Ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical behaviour

Exploring the moderating role of mentor prototypicality and the mediating role of protégé moral motivation

CORINNA BUSCH
Doctor of Philosophy

ASTON UNIVERSITY
October, 2018

ASTON UNIVERSITY

Ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical behaviour: Exploring the moderating role of mentor prototypicality and the mediating role of protégé moral motivation

CORINNA BUSCH

Doctor of Philosophy

2018

THESIS SUMMARY

Although practitioners have strong incentives to select for and develop ethical managers, and scholars are increasingly interested in the study of ethical leadership in a post-Enron world, most of the research has dealt with the consequences of ethical leadership, but has neglected to examine the antecedents to ethical leadership. This doctorate study addresses this gap by investigating the conditions under which, and the mechanisms through which, mentoring at work can influence protégés' ethical leadership behaviour and other ethics-related outcomes. To start research in this area, the prerequisite was to develop and test a new instrument to measure ethics-related mentoring – an additional dimension of mentoring that is separate and distinct from the well-established mentoring functions in the literature (i.e., career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role modelling). Following Hinkin's (1998) guidelines for scale development and validation, the first study included a series of semi-structured interviews with key informants with the purpose of identifying and defining the attitudes and behaviours associated with ethics-related mentoring. The generated pool of items underwent a test of content (face) validity with subject-matter expert ratings. A scale development study was then conducted to develop and validate the ethics-related mentoring scale. This scale was then put to use in a time-lagged field study. Drawing on Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1991) social cognitive theory, it was suggested that protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring influences protégé's moral motivation which, in turn, impact his/her development of ethical behaviour. The moderating effect of mentor prototypicality on the relationship between ethics-related mentoring and moral motivation was further examined. Analyses revealed that the proposed mediated moderation relationships were not significant. However, strong interaction effects of both mentoring subscales with mentor prototypicality on protégé moral motivation and directly on all outcome variables (i.e., ethical leadership, OCB altruism, and turnover intentions) were seen.

Keywords: Ethical role-modelling, ethical guidance, ethical leadership, scale development, mediated moderation

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis first to my husband, Karsten. He has stood beside me and supported me throughout all of my academic education. His unwavering love, support, and encouragement have guided me throughout this process, and without him, I would never have achieved what I have. I dedicate this work to my mother and father, Marion and Marten, as well, for giving me the courage to chase my dreams, and the support I needed along the way. Finally, thank you to my aunt, Anne, who has supported me in every possible way during my entire education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I want to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr Jonathan Crawshaw for being a great mentor, motivator, and teacher. Doing a part-time PhD by distance-learning comes with many challenges. His unfailing support, guidance, and his words of encouragement have been invaluable throughout these five years.

Next, I want to thank my associate supervisors, Prof Yves Guillaume and Dr Alison Legood, for their advice and motivational words along the way. I very much enjoyed our productive meetings, both online and in person. A big thank you also goes to my PhD colleagues for all their distance support, in particular to Dr Nishat Babu, Dr Jakob Stollberger, and Dr Muntasir Shami.

I also like to thank my employer Wirkung Plus GmbH, and my work colleagues for all their emotional support. Being able to conduct the interviews during work hours, to name one example, made things much easier. My gratitude also extends to all the companies and participants that contributed to the many aspects of this research. Without these individuals, this study, and thus this thesis would not have been possible. Many thanks also go to Udo-Volkmar Reschke – he has been my source of inspiration for investigating the role of ethics-related mentoring.

Lastly, I want to thank all of my family and friends for their continued love and support. A special thank you goes to Levke for her friendship and her relentless interest in my progress and well-being throughout this journey.

LIST OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

"Compliance is an issue. Let's take as an example the case of money laundering in the banking sector. If I were to find that my protégé works in such gray areas, I would not immediately run to the lawyer and inform against this person. Maybe, it would be my duty to do that. I would rather try to bring in my perspective and say: 'Watch what you are doing!'. If someone would work wittingly in this grey area in order to take an advantage, then I would have a problem with that. Then, I could also imagine that I say: 'Watch out! At this point, it is no longer my task to show you the way but to draw the consequences'. If someone has gotten into this position through thoughtless action, I would try to find a way – if I realise that he feels uncomfortable".

(Male mentor)[1]

CHAPTER 1

Thesis overview

1.0 Chapter summary

This chapter gives a brief overview of the state of the art in research on ethical leadership, and of the potential role of mentoring in developing future ethical leaders and employees. The main constructs in this research are introduced. Next, the research aims, objectives, and questions of this thesis as well as the main contributions are introduced, and the methodological approach taken are outlined. The latter includes a short overview of the research studies conducted. This chapter also highlights the ethical considerations that guided this research study. Finally, the structure of the thesis is outlined in order to more effectively guide the reader in navigating this thesis.

1.1 Introduction

The drastic consequences of the recent scandals in the world's financial industry coupled with the wave of corporate scandals worldwide, whether centred around corruption, bribery, fraud or other greed, have generated considerable interest in the topic of ethical

[1] Each chapter starts with a selected statement from the interviews that were conducted in Study 1.

leadership. This construct is defined as the demonstration of normatively conduct behaviour through personal actions and interpersonal relationships (Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005). It emphasises the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making (ibid.). Emerging research clearly shows that ethical leadership positively impacts organisational effectiveness by increasing leadership effectiveness (Toor & Ofori, 2009), follower performance (Sharif & Scandura, 2014), group organisational citizenship behaviour (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes & Salvador, 2009), and ethical climate (Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts & Chonko, 2009). Given the significance of this topic, not only businesses want to know how to select for, develop and retain ethical managers, but also business schools want to understand how to best teach their students to become ethical leaders.

Although the number of journal articles dedicated to this topic is growing, the extant body of literature on ethical leadership is still rather small (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009). Most previous research has dealt with the consequences of ethical leadership, in particular analysing the influence of ethical leaders on followers' attitudes and behaviours, but has largely neglected to analyse its antecedents (Eisenbeiss & Giessner, 2012). Also, in a very recent review paper by Ko, Ma, Bartnik et al. (2018), it has been particularly suggested that more research on the antecedents of ethical leadership is required to increase our understanding of how to develop ethical leadership, and what the key challenges are in developing ethical leaders. Prior research has shown how the leader's personality predicts his/her engagement in ethical leadership (Kalshoven, Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2011a; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), how leader cognitive moral development increases follower's perceptions of ethical leadership (Jordan, Brown, Treviño & Finkelstein, 2013), and how executive ethical leadership cascade to lower level employees (i.e., "trickle-down" model; Mayer et al., 2009). However, as situational (e.g., role modelling) and individual (e.g., personality traits) predictors of ethical leadership are still lacking, Brown and Mitchell (2010) have called for more research on the antecedents of ethical leadership. In particular, Brown

et al. (2005, p131) have explicitly asked the question “if ethical leaders can be developed, how is this done? Is a particular type of training or intervention effective?”.

There has been prior research in this domain, but it has tended to emphasise the importance of *informal mechanisms* for transferring these values – in particular, the “trickle-down” model, as already noted above, has dominated with the transfer of ethical values communicated through the line manager relationship (Mayer et al., 2009). Where gaps in knowledge still pertain relates to the role of other key agents and the direct intervention of organisations or Human Resources (HR) departments in deliberately developing ethical leaders. Several scholars (Brown, 2007; Brown & Treviño, 2014; Brown et al., 2005; Grojean, Resick, Dickson & Smith, 2004; Weaver, Treviño & Agle, 2005; Zhu, Treviño & Zheng, 2016) suggest that role modelling or mentoring could be important in this respect.

