 7) _____
Months (e.g., 4) _____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. You assistance in providing this information is very much appreciated.

*****To show my appreciation for your participation, I would like to email you a $10 gift certificate after the completion of the study. Please type in your email address:

_____

For Mentors

Consent Form

June 10, 2009

Dear Participant:

You are invited to participate in a research project: "Mentor Characteristics and Protégé/Mentor Perception of Mentoring Functions and Quality in Korean Companies". This study is being conducted by Sooyoung Kim as her dissertation, under the supervision of Dr. Peter Kuchinke, in the Department of Human Resource Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC). The purpose of the study is to examine how mentor characteristics relate to protégé/mentor perception of mentoring functions and quality.

If you agree to participate in this project, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that should take approximately 15 minutes. Your participation is completely voluntary. Your choice to participate or not will not impact your job or your relationship with the organization. You are free to withdraw at any time and for any reason without penalty. We anticipate no risks greater than normal life and hope the project will increase our understanding of how mentor characteristics relate to effective mentoring relationships.

The survey data will be used for the research purpose only. You will identify a code that will be used to replace any identifying information in order to protect you and your company's confidentiality. The code will also be used to connect you and your protégé. Once data are collected and participants have received $10 certificates, all identifying information will be destroyed. The results of the research may be disseminated as part of a dissertation project and in a journal article or academic presentation. You may have a summary of the results if requested.

If you complete a survey, you will receive a $10 gift certificate through email for participating in the study.

If you have any questions or concerns about this research project, please contact Sooyoung Kim or Dr. Peter Kuchinke by e-mail or telephone as noted below. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may contact the Bureau of Educational Research at ber@uiuc.edu or 217-333-3023. Thank you for your participation and anticipated cooperation. Please keep, or print a copy of this consent letter for your records.

Dr. Peter Kuchinke, Thesis Advisor: +1-217-333-0807, kuchinke@illinois.edu
Sooyoung Kim, Doctoral Student: +1-217-766-1430, skim48@illinois.edu
351 Education building, 1310 South Sixth Street, Champaign, IL 61820, USA

Mentoring Survey - Mentor
Section 1: Identifying Protégé-Mentor Pairs

The subject line of the email I sent to you contains a first and last name of your protégé. Please respond to these survey items based upon mentoring behaviors provided by you to your protégé.

During data analysis, it is important that I identify protégé-mentor pairs. To do this, your protégé was asked to create a unique code so that I could identify protégé-mentor pairs.
This code was provided to you in the email as well. No other identifying information will be used to identify pairs.

*1. Please enter the unique code created by your protégé (type in space provided):
_____

Section 2: Mentoring Experience

Part A:

Please respond to the following questions regarding your mentoring experience.

1. How often did you interact with your protégé?

____Never

____Once or twice during the intervention

____Once a month

____Twice a month (once every two weeks)

____Three times a month

____Four times a month (once a week)

____Once every two or three days

____Almost every day

____A few or several times every day

2. On average, how many hours per month did you interact with your protégé (type average number of hours in space provided): _____

3. Have you had a protégé except this one?

____No

____Yes

4. If yes, how long have you had a mentoring relationship?

Years (e.g., 3) _____

Months (e.g., 6) _____

Part B:
1: Mentoring Relationship Items
Please read each of the following statement regarding your mentoring relationships and check the number that reflects how much you agree or disagree with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers.
Please use the scale below to mark your responses to each statement:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. The mentoring relationship between my protégé and I was very effective.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am very satisfied with the mentoring relationship my protégé and I developed.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I was effectively utilized as a mentor by my protégé.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My protégé and I enjoyed a high-quality relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Both my protégé and I benefited from the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I learned a lot from my protégé.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My protégé gave me a new perspective on many things.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My protégé and I were "co-learners" in the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
19. There was reciprocal learning that took place between my protégé and I.	1	2	3	4	5
20. My protégé shared a lot of information with me that helped my own professional development.	1	2	3	4	5

2: Mentoring Function Items
Please read each of the following statement regarding the mentoring functions that you provided to your protégé and check the number that reflects how much you agree or disagree with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers.

Mentoring functions are defined as guidance and support that mentors provide to their protégés in terms of personal and professional growth through the mentoring relationships.

Please use the scale below to mark your responses to each statement:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Items					
1. I have shared history of my career with my protégé.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have encouraged my protégé to prepare for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5

3. I have encouraged my protégé to try new ways of behaving in my protégé's job.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My protégé tries to imitate my work behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My protégé agrees with my attitudes and values regarding work.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My protégé respects and admires me.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My protégé will try to be like me when he/she reaches a similar position in his/her career.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have demonstrated good listening skills in the conversation with My protégé.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I have discussed my protégé's questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors of work/family conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I have shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my protégé's problems.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I have encouraged my protégé to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from his/her work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I have conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings my protégé has discussed with me.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I have kept feelings and doubts my protégé shared with me in strict confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I have conveyed feelings of respect for my protégé as an individual.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I helped my protégé finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I helped my protégé meet new colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I gave my protégé assignments that increased written and personal contact with key features in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I assigned responsibilities to my protégé that have increased my protégé's contact with people in the district who may judge his/her potential for future advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I gave my protégé assignments or tasks in my protégé's work that prepare him/her for a higher rank in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I gave my protégé assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Personal Characteristics and beliefs
1: Learning Goal Orientation Items
Instructions: Individuals have different views about how they approach work. Please read each of the following statement and check the number that reflects how much you agree or disagree with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers.

