

## Developmental relationships and managerial promotability in organizations: A multisource study

William A. Gentry<sup>a,\*</sup>, John J. Sosik<sup>b,1</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, North Carolina, USA

<sup>b</sup> Department of Management, School of Graduate Professional Studies at Great Valley, The Pennsylvania State University, Malvern, PA, USA

### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 1 February 2010

Available online 2 May 2010

#### Keywords:

Career-related managerial mentoring

Developmental relationships

Promotability

Self–other rating agreement

### ABSTRACT

Managers are now focusing on developmental relationships by providing career-related mentoring to their direct reports, but research is lacking in showing whether such mentoring is in fact related to outcomes that benefit the manager. This study investigates whether self- and direct report ratings of the extent to which focal-managers provide career-related mentoring are associated with perceptions of their promotability as perceived by their bosses ( $n = 1623$ ) and peers ( $n = 1597$ ). Results of hierarchical regression indicated that both self- and direct report ratings of focal-managers' career-related mentoring were significant and positively related to boss and peer ratings of focal-managers' promotability. Within a self–other rating agreement framework, results of polynomial regression indicated that higher ratings of career-related mentoring by focal-managers and their direct reports were positively related to both boss and peer ratings of focal-managers' promotability. Furthermore, underrating (i.e., when self-ratings are lower than direct report ratings) was more positively related to promotability than overrating (i.e., when self-ratings are higher than direct report ratings).

© 2010 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Decades of past research have shown what managers need to do to be successful regarding their roles and activities (e.g., Kotter, 1982; Mintzberg, 1973), or task and relationship behaviors (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Managers in modern organizations however may require different roles and behaviors to be successful. The managerial roles of coach, teacher, or mentor are becoming increasingly popular and important to organizations (Senge, 1990) and managers who practice these roles in developmental relationships with others, particularly their direct reports, may be extremely valuable (Bass, 2008; Murrell, Crosby, & Ely, 1999). Managers may be encouraged to actively pursue and participate in developmental relationships with their direct reports (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003; Richard, Ismail, Bhuiyan, & Taylor, 2008; Sosik & Jung, 2010). Indeed, the conventional, control-oriented, authority-based hierarchy that once dominated the manager-direct report relationship is not espoused as much in contemporary organizations as are managers who engage in career-development behaviors with their employees (Agarwal, Angst, & Magni, 2009).

The importance of managers involved in developmental relationships with their direct reports has its roots and theoretical basis in the transformational leadership and mentoring literatures. For instance, transformational leaders assume the role of mentor when they display individualized consideration behaviors aimed to developing followers' full potential (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 2008; Sosik, Godshalk, & Yammarino, 2004). Bass (1985) proposed individualized consideration as a component of transformational leadership and he identified mentoring as an important aspect and behavioral component of individualized consideration. He described individualized consideration as a type of mentoring relationship where a "senior executive or professional takes time to serve as individual counselor for the junior executive or professional" (p. 90) and defined the boundaries

\* Corresponding author. Center for Creative Leadership, One Leadership Place, Post Office Box 26300, Greensboro, North Carolina, 27438-6300, USA. Fax: +1 336 286 4434.

E-mail address: [gentryb@ccl.org](mailto:gentryb@ccl.org) (W.A. Gentry).

<sup>1</sup> The order of the authors is alphabetical. The authors contributed equally to this manuscript.

of such a relationship including supervisory and non-supervisory relationships, objectives of mentoring, benefits to those giving and receiving mentoring, and the conditions (including supervisory relationships) that promote mentoring. Subsequent research (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2007; Sosik et al., 2004) has also adopted this perspective. Indeed, transformational leaders in managerial roles may need to participate in such developmental relationships to encourage positive work attitudes and career expectations of their direct reports (Scandura & Williams, 2004).

Similarly, recent views from the mentoring literature have stressed the important benefits of mentoring, mainly to the person being mentored (Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008). Fewer studies however have explicitly studied the career benefits of mentoring for the person providing mentoring (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007). Studies examining the specific promotability benefits for managers participating in developmental relationships with their own direct reports by providing career-related mentoring behaviors (e.g., providing challenging assignments, coaching, exposure, protection, and sponsorship) are even more uncommon.

Set within the context of the process model of Wanberg, Welsh, and Hezlett (2003) that examines outcomes of providing mentoring to others, the current study attempts to extend previous managerial research. This study will therefore examine whether managers participating in developmental relationships with their direct reports through displays of career-related mentoring behaviors from the self- and direct report perspective are seen as promotable from both the boss and peer perspective.

The current study is important for at least two reasons. First, many managers are focused on their own career development, upward mobility, advancement, and promotion opportunities. To that end, the need to specifically examine what is related to promotability evaluations is of great consequence to researchers, managers, and human resource management practices in organizations (De Pater, Van Vianen, Bechtoldt, & Klehe, 2009). Second, the field has yet to fully take into account a study of developmental relationships, specifically career-related mentoring and its outcomes from multiple rater perspectives. Such a multisource study mirrors the multirater context of today's workplace and can advance the theoretical reasons for how and why mentoring relates to certain outcomes. Using multiple ratings of behavior and performance is essential to the 360 feedback process, which is a standard practice for manager and executive development in contemporary organizations (Hollenbeck, 2009). Consistent with research on self-other rating agreement (e.g., Atwater, Waldman, Ostroff, Robie, & Johnson, 2005; Atwater and Yammarino, 1997; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997), outcomes from the developmental relationship between a manager and his/her direct reports may in fact be contingent upon how well both parties believe the manager is providing such career-related mentoring.

## Theoretical background and hypothesis development

The process model of Wanberg et al. (2003) provided the theoretical framework for the present study. Though the model's focus is primarily on formal mentoring processes (where an older, more established mentor works formally with a younger, lesser-experienced protégé), Wanberg and colleagues do suggest that the model could also be used for informal mentoring relationships as well. It is evident that the study and conceptualization of mentoring is much broader than the traditional, formal mentoring relationship (Higgins & Kram, 2001) and studies falling outside the formal mentoring relationship are needed. We acknowledge that the term mentoring in our study is used not in the traditional sense as a formal relationship between mentor and protégé, but rather as part of a developmental relationship between a manager and his/her direct report. Mentoring can be the basis of any developmental relationship and such a relationship can encourage growth and development and have positive outcomes for both the one receiving and the one giving mentoring (Ragins & Verbos, 2007).

The Wanberg et al. (2003) model proposes that participant and relationship antecedents influence the frequency, scope and strength of mentoring received, which subsequently influences proximal and distal outcomes of mentoring. Mentoring typically involves two functions: career and psychosocial. The present research focuses specifically on career-related mentoring, typically defined as functions that aid in career advancement of the protégé, such as providing challenging assignments, coaching, exposure, protection, and sponsorship (Kram, 1985). It also examines the proximal outcome of promotability of the manager providing career-related mentoring to his/her direct reports. Examining the relationship between career-related mentoring specifically and perceptions of promotability is especially pertinent as prior research suggests that career-related mentoring may be more relevant in predicting promotions than psychosocial functions (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991).

Wanberg et al. (2003) developed propositions to answer several research questions including outcomes for the person giving and receiving career-related mentoring behaviors. They propose that mentoring is a way to advance the career success of a protégé as demonstrated through both proximal outcomes (e.g., cognitive and affective learning) and distal outcomes (e.g., promotions, and satisfaction in job, career, and life domains). In addition, they propose organizational outcomes that come about because of mentoring, such as increased organizational commitment, retention, performance, and perceived justice. In Wanberg et al.'s conceptual process model, the outcomes for the mentor are not as clearly defined as they are for the protégé. A meta-analysis (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004) corroborated the fact that most mentoring studies have examined the outcomes of mentoring for the protégé and not the mentor. Wanberg et al. therefore suggested a research priority: examine the outcomes of the one providing mentoring, particularly work-related outcomes such as job performance or promotions. The current study takes this call and examines whether managers who display career-related mentoring behaviors are seen as promotable.