In order to address this gap, this thesis aims to investigate the effects of how mentoring – pairing a young manager with an experienced leader who has a reputation for ethical leadership – relates to developing protégé ethical leadership (the focal outcome of this research) and other protégé ethical outcomes. Kram (1985, p2) defined mentoring as “a relationship between a young adult and an older, more experienced adult [who] helps the younger individual learn to navigate in the adult world and the world of work. A mentor supports, guides, and counsels the young adult as he or she accomplishes this important task”. In her seminal book on organisational mentoring relationships, Kram (ibid.) identified two types of support mentors provide for their protégés: career-related and psychosocial support. Career-related support helps the protégé “learn the ropes” and prepare for career advancement, and include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. Psychosocial support helps the protégé achieve a sense of competence, clarity of identity, and professional effectiveness. To achieve these ends, mentor activities include serving as a role model while providing acceptance and confirmation, counselling, and friendship.

Ever since Kram's initial efforts over three decades ago, there has been a significant body of research dedicated to investigating the relationship between mentoring functions and outcomes. First, research indicates that protégés have tangible benefits in comparison to non-mentored employees. For example, protégés obtain more promotions and higher salaries (Dreher & Ash, 1990), and tend to have greater career satisfaction (Aryee & Chay, 1994), career commitment (Bachman & Gregory, 1993), and higher overall job satisfaction (Fagenson, 1989) than those without a mentor. Next, although research on mentor benefits is relatively scarce, there is evidence that mentors can have a high level of job effectiveness (Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller & Marchese, 2006) and can exhibit transformational leadership (Chun, Sosik & Yun, 2012). Finally, research shows that organisations also benefit when their employees are engaged in successful mentoring relationships. For instance, mentoring is positively related to organisational socialisation (Thomas & Lankau, 2009), organisational-level learning (Allen, Smith, Mael, O'Shea & Eby, 2009), organisational citizenship behaviour (Kwan, Mao & Zhang, 2010), and negatively related to intentions to quit (Burke & McKeen, 1997). In sum, mentoring has been found to be an important predictor of work-related outcomes.

Despite these insights, the review indicates that the mentoring literature has not yet examined the ethical component of mentoring (or "ethics-related mentoring"). Such an omission is surprising given the importance placed on ethics within organisations (Crane & Matten, 2016). Within the mentoring literature, mentors generally serve as role models for their protégés (Moberg, 2008a) putting them in a position of facilitating moral development (Weaver et al., 2005). Further, some of the issues that protégés bring to their mentors for advice have salient ethical implications, and this gives mentors the opportunity for moral guidance (e.g., Gottlieb, 2006). The mentors' actions may also become so invigorating that they provide additional motivation to their protégés to acquire the moral character element in question (Lockwood, Jordan & Kunda, 2002). Mentoring has been associated with the influence on ethical evaluations (McManus & Subramaniam, 2009), and the development of

leader efficacy and performance (Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelsang & Avolio, 2011). Besides, it should be highlighted that prior research grounded in social learning theory has found that having had an ethical role model during the leader's career (i.e., career mentor) was positively related to subordinate-rated ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2014). Therefore, the assumption is that being exposed to ethical mentors contributes to the development of moral character (Moberg, 2008b) which, in turn, influences one's development of ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Weaver et al., 2005), and other ethical behaviours.

From the above, it follows that research on mentoring has not yet developed a valid and reliable scale for measuring ethics-related mentoring. Admittedly, role modelling is viewed as a distinct mentoring function (Burke, 1984; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). It represents the mentor's influence by being someone the protégé wishes to be like (e.g., "I try to model my behaviour after my mentor", Scandura, 1992). However, as the example item shows, this kind of role modelling does not accurately and specifically focus on the ethical role modelling behaviour of mentors. Recently, a handful of scholars (Goosen & Van Vuuren, 2005; Moberg, 2008a, 2008b) have started to theoretically analyse the mentor's role in developing protégés' ethical behaviour, but this mentor behaviour has not been empirically investigated. By providing a psychometrically sound measure of it, and demonstrating its predictive validity, we provide a new avenue for research on ethics-related mentoring, its antecedents and additional consequences.

As noted earlier, the primary aim of the current thesis is to examine the influence of ethics-related mentoring on the development or protégé ethical leadership. Further, the role of this particular mentoring function as an important predictor or organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and intention to stay in the organisation will be investigated. OCB is defined, in brief, as discretionary behaviours which benefit the organisation (Organ, 1988). OCB is considered one of the most important outcomes in the organisational behaviour context (Banks et al., 2017). Further to this, the reasons for choosing this particular outcome

for this research are threefold: Firstly, Organ's (ibid.) five OCB dimensions (consisting of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship) have an inherently moral quality which emphasises respect, fairness, and kindness (Bonner, Greenbaum & Mayer, 2014). This is particularly true for the altruistic dimension of OCB. Second, various meta-analyses by Podsakoff and colleagues (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000) indicate that OCB has significant relationships with a variety of individual- and organisational-level outcomes (e.g., reduced absenteeism, higher productivity, and customer satisfaction). It is therefore worth examining the predictors which influence employees' OCB. Third, only a few studies have yet investigated the relationship between mentoring and OCB, and these studies focused on the existing mentoring functions in the literature.

Turnover intention – which is defined as a conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993) – was chosen as an outcome variable for the following three reasons. First, turnover intention has a moral dimension as well. Research on person-organisation fit suggests that when people perceive individual and organisational values to be incompatible a misfit occurs (cf., Chatman, 1989), which will necessarily lead to turnover (cf., Schneider, 1987). Second, the turnover literature is predicated on the idea that turnover matters because it has meaningful consequences, such as declining productivity (Abassi & Hollman, 2000), lower revenue growth (Baron, Hannan & Burton, 2001), and lower service quality perceptions (Hausknecht, Trevor & Howard, 2009). Third and finally, although research has already investigated the mentoring-turnover link (e.g., Burke & McKeen, 1997; Viator & Scandura, 1991), the present research adds to this literature by explicitly focusing on the ethical component of mentoring and its effect on turnover intentions.

Boundary conditions of the relationship between ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical behaviour (i.e., ethical leadership, OCB, and turnover intentions) will also be examined. More specifically, the moderating role of mentor prototypicality will be investigated. This construct has been adapted from the commonly used "leader prototypicality" variable, which refers to the leader being representative of the group's identity and values (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). In general, a prototype can be defined as an ideal representation of the group's identity and values that describe and prescribe appropriate attributes and behaviour in a specific context (Hogg, 2001). With regard to morality, Hogg and Terry (2000, p124) note that "prototypes furnish moral support and consensual validation for one's self-concept and attendant cognitions and behaviours". Further, Brodbeck et al. (2000, p3) indicate that "prototypical concepts are also formed about leadership traits and behaviours, and they are used to distinguish leaders from non-leaders (or outstanding from average, moral from amoral leaders etc.)".

The main tenet of social identity theory of leadership (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) is that group prototypical leaders are perceived as more effective by members than less prototypical leaders; particulary when group membership is salient and when members identify strongly with the group. Previous research inspired by this theory has supported the claim that leaders' prototypicality enhances their effectiveness (see Hogg, van Knippenberg & Rast, 2012; van Knippenberg, 2011, for recent comprehensive reviews). The premise of social identity theory of leadership is that prototypical members are disproportionately influential over the group's life as they occupy a *leadership position* (Hogg et al., 2012). Through examining prototypicality not in the leadership context, but in the mentoring context, this thesis extends this theory.