Please use the scale below to mark your responses to each statement:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I try hard to improve on my past performance.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.	1	2	3	4	5

2: Leadership Self-Efficacy Items
Please rate your confidence in your ability to perform each of the following tasks. In these questions, "unit" refers to the group of employees currently reporting to you.

Please use the scale below to mark your responses to each statement:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
13. I can figure out the best direction for where my unit needs to go in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I can identify the most critical areas for making meaningful	1	2	3	4	5

improvements in my unit's effectiveness.					
15. I can develop plans for change that will take my unit in important new directions.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I see the path my unit needs to take in order to significantly improve our effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I can develop trusting relationships with my employees such that they will embrace change goals with me.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I can obtain the genuine support of my employees for new initiatives in the unit.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I can develop relationships with my employees that will motivate them to give their best efforts at continuous improvement.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I can gain my employees' commitment to new goals.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I can figure out ways for overcoming resistance to change from others whose cooperation we need to improve things.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I can figure out ways for my unit to solve any policy or procedural problems hindering our change efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I can work with my employees to overcome any resource limitations hindering our efforts at moving the unit forward.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I can find the needed supporters in management to back our change efforts.	1	2	3	4	5

Please provide the following information as requested below. This information will remain confidential and will only be used in aggregate form for statistical purposes.

1. Your Age (choose one):
____25 or younger
____26-30
____31-35
____36-40
____41-45
____46-50
____51-55
____56-60
____61 or older

2. Your Gender (select one):
____Male
____Female

3. Highest Level of Education Completed (select one):
____High school degree/certificate
____Some college/Associate degree
____Bachelor degree
____Master degree
____Doctorate degree

4. What is the current position in your organization?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Employee	Assistant Manager	Deputy Manger	Manager	Deputy Senior Manager	Senior Manager	Executive

(Other: (please specify what your current job title is._____)

5. How long have you held this job title (type years/months in space provided):
Years (e.g., 3) _____
Months (e.g., 6) _____

6. How long have you been employed in your present organization (type years/months in space provided):
Years (e.g., 7) _____
Months (e.g., 4) _____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. You assistance in providing this information is very much appreciated.

*****To show my appreciation for your participation, I would like to email you a $10 gift certificate after the completion of the study. Please type in your first and last name:

_____

Appendix C

Consent Letter for Organizations

Re: Research Participation Request

Hello. I am Sooyoung Kim, a doctoral student majoring in human resource development, at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC). With Professor K. Peter Kuchinke, my dissertation director, I am working on my dissertation focusing on mentoring. The outcomes of the study will help us better understand how to assist employees to have maximum benefits from mentoring relationships. Study results will contribute to the literature but also provide feedback and recommendations to organizations.

To conduct this study, I would like to survey your employees who are participating in a mentoring program. Could you please allow me to administer a survey to the employees in your organization? If you approve this request, I will email you the link to the survey. I anticipate completing the survey would take about 10-15 minutes.

I would truly appreciate your help. You can email your approval at skim48@illinois.edu. If you have any question about the study, please feel free to contact me by phone 217-766-1430 or by email, at skim48@illinois.edu.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Cordially,

Sooyoung Kim	Dr. K.Peter Kuchinke
Doctoral Student, Researcher	Associate Professor, Research Director
Department of Human Resource Education	Department of Human Resource Education
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Phone (217)766-1430	kuchinke@illinois.edu
skim48@illinois.edu	

Appendix D

Protégé Participation Request Email

Dear Protégés –
Hello. I am Sooyoung Kim, a doctoral student in the department of Human Resource Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. I am working on my dissertation regarding mentoring. The purpose of my study is to examine formal mentoring relationships in the workplace.

I am sending this email to ask for your participation in my dissertation research study.

Over the next few weeks, I hope to collect data on approximately one hundred protégé-mentor pairs. In order to do this, I need your help!
The online survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Your responses will **NOT** be shared with anyone (i.e., coworkers, mentors, management) except my thesis director, Dr. Peter Kuchinke.

If you want to participate in my study, please click the following link and it will direct you to the protégé survey:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=6vEwbeCNWGYIVoWvI3PFGQ_3d_3d

If you have any questions regarding the methodology or purpose of the study, feel free to contact me.

Thank you in advance for your time and participation!

Sooyoung Kim, M.A.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820Champaign, IL61820
skim48@illinois.edu

Appendix E

Protégé Reminder Email

Dear Protégés:

Last week, I contacted you regarding my dissertation study. Thank you to those of you who have already completed the online survey. For those of you who have not, I would like to finish collecting data within the next two weeks. You may remember that the study focuses on examining formal mentoring relationships in the workplace and will take approximately 10-15 minutes.

If you want to participate in my study, please click the following link and it will direct you to the protégé survey:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=6vEwbeCNWGYIVoWvI3PFGQ_3d_3d

If you have any questions regarding the methodology or purpose of the study, feel free to contact me.

Thank you in advance for your time and participation!

Sooyoung Kim, M.A.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820Champaign, IL61820
skim48@illinois.edu

Appendix F

Mentor Participation Request Email

Hello. I am Sooyoung Kim, a doctoral student in the department of Human Resource Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. I am working on my dissertation regarding mentoring. The purpose of my study is to examine formal mentoring relationships in the workplace.

Over the next month, I hope to collect data on approximately one hundred protégé-mentor pairs. In order to do this, I need your help!

I am emailing you because the protégé identified in the subject line of this email has indicated you have been a mentor to him/her.