### *Career-related mentoring and promotability*

Theoretically, those providing mentoring should in fact benefit. Through engaging in mentoring behaviors and activities, people can gain esteem among peers and even their own managers, obtain higher job satisfaction and motivation, and feel more

satisfied and rejuvenated (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Smith, 1990). More specifically, early work by Levinson et al. pointed out that people gain specific knowledge and skills that would only come about through mentoring. Kram (1985) believed mentors gain a sense of internal satisfaction that only comes about through mentoring. Interviews suggest the benefits people receive from mentoring, such as career enhancement, increased information flow, enhanced social support and networks, increased intrinsic satisfaction and increased recognition (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Kram, 1985). Other studies have empirically examined the outcomes of mentoring for the mentor. Mentoring positively affected a mentor's career satisfaction (Johnson, Yust, & Fritchie, 2001), and mentors had higher self-reported career success, job attitudes, satisfaction, and incomes (Collins, 1994; Lentz & Allen, 2009). Mentoring was also found to be positively related to the mentor's objective and subjective career success (Allen, Lentz, & Day, 2006; Bozionelos, 2004).

Some have theorized how and why mentoring can lead to increased or enhanced career outcomes specifically for the person providing mentoring. Ramaswami and Dreher (2007) recently proposed a model that connects mentoring to career outcomes of the mentor through such functions as human capital, social/political capital, signaling, or optimal resource usage. For instance, those who perform certain career-related mentoring functions such as providing challenging assignments to protégés enable the mentor to gain new perspectives and information given from the protégé, eventually leading to enhancement of the mentor's own career attainment such as promotability (human capital). Similarly, providing career-related mentoring functions may compel the protégé to "pay back" the mentor with information and feedback that inevitably enhance the mentor's career attainment outcomes (social/political capital). Also, providing career-related mentoring behaviors will first increase the protégé's performance and success, which would then positively enhance coworkers' perceptions of the mentor's credibility, power base and ability to cultivate talent, which subsequently leads to increased recognition, performance, and career attainment such as promotability for the mentor (signaling). Finally, mentors who provide challenging assignments to protégés reduce their own work load, stress, and mental energy, which then enable them to take on other tasks or projects, increasing their output, which in turn enhances their own career benefits such as increased perceptions of promotability (optimal resource usage).

In the same way that mentors may be seen as promotable by providing career-related mentoring functions, we expect that managers who provide career-related mentoring behaviors to direct reports will be seen as promotable from the perspective of their boss and peers. Though the perspective of one's boss is the most common and reliable way to measure an outcome (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995; Viswesvaran, Ones, & Schmidt, 1996), it is necessary to account for the perspectives of coworkers such as peers with regards to promotability. Different coworker perspectives provide alternative, distinct, and meaningful information about a person (Lance, Hoffman, Gentry, & Baranik, 2008). In addition, the work context also necessitates taking the perspective of peers into account. Managers frequently work more directly or work in different situations with their peers than they do with their boss. Therefore, peers may provide a different and unique perspective on a manager's promotability vis-à-vis boss ratings. Thus:

**Hypothesis 1.** Self-ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors will be positively related to (a) boss and (b) peer ratings of promotability.

Several researchers (Allen, 2007; Allen, Eby, O'Brien, & Lentz, 2008; Wanberg et al., 2003) have criticized past research that only considers the self-perspective in terms of providing mentoring. If one were to only use self-ratings, the threat exists of inflated, biased, or unreliable measurement and prediction (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In addition to self-reports, examining the extent to which a manager displays career-related mentoring from his/her direct reports' perspective will also be important to examine, particularly when one realizes that the most meaningful and robust data in terms of managerial behavior is in fact from observer perspectives such as direct reports (Ashford, 1989; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Bass, 2008). Direct reports may give a more valid, less-biased assessment of a manager's behaviors. Thus:

**Hypothesis 2.** Direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors will be positively related to (a) boss and (b) peer ratings of promotability.

#### *Self-other rating agreement*

The first two hypotheses attempt to extend previous research by taking into account ratings from both parties of the developmental relationship separately as they each relate to boss and peer ratings of a manager's promotability. However, accounting for both perspectives simultaneously as they relate to promotability outcomes can also extend theory and research. The majority of prior developmental relationships and mentoring research has not adequately used data from both manager and direct report in tandem. Exceptions include studies examining mentor-protégé rating agreement focusing on the amount of mentoring received by protégés (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2004; Sosik et al., 2004), but these studies do not consider how displays of career-related mentoring behaviors may influence career outcomes of the manager providing such behaviors.

The degree of agreement between self- and other ratings of mentoring behaviors is expected to be related to the perceptions of the manager's promotability as portrayed by Atwater and Yammarino's (1997) process model. In short, Atwater and Yammarino propose that self-other rating comparisons on some behavior (e.g., career-related mentoring behaviors) would be related to outcomes (e.g., promotability perceptions). In general, in-agreement ratings that the manager is "good" (i.e., self-ratings are similarly high to other ratings) should be related to higher outcomes than self-other ratings that lack agreement (Ostroff, Atwater, & Feinberg, 2004). Furthermore, when self-other ratings do in fact lack agreement, overraters (i.e., individuals whose self-ratings are higher than other ratings) tend to be associated with lower outcomes than underraters (i.e., individuals whose self-ratings are

lower than other ratings) (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998). Though recent studies have supported the Atwater and Yammarino (1997) process model (e.g., Atwater et al., 2005; Gentry, Hannum, Ekelund, & de Jong, 2007), these were not in the developmental relationship and mentoring domain, and in particular, did not focus on career outcomes for the person providing mentoring.

This study extends research by implementing Atwater and Yammarino's (1997) process model of self–other rating agreement into the developmental relationships literature. Consistent with prior self–other rating agreement research, when both self- and direct report ratings are high, perceptions of promotability of the manager should be high; when both self- and direct report ratings are low, perceptions of promotability of the manager should be low. Previous research shows that self- and other ratings that are high and in agreement are related to higher outcomes such as performance or promotions than self–other ratings that lack agreement (Atwater & Yammarino, 1997; Church, 1997; Walker & Smither, 1999). High self–other ratings that are in agreement are symbolic of developmental relationships which should yield highly positive outcomes (Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Those whose self-ratings are similar to ratings from others are said to be self-aware, a key aspect of success in developmental and mentoring relationships (Boyatzis, 2007). Effective mentors are known to be self-aware (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1997). In-agreement mentor–protégé dyads have positive outcomes and higher levels of mentoring relationship effectiveness (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000). Those with in-agreement high ratings are seen as successful, described as strong performers, have positive attitudes about their job, use feedback constructively, and provide consideration for others (Sosik & Godshalk, 2004). Such qualities of managers would allow their direct reports to pursue their own career-development activities (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Scandura & Schriesheim 1994) which theoretically should enhance perceptions of the manager's promotability (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007).