To date, only a single study exists that has investigated and demonstrated support for the moderating effect of mentor prototypicality (Cai, 2014). Results have shown that mentor prototypicality moderates the relationship between mentoring received and two organisational outcomes, i.e., organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) and person-

organisation (P-O) fit (ibid.). However, the main differences between Cai's (ibid.) and the present research is that he included only internal and formal mentors while we also ask external and informal mentors to participate in our study; and he assessed the traditional mentor roles, as outlined earlier, while we focus on the ethical role played by mentors. We, therefore, add to the limited knowledge of mentor prototypicality.

Finally, the present thesis explores a potential underlying mechanism of the proposed interaction between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and mentor prototypicality on the three outcomes in question. According to the process model of formal mentoring (Wanberg, Welsh & Hezlett, 2003), mentoring affects three areas of protégé change, i.e. cognitive, skill-based and affective-based learning, whereby the latter could be attitudinal (e.g., changes in values) or motivational (e.g., changes in the protégé's motivational disposition). These proximate learning outcomes are predicted to partially mediate the relationship between mentoring received and more distal protégé outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) and organisational outcomes (e.g., retention). Although this model has not yet been tested, it offers a valuable framework for exploring the mechanisms through which ethics-related mentoring at work can influence protégés' ethical behaviour.

In this thesis, the focus is on the mediating role of protégé motivation, more specifically on protégé moral motivation. Moral motivation is the third of four components in Rest's (1986) widely-known model of ethical decision-making, and has been described as a person's "degree of commitment to taking the moral course of action, valuing moral values over other values, and taking personal responsibility for moral outcomes" (Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau & Thoma, 1999, p101). Although Rest (1986) originally used the term moral motivation, several reviews and empirical studies used the term moral intention instead (e.g., Jones, 1991; O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005; Treviño, Weaver & Reynolds, 2006). The terms are conceptually similar and relate to an individual's readiness or willingness to engage in a particular action. A common assumption based on Rest's model is that motivation precedes behaviour and, therefore, can be substituted for behaviour when the latter is unavailable for

study (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). As this is the case at hand, moral motivation is studied in this thesis. This decision is strengthened by the fact that moral motivation has been shown to mediate the relationship between moral attitudes and judgments to behaviour (Eisenberg, 1986).

On a final note, the concept of ethics-related mentoring is new and is explored here. It is therefore still unclear whether there are any mediators between ethics-related mentoring and protégé outcomes. Even very little is known about the intermediate processes through which the *existing* mentoring functions influence distal protégé outcomes (Baranik, Roling & Eby, 2010; Wanberg et al., 2003). Therefore, we test a mediated moderation model – and not a moderated mediation model, as it is typical in research.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

The purpose of this research is to explore the effect that mentoring has on protégés' ethical behaviour. Further to this, novel mediating and moderating pathways will also be investigated. Drawing on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1991), this thesis proposes that via role modelling protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring – a newly developed mentoring function – influences protégé's motivation to act morally which, in turn, impact his/her development of ethical leadership behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and intention to stay in the organisation. Furthermore, combining Bandura's (ibid.) social cognitive theory and Hogg's (2001) social identity theory of leadership, it is predicted that the relative precedence of moral character development depends on the boundary condition of mentor prototypicality. To test the mediated moderation model, a new concept and measure of ethics-related mentoring will be developed. All hypotheses will then be tested in a time-lagged field study.

1.3 Research questions

Two research questions will be explored to investigate the effect of ethics-related mentoring on important protégé outcomes:

Research question (RQ1): *How do key informants (i.e., mentors, protégés, and experts for mentoring programmes) perceive and understand ethics-related mentoring? What is the content domain of ethics-related mentoring from their perspectives?*

Research question (RQ2): *Is ethics-related mentoring important in developing ethical leaders? And if so, when and why?*

In order to answer these research questions, two studies were carried out. The first research question will be addressed in Study 1, whereas the second research question will be addressed in Study 2.

1.4 Structure of thesis

This thesis is divided into seven major chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 discusses the existing literature on mentoring. It is not a comprehensive literature review, but an overview aimed at touching upon the main areas of interest to make a few essential points. This chapter sets the foundation for examining the construct of ethics-related mentoring and identifies the research gap that can be filled by this thesis. Chapter 3 focuses on the model development which is based on the existing social cognitive theory. Within this section, hypotheses to be tested are developed and presented. The chapter concludes by providing the reader with a conceptual model of the hypothesised relationships. Chapter 4 discusses the philosophical assumptions and gives an overview of the research strategy and design underpinning this study. Chapter 5 and 6 include the data collection tools, the research data, and the results of the two studies that underpin this research. Chapter 5 provides a detailed commentary on the development and validation processes concerning

the ethics-related mentoring scale. Specifically, the interviews leading up to item generation will be outlined, followed by a content (face) validity exercise to refine the initial item pool. The reduced scale will be validated through a survey, consequently finalising the resultant items in the scale, confirming its factor structure, and establishing its psychometric properties. The developed ethics-related mentoring scale will be initially used in the time-lagged field-study in Chapter 6, in order to test for the relationships put forward in the conceptual model as well as to replicate the scale development process. Here, the method will be described, and the findings will be presented. This will be followed by a discussion on the theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions to the literature, as well as the practical implications for organisations. This chapter concludes with highlighting the methodological limitations of the study and by giving suggestions for future research. A summary of the research findings of both studies is provided within Chapter 7. This will be followed by a brief overview of the significance and contributions of the research findings to the literature. Also within this chapter, practical implications will be highlighted. After that, future research directions will be identified. This chapter will close with a conclusion.

"If attitude is a working method to practice ethics, then one can say that mentors do that. In other words: They point out what worked out well, and what did not work out well. They talk about defeats, about slips, about right or wrong, about evaluation criteria, about danger, about risk, about resources. Today, ethics has changed. We are more resource-oriented. These are things that many mentors affect because they are leaders […]. Every day, they have to put their neck on the line for something, in fact actively: 'Yes, I am the boss and yes, we go in this direction, from my point of view. That's why I get punches, I know, but I have an attitude, and I stick to it.' Hence, they act as a role model – both for the protégé and for their employees".

(Mentoring expert)

CHAPTER 2

Review of the mentoring literature

2.0 Chapter summary

In this chapter, efforts are made to explore the current state of research on mentoring. Specifically, the traditional definition of mentoring, as well as the outcomes and themes of mentoring are briefly outlined. The spotlight subsequently was placed on the potential role of ethics-related mentoring. The case was made for empirically investigating the facets of ethics-related mentoring and developing a measurement tool, in order to address this niche and to further research efforts in this area of mentoring. This chapter also discusses the theoretical foundation of this thesis. It outlines both the theory used in mentoring research (i.e., social learning theory) and the theory used in this research project (i.e., social cognitive theory). A reason is given as to why social cognitive theory lays the foundation for developing the hypothesised model.

2.1 Defining mentoring

While the roots of mentoring can be traced to Greek mythology and Homer's *Odyssey*, the foundation for workplace mentoring is grounded in the work of Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee (1978) on the career development of adult men. In their

work, they describe the relationship that develops with a mentor as one of the most important experiences of early career and young adulthood. Building on Levinson et al.'s (ibid.) work, the publication of Kram's (1985) seminal work on mentoring relationships at work has extended scholarly research on the topic in organisational settings. Drawing on social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), Kram (1985, p2) defined mentoring as a "relationship between a younger adult and an older, more experienced adult [who] helps the younger individual learn to navigate the adult world and the world of work". This traditional definition of mentoring emphasises an intense and emotional one-to-one relationship, which is often characterised as a supportive and trusting collaboration that provides beneficial outcomes to both protégés and mentors.