Participation is simple. The online survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. On the first page of the survey, you will be asked to enter the following unique code:
<UNIQUE CODE CREATED BY PROTÉGÉ>

This code was created by your protégé and will be used to link responses from protégé and mentor pairs. No other identifying information will be used in the study. Because I am interested in protégé-mentor pairs, **if mentors choose not to participate, I will not be able to use protégés' data. Your protégé will not see the responses to your survey.**

If you **ARE** willing to participate in my dissertation study, the following link will direct you to the mentor survey:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=A0GH8fCOS6GHYrDJIZDmEg_3d_3d

If you have any questions regarding the methodology or purpose of the study, feel free to contact me.

Thank you in advance for your time and participation!

Sooyoung Kim, M.A.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820Champaign, IL61820
skim48@illinois.edu

Appendix G

Mentor Reminder Email

Hello –

Last week, I emailed you regarding my dissertation study at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Thank you if you have already completed the online survey. If you have not, I would like to finish collecting data within the next two weeks. You may remember that the study focuses on examining formal mentoring relationships in the workplace and will take approximately 15 minutes.

Specifically, I am emailing you again because your protégé identified in the subject line of this email has indicated you have been a mentor to him/her in a formal mentoring program.

Participation is simple. The online survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. On the first page of the survey, **you will be asked to enter the following unique code: <UNIQUE CODE CREATED BY PROTÉGÉ>**

This code was created by your protégé and will be used to link responses from protégé and mentor pairs. No other identifying information will be used in the study. Because I am interested in protégé-mentor pairs, **if you choose not to participate, I will not be able to use your protégé's data.**

If you **ARE** willing to participate in my dissertation study, the following link will direct you to the mentor survey:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=A0GH8fCOS6GHYrDJIZDmEg_3d_3d

If you have any questions regarding the methodology or purpose of the study, feel free to contact me.

Thank you in advance for your time and participation!

Sooyoung Kim, M.A.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820Champaign, IL61820
skim48@illinois.edu

Appendix H

Cover Letters and Instrument in Korean

참가자 여러분께:

안녕하세요. 저는 미국 일리노이 주립대 (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) 인력개발 (Human Resource Education)학과에서 박사과정에 재학중인 김수영이라고 합니다. 저는 Peter Kuchinke 교수님의 지도로 멘토링에 관한 연구를 하고 있습니다.

이 설문은 여러분의 멘티로서의 멘토링 경험에 관한 것입니다. 설문은 대략 10-15분정도 소요 될 것으로 예상됩니다. 이 설문을 통해 얻어진 모든 자료는 기밀(confidential)로 처리됩니다. 특, 여러분께서 답변하는 모든 내용은 연구자에게만 접근이 가능하며 여러분의 인사권을 가진 상사나 어떤 다른 사람의 접근이 불가능합니다. 본 연구는 연구자의 박사논문에 사용될 것이고, 이후 학술적인 목적 (학회 발표나 학술지 게재)으로만 사용될 것입니다. 연구 결과가 발표시 참여자 및 기관에 대한 익명성이 보장될 것이며, 참여자나 기관의 동의 없이 위의 목적 외의 다른 용도로 사용되지 않을 것입니다.

여러분의 참여는 자발적입니다. 온라인 설문에 참여하시게 되면, 설문 참여에 동의 하신 것으로 간주 됩니다(여러분의 기록을 위해 원하시면 이 동의서를 출력해서 보관하실 수 있습니다). 다 작성된 설문은 연구자인 저만 볼 수 있습니다.

 이 연구에 대한 질문사항이 있으시면, 김수영(연구자) 혹은 Peter Kuchinke 교수님께 아래의 이메일이나 전화로 연락해 주십시오. 참여해 주시고 도와 주셔서 대단히 감사 드립니다.

Sooyoung Kim,
Doctoral Student, Researcher
+1-217-766-1430, skim48@illinois.edu

Dr. Peter Kuchinke
Associate Professor, Research Director
kuchinke@illinois.edu

*** 이 설문을 완료해 주시는 분께 10,000원권의 해피 머니를 이메일로 보내드립니다. ***

제1부: 멘티-멘토 쌍 확인하기

제 논문에는 멘티-멘토 두 분의 자료가 모두 필요합니다.

먼저 암호(code)를 만드시고, 멘토의 이메일 주소와 귀하의 이름을 입력해 주십시오.

귀하의 멘토에게 귀하가 만드신 암호와 멘토용 온라인 설문 웹사이트 링크를 이메일로 보내게 됩니다.

제가 보낸 이멜이 스팸메일로 처리 되는 것을 막기위해, 이메일 제목에 "귀하의 멘티, [귀하의 이름]께서 귀하가 멘토임을 알려주셨습니다. 일리노이 주립대에서 실시하는 멘토링 설문에 참여해 주십시오"라고 쓸 것입니다.

***가능하다면 설문 참여 이메일을 받게 될 것이라고 멘토에게 미리 알려주시면 대단히 감사하겠습니다. 설문 문항에 관한 의견은 나누지 말아 주십시오.

***암호(code)를 반드시 입력해 주십시오. 귀하와 귀하의 멘토가 한 쌍임을 구분하게 하는 유일한 정보입니다.

1. 암호 (code): 최소 6자로, 알파벳이나 숫자 혹은 알파벳과 숫자의 조합으로 만드시면 됩니다 (예: cutiepie, 2974893, 혹은 oh54yes).

2. 멘토 이메일(email) 주소:

3. 귀하의 이름:

제 2부: 멘토링 경험 (Part A)
귀하의 멘토링 경험에 관한 다음의 질문에 답해 주십시오. 알맞은 답에 표기 (V) 해 주십시오

1.   얼마나 자주 귀하의 멘토와 만나셨습니까?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
전혀 교류가 없었다.	실시기간 한 두 번	한 달에 한번	한 달에 두 번 (2주마다 한번)	한 달에 세 번	한 달에 네 번 (매주 한번)	이삼일에 한번	거의 매일	하루에도 여러 번

2. 한달 평균 몇 시간 귀하의 멘토와 만나셨습니까? (_____)시간

3. 이 멘토링 관계 이외의 다른 멘토링 경험이 있으십니까?