When incongruous ratings are evident, underrating is generally more related to higher outcomes than overrating (Atwater et al., 1998; Sosik, 2001). Some believe that managers who are overraters feel indifferent towards the well-being and general feelings of others, sometimes even acting with anger, resentment or intimidation, and would therefore not be readily available to provide sufficient career-related mentoring support or development to their direct reports (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2004). Such behaviors may lead direct reports to feel their manager does not care for them, and may therefore feel indifferent or even fearful of providing necessary feedback and information, or would not feel obliged to help the manager with his/her work which theoretically is needed to enhance the promotability of managers (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007).

In contrast to overraters, underraters tend to be linked with higher levels of mentoring effectiveness and career-related development (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000). They also are associated with high levels of trust as rated by their direct reports (Sosik, 2001). Underrating managers may be more humble in their self-perceptions which could help in maintaining positive interpersonal relationships with others including their direct reports. Such positive interpersonal relationships may stimulate direct reports to help their underrating managers by giving them feedback and advice to help their manager understand better who he/she is, by providing other pieces of information from the organization, or by helping the manager out with work which theoretically is needed to enhance the manager's promotability (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007). Following this line of reasoning, the following hypotheses are tested to determine the nature of the relationship between self-direct report rating agreement of career-related mentoring behaviors and boss and peer promotability perceptions of focal-managers.

**Hypothesis 3.** The pattern of relationships between self–other ratings of career-related mentoring and boss ratings of focal-managers' promotability will be such that (a) agreement at higher ratings of career-related mentoring will be positively related to promotability and (b) underrating will be more positively related to promotability than overrating.

**Hypothesis 4.** The pattern of relationships between self–other ratings of career-related mentoring and peer ratings of focal-managers' promotability will be such that (a) agreement at higher ratings of career-related mentoring will be positively related to promotability and (b) underrating will be more positively related to promotability than overrating.

## Method

### *Participants and procedure*

The sample for this study came from multisource data of 1623 practicing American managers from more than 250 different companies collected in 2008. Participants came from a variety of industries, with 56.75% coming from the business sector (e.g., finance, health, manufacturing, transportation, and retail), 11.71% from the private nonprofit sector (e.g., education and human services), and 31.24% from the public sector (e.g., education, government, and military). These managers ranged in age from 24 to 67 ( $M=44.79$ ,  $SD=8.11$ ), were 64.6% male, 88.2% white, educated (87.4% had at least a Bachelor's degree), and averaged 4.53 years on their current job and 12.08 years in their current organization. Furthermore, participants were from various organizational levels (4.1% first level managers, 25.3% middle level managers, 38.8% upper middle level managers, 27.5% executive level, and 4.4% top level managers such as CEO).

Focal-managers asked their coworkers (e.g., boss, peers, and direct reports) to fill out a multisource developmental feedback instrument called BENCHMARKS®<sup>2</sup> (Lombardo & McCauley, 1994; McCauley & Lombardo, 1990). Participants completed the instrument as an assessment for development tool as part of their own developmental process. The data for this study only

<sup>2</sup> BENCHMARKS® is a registered trademark of the Center for Creative Leadership.



included those in which BENCHMARKS was sold as a product (e.g., an HR person from an organization buying the instrument and giving it to one of his/her own people, or an external consultant buying it to give to one of his/her clients). For inclusion, this study only used complete (i.e., non-missing) data from focal-managers that had at least two direct reports rate them on career-related mentoring behaviors, and only one boss and at least one peer rate them on promotability.

## Measures

### Career-related mentoring behaviors

From the multisource instrument, six items (cf. Gentry, Weber, & Sadri, 2008) were used to measure a global rating of career-related mentoring behaviors. We accumulated ratings from the focal-managers and their direct reports on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *to a very great extent*. Example items include “Actively promotes his/her direct reports to senior management” and “Sets a challenging climate to encourage individual growth.” Cronbach's alpha = .79 for self-ratings and .91 for direct report ratings. Self-report data was given back to each focal-manager. Data from direct reports (range of raters 2–19,  $M = 3.70$ ,  $SD = 1.73$ ) were anonymous and provided to focal-managers in aggregate. Direct report ratings were averaged across the six items and then aggregated across raters for each focal-manager. To justify aggregation,  $ICC(1) = .23$  ( $F = 2.12$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and  $ICC(2) = .53$ ; these are acceptable based on guidelines using multisource data (Greguras & Robie, 1998; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1991) and were similar to those from published studies using similar multisource data (e.g., Atwater et al., 1998). In addition, we calculated  $r_{wg(j)}$  (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The mean and median  $r_{wg(j)}$  were both greater than .80; a minimum value of .70 generally indicates sufficient interrater agreement to combine individual ratings into a mean (James, 1988). Taken together, the  $ICC(1)$ ,  $ICC(2)$  and  $r_{wg(j)}$  values indicate the acceptability to aggregate direct report ratings for each focal-manager.

### Promotability

Information for the outcome measure was obtained from both the boss and peers of focal-managers. One of the sections in the multisource instrument instructed respondents to rate the focal-manager on a 5-point scale (1 = *Among the worst* to 5 = *Among the best*) on how effectively he/she would handle each of the following: (a) being promoted into a familiar line of business; (b) being promoted in the same function or division (moving a level up); and (c) being promoted two or more levels. All respondents were notified that these questions were for research purposes only and that no information would be given to the focal-manager for these questions.

For boss ratings, each focal-manager received ratings from only one boss, and therefore the three promotability items were averaged together (Cronbach's alpha = .89). Of the 1623 focal-managers, 1597 had at least one peer rate them on promotability (Cronbach's alpha = .90). Similarly, items were averaged together for each rater, and for focal-managers with more than one peer, ratings across their peers were aggregated. Of those 1597 focal-managers, 1549 had at least two peers rate them (range 2 to 16,  $M = 3.93$ ,  $SD = 1.59$ ). For these managers, we calculated  $ICC(1)$ ,  $ICC(2)$  and  $r_{wg(j)}$ .  $ICC(1) = .30$  ( $F = 2.95$ ,  $p < .001$ ),  $ICC(2) = .63$  and mean and median  $r_{wg(j)}$  were found to be above .80, which are all considered statistically justifiable for aggregating the peer ratings of promotability for each focal-manager.

### Data analysis

We used several analyses to test the hypotheses. For Hypotheses 1a,b and 2a,b, we used hierarchical regression with control variables entered first into the regression equation. Gender (coded 0 = Male, 1 = Female) was a control variable because previous research (Lyness & Heilman, 2006) showed that gender may bias outcome ratings. We controlled for race (0 = Caucasian, 1 = Non-Caucasian) because previous research (Roth, Huffcutt, & Bobko, 2003) has shown that Caucasians may receive higher outcome ratings than non-Caucasians. We controlled for the human capital measures of education (0 = High School, 1 = Associates, 2 = Bachelors, 3 = Masters, 4 = Doctorate/Professional), number of years in current job and number of years in current organization (both continuous variables) because past research (e.g., Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995) suggests that these variables may affect outcomes in studies of upward mobility or promotability. We controlled for age because previous research has revealed an inverse relationship between age and promotability (Cox & Nkomo, 1992) and promotability may decrease with age (Lawrence, 1984). Finally, with participants from a variety of companies, we also controlled for managerial level (coded 0 = First Level, 1 = Middle Level, 2 = Upper Middle Level, 3 = Executive, 4 = Top), and organizational sector (0 = Public, 1 = Private).

Polynomial regression procedures (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993) were used to test Hypotheses 3a, b, 4a, and b. In a hierarchical manner, each outcome variable was regressed on self-ratings, direct report ratings, the square of self-ratings, the product of self- and direct report ratings, and the square of direct report ratings. Features of the resulting response surface graph were used to interpret results.