Kram (1985) conducted an in-depth qualitative examination of mentoring dyads and identified two types of support behaviour provided by mentors. Career-related support involves mentor behaviours that help the protégé understand how the organisation operates and enhances the protégé's advancement in the organisation. This type of mentor behaviour includes sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments (Ragins & Cotton, 1999), and is made possible because of the mentor's senior position, experience, and organisational influence. More specifically, mentors provide sponsorship by championing the protégés suitability for promotions. Mentors provide their protégés with exposure to senior decision-makers and introduce them to their network within and outside the organisation. Mentors also coach the protégé by providing information, advice, analysis, and feedback (Parnell, 1998). This function helps the protégé to improve decision-making, organisational fit and skills. It is important to note that coaching is a distinct construct with a growing body of research and practice on its own. Coaching can be broadly defined as "a collaborative solution-focused, result-orientated and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of life experience and goal attainment in the personal and/or professional life of normal, nonclinical clients" (Grant, 2003, p254). Coaches can take on a variety of roles, including coaching for skills (focussed on specific skills

required for a current job), coaching for performance (focussed more broadly on a present job), and coaching for development (focussed on learning for a future job) (Witherspoon & White, 1996). Although mentors can only draw upon their own experiences and are not necessarily trained to impart their knowledge (Palmer, 2003), they also engage in coaching. It occurs within the context of the interactive, dyadic mentor-protégé relationship. Mentors further protect protégés from adverse forces (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Within organisations, these protective functions serve to guard protégés against internal political struggles or undesirable assignments. Finally, mentors challenge their protégés to build their skills, for example, by pushing them to accept difficult assignments, to question their preconceptions, and to attain higher performance levels.

Psychosocial support, the second type of support behaviour, involves mentor behaviours aimed at helping the protégé develop a sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness in a professional role. Specific mentor behaviours include counselling, role modelling, acceptance, and friendship (ibid.). Just as mentors offer coaching regarding work and professional issues, the mentor also serves to counsel protégés on personal and interpersonal matters. The counselling support role allows protégés to use their mentor as a sounding-board to clarify issues, resolve problems and assess strategies, as well as to facilitate the development of decision-making skills (McDowall-Long, 2004). Role modelling is another function served by mentors. It is important to mention that as with coaching, role modelling is a distinct construct. In fact, the term “mentoring” is often used interchangeably with the term “role modelling” (ibid.). While mentoring refers to an interactive, dyadic relationship in which the mentor takes “an active interest in and action to advance the protégé’s career by providing developmental assistance” (Higgins & Kram, 2001, p268), role modelling does not necessarily involve any degree of direct, personal contact with a specific other person. Role models are based on the perceptions of the individual. The act of identification makes the other person a role model, irrespective of the role model’s actions (Fisher, 1988). Part of the appeal of the mentor as a role model is that he or she represents a

goal that protégés would like to attain; protégés thus want to enhance their similarity, to be like their mentor. Mentors further offer confirmation and acceptance by affirming and understanding the experiences of the protégé (Liang, Tracy, Taylor & Williams, 2002). They also provide friendship to their protégés.

Although these two broad categories of mentoring support are widely recognised, there is ambiguity of how many distinct dimensions of mentoring functions exist. Results of scale development and validation have been mixed, with some supporting a two-function model and others suggesting a three-function model. In the first instance, Noe (1988) examined the predictors of successful assigned mentoring pairs. He developed the so-called Mentoring Functions Scale which asks protégés about their perceived level of support from their assigned mentor. This measure includes two subscales (i.e., career-related support, and psychosocial support). Ragins and McFarlin (1990) established a more detailed measure of mentoring functions. Their scale – the so-called Mentor Role Instrument – encompasses all of the specific aspects of career-related and psychosocial support as discussed by Kram (1985). Using this measure, researchers can either focus on the two types of support behaviour (i.e., career-related support, and psychosocial support) or assess the specific mentor roles (i.e., sponsorship, counselling). A third measure was developed by Scandura (1992) who found support for a three-factor construct – the so-called Mentoring Functions Questionnaire – that included vocational support (which is analogue to career-related support), psychosocial support, and role modelling. In fact, several three-factor solutions suggest that role modelling should be viewed as a distinct mentoring function (Burke, 1984; Scandura & Ragins, 1993), rather than as an aspect of the psychosocial mentoring function, as conceptualised by Kram (1985). Other studies support alternate three function models (Steinberg & Foley, 1999; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). Overall, the evidence suggests that there are at least two distinct support behaviours (career-related and psychosocial mentoring). However, it is less clear on whether a third dimension is needed to represent the construct space adequately.

Scholars have started to consider how mentoring relates to constructs from other areas of research. For instance, McManus and Russell (1997) examined similarities and differences between mentoring, leader-member exchange (LMX), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), social support, and socialisation, using a number of critical dimensions (e.g., developmental in nature, time required for the relationship to occur, and type of outcomes expected for recipient). The inclusion of these four and other constructs enhances the understanding of the nomological network in which mentoring is embedded.

Most empirical work in this area has focused on exploring how mentoring differs from supervision and leadership. Two distinct lines of research have been pursued: One compares mentoring with “typical” supervisory relationships (Burke, McKenna & McKeen, 1991; Fagenson, 1994; Tepper, 1995), while the other examines the relationship between leader behaviours and mentoring functions (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000a). This work has been supportive of mentoring as distinct from supervision and leadership. For example, Burke et al. (1991) found that protégés were perceived to be more promotable, rated to be more similar, and hired and placed by managers; however, protégés tended to be physically further away from managers in comparison to typical subordinates. Further, managers reported that they provide significantly more psychosocial support (but not more career-related support) to protégés than to typical subordinates. With respect to the second line of research, Scandura and Schriesheim (1994) found that leader-member exchange (LMX) and supervisor career mentoring (SCM) are different constructs and that SCM adds significantly to the explained variance in rated salary progress and promotion rate over that accounted for by LMX.

Following this, Wanberg et al. (2003) conclude that the available literature has made progress towards conceptually differentiating mentoring from other developmental relationships, such as LMX, and towards distinguishing mentoring from supervision and leadership. In order to achieve “additional clarity about the construct of mentoring“ (ibid., p45), the authors suggest that further research is required on how best to represent the

construct space of mentoring (i.e., how many distinct dimensions of mentoring functions there are).

Another question that is relevant to the construct of mentoring is concerned with possible differences in the nature of formal and informal mentoring. There are three distinct differences between both forms: the initiation of the relationship, the structure of the relationship, and the processes involved in the relationship (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Formal mentoring programmes are those which are planned, implemented and overseen by the organisation. In this case, mentors and protégés are matched by a third party as part of an employee development process. Informal mentoring relationships, on the other hand, evolve spontaneously. They develop on the basis of mutual identification and the fulfilment of career needs, and perceived competence and interpersonal comfort (ibid.). Formal and informal mentoring relationships also differ according to the timing and structure of the relationship (ibid.). Informal relationships may last between three and six years (Kram, 1985), whereas formal relationships are usually contracted to last between nine months and one year (Wanberg et al., 2006). Moreover, members of informally arranged relationships meet when desired, but the mode, frequency, and location of contact for formally developed relationships are often specified in a contract signed by both parties (Murray, 1991; Zey, 1985). Other aspects of the mentoring relationship may differ as well (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). For instance, formal mentors may be less motivated to be in the relationship than informal mentors because they may not identify with their protégés. Also, matches of formal mentors with protégés may result in dyads from different departments or functional units, which possibly impedes the ability of the mentor to fully provide assistance to his or her protégé.