1	2
예	아니오

4. 다른 멘토링 경험이 있었다면, 얼마 동안 멘토링 관계를 지속하셨습니까? (빈칸에 숫자를 넣어주십시오.
(_____년_____개월)

제2부: 멘토링 경험 (Part B)

1. 멘토링 관계 항목
귀사의 멘토링 프로그램에 참여하신 경험을 바탕으로, 다음의 각 항목에 어느 정도 동의 또는 부정 하는지 알맞은 숫자에 표기를 해 주십시오. 정답이나 오답은 없습니다.

	1. 전혀 그렇지 않다	2. 그렇지 않다	3. 보통이다	4. 그렇다	5. 매우 그렇다
1. 나와 멘토의 멘토링 관계는 아주 효과적이었다	1	2	3	4	5
2. 나는 멘토와 내가 발전시킨 멘토링 관계에 아주 만족스럽다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 나의 멘토를 멘토로서 효과적으로 활용했다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 나는 멘토와 양질 (high-quality) 의 관계를 가졌다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 나와 멘토는 멘토링 관계를 통해서 서로에게 혜택을 주었다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 나는 멘토를 통해 많은 것을 배웠다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 멘토는 나에게 많은 면에서 새로운 관점을 제시했다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 멘토와 나는 멘토링 관계에서 상호 학습하는 관계였다.	1	2	3	4	5
9. 멘토와 나 사이에는 상호간의 배움이 있었다.	1	2	3	4	5
10. 멘토는 나의 직무개발(professional development)에 도움이 되는 많은 정보를 나와 공유했다.	1	2	3	4	5

2. 멘토링 기능 항목
멘토링관계에 있던 멘토와의 상호작용을 생각해보시면서, 아래의 항목에 대해 귀하가 어느 정도 동의 또는 부정 하는지 알맞은 답변에 표기해 주십시오.

	1. 전혀 그렇지 않다	2. 그렇지 않다	3. 보통이다	4. 그렇다	5. 매우 그렇다
1. 멘토는 나에게 자신의 경력에 대해서 나눈 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 멘토는 내가 더 발전할 수 있도록 준비하라고 격려한 적 이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 멘토는 새로운 방식으로 직장 업무에 대처할 수 있도록 나를 격려한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 나는 멘토의 업무 방식을 따르려고 노력했다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 나는 멘토의 일에 대한 태도와 가치 판단에 대해 동의했다.	1	2	3	4	5

6. 나는 멘토를 존중하고 따랐다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 직장 내에서 멘토와 비슷한 위치에 도달했을 때 나는 멘토처럼 되고 싶고 멘토를 닮고 싶다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 멘토는 우리의 대화를 잘 경청할 수 있는 능력을 보여준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
9. 멘토는 내가 스스로의 능력에 대해 느끼는 감정이나 내가 더 발전하는 데 필요한 책임 의식, 그리고 직장과 가정의 불화가 있을 때나 동료들이나 상사와 어떤 관계를 맺어야 하는지에 대한, 나의 질문과 관심사에 대해서 조언한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
10. 멘토는 나의 문제들을 풀 수 있는 대안으로 자신의 개인적인 경험을 제시하며 나눈 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
11. 멘토는 내가 일에 집중하지 못하게 만드는 걱정이나 두려움을 자신에게 솔직히 나눌 수 있도록 격려한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
12. 멘토는 그/그녀와 상담할 때 내가 느끼는 걱정이나 감정들에 대해서 공감한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
13. 멘토는 나와 상담할 때 내가 나눈 감정과 의심하는 부분에 대해서 비밀을 보장해준다.	1	2	3	4	5
14. 멘토는 나를 한 인격체로 존중하는 느낌을 갖게 해준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
15. 멘토는 나의 승진에 위협이 될 만한 불필요한 위험들을 줄여준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
16. 멘토는 내가 업무나 과제를 마무리 하기 힘들었을 때 마감시간 안에 그것을 끝낼 수 있도록 도와준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
17. 멘토가 새로운 동료를 만날 수 있도록 도와준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
18. 멘토는 내가 다른 사람들과 서류상의 또는 개인적인 접촉을 늘릴 수 있도록 나에게 과제를 준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
19. 멘토는 나에게 나의 미래의 승진 가능성을 평가할 수 있는 부서의 사람들과 접촉 기회를 늘릴 수 있는 업무를 맡긴 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
20. 멘토는 내가 직장에서 경영직을 준비할 수 있는 과제나 업무를 준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
21. 멘토는 나에게 새로운 실력을 개발할 수 있는 기회를 주는 업무를 준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5

제3부: 개인 성향

개인에 따라 업무 접근 방식에 대한 견해가 각기 다릅니다. 아래의 항목에 대해 당신이 어느 정도 동의 또는 부정 하는지 알맞은 숫자에 표기해 주십시오.

	1. 전혀 그렇지 않다	2. 그렇지 않다	3. 불확실 하다	4. 그렇다	5. 매우 그렇다
1. 도전적인 (challenging) 일을 할 수 있는 기회가 나에게는 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 어려운 업무를 끝내지 못할 때, 다음에 그 일을 할 때 더 열심히 할 계획을 세운다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 나는 새로운 것을 배울 수 있는 업무를 선호한다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 새로운 것을 배울 수 있는 기회가 나에게는 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 나는 꽤 어려운 일을 할 때 최선을 다한다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 나는 이전의 업무성과 (performance) 를 개선하기 위해 열심히 노력한다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 나의 능력의 범위를 넓히는 일은 아주 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 문제를 해결하기 힘들 때 그 문제를 해결하기 위해 다양한 시도를 하는 것을 좋아한다.	1	2	3	4	5

제4부. 참여자 정보
**알은 숫자에 표기 해 주십시오.