According to polynomial regression procedures, the slope of the line of perfect agreement (Self = Direct Report, or  $S = DR$ ) is determined by  $a_1 = b_1 + b_2$ , where  $b_1$  is the regression coefficient for self-ratings and  $b_2$  is the regression coefficient for direct report ratings. The curve along the  $S = DR$  line is indicated by  $a_2 = b_3 + b_4 + b_5$ , where  $b_3$  is the regression coefficient for self-ratings squared,  $b_4$  is the regression coefficient for the cross product of self and direct report ratings, and  $b_5$  is the regression coefficient for direct report ratings squared. If  $a_1$  differs significantly from zero and  $a_2$  does not, there is a linear slope along the line of perfect agreement. A negative value for  $a_2$  indicates a concave surface along the line of perfect agreement, while a positive value indicates a convex surface. Overrating and underrating effects were inspected via the  $S = -DR$  line (i.e., perpendicular to the line of

**Table 1**  
Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among study variables ( $n = 1623$  managers).

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender <sup>a</sup>	.35	.48	–											
2. Level <sup>b</sup>	2.03	.93	–.05	–										
3. Age	44.79	8.11	–.02	.15	–									
4. Race <sup>c</sup>	.12	.32	.08	–.06	–.02	–								
5. Degree <sup>d</sup>	2.30	.99	.07	.17	.03	–.03	–							
6. Sector <sup>e</sup>	.64	.48	–.19	.14	–.14	–.11	–.15	–						
7. Organization Tenure	12.08	8.69	.00	–.04	.38	–.01	–.09	–.25	–					
8. Job Tenure	4.53	5.00	.02	–.03	.23	.01	–.03	–.10	.30	–				
9. Self-ratings mentoring	3.86	.49	.04	.09	.09	.08	.00	–.05	–.02	–.01	–			
10. DR ratings mentoring	3.98	.54	.07	.00	–.04	.08	.09	–.13	–.03	–.01	.21	–		
11. Boss ratings promotability	3.70	.87	.06	.10	–.13	–.02	.13	–.19	–.01	–.07	.07	.22	–	
12. Peer ratings promotability	3.74	.64	–.09	.05	–.04	–.01	.17	–.28	.10	.01	.09	.31	.44	–

Note. DR = direct report.

$|r| > .05$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $|r| > .06$ ,  $p < .01$ .

<sup>a</sup> 0 = Male, 1 = Female.

<sup>b</sup> 0 = First Level, 1 = Middle Level, 2 = Upper Middle Level, 3 = Executive, 4 = Top.

<sup>c</sup> 0 = Caucasian, Non-Caucasian = 1.

<sup>d</sup> 0 = High School, 1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctorate/professional.

<sup>e</sup> 0 = Public, 1 = Private.

perfect agreement). For these effects, one examines  $a_3 = b_1 - b_2$  and  $a_4 = b_3 - b_4 + b_5$ . If  $a_3$  differs significantly from zero and  $a_4$  does not, there is a linear slope along the  $S = -DR$  line. A curve along the  $S = -DR$  line is indicated by  $a_4$  where a negative value indicates a concave surface along the line of complete disagreement and a positive value indicates a convex surface (Edwards, 1994).

## Results

Table 1 depicts the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among the variables under investigation. Table 1 shows significant, positive bivariate relationships between self-ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors and boss and peer ratings of promotability perceptions, and between direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors and boss and peer ratings of promotability perceptions. However, direct report ratings were more highly correlated with both outcome measures than were self-ratings to the outcome variables.

**Table 2**  
Regression results for self-ratings predicting promotability.

Predictors	Boss rating		Peer rating	
	Step 1b	Step 2b	Step 1b	Step 2b
Constant	4.40**	3.95**	4.03**	3.63**
Control variables				
Gender <sup>a</sup>	.05	.04	.05	.04
Level <sup>b</sup>	.13**	.13**	.06**	.06**
Age	–.02**	–.02**	–.01**	–.01**
Race <sup>c</sup>	–.10	–.11	–.07	–.08
Degree <sup>d</sup>	.07**	.07**	.08**	.08**
Sector <sup>e</sup>	–.39**	–.38**	–.35**	–.34**
Organization tenure	.00	.00	.01**	.01**
Job tenure	–.01	–.01	.00	.00
Mentoring		.12**		.11**
$\Delta R^2$	.09	.01	.12	.01
$\Delta F$	20.39**	8.52**	26.75**	12.85**
<i>df</i>	8, 1614	1, 1613	8, 1588	1, 1587
$R^2$	.09	.10	.12	.13
Adjusted $R^2$	.09	.09	.19	.19
Overall <i>F</i>	20.39**	19.15**	26.75**	25.38**
<i>df</i>	8, 1614	9, 1613	8, 1588	9, 1587

Note.

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

<sup>a</sup> 0 = Male, 1 = Female.

<sup>b</sup> 0 = First Level, 1 = Middle Level, 2 = Upper Middle Level, 3 = Executive, 4 = Top.

<sup>c</sup> 0 = Caucasian, Non-Caucasian = 1.

<sup>d</sup> 0 = High School, 1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctorate/professional.

<sup>e</sup> 0 = Public, 1 = Private.

### Self-ratings and promotability

All analyses were based on two-tailed tests, using the .05 significance level. Results of the hierarchical regression for **Hypothesis 1a** and **b** are found in **Table 2**. Self-ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors were positively related to boss ratings of promotability perceptions, accounting for a statistically significant amount of incremental variance over the control variables ( $\Delta R^2 = .01, p < .01$ ), supporting **Hypothesis 1a**. Self-ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors were also positively related to peer ratings of promotability perceptions, accounting for a statistically significant amount of incremental variance for peer rated promotability ( $\Delta R^2 = .01, p < .01$ ), supporting **Hypothesis 1b**.

### Direct report ratings and promotability

Results of **Hypothesis 2a** and **b** are found in **Table 3**. Direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors accounted for a statistically significant amount of incremental variance over the control variables and were positively related to boss ratings of promotability perceptions ( $\Delta R^2 = .04, p < .01$ ), supporting **Hypothesis 2a** and peer ratings of promotability perceptions ( $\Delta R^2 = .07, p < .01$ ) supporting **Hypothesis 2b**.

### Self-direct report rating agreement

**Hypotheses 3a, b, 4a, and b** examine how both self- and direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors act together as predictors of boss (**Hypothesis 3a** and **b**) and peer (**Hypothesis 4a** and **b**) ratings of promotability perceptions via polynomial regression procedures with response surface testing. Variables were centered around the scale midpoint before entry into the analysis (Edwards, 1994). **Table 4** summarizes the results of polynomial regressions testing. The surface  $a_1$  is positive and statistically significant and  $a_2$  is not, meaning that there is a positive slope along the line of agreement, and that boss ratings of promotability perceptions of the focal-manager are higher as both self- and direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors are higher. The opposite is also true; boss ratings of promotability perceptions of focal-managers are lower as both self- and direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors are lower. This pattern of results supports **Hypothesis 3a**. Examining  $a_3$  and  $a_4$ ,  $a_3$  is negative and statistically significant, meaning there is a negative slope along the line of disagreement, and there are higher boss ratings of the perceptions of promotability of focal-managers as direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors are greater than self-ratings, and vice versa. Stated differently, underrating (i.e., when self-ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors are lower than direct report ratings) is related to higher boss ratings of promotability perceptions of focal-managers than overrating (i.e., when self-ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors are higher than direct report ratings). This pattern of results supports **Hypothesis 3b**.