While not all organisational mentoring programmes have specified goals, a common objective of formal mentoring programmes is to promote the careers, development, and performance of protégés at a managerial level. In comparison to 360-degree feedback, executive coaching, classroom training, and e-learning, mentoring uniquely involves the sharing of experience and information between current leaders and future leaders (Wanberg

et al., 2003). Many organisations initiate formal programmes to advance the movement of more women and ethnic or racial minorities into senior-level positions, while others want to accelerate the development of individuals with strong management potential. Organisations also frequently arrange formal mentoring programmes for newly recruited employees (usually managers or university graduates) to assist and assimilate to the company (Douglas & McCauley, 1999).

Studies that compare the outcomes received by protégés with formal mentors and those received by protégés with informal mentors generally portray informal mentoring as more effective. Allen, Day and Lentz (2002) found that protégés in formal and informal mentoring dyads had similar levels of interpersonal comfort with their mentors, but protégés in informal relationships reported higher levels of career-related mentoring and higher quality mentoring relationships than protégés in formal relationships. Chao, Walz and Gardner (1992) who controlled for length of mentorship also found that protégés in informal mentoring relationships reported more career development functions and higher salaries than protégés in formal relationships. Fagenson-Eland, Marks and Amendola (1997), on the other hand, found that the nature of the relationship (regardless of whether formal or informal) was not associated with the level of career functions reported by protégés, but formal protégés reported lower levels of psychosocial mentoring received in comparison to informal protégés. Moreover, Ragins and Cotton (1999) who compared formal and informal protégés on mentoring received at the specific function level (e.g., sponsorship, friendship), rather than aggregating function subscales into the total of career-related and psychosocial-related support, found that formal protégés reported lower levels of mentoring in comparison to informal protégés on almost every mentoring function. No differences were found on the mentoring roles of parenting and counselling. It should be noted, however, that Ragins, Cotton and Miller (2000) found that protégés with high levels of satisfaction with their formal mentors did not differ from protégés with high satisfaction with their informal mentors and reported equivalent benefits including, career commitment, job satisfaction, satisfaction with

opportunities for promotion, organisational commitment, procedural justice, organisation-based self-esteem, and intentions to quit. The authors concluded "[…] the view that informal mentoring relationships will automatically be more beneficial than formal mentoring relationships is apparently too simplistic; the level of satisfaction in a relationship appears to be the key variable" (ibid., p1187).

Although the definition of mentoring implicitly excludes direct supervisors, the status of the mentor has been investigated in mentoring research as well. Supervisory mentoring occurs when a protégé's mentor is also his or her direct supervisor, while non-supervisory mentoring occurs when the mentor is not the direct supervisor. This specific mentoring relationship structure draws from transformational leadership theory and leader-member exchange (LMX) theory to understand how supervisory status can influence mentoring support (Scandura & Williams, 2004). Researchers have studied various topics in both supervisory (e.g., Sun, Pan & Chow, 2014) and non-supervisory (e.g., Liu & Fu, 2011) mentoring contexts. Scholars have also included both supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring in their studies (e.g., Payne & Huffman, 2005; Thomas & Lankau, 2009). Besides, most of the mentoring definitions allow a protégé's direct supervisor to be the mentor (e.g., Godshalk & Sosik, 2000b). Other researchers asked whether the mentor had direct supervisory responsibility. Burke and McKeen (1997) reported that the mentor was, in 85% of these relationships, in a direct supervisory position (ibid.), whereas Day and Allen (2004) reported that 97% of self-identified protégés mentioned that their supervisors have more or less provided mentoring functions during their career. Therefore, direct supervisors can be seen as a valuable mentoring resource within organisations (Kram, 1985).

Research by Ragins and McFarlin (1990) found that supervisory mentors received higher ratings than non-supervisory mentors in three of the five career development roles (sponsorship, protection, challenging assignments), and in the psychosocial role of counselling. Burke, McKeen and McKenna (1993) indicated that mentors reported providing more career development and psychosocial functions to protégés under their supervision

than those who were not. Fagenson-Eland et al. (1997) indicated that protégés who were their mentors' subordinates reported receiving more career guidance, psychosocial support, and communication from their mentors than non-subordinate protégés, but they did not report receiving more role modelling. Haggard, Dougherty, Turban and Wilbanks (2010), on the other hand, found that direct supervisors are more likely to provide a higher level of job-related skills and support rather than the exposure and visibility functions provided by higher-level executives. This may be due to the power and resources direct supervisors have in providing mentoring support.

2.2 Outcomes and themes of mentoring

Many of the early mentoring studies focused on the question of whether mentoring relationships lead to positive outcomes for the protégé, such as higher compensation and increased job satisfaction. The research in this area is relatively consistent in finding that there is an association between being a protégé and favourable outcomes. When comparing individuals who had mentors to those who did not, individuals with mentors had more positive outcomes including higher promotion (Dreher & Ash, 1990), income (Chao et al., 1992; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993), job satisfaction (Fagenson, 1989), career satisfaction (Aryee & Chay, 1994), career commitment (Bachman & Gregory, 1993), career mobility (Scandura, 1992), and intention to stay within the organisation (Viator & Scandura, 1991). Other outcomes that have been studied include procedural justice (Scandura, 1997), and organisational power (Fagenson, 1988). Scandura (1997) found that non-protégés had lower levels of procedural justice (e.g., they were less likely to report that "my work schedule is fair", p63) in comparison to protégés. Fagenson (1988) reported that individuals with a mentor reported more power in their organisation, including policy influence as well as access to important people and resource power, than individuals who did not have a mentor.

Whether mentors receive positive outcomes from providing mentoring has also been a question of interest. In respect of qualitative research, Zey (1984) interviewed over 100

executives and recognised four categories of benefits that mentors receive: career enhancement, intelligence/information, advisory role (in this case the protégé advises the mentor) and psychic rewards. Allen, Poteet and Burroughs (1997) interviewed 27 mentors and clustered the benefits reported into four categories: builds support network (e.g., loyalty of protégés), self-satisfaction (e.g., satisfaction in seeing others grow and succeed), job-related self-focused (e.g., provision of organisational recognition to the mentor), and job-related other-focused (e.g., ensuring the passage of knowledge to others). Quantitative research found that, by providing mentoring functions, mentors can have a high level of job effectiveness (Wanberg et al., 2006) and can exhibit transformational leadership (Chun et al., 2012). In recent research, scholars have been changing the focus to outcomes for the organisation. Research has found that mentoring is positively related to organisational socialisation (Thomas & Lankau, 2009), organisational commitment (Payne & Huffman, 2005; Weinberg & Lankau, 2010), organisational-level learning (Allen et al., 2009), organisational citizenship behaviour (Kwan et al., 2010), and employee interpersonally oriented organisational citizenship behaviour (Eby, Butts, Hoffman & Sauer, 2015)

Research on diverse mentoring relationships gained wide attention in the 1990s. Diverse mentorships are those in which protégés and mentors differ on group membership that may relate to power in their organisation: gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, class, and disability (Ragins, 1997). One salient question in the literature addresses whether female protégés receive different amounts or kinds of mentoring than male protégés. So far, research has not been definitive. Some researchers (e.g., Mainiero, 1994; Ragins, 1989) have linked mentoring relationships to advancement of female protégés, while other scholars (e.g., Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura & Williams, 2001; Turban & Dougherty, 1994) have failed to find linkages between protégé gender and mentoring relationship processes and outcomes.