1. 나이:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25세 이하	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	55-60	61세 이상

2. 성별:

1	2
남자	여자

3. 최종학력:

1	2	3	4	5
고졸	2년대 졸업	학사	석사	박사

4. 현재 회사에서의 직책은?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
사원	대리	과장대리	과장	차장대리	차장	부장	이사

***해당사항이 없을 경우, 귀하의 현 직책을 적어주십시오. (   )

5. 얼마 동안 이 직책을 맡아 일하고 계십니까?
(____년____개월)

6. 얼마 동안 이 회사에서 일하셨습니까?
(____년____개월)

7. 설문참여에 대한 감사의 표시로 만원상당의 해피머니를 이메일로 보내드리려고 합니다.
귀하의 이름을 입력해주십시오.

참가자 여러분께:

안녕하세요. 저는 미국 일리노이 주립대 (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) 인력개발 (Human Resource Education)학과에서 박사과정에 재학중인 김수영이라고 합니다. 저는 Peter Kuchinke 교수님의 지도로 멘토링에 관한 연구를 하고 있습니다.

이 설문은 여러분의 멘티로서의 멘토링 경험에 관한 것입니다. 설문은 대략 10-15분정도 소요 될 것으로 예상됩니다. 이 설문을 통해 얻어진 모든 자료는 기밀(confidential)로 처리됩니다. 특, 여러분께서 답변하는 모든 내용은 연구자에게만 접근이 가능하며 여러분의 인사권을 가진 상사나 어떤 다른 사람의 접근이 불가능합니다. 본 연구는 연구자의 박사논문에 사용될 것이고, 이후 학술적인 목적 (학회 발표나 학술지 게재)으로만 사용될 것입니다. 연구 결과가 발표시 참여자 및 기관에 대한 익명성이 보장될 것이며, 참여자나 기관의 동의 없이 위의 목적 외의 다른 용도로 사용되지 않을 것입니다.

여러분의 참여는 자발적입니다. 온라인 설문에 참여하시게 되면, 설문 참여에 동의 하신 것으로 간주 됩니다(여러분의 기록을 위해 원하시면 이 동의서를 출력해서 보관하실 수 있습니다). 다 작성된 설문은 연구자인 저만 볼 수 있습니다.

이 연구에 대한 질문사항이 있으시면, 김수영(연구자) 혹은 Peter Kuchinke 교수님께 아래의 이메일이나 전화로 연락해 주십시오. 참여해 주시고 도와 주셔서 대단히 감사 드립니다.
Sooyoung Kim,
Doctoral Student, Researcher
+1-217-766-1430, skim48@illinois.edu

Dr. Peter Kuchinke
Associate Professor, Research Director
kuchinke@illinois.edu

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제1부: 멘티-멘토 쌍 확인하기

설문참여를 부탁드리는 이메일 제목에 귀하의 멘티의 이름을 적었습니다. 멘티에게 준 멘토링 경험을 바탕으로 설문 항목에 답을 해주십시오.

논 문자료 분석시 멘토와 멘티 두분이 한 쌍이라는 정보가 매우 중요합니다. 그래서, 귀하의 멘티가 만든 같은 암호(code)를 여기 입력하시면, 귀하가 멘토임을 확인할 수 있게 됩니다. **이 암호는 귀하께 보낸 이메일에 포함되어 있습니다. 이 암호가 두분이 한 팀임을 구분하는 유일한 정보입니다.**

1. 멘티가 만든 암호(code)를 입력해주십시오.

제 2부: 멘토링 경험 (Part A)

귀하의 멘토링 경험에 관한 다음의 질문에 답해 주십시오. 알맞은 답에 표기 (V) 해 주십시오.

2.   얼마나 자주 귀하의 멘티와 만나셨습니까?

1	전혀 교류가 없었다.
2	실시기간 한 두 번
3	한 달에 한번
4	한 달에 두 번 (2주마다 한번)
5	한 달에 세 번
6	한 달에 네 번 (매주 한번)
7	이삼일에 한번
8	거의 매일
9	하루에도 여러 번

3. 한 평균 몇 시간 귀하의 멘티와 만나셨습니까? (_____)시간

4. 이 멘토링 관계 이외의 다른 멘토링 경험이 있으십니까?

1	2
예	아니오

5. 다른 멘토링 경험이 있었다면, 얼마 동안 멘토링 관계를 지속하셨습니까? (빈칸에 숫자를 넣어주십시오.
(_____년_____개월)

제2부: 멘토링 경험 (Part B)
1. 멘토링 관계 항목
귀사의 멘토링 프로그램에 참여하신 경험을 바탕으로, 다음의 각 항목에 어느 정도 동의 또는 부정하는지 알맞은 숫자에 표기를 해 주십시오. 정답이나 오답은 없습니다.