**Table 3**  
Regression results for direct report ratings predicting promotability.

Predictors	Boss rating		Peer rating	
	Step 1b	Step 2b	Step 1b	Step 2b
Constant	4.40**	3.18**	4.03**	2.78**
Control variables				
Gender <sup>a</sup>	.05	.03	.05	.03
Level <sup>b</sup>	.13**	.13**	.06**	.06**
Age	-.02**	-.02**	-.01**	-.01**
Race <sup>c</sup>	-.10	-.13*	-.07	-.10*
Degree <sup>d</sup>	.07**	.05*	.08**	.07**
Sector <sup>e</sup>	-.39**	-.35**	-.35**	-.31**
Organization tenure	.00	.00	.01**	.01**
Job tenure	-.01	-.01	.00	.00
Mentoring		.30**		.31**
$\Delta R^2$	.09	.04	.12	.07
$\Delta F$	20.39**	62.23**	26.75**	128.10**
<i>df</i>	8, 1614	1, 1613	8, 1588	1, 1587
$R^2$	.09	.13	.12	.19
Adjusted $R^2$	.09	.12	.19	.19
Overall $F$	20.39**	25.72**	26.75**	39.91**
<i>df</i>	8, 1614	9, 1613	8, 1588	9, 1587

Note.

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

<sup>a</sup> 0 = Male, 1 = Female.

<sup>b</sup> Coded 0 = First Level, 1 = Middle Level, 2 = Upper Middle Level, 3 = Executive, 4 = Top.

<sup>c</sup> 0 = Caucasian, Non-Caucasian = 1.

<sup>d</sup> 0 = High School, 1 = Associate's, 2 = Bachelor's, 3 = Master's, 4 = Doctorate/professional.

<sup>e</sup> 0 = Public, 1 = Private.

**Table 4**  
Response surface tests for self- and direct report ratings of career-related mentoring.

Variable	Boss rating promotability		Peer rating promotability	
	b (SE)		b (SE)	
Constant	3.34	(.08)**	3.35	(.06)**
Self	0.03	(.13)*	0.09	(.10)
Direct report	0.38	(.09)**	0.37	(.07)**
Self squared	−0.02	(.06)	−0.03	(.05)
Self X direct report	0.06	(.08)	0.00	(.06)
Direct report squared	−0.06	(.05)	−0.01	(.03)
Surface tests				
$a_1$	.41**		.46**	
$a_2$	−.02		−.04	
$a_3$	−.35**		−.28**	
$a_4$	−.04		−.05	

Note.  $a_1 = b_1 + b_2$  where  $b_1$  is beta coefficient for self-ratings and  $b_2$  is beta coefficient for direct report ratings.  $a_2 = b_3 + b_4 + b_5$  where  $b_3$  is beta coefficient for self-ratings squared,  $b_4$  is beta coefficient for cross product of self- and direct report ratings, and  $b_5$  is beta coefficient for direct report ratings squared.  $a_3 = (b_1 - b_2)$ ;  $a_4 = (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$ .  
\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .

Results are shown graphically in Fig. 1. Managers who have low, in-agreement career-related mentoring behaviors have lower promotability perceptions ratings (see front left part of graph where  $X = -2$  and  $Y = -2$ ) than managers who have high, in-agreement career-related mentoring behaviors (cf., the far back of the graph, where  $X = +2$  and  $Y = +2$ ). Also, managers who overrate themselves (see the bottom-right part of the graph) have lower promotability perception ratings than managers who underrate themselves (cf., the top-left part of the graph).

Table 4 also summarizes the results of polynomial regression testing of Hypothesis 4a and b. Essentially, results were similar to Hypothesis 3. Examining  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ , peer ratings of promotability perceptions of focal-managers are higher (or lower) as both self- and direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behaviors are higher (or lower) supporting Hypothesis 4a. In addition, examining  $a_3$  and  $a_4$ , underrating of career-related mentoring behaviors is related to higher peer ratings of the perceptions of promotability of focal-managers than overrating, supporting Hypothesis 4b. Results are shown graphically in Fig. 2. The same interpretation from Fig. 1 also holds true for Fig. 2.

## Discussion

Managers are encouraged to be coaches, teachers, or mentors in modern organizations (Senge, 1990). Many feel that in order to be successful, managers in modern organizations may need to concentrate more on developing their employees (Agarwal et al., 2009; Bass, 2008; Ellinger et al., 2003; Murrell et al., 1999; Richard et al., 2008; Sosik & Jung, 2010). Though notable research has provided valuable information about the significant outcomes of providing such developmental behaviors as mentoring for the one being mentored, more is needed to uncover the positive outcomes for the person providing mentoring behaviors (Allen, 2007). In this light, the main purpose of this study was to extend previous research and attempt to make a contribution to the literature by examining promotability perceptions as an important career-related outcome with respect to the manager providing

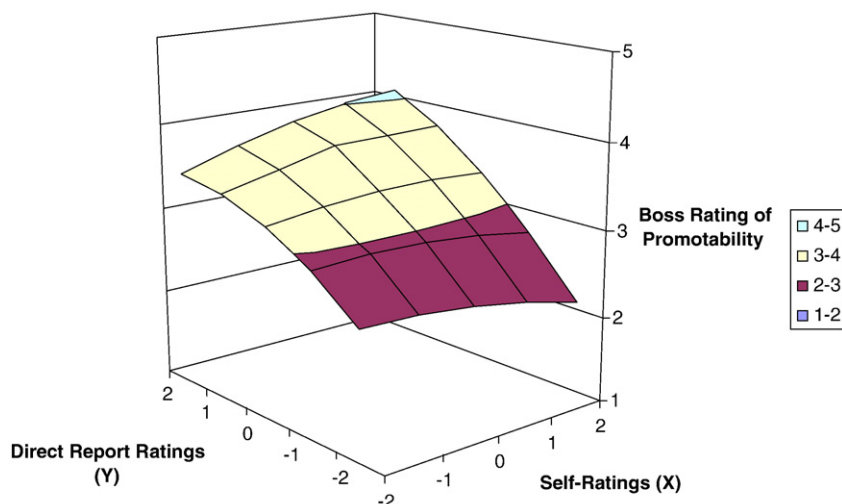


Fig. 1. Relationship between self-direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behavior and boss ratings of promotability.



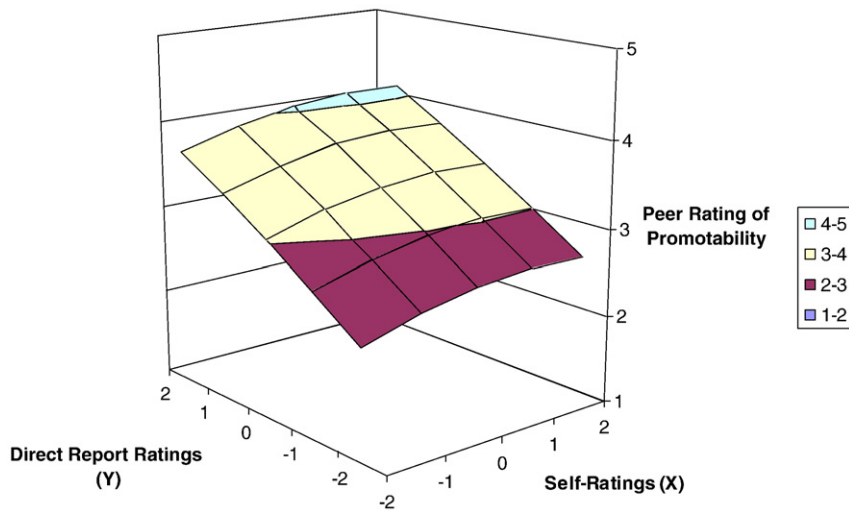


Fig. 2. Relationship between self-direct report ratings of career-related mentoring behavior and peer ratings of promotability.

career-related mentoring to his/her direct reports. This multisource study collected data from both self- and direct report ratings about the extent to which focal-managers displayed career-related mentoring behaviors and data from the perspective of both bosses and peers concerning the promotability perceptions of focal-managers. Findings support the theoretical propositions of those such as Wanberg et al. (2003) and Ramaswami and Dreher (2007) that offering career-related mentoring to others has positive implications for the person providing such behaviors. This study extends and contributes to the field in four important ways.