These conflicting results have encouraged several researchers to assess the role of mentor gender in shaping mentoring relationships. Also in this respect, there are

contradictory views in the literature. When examining career-related support, Ragins and Cotton (1999) found that male mentors were not associated with more career-related functions than female mentors, whereas Sosik and Godshalk (2000b) results indicated that male mentors were perceived to provide higher career-related support to protégés than their counterparts. When looking at psychosocial support only, Ragins and McFarlin (1990) found that male and female mentors were perceived as providing the same amount of psychosocial roles to their protégés. When comparing female protégés with male and female mentors only, Smith, Smith and Markham (2000) have not found a difference between the two gender dyads either. Burke and McKeen (1996), on the other hand, showed that female protégés with female mentors report more psychosocial support than female protégés with male mentors.

Although the results are ambiguous, research is suggestive of the possibility that mentor gender may be important to consider. For instance, Dreher and Cox (1996) found that the highest compensation level will be among protégés who have established relationships with male mentors. Wallace (2001) came to the same conclusion as female protégés (lawyers) with male mentors earn significantly more than those with female mentors. Finally, Ragins and Cotton (1999) found some support that protégés with a history of male mentors report more compensation and promotions compared to those with female mentors.

By the end of the 1990s, researchers started to study unfavourable attitudinal, relational, and psychological outcomes of negative mentoring experiences. In a theoretical paper, Scandura (1998) and Feldman (1999) described dysfunctional mentoring as situations where the relationship does not meet the needs of one or both partners, and the costs of the relationship outweigh the benefits. Scandura (1998) proposed several forms of relationship dysfunctions, including negative relations, sabotage, difficulty, spoiling, submissiveness, deception, harassment (also sexual harassment and gender or race discrimination). Three empirical studies on this topic were identified.

Kalbfleisch (1997) found four types of conflict events: disagreement (e.g., the mentor and protégé disagreed on ideas), embarrassment (e.g., mentor embarrassed or criticised the protégé), negativity (e.g., mentor said the protégé made the mentor look bad), and request (e.g., the mentor asked the protégé for help on a project). Similarly, Eby, McManus, Simon and Russell (2000) developed a taxonomy of negative mentoring experiences consisting of five broad categories. These include, from most to least common, problems with mentor/ protégé match (e.g., dissimilar values, working styles and personalities), mentor distancing behaviour (e.g., neglect of the protégé or focus on outcomes for his/herself rather than for the protégé), mentor manipulative behaviour (e.g., use of inappropriate power, taking inappropriate credit, or deception of the protégé), lack of mentor expertise (e.g., lack of interpersonal or technical competence), and general dysfunctionality (e.g., the mentor had a negative attitude and/or personal problems). Eby, Butts, Lockwood and Simon (2004) further developed the construct of negative mentoring and tested theory-based predictions associated with the nomological network of related variables. Results of this study strongly support the content, construct, and criterion-related validity of this construct. In particular, negative experiences were related to intentions to leave the relationship, depressed mood, and job withdrawal. Eby, Durley, Evans and Ragins (2008) developed a measure of mentors' perceptions of negative experiences with their protégés. They indicated that mentors reported poor protégé performance, unwillingness to learn, and engagement in destructive behaviours such as sabotage and breaches of trust. These studies are only a starting point, and research examining the antecedents and the consequences of dysfunctional experiences in mentor-protégé relationships is still required.

A new theme that emerged in the 2000s focused on the characteristics of formal mentoring programmes (Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006; Ragins et al., 2000). For instance, Wanberg et al. (2003) summarise six characteristics that are essential to a high quality formal mentoring programme including, (1) specific programme objectives, (2) selection and matching process, (3) orientation that involves expectation setting and suggestions on

maintaining the mentor-protégé relationship, (4) communication with involved parties about the intent of the programme, (5) monitoring and evaluation process, and (6) programme coordinator to provide support to protégés and mentors. Further, Allen, Finkelstein and Poteet (2009) provide an "evidence-based best-practice" approach to formal mentoring programmes. They suggest that design features such as (1) establishing clear objectives, (2) support from top management, (3) matching of protégés and mentors, (4) selection of high-quality mentors, (5) training for participants, and (6) programme evaluation are keys to formal mentoring programme success (ibid.). Although formal mentoring programmes continue to gain popularity in organisations, studies on formal mentoring are still limited. Scholars, therefore, call for more empirical research regarding how these programmes should be designed and implemented in order to achieve maximum effectiveness (Allen et al., 2006; Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003).

To date, the mechanisms through which mentoring works (i.e., whether there are any moderators or mediators between mentoring and outcomes) have not been well examined. Only a few studies had a closer look at this issue. Day and Allen (2004) assessed whether career motivation and self-efficacy mediated the relationship between mentoring provided and protégé outcomes. They found that career motivation fully mediated the relationship between career mentoring received and self-reported performance effectiveness. However, they found only partial support for self-efficacy as a mediator of this relationship. Moreover, Lankau and Scandura (2002) found that protégé learning fully mediated the relationship between mentoring functions and role ambiguity as well as job satisfaction. Payne and Huffman (2005) found that affective commitment partially mediated the relationship between mentoring and actual turnover behaviour. Chen, Liao and Wen (2014) found that protégés' perceived psychological safety fully mediated the relationship between the amount of formal mentoring and turnover intention, and partially mediated the relationship between the amount of formal mentoring and affective commitment.

Scholars also found a few moderator variables that can influence the effect of mentoring on various outcomes. These moderators include protégé's socioeconomic status (Whitley, Dougherty & Dreher, 1991), gender (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000b), willingness to be mentored and ethnic identity (Gonzales-Figueroa & Young, 2005), learning goal orientation (Allen & O'Brien, 2006), need for dominance (Horvath, Wasko & Bradley, 2008), emotional intelligence (Chun, Litzky, Sosik, Bechtold & Godshalk, 2010), trust (Fleig-Palmer & Schoorman, 2011), and power distance orientation (Chen et al., 2014).

Apart from the mentor's age (Finkelstein, Allen & Rhoton, 2003), research has started to look at the influence of mentor's prototypicality. More specifically, Cai (2014, p73) assessed the moderating role of mentor's organisational prototypicality which is defined as "the extent to which the mentor is perceived to be a typical and exemplary representative of the organization". Results indicated that mentor prototypicality moderated the relationship between mentoring received (the measure included career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring and role modelling) and the two mediator variables: When mentor's organisational prototypicality was high, which means that the mentor shares similar characteristics with the organisation in the eyes of the protégé, the effect of mentoring received on organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) and person-organisation fit was stronger in comparison to the effect when mentor's organisational prototypicality was low.

One aspect that limits the ability to understand the contribution of mentoring to beneficial protégé outcomes is the literature's reliance on protégé self-reports. In their meta-analysis, Allen, Eby, O'Brien and Lentz (2008) found that only 18.2% of the 167 studies included in their review collected data from multiple sources. A mentoring relationship is, however, an inherently dyadic and complex process. For that reason, it would be informative to conduct research in which mentors, for example, self-report behavioural data while protégés self-report outcomes. This would yield insight into mentor behaviours associated with protégé outcomes. Another possibility would be that colleagues or subordinates of the protégé report protégé outcomes (e.g., providing ratings on protégé job performance or

leadership effectiveness), since single-source methodology may inflate correlations. Nevertheless, exceptions confirm the rule; One of the few multi-source studies found that the quality of a mentoring relationship was related to protégé self-reported level of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) but not to co-worker reported level of protégé OCB (Donaldson, Ensher & Grant-Vallone, 2000). The self is sometimes in the best position to report his or her behaviour or experience, especially on subjective outcomes (i.e., intentions to leave the organisation). As Howard (1994, p403) put it, "When employed within a sensible design, self-reports often represent a valuable and valid measurement strategy". Nevertheless, additional sources of information (e.g., mentor, colleague or subordinate of protégé) would contribute to the literature.