	1. 전혀 그렇지 않다	2. 그렇지 않다	3. 보통이다	4. 그렇다	5. 매우 그렇다

1. 나와 멘티와의 멘토링 관계는 아주 효과적이었다.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 멘티와 내가 발전시킨 멘토링 관계에 아주 만족스럽다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 나는 멘티와의 멘토링 관계에서 아주 효과적인 멘토의 역할을 했다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 나는 멘티와 양질 (high-quality) 의 관계를 가졌다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 나와 멘티는 멘토링 관계를 통해서 서로 이익을 얻었다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 나는 멘티를 통해서 많은 것을 배웠다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 멘티는 나에게 많은 면에서 새로운 관점을 제시했다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 멘티와 나는 멘토링 관계에서 상호 학습하는 관계였다.	1	2	3	4	5
9. 멘티와 나사이에는 상호간의 배움이 있었다..	1	2	3	4	5
10. 나의 멘티는 나 자신의 직능개발 (professional development) 에 도움이 되는 많은 정보를 나와 공유했다.	1	2	3	4	5

2. 멘토링 기능 항목
멘토링관계에 있던 멘티와의 상호작용을 생각해보시면서, 아래의 항목에 대해 귀하가 어느 정도 동의 또는 부정 하는지 알맞은 답변에 표기해 주십시오.

	1. 전혀 그렇지 않다	2. 그렇지 않다	3. 보통이다	4. 그렇다	5. 매우 그렇다
1. 멘티에게 나의 경력에 대해서 나눈 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 멘티가 더 발전할 수 있도록 준비하라고 격려한 적 이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 새로운 방식으로 직장 업무에 대처할 수 있도록 멘티를 격려한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 멘티는 나의 업무 방식을 따르려고 노력했다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 멘티는 나의 일에 대한 태도와 가치 판단에 대해 동의했다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 멘티는 나를 존중하고 따랐다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 직장 내에서 나와 비슷한 위치에 도달했을 때 멘티는 나처럼 되고 싶고 나를 닮고 싶어 할 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 나는 멘티와의 대화를 잘 경청할 수 있는 능력을 보여준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5

9. 나는 멘티가 스스로의 능력에 대해 느끼는 감정이나 멘티가 더 발전하는 데 필요한 책임 의식, 그리고 직장과 가정의 불화가 있을 때나 동료들이나 상사와 어떤 관계를 맺어야 하는지에 대한, 멘티의 질문과 관심사에 대해서 조언한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
10. 멘티의 문제들을 풀 수 있는 대안으로 나 자신의 개인적인 경험을 제시하며 나눈 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
11. 멘티가 일에 집중하지 못하게 만드는 걱정이나 두려움을 나에게 솔직히 나눌 수 있도록 격려한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
12. 멘티가 나와 상담할 때 멘티가 느끼는 걱정이나 감정들에 대해서 공감한 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
13. 멘티가 나와 상담할 때 멘티가 나눈 감정과 의심하는 부분에 대해서 비밀을 보장해준다.	1	2	3	4	5
14. 멘티를 한 인격체로 존중하는 느낌을 갖게 해준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
15. 멘티의 승진에 위협이 될 만한 불필요한 위험들을 줄여준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
16. 멘티가 업무나 과제를 마무리 하기 힘들었을 때 마감시간 안에 그것을 끝낼 수 있도록 도와준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
17. 멘티가 새로운 동료를 만날 수 있도록 도와준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
18. 멘티가 다른 사람들과 서류상의 또는 개인적인 접촉을 늘릴 수 있도록 멘티에게 과제를 준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
19. 멘티에게 멘티의 미래의 승진 가능성을 평가할 수 있는 부서의 사람들과 접촉 기회를 늘릴 수 있는 업무를 맡긴 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
20. 멘티가 직장에서 경영직으로 준비될 수 있는 과제나 업무를 준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
21. 멘티에게 새로운 실력을 개발할 수 있는 기회를 주는 업무를 준 적이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5

제3부: 개인 성향

1. 개인에 따라 업무 접근 방식에 대한 견해가 각기 다릅니다. 아래의 항목에 대해 당신이 어느 정도 동의 또는 부정 하는지 알맞은 숫자에 표기해 주십시오.

	1. 전혀 그렇지 않다	2. 그렇지 않다	3. 불확실 하다	4. 그렇다	5. 매우 그렇다
1. 도전적인 (challenging) 일을 할 수 있는 기회가 나에게는 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 어려운 업무를 끝내지 못할 때, 다음에 그 일을 할 때 더 열심히 할 계획을 세운다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 나는 새로운 것을 배울 수 있는 업무를 선호한다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 새로운 것을 배울 수 있는 기회가 나에게는 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 나는 꽤 어려운 일을 할 때 최선을 다한다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 나는 이전의 업무성과 (performance)를 개선하기 위해 열심히 노력한다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 나의 능력의 범위를 넓히는 일은 아주 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 문제를 해결하기 힘들 때 그 문제를 해결하기 위해 다양한 시도를 하는 것을 좋아한다.	1	2	3	4	5

2. 다음은 당신이 업무수행능력에 대해 얼마나 자신감을 가지고 있는지에 대한 항목입니다. 각 항목에 어느 정도 동의 또는 부정 하는지 알맞은 숫자에 표기해 주십시오. 이 질문에서 "팀"은 현재 당신에게 업무 보고하는 직원들의 그룹을 의미합니다.