First, study results revealed that there is a positive relationship between career-related mentoring behaviors and promotability perceptions of the manager providing mentoring behaviors within a context of the manager-direct report relationship. Specifically, focal-manager self-ratings of career-related mentoring were positively related to promotability ratings provided from the focal-manager's boss (supporting Hypothesis 1a) and peers (supporting Hypothesis 1b). People who perceive themselves as providing mentoring behaviors to others learn certain things and experience a level of satisfaction that only comes about through such actions (Allen, Poteet, et al., 1997; Kram, 1985; Levinson et al., 1978). Through processes that include human and social/political capital, signaling, and optimal resource usage, managers who provide career-related mentoring behaviors to their direct reports are able to obtain valuable knowledge and feedback, build stronger relationships, expand power bases, and increase their stature, credibility, and output, which are some of the ways that theoretically lead to higher career attainment and promotability of the one who offers mentoring in a developmental relationship (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007).

Second, this study overcomes some of the limitations of previous research (cf. Allen et al., 2008) by collecting data from both parties of the developmental relationship. Using self-ratings of the focal-managers on how well they are displaying career-related mentoring behaviors is important for self-awareness and self-regulation (Boyatzis, 2007), yet, it is well known that the use of self-ratings in organizational research has serious flaws including inflated bias and unreliable measurement (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Moreover, data gathered from direct reports may be more meaningful and robust than a manager's self-ratings (Ashford, 1989; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Bass, 2008). Our results revealed that direct report ratings of focal-manager career-related mentoring was positively related to promotability ratings provided from the focal-manager's boss (supporting Hypothesis 2a) and peers (supporting Hypothesis 2b). Because mentoring within the context of managerial developmental relationships inherently involves two parties, it is critical to capture information from both the manager and his/her direct reports.

A third way this study extends and contributes to the literature is by examining self-other rating agreement. More information can be gathered when self- and direct report ratings are considered in tandem than separately. According to Atwater and Yammarino's (1997) process model, self-other rating comparisons should influence certain outcomes such as perceptions of promotability. Similar research has in fact taken self-other rating agreement into account. For instance, mentor-protégé agreement in mentor's transformational leadership was related to the quality of the mentoring relationship, and protégés of underestimators (where mentors had lower ratings than protégés) had higher quality of mentoring relationships than overestimators (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000). Also, mentor-protégé agreement in mentor's transformational leadership was related to higher levels of psychosocial support for the protégé, and in cases where mentors overrated transformational leadership, protégés had low levels of psychosocial support and career satisfaction (Sosik & Godshalk, 2004). Though these studies took a step forward in the field by integrating self-other rating agreement, they did not consider how self-other rating agreement of the extent to which a manager provides career-related mentoring behaviors may influence perceptions of career outcomes of the manager.

Results of the current study reveal that high self-direct report rating agreement in career-related mentoring was related to higher promotability perceptions from the boss (supporting Hypothesis 3a) and peers (supporting Hypothesis 4a). A hallmark for those who are effective at providing mentoring is that they are self-aware (Boyatzis, 2007; Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1997) so it should come as no surprise that managers who have similar ratings to their direct reports on career-related

mentoring behaviors that are high are those that are seen as promotable. Previous research has described these managers as successful, high performers who care for others (Sosik & Godshalk, 2004) which allow direct reports to engage in their own career-development activities (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Scandura & Schriesheim 1994). From a theoretical standpoint, this in turn increases perceptions of the manager's promotability (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007).

Oftentimes however, managers have incongruous ratings with others. Past research has shown that underrating is generally more related to higher outcomes than overrating (Atwater et al., 1998), including mentoring outcomes for protégés (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik & Godshalk, 2004). Results of this study showed that underraters had higher perceptions of promotability than overraters, which supports a proposition offered by Atwater and Yammarino (1997). Underraters tend to have better relationships with others, may engender a better sense of trust and show more humility (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Sosik, 2001). These behaviors help enable direct reports to feel as if they are receiving crucial career-related mentoring support and development, as opposed to overraters who tend to breed indifference or fear. Direct reports of underraters may therefore feel more open to providing feedback and advice for their manager, which inevitably is needed to enhance the manager's promotability (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007).

Finally, this study extends and contributes to the field because the results suggest the benefits of managers spending time developing their direct reports. Such evidence could be used to convince managers and employers that it is worth a manager's time to develop their people. The results may be a good "selling point" to managers since they may help managers recognize that they should not just simply focus on getting work done, but by focusing on mentoring and developing their direct reports, they are in fact benefitting themselves for their own career advancement. In addition, the results may also be a good "selling point" to organizations to foster and develop mentoring behaviors in training and development for managers because of the positive career-related outcomes that mentoring behaviors have on managers.

### *Strengths, limitations, and future research*

The strengths of this study include a large, diverse sample of practicing managers, career-related mentoring data that comes from both parties, and outcome data from bosses and peers. The latter two strengths reduce the possibility that common method and source bias are responsible for the results, which is somewhat common in studies that examine a developmental or mentoring relationship (Godshalk & Sosik, 2007).

The findings of the positive relationship between mentoring and promotability perceptions for the manager should however be interpreted with regards to some limitations. First, data from all rater sources were gathered at the same time for each focal-manager from a multisource instrument. Though theoretical frameworks (e.g., Wanberg et al., 2003) would lead to a conclusion that providing mentoring causes increased promotability of the person in the role of the mentor, the most the present data can say is that the extent to which a manager provides career-related mentoring behaviors is positively related to promotability perceptions. In other words, causation cannot be inferred. Future research should take into account a time-series design or longitudinal experimental design to draw appropriate causal conclusions. Future research should also take into account the actual functions (e.g., human capital, social/political capital, signaling, or optimal resource usage) of Ramaswami and Dreher (2007) that are proposed to link mentoring and promotability of the mentor. Such research could determine for instance, whether mentoring in fact leads to an increase in human capital (or social/political capital, or signaling, or optimal resource usage), which would then lead to increased mentor career outcomes such as promotability.

Another limitation concerns measurement issues. The study's promotability measure is not an actual promotion received by a manager in his or her organization. Perceptions of promotability, regardless of their source, do not always translate into actual promotions due to political reasons or resource limitations within organizations. However, future research could benefit by examining these relationships based on actual promotions received by managers as they advance in their career within and between organizations.

The sample, though large and encompassing actual practicing managers from a variety of organizations and levels, may also be a limitation. First, it is unknown whether the direct report or manager considered their working relationship as an actual mentoring relationship. It is important to note however, that some have taken a much broader view of mentoring suggesting that one who provides mentoring is a person who advises someone else on career-related areas (Allen, Russell, & Maetzke, 1997; Dansky, 1996; de Janasz & Sullivan, 2004) as in the current study. Mentoring relationships are subsumed under a broader classification of developmental relationships (Higgins & Kram, 2001), and these relationships, examined in corporate organizations within the context of the current study, do include career-related mentoring functions provided by focal-managers to their direct reports.