2.3 A role for ethics-related mentoring?

Much work has been done investigating Kram's (1985) two categories of mentoring functions. In their meta-analysis, Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz and Lima (2004, p128) acknowledge that "the extant theoretical and empirical research is clear that career and psychosocial functions serve as primary distinct and reliable overarching operationalizations of mentoring". However, Allen et al. (2008) point out that the mentoring functions identified by Kram should be re-examined because her initial qualitative research on mentoring was conducted in the 1980's when careers were linear, stable, and hierarchical. As Arthur (1994, p297) put it "the old picture of stable employment and associated organizational careers is fading". These careers have been replaced by new career paths that are characterised by fewer opportunities for upward advancement, and less continuity of employment within organisations (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). This suggests that mentoring can help protégés to develop the skills and competencies that are necessary to adapt more easily to organisational changes in the workplace, and that this mentor assistance may differ today from 30 years ago (Eby, 1997).

Ever since, much has been written about the impact of mentoring on protégé outcomes (Allen et al. 2004, Wanberg et al., 2003) in general. The latest meta-analysis conducted by Eby et al. (2013) showed that protégé's perceptions of career-related support, psychosocial support, and relationship quality are associated with a wide range of attitudinal, behavioural, career-related, and health-related outcomes. Although Levinson et al. (1978, p89) noted in their definition of mentoring that, "The mentor may be an exemplar that the protégé can admire and seek to emulate. He may provide counsel and *moral support*", it is not until recently that scholars started to theorise that mentoring can also positively influence ethics-related outcomes. Moberg (2008b) was one of the first who has charged that the mentoring literature tends to focus on the technical, social, and political lessons while ignoring the mentor's role in the moral and ethical education of the protégé. He has therefore examined, theoretically, the role of mentoring as a social development tool of the ethical and moral behaviour of the protégé.

Drawing from the fields of philosophy, moral psychology and counselling, Moberg (ibid.) offers eight propositions which fall into three mechanisms as to how mentors can help their protégés form and develop moral character. *Experience* is the first major process by which protégés acquire positive moral character. In this respect, mentors can help their protégés to identify their character strengths and set goals to develop virtues that reflect their values, interests, and feelings. Mentors can also tutor their protégés in how to identify and solve practical problems they are likely to face. Moberg (ibid.) also identified exposure to relevant contexts, effective feedback, and story-telling as mechanisms of moral character development. *Reflection*, which is the second process by which protégés form moral character, can be facilitated by mentors as well. Moberg (ibid.) suggests that mentors can stimulate protégé reflection by asking questions, giving assignments, and arranging that protégés reflect together, and assigning protégés to keep a diary. The goal is to ensure alignment of consistency between protégés' actions and their internal states. *Inspiration* is the third and final mechanism by which protégés acquire positive moral character. According

to Moberg (ibid.), inspiration helps protégés in becoming kinder, more sensitive and more empathetic. He suggests that protégés can develop moral character “when they identify with role models who personify moral character” (p99). Lockwood et al. (2002, cited in Moberg, 2008b) claim that inspiring mentors can motivate protégés to develop a strength of character and achieve goals in the workplace. A sense of inspiration can occur when mentors, for example, have mastered specific tasks that are relevant to their protégés, and when their level of performance is attainable to protégés. Finally, Moberg (ibid.) proposes that protégés develop moral character via social learning (including observation, imitation, and shadowing) from their mentor. Moberg (ibid., p100) concludes his theoretical analysis by saying that, ”mentors are in an ideal position to provide their protégés with moral education, and since role modelling figures so prominently in the mentoring process, some character formation is almost inevitable”.

Similarly, Goosen and Van Vuuren (2005) criticise the “over-dependence and reliance on rules and regulations“ in institutionalising ethical behaviour in organisations, and propose that a “holistic systems approach” should be followed that includes mentoring as a means of transferring ethical organisational values (such as integrity, honesty, respect, fairness, and transparency). Besides disseminating the corporate ethics message, Goosen and Van Vuuren (ibid.) suggest that mentors can facilitate their protégés’ ethical behaviour. More specifically, mentors can play an active part in “creating an awareness of the importance of ethics in business; bestowing an ethical sensitivity on protégés; providing opportunities for protégés to acquire ethical reasoning and decision-making skills and being sensitive for the ethical consequences of such decisions; aligning protégés’ behaviour to that required by the organisation’s code of ethics; facilitating protégés’ interpretation and application of the code of ethics; and equipping protégés with the courage to openly discuss ethics and to stand up for ethical stances adopted and decisions made” (ibid., p63). The authors, therefore, conducted a qualitative study to determine whether mentoring is an appropriate tool to institutionalise business ethics. Although the sample group was rather small (i.e., five

mentors and their protégés), the interview findings suggest that formal mentoring programmes can serve as a platform for ethics development. The mentoring relationship enables mentors to transfer ethical knowledge and skills to their protégés and to use everyday examples to illustrate both appropriate and inappropriate behaviour.

Based upon Moberg's (2008b), and Goosen and Van Vuuren's (2005) theoretical work, it is proposed that mentors provide not three but at least four different mentoring functions to their protégés. First, mentors provide advise about career issues as well as directly promote their protégés' career interests (i.e., career-related mentoring). Second, mentors teach their protégés how to deal with emotional difficulties at work and provide much-needed emotional support (i.e., psychosocial function). Third, as empirical evidence suggested (Scandura, 1992), mentors provide behaviours in which protégés identify with and emulate mentors, who are trusted and respected, possess referent power, and hold high standards (i.e., role modelling function). Fourth, we expect to observe a new independent role for mentors focussed on the ethical development of their protégé. We call this function ethics-related mentoring.

The potential salience of ethics-related mentoring has also emerged from the extant ethical leadership literature. Integrating both social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), Brown et al. (2005, p120) define ethical leadership as, "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making". This means that ethical leaders model conduct that is considered to be normatively appropriate in the particular context (e.g., honesty, trustworthiness, fairness, and care). Second, ethical leaders promote ethical conduct by setting ethical expectations and standards, providing subordinates with voice, communicating with subordinates about those standards while holding themselves and subordinates accountable to those standards via the punishment and reward system. Third

and finally, ethical leaders consider the ethical consequences of their decisions and make principled and fair decisions that followers can observe and emulate.

Brown et al.'s (2005) definition highlights two key components of ethical leadership. First, ethical leaders are "moral persons" – as characterised by Treviño et al. (2000, 2003). This dimension represents the followers' perceptions of the leader's traits, character, and altruistic motivation. For example, ethical leaders were thought to be honest and trustworthy; they make fair and principled decisions; and they behave ethically in their daily lives. Second, ethical leaders are "moral managers" (ibid.). This aspect of ethical leadership characterises the *proactive* efforts by which the leader influences the followers' actions and beliefs about ethics. Ethical leaders communicate moral messages; they use rewards and punishments to hold followers accountable for ethical conduct; and – probably most important – they role model ethical behaviour as outlined in the following paragraph.