	1. 전혀 자신이 없다	.2. 좀 자신이 없다.	3. 보통이다.	4. 조금 자신이 있다.	5. 매우 자신이 있다.
1. 나는 장차 우리 팀이 가야 할 가장 좋은 방향을 생각해 낼 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 나는 우리 팀의 효율성을 눈에 띄게 향상 시킬 수 있는 가장 중요한 영역을 파악할 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 나는 중요하고 새로운 방향으로 우리 팀을 이끌 변화에 대한 계획을 세울 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 나는 효율성을 눈에 띄게 향상시키기 위해서 우리 팀이 취해야 하는 방향을 읽어낼 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 우리 팀원들이 나와 함께 변화 목표를 받아들일 수 있도록 나는 팀원들과 신뢰 관계를 발전 시킬 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 나는 팀에서 새로운 일을 추진 할 때 팀 직원들의 진심 어린 지지를 얻어낼 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
7. 나는 지속적인 향상을 위해 최선의 노력을 다하도록 우리 팀 직원들에게 동기를 부여하게 하는 관계를 발전시킬 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 나는 팀 직원들이 새로운 목표에 전념할 수 있도록 할 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
9. 변화에 대한 저항이 있을 때, 나는 상황을 개선하는데 협력을 줄 수 있는 사람들로부터 극복 방법을 알 아 낼 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
10. 나는 우리의 변화 노력을 방해하는 어떤 정책이나 절차상의 문제를 우리 팀이 해결할 수 있도록 방법을 알아 낼 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
11. 나는 우리직원들과 함께 일하여 우리 팀의 성장에 방해가 되는 어떤 자원의 한계도 극복 할 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5
12. 나는 우리의 변화 노력을 지지해 줄 수 있는 필요한 회사측 지지자들을 찾을 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5

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제4부. 참여자 정보
**알맞은 숫자에 표기 해 주십시오.

1. 나이:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25세 이하	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	55-60	61세 이상

2. 성별:

1	2
남자	여자

3. 최종학력:

1	2	3	4	5
고졸	2년대 졸업	학사	석사	박사

4. 현재 회사에서의 직책은?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
사원	대리	과장대리	과장	차장대리	차장	부장	이사

***해당사항이 없을 경우, 귀하의 현 직책을 적어주십시오. (   )

5. 얼마 동안 이 직책을 맡아 일하고 계십니까?
(_____년_____개월)

6. 얼마 동안 이 회사에서 일하셨습니까?
(_____년_____개월)

7. 설문참여에 대한 감사의 표시로 만원상당의 해피머니를 이메일로 보내드리려고 합니다. 귀하의 이메일 주소를 입력해주십시오.

Appendix I

Consent Letter for Organizations in Korean

설문 참여 요청 이메일

안녕하세요. 저는 일리노이 주립대학, 인적자원개발과에 재학중인 박사생 김수영입니다.
Kuchinke 교수님 지도하에, 멘토링을 주제로 박사논문을 쓰고 있습니다. 본 연구 결과는
어떻게 멘토링 관계를 통해 회사 직원들이 최대의 혜택을 받을 수 있는가를 이해 하는 데
도움을 주게 될 것 입니다. 연구 결과는 멘토링 연구에 기여할 뿐 만 아니라 기업에 멘토링에
대한 피드백 및 지원방안을 제공할 것입니다.

이 연구를 실시 하기 위해, 멘토링에 참가하고 계신 귀사 직원들에 설문을 실시하고자
합니다. 제가 귀사 직원들에게 설문을 실시할 수 있도록 도와주시겠습니까? 이 요청을
승인하시면, 온라인 설문 웹주소를 이메일로 보내드리겠습니다. 설문은 대략 10분내지 15분이
소요될 것으로 예상됩니다.

도움에 진심으로 감사 드립니다. 승인의 여부는 제게 이메일 (skim48@illinois.edu)로 연락
주십시오. 본 연구에 대한 질문이 있으시면, 언제든지 제 전화 (217.766.1430)나 이메일
(skim48@illinois.edu)로 연락 주십시오.

연락을 기다리겠습니다.

Sooyoung Kim
Doctoral Student, Researcher
Department of Human Resource
Education
University of Illinois at Urbana-
Champaign
Phone (217)766-1430
skim48@illinois.edu

Dr. K.Peter Kuchinke
Associate Professor, Research Director
Department of Human Resource
Education
University of Illinois at Urbana-
Champaign
kuchinke@illinois.edu

Appendix J

Protégé Participation Request Email in Korean

멘티여러분께-

안녕하세요. 저는 일리노이 주립대(University of Illinois), 인력개발 교육 (Human Resource Education) 학과에서 박사과정중인 김수영이라고 합니다. 저는 멘토링에 관한 박사논문을 쓰고 있습니다. 제 논문은 기업에서 시행하고 있는 멘토링에 관한 것입니다.

다름이 아니라 제 박사논문을 위한 설문조사에 참여해주십사 하고 이렇게 이메일을 드립니다. 다음 2-3주간에 걸쳐 약 150쌍의 멘티-멘토로부터 설문결과를 수거하기를 기대하고 있습니다. 그러기 위해서는 여러분의 도움이 절대적으로 필요합니다!
온라인 설문을 대략 10-15분 정도 소요됩니다. 여러분의 응답은 제 논문지도교수 Peter Kuchinke 박사이외 어느 누구와도 (즉, 여러분의 직장동료, 멘토, 그리고 경영진) 공유하지 않을 것입니다.

제 연구에 참여하시기를 원하시면, 다음의 링크를 누르시면, 온라인 설문 (멘티용)웹사이트로 연결 해 줄 것입니다.
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=_2fhyQkl0v90ySNUwaQlfNvw_3d_3d

설문결과 자료는 저만이 볼 수 있습니다. 연구 방법이나 목적에 관한 질문이 있으시면, 저에게 연락해 주십시오. 그리고 설문을 끝내신 분께 만원권 해피머니를 이메일로 보내드립니다.

귀한 시간을 내주시고, 참여해주셔서 미리 감사 드립니다.

김수영 드림

Sooyoung Kim, ABD.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820Champaign, IL61820
skim48@illinois.edu
217.766.1430

Appendix K

Protégé Reminder Email in Korean

안녕하세요.