Results of the current study suggest that future research could examine how different mentoring functions in traditional mentor–protégé relationships can facilitate a mentor's promotability and actual promotions received. Mentoring functions are typically associated with extrinsic (e.g., promotions and compensation) and intrinsic (e.g., satisfaction and commitment) forms of outcomes for mentors. These distal outcomes of mentoring are often influenced by more proximal outcomes for the protégé such as changes in the protégé's knowledge, skills and abilities, and satisfaction with the mentor and mentoring program (Wanberg et al., 2003). Thus, how the one giving and one receiving mentoring functions interact in the developmental relationship is worthy of study. Future research should also conduct a more finely-grained examination of the associations between mentoring functions provided and extrinsic and intrinsic outcomes for mentors across a variety of mentoring contexts including superior–subordinate dyads, traditional mentor–protégé dyads, peer mentoring relationships, and developmental networks. These relationships may

differ in formal versus informal mentoring programs in organizations with various organizational cultures, support for mentoring programs, and broader developmental networks and opportunities within and between industries and professions.

In addition, the use of the multisource instrument was a product sale; participants in this study used the multisource instrument as part of their own developmental process. It is unknown what the purposes were for participants to take the multisource instrument, including how many participants were already targeted for upward movement. Last, the sample only consisted of practicing managers from the United States. Mentoring may have different meanings in different cultures, and the outcomes of mentoring may differ depending on culture. Recent mentoring research has taken a step forward in looking at differences across cultures (e.g., Bozionelos, 2006; Bozionelos & Wang, 2006; Gentry et al., 2008). Likewise, future research examining how mentoring influences outcomes such as promotability of the mentor should take into account different cultures or should focus on expatriates managing in different cultures.

### Implications and conclusion

There are noteworthy implications from this research that should be considered. Managers who provide career-related mentoring behaviors to their direct reports were seen as more promotable. Accordingly, managers who allocate their efforts to providing career-related mentoring to others and focus on developmental relationships with their employees may also be helping themselves advance their career. In addition, organizations that foster and encourage these skills to be developed, formally or informally, may benefit from the positive outcomes of such developmental relationships (Wanberg et al., 2003).

This research provides support for Atwater and Yammarino's (1997) process model strictly in the managerial domain of developmental relationships. The results showed that those managers who are highly self-aware (i.e., their self-ratings of career-related mentoring were high and congruent with ratings from their direct reports) were also the ones with the highest ratings on the perceptions of promotability outcome. Helping managers become more self-aware can be instrumental in managerial improvement, development, and performance, and is a feature of effective leadership (Konger & Benjamin, 1999) and selecting candidates for executive positions (Hollenbeck, 2009). Organizations and managers themselves should foster and develop self-awareness. There are many ways to enhance self-awareness including 360 feedback (Fletcher & Bailey, 2003) or reflecting on life-shaping moments (Van Velsor, Moxley, & Bunker, 2004).

In conclusion, this study adds to and extends research beyond what has previously occurred in the developmental relationships domain. Managers who have high in-agreement career-related mentoring ratings with their direct reports are also those who are likely to have high promotability perceptions ratings. When ratings are incongruent, underrating managers are more likely to have higher ratings of promotability perceptions than overrating managers. This research provides evidence of the promotability benefits for managers to participate in developmental relationships and act in the role of mentor, as providing career-related mentoring appears to be positively related to perceptions of focal-managers' promotability.

### Acknowledgments

Portions of this manuscript are based on a paper presented in a symposium at the 25th annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, Georgia. The authors would like to thank David Altman, Jennifer Deal, Kelly Hannum, Rich Marcy, Cindy McCauley, Ali O'Dea, Marian Ruderman, and Sarah Stawiski in offering their insights, suggestions, and critiques of earlier versions of the manuscript.

### References

- Agarwal, R., Angst, C. M., & Magni, M. (2009). The performance effects of coaching: A multilevel analysis using hierarchical linear modeling. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20, 2110–2134.
- Allen, T. D. (2007). Mentoring relationships from the perspective of the mentor. In B. R. Ragins & K. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research and practice* (pp. 123–147). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., O'Brien, K. E., & Lentz, E. (2008). The state of mentoring research: A qualitative review of current research methods and future research implications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73, 343–357.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 127–136.
- Allen, T. D., Lentz, E., & Day, R. (2006). Career success outcomes associated with mentoring others: A comparison of mentors and nonmentors. *Journal of Career Development*, 32, 272–285.
- Allen, T. D., Poteet, M. L., & Burroughs, S. M. (1997). The mentor's perspective: A qualitative inquiry and future research agenda. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 51, 70–89.
- Allen, T. D., Russell, J. E. A., & Maetzke, S. B. (1997). Formal peer mentoring: Factors related to protégés' satisfaction and willingness to mentor others. *Group & Organization Management*, 22, 488–507.
- Ashford, S. J. (1989). Self-assessments in organizations: A literature review and integrative model. In L. L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior*, Vol. 11. (pp. 133–174) Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Atwater, L. E., Ostroff, C., Yammarino, F. J., & Fleenor, J. W. (1998). Self-other agreement: Does it really matter? *Personnel Psychology*, 51, 577–598.
- Atwater, L. E., Waldman, D., Ostroff, C., Robie, C., & Johnson, K. M. (2005). Self-other agreement: Comparing its relationship with performance in the U.S. and Europe. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 13, 25–40.
- Atwater, L. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (1992). Does self-other agreement on leadership perceptions moderate the validity of leadership and performance predictions? *Personnel Psychology*, 45, 141–164.
- Atwater, L. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (1997). Self-other rating agreement: A review and model. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 15, 121–174.
- Avolio, B. J. (1999). *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

- Bass, B. M. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*, 4th ed. New York: Free Press.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2007). Mentoring for intentional behavioral change. In B. R. Ragins & K.E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 447–469). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Bozionelos, N. (2004). Mentoring provided: Relation to mentor's career success, personality, and mentoring received. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64, 24–46.
- Bozionelos, N. (2006). Mentoring and expressive network resources: Their relationship with career success and emotional exhaustion among Hellenes employees involved in emotion work. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17, 362–378.
- Bozionelos, N., & Wang, L. (2006). The relationship of mentoring and network resources with career success in the Chinese organizational environment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17, 1531–1546.
- Church, A. H. (1997). Managerial self-awareness in high-performing individuals in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 281–292.
- Collins, P. M. (1994). Does mentorship among social workers make a difference? An empirical investigation of career outcomes. *Social Work*, 39, 413–419.
- Cox, T. H., Jr., & Nkomo, S. M. (1992). Candidate age as a factor in promotability ratings. *Public Personnel Management*, 21, 197–210.
- Dansky, K. H. (1996). The effect of group mentoring on career outcomes. *Group & Organization Management*, 21, 5–21.
- de Janasz, S. C., & Sullivan, S. E. (2004). Multiple mentoring in academe: Developing the professorial network. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64, 263–283.
- De Pater, I. E., Van Vianen, A. E. M., Bechtoldt, M. N., & Klehe, U.-C. (2009). Employees' challenging job experiences and supervisors' evaluations of promotability. *Personnel Psychology*, 62, 297–325.
- Eby, L. T., Allen, T. D., Evans, S. C., Ng, T., & DuBois, D. L. (2008). Does mentoring matter? A multidisciplinary meta-analysis comparing mentored and non-mentored individuals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72, 254–267.
- Edwards, J. R. (1994). The study of congruence in organizational behavior research: Critique and proposed alternative. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 58, 51–100.
- Edwards, J. R., & Parry, M. E. (1993). On the use of polynomial regression equations as an alternative to difference scores in organizational research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 1577–1613.
- Ellinger, A. D., Ellinger, A. E., & Keller, S. B. (2003). Supervisory coaching behavior, employee satisfaction, and warehouse employee performance: A dyadic perspective in the distribution industry. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 14, 435–458.
- Fletcher, C., & Bailey, C. (2003). Assessing self-awareness: Some issues and methods. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18, 395–404.
- Gentry, W. A., Hannum, K. M., Ekelund, B. Z., & de Jong, A. (2007). A study of the discrepancy between self- and observer-ratings on managerial derailment characteristics of European managers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 16, 295–325.
- Gentry, W. A., Weber, T. J., & Sadri, G. (2008). Examining career-related mentoring and managerial performance across cultures: A multilevel analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72, 241–253.
- Godshalk, V. M., & Sosik, J. J. (2000). Does mentor–protégé agreement on mentor leadership behavior influence the quality of mentoring relationships? *Group & Organization Management*, 25, 291–317.
- Godshalk, V. M., & Sosik, J. J. (2007). Leadership and mentoring: Standing at the cross roads of theory, research and practice. In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 149–178). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Greguras, G. J., & Robie, C. (1998). A new look at within-source interrater reliability of 360-degree feedback ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 960–968.
- Higgins, M. C., & Kram, K. E. (2001). Reconceptualizing mentoring at work: A developmental network perspective. *The Academy of Management Review*, 26, 264–288.
- Hollenbeck, G. P. (2009). Executive selection – What's right...and what's wrong. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 2, 130–143.
- Hunt, D. M., & Michael, C. (1983). Mentorship: A career training and development tool. *Academy of Management Review*, 8, 475–485.
- James, L. R. (1988). Organizational climate: Another look at a potentially important construct. In S. G. Cole & R.G. Demaree (Eds.), *Applications of interactionist psychology: Essays in honor of Saul B. Sells* (pp. 253–282). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. (1984). Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 85–98.
- Johnson, K. K. P., Yust, B. L., & Fritchie, L. L. (2001). Views on mentoring by clothing and textiles faculty. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 19(1), 31–40.
- Judge, T. A., Cable, D. M., Boudreau, J. W., & Bretz, R. D., Jr. (1995). An empirical investigation of the predictors of executive career success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 485–519.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones?: A re-examination of consideration, initiating structure, and leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 36–51.
- Konger, J. A., & Benjamin, B. (1999). *Building leaders: How successful companies develop the next generation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kotter, J. (1982). What effective general managers really do. *Harvard Business Review*, 60, 157–169.
- Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at work*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, and Company.
- Lance, C. E., Hoffman, B. J., Gentry, W. A., & Baranik, L. E. (2008). Rater source factors represent important subcomponents of the criterion construct space, not rater bias. *Human Resource Management Review*, 18, 223–232.
- Lawrence, B. S. (1984). Age grading: The implicit organizational timetable. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 5, 23–35.
- Lentz, E., & Allen, T. D. (2009). The role of mentoring others in the career plateauing phenomenon. *Group & Organization Management*, 34, 358–384.
- Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., & McKee, B. (1978). *Seasons of a man's life*. New York: Knopf.
- Lombardo, M. M., & McCauley, C. D. (1994). *BENCHMARKS®: A manual and trainer's guide*. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Lyness, K. S., & Heilman, M. E. (2006). When fit is fundamental: Performance evaluations and promotions of upper-level female and male managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 777–785.
- McCauley, C., & Lombardo, M. (1990). BENCHMARKS®: An instrument for diagnosing managerial strengths and weaknesses. In K. E. Clark & M. B. Clark (Eds.), *Measures of leadership* (pp. 535–545). West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Murphy, K. R., & Cleveland, J. N. (1995). *Understanding performance appraisal: Social, organizational, and goal-based perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Murrell, A. J., Crosby, F. J., & Ely, R. J. (1999). *Mentoring dilemmas: Developmental relationships within multicultural organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ostroff, C., Atwater, L. E., & Feinberg, B. J. (2004). Understanding self–other agreement: A look at rater and rate characteristics, context, and outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, 57, 333–375.
- Podsakoff, P., & Organ, D. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems & prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12, 86–94.
- Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified mentoring relationships in organizations: A power perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 22, 482–521.
- Ragins, B. R., & Verbos, A. K. (2007). Positive relationships in action: Relational mentoring and mentoring schemas in the workplace. In J. E. Dutton & B.R. Ragins (Eds.), *Exploring positive relationships at work: Building a theoretical and research foundation* (pp. 91–116). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ramaswami, A., & Dreher, G. F. (2007). The benefits associated with workplace mentoring relationships. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach* (pp. 211–231). London: Blackwell.
- Richard, O. C., Ismail, K. M., Bhuian, S. N., & Taylor, E. C. (2008). Mentoring in supervisor–subordinate dyads: Antecedents, consequences, and test of a mediation model of mentorship. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(11), 1110–1118.
- Roth, P. L., Huffcutt, A. I., & Bobko, P. (2003). Ethnic group differences in measures of job performance: A new meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 694–706.
- Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (1994). Leader–member exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 1588–1602.
- Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (2004). Mentoring and transformational leadership: The role of supervisory career mentoring. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65, 448–468.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). The leader's new work: Building learning organizations. *Sloan Management Review*, 32(1), 7–23.
- Smith, B. (1990). Mutual mentoring on projects: A proposal to combine the advantages of several established management development methods. *Journal of Management Development*, 90, 51–57.

- Sosik, J. J. (2001). Self-other agreement on charismatic leadership: Relationships with work attitudes and managerial performance. *Group & Organization Management*, 26, 484–511.
- Sosik, J. J., & Godshalk, V. M. (2004). Self-other rating agreement in mentoring: Meeting protégé expectations for development and career advancement. *Group & Organization Management*, 29(4), 442–469.
- Sosik, J. J., Godshalk, V. M., & Yammarino, F. J. (2004). Transformational leadership, learning goal orientation, and expectations for career success in mentor-protégé relationships: A multiple levels of analysis perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 241–261.
- Sosik, J. J., & Jung, D. I. (2010). *Full range leadership development: Pathways for people, profit and planet*. New York: Routledge.
- Van Velsor, E., & Leslie, J. B. (1991). *Feedback to managers: Vol 1. A guide to evaluating multi-rater feedback instruments*. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Van Velsor, E., Moxley, R. S., & Bunker, K. A. (2004). The leader development process. In C. McCauley & E. Van Velsor (Eds.), *The Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development* (pp. 204–233), 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Viswesvaran, C., Ones, D. S., & Schmidt, F. L. (1996). Comparative analysis of the reliability of job performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 557–574.
- Walker, A. G., & Smither, J. W. (1999). A five-year study of upward feedback: What managers do with their results matters. *Personnel Psychology*, 52, 393–423.
- Wanberg, C. R., Welsh, E. T., & Hezlett, S. A. (2003). Mentoring research: A review and dynamic process model. In J. J. Martocchio & G.R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, Vol. 22. (pp. 39–124) Oxford, England: Elsevier.
- Whitely, W., Dougherty, T. W., & Dreher, G. F. (1991). Relationship of career mentoring and socioeconomic origin to managers' and professionals' early career progress. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(2), 331–351.
- Yammarino, F. J., & Atwater, L. E. (1997). Do managers see themselves as others see them? Implications of self-other rating agreement for human resources management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 25, 35–44.