김영조선임님의 10월29일자 이메일을 통해 소개를 받은 김수영입니다. 저는 일리노이 주립대(University of Illinois), 인력개발 교육 (Human Resource Education) 학과의 박사생으로 멘토링에 관한 박사논문을 쓰고 있습니다.

온라인 설문을 대략 <mark>10-15분 정도 소요</mark>됩니다. 여러분의 응답은 제 논문지도교수 Peter Kuchinke 박사이외 어느 누구와도 (즉, 여러분의 직장동료, 멘토, 그리고 경영진) 공유하지 않을 것입니다.

약 150쌍의 멘티-멘토로부터 설문결과를 수거하기를 기대하고 있습니다. 그러기 위해서는 여러분의 도움이 절대적으로 필요합니다!

여러분 한분 한분의 참여가 제게 매우 소중합니다. 많이 바쁘신줄 알지만 제 설문에 참여해 주시면 대단히 감사 드리겠습니다. 제 연구에 참여하시기를 원하시면 다음의 링크로 눌러 주십시오.

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=_2fhyQkl0v90ySNUwaQlfNvw_3d_3d

논문분석을 위해서는 멘토/멘티 두분의 자료가 모두 필요합니다만, 바쁘신 시간을 내어서 참여하신 분들께 감사의 뜻으로 드리는 것이라 완료하신 모든 분께 드립니다.

 설문결과 자료는 저만이 볼 수 있습니다. 연구 방법이나 목적에 관한 질문이 있으시면, 저에게 연락해 주십시오. 귀한 시간을 내주시고, 참여해주셔서 미리 감사 드립니다. 좋은 한 주 되세요!

 김수영 드림

Sooyoung Kim, ABD.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820Champaign, IL61820
skim48@illinois.edu

Appendix L

Mentor Participation Request Email In Korean

안녕하세요. 저는 미국 일리노이 주립대(University of Illinois), 인력개발 교육 (Human Resource Education)과에서 박사과정을 밟고 있는 김수영이라고 합니다. 저는 멘토링에 관한 박사논문을 쓰고 있습니다.

다름이 아니라 여러분께 제 박사논문을 위한 설문조사에 참여해주십사 하고 이메일을 드립니다. 귀하의 멘티께서 설문에 참여하셨고, 귀하가 멘토임을 밝혀 주었습니다. 150쌍의 멘티-멘토로부터 설문결과를 수거하기를 기대하고 있습니다. 그러기 위해서는 여러분의 도움이 절대적으로 필요합니다!

참여방법은 간단합니다. 10-15분 정도 소요되는 온라인 설문에 참여하시면 됩니다. 설문 두번째 페이지에 귀하의 멘티가 만든 다음의 암호 (code)를 입력하셔야 합니다.
<귀하의 멘티가 만든 코드>

이 암호(코드)는 귀하의 멘티가 만들었고, 멘티와 멘토 한 쌍의 응답을 결부시키기 위해 쓰일 것입니다. 이 암호가 멘티-멘토 쌍을 연결시키는 유일한 정보입니다. 제 논문이 멘티-멘토 쌍의 응답에 관심이 있기 때문에, 귀하가 참여하지 않으시면, 귀하의 멘티의 설문자료를 이용할 수 없게 됩니다.

제 논문연구에 참여하시기를 원하시면, 다음의 링크를 눌러주십시오. 그 링크가 여러분을 온라인 설문웹사이트로 안내할 것입니다.
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=_2f_2bS_2f5zWT1tcPJC5tXCFbxg_3d_3d

설문을 완료해주신 분께 감사의 뜻으로 만원권의 해피머니를 이메일로 보내드립니다.

연구방법이나 목적에 관한 다른 질문이 있으시면, 언제든지 제게 연락을 주십시오.

귀한 시간을 내주시고, 참여해주셔서 미리 감사 드립니다.

김수영드림

Sooyoung Kim, ABD.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820
skim48@illinois.edu
217.766.1430

Appendix M

Mentor Reminder Email in Korean

안녕하세요!

지난주 저의 박사논문에 관한 이메일을 보낸 일리노이 주립대 박사생 김수영입니다. 이미 온라인 설문에 참여 하신 분께는 감사 드립니다. 앞으로 2주 동안 설문을 실시하고자 하니, 참여를 부탁 드립니다. 아시다시피 본 연구는 일터에서의 멘토링 관계에 관한 연구이며 대략 10-15분 정도 소요됩니다.

특히 귀하의 멘티가 귀하을 멘토로 지목해 주셔서 이렇게 연락을 드립니다.

참여방법은 간단 합니다. 먼저 설문 첫페이지에 다음의 코드를 입력해 주십시오.
<귀하의 멘티가 만든 코드>

이 코드는 귀하의 멘티에 의해 만들어 졌고 멘티와 멘티 쌍의 답변을 결부시키는 용도로만 사용 되어질 것입니다. 본 연구는 멘토와 멘티 쌍에 관심사가 있어서, 귀하가 참여 하시지 않으면, 제가 귀하의 멘티의 자료를 제 연구에 쓸 수가 없어질 것입니다.

제 연구에 관심이 있으시면, 다음의 링크로 가서서 설문에 참여해 주십시오.
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=A0GH8fCOS6GHYrDJIZDmEg_3d_3d

본 연구의 목적이나 방법에 관한 질문이 있으시면, 제게 언제든지 연락을 주십시오.

귀한 시간을 내어 참여해 주심을 미리 감사 드립니다.

김수영드림

Sooyoung Kim, ABD.
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
351 Education Building, 1310 S. 6th Street
Champaign, IL 61820
skim48@illinois.edu
217.766.1430