Brown et al. (2005) proposed that subordinates form perceptions of their leaders' ethical leadership via processes derived from social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), including modelling and attractiveness. This theory suggests that individuals can learn the norms of appropriate conduct by observing how role models behave. Accordingly, ethical leaders "teach" ethical conduct to followers through their behaviour. Power and status are two characteristics of role models that enhance their attractiveness (Bandura, 1986). Ethical leaders are relevant role models because they occupy powerful and visible positions in their organisation that allow them to capture their follower's attention. It should be noted, however, that *effective* "ethical" modelling requires more than power and visibility. For social learning of ethical behaviour to occur, role models must be credible in terms of moral behaviour. Ethical leaders become credible role models when they are trustworthy and practice what they preach. In this way, followers are more likely to emulate and internalise the value-driven behaviours of their role modelling ethical leaders (Brown & Treviño, 2006).

Although Treviño and Brown (2007, p113) – who developed the construct of ethical leadership – are convinced that ethical leaders influence followers' behaviour, they "are not as convinced that ethical leaders "transform" followers' moral development or values. Such a transformation, if it occurs at all, would likely require explicit training oriented toward such transformation as well as a close working relationship over some significant amount of time". In fact, Brown (2007) suggest that mentoring can develop the "next generation" of ethical leaders by providing mentoring programmes for ethical leadership. Moreover, Brown and Treviño (2014) – who investigated the influence of three possible types of role models (i.e., early childhood role models, career mentors, and top managers) on the development of ethical leadership – found that having had an ethical mentor in one's career was positively related to ethical leadership.

Whether and to what extent mentors provide ethics-related mentoring to their protégés has yet to be empirically investigated. This question is worth examining; there is a call for examining how ethical leaders can be developed both in research (e.g., Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown et al., 2005) and in practice. Every week, there is a new headline about the lack of ethical leadership, whether it is the leaders of major countries, or leaders of businesses and organisations accused of corruption, tax evasion, bribery, negligence, financial manipulation, and so forth. High-profile failures in corporate ethical leadership (e.g., more recently Volkswagen's dieselgate, and earlier, the Enron scandal) generate considerable interest in the topic. When writing this thesis, "ethical leadership" got around 300 results on Amazon UK and US. As Brown and Treviño (2006, p613) note "organizations want to know how to […] develop […] ethical leaders. Business schools want to know how best to teach their students to become ethical leaders". We, therefore, need to capture the ethics-related mentoring function. In order to fill this gap in our knowledge, Study 1 is exploratory and guided by the following research question:

Research question (RQ1): *How do key informants (i.e., mentors, protégés, and experts for mentoring programmes) perceive and understand ethics-related mentoring? What is the content domain of ethics-related mentoring from their perspectives?*

2.4 Theoretical foundation

This section first briefly introduces Bandura's (1977) social learning theory which has been widely used to study the benefits of mentoring. Further, Bandura's (1986) rationale for relabeling this theory to social cognitive theory is given. This is followed by a section that introduces social cognitive theory as the theoretical framework for predicting the relationships between ethics-related mentoring provided and the development of protégé ethical leadership and other ethics-related behaviours. The final section highlights some important points about the second theory adopted in this thesis, that is, social identity of leadership.

2.4.1 Primary theory used in mentoring research

Bandura's (1977, 1986) classic work on learning proposes that individual's behaviour is influenced by both direct and vicarious experience. A major tenet of social learning theory (SLT; 1977) is that people learn through role modelling. In order for this to happen, both imaginal and verbal representational systems must be activated, as discussed later in detail. Bandura (1977) further describes several subprocesses that facilitate learning, including *attentional processes* (i.e., awareness of the modeled behaviour), *retention processes* (i.e., opportunity to respond to the modeled behaviour), *production processes* (i.e., opportunity to engage in behaviour similar to that modeled behaviour), and *motivational processes* (i.e., positive reinforcement for engaging in the modeled behaviour). These four processes are discussed in more detail later on.

Mentoring is consistent with the tenets of SLT. First, role modelling is a central part of mentoring (Kram, 1985). Hezlett (2005) points out that, according to SLT, individuals learn by observing the consequences others receive as a result of their behaviours, and that this

vicarious reinforcement helps speed up learning, as they do not have to engage in their own trial and error learning. She concludes from this that protégés may accelerate their learning by observing their mentors' behaviour and the reinforcements or punishments that stem from their behaviours. This idea is coherent with empirical findings that role modelling is a key aspect of mentoring. As already noted in Section 2.1, Kram (1985) initially identified two mentoring categories, i.e., career-related mentoring and psychosocial mentoring. She suggested that role modelling is one of the major functions of psychosocial support. Subsequent research has either supported this idea (Noe, 1988; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) or suggested that role modelling is a distinct mentoring function (Burke, 1984; Scandura, 1992; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). In either case, role modelling is clearly an important aspect of mentoring.

Second, Eby et al. (2015) argue that protégé's receipt of mentoring is likely to trigger the four subprocesses identified by Bandura. That is, the attentional processes are activated because mentoring support is both directed at and desired by individuals; the retention processes are enhanced through repeated exposure; the production processes are applied by the opportunity to reproduce the mentor's behaviour by helping others in the organisation; and the motivational processes are likely to be activated when individuals receive mentoring support (ibid.). Thus, SLT provides a useful framework for conducting research on mentoring.

In fact, SLT has been proposed as the theoretical rationale for the outcomes observed in mentoring relationships (Gibson, 2004b; Zagumny, 1993). A review of the mentoring literature confirms that many researchers use Bandura's SLT to explore the consequences of mentoring (e.g., Allen et al., 2004; Baugh, Lankau & Scandura, 1996; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Eby, Lockwood & Butts, 2006; Donaldson et al., 2000; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993; Pan, Sun & Chow, 2002). Individual and organisational benefits of mentoring include higher promotion (Dreher & Ash, 1990), personal learning (Lankau & Scandura, 2002), job performance (Pan et al., 2002), and employee interpersonally oriented organisational citizenship behaviour (Eby et al., 2015), just to name a few salient examples.

Later, Bandura relabelled social learning theory to social cognitive theory (SCT, 1986, as discussed next) in order to distinguish its broader theoretical perspective from the general class of social learning theories. Bandura explains his rationale for making the shift in terminology in his book, "*Social Foundations of Thought & Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*". Bandura writes that SCT expands the scope of the previously developed theory, SLT, by encompassing "psychosocial phenomena, such as motivational and self-regulatory mechanisms, that extend beyond issues of learning" (Bandura, 1986, pxii). He distinguishes SCT from SLT by explaining the two-part meaning of the new label: "The social portion of the terminology acknowledges the social origins of much human thought and action; the cognitive portion recognizes the influential causal contribution of thought processes to human motivation, affect, and action" (ibid., pxii). Gibson (2004b) who explores the elements of SLT and SCT that are most relevant to human resource development (HRD) notes that although the theory was renamed to reflect its emphasis on both learning *and* cognition, there are a variety of theorists still using the social learning label. Indeed, the above review of the mentoring literature suggests that mentoring researchers use the *social learning* label. Due to correctness, we use social cognitive theory as a theoretical foundation for developing our conceptual model. SCT is outlined in the following.

2.4.2 Primary theory used in the present study

SCT (Bandura, 1986) has provided the basis for much recent research on behavioural ethics (Treviño, den Nieuwenboer & Kish-Gephart, 2014), including moral identity, moral attentiveness, moral disengagement, and ethical leadership. Therefore, SCT offers an overarching framework for this study and the relationships proposed. SCT views human functioning "in terms of a model of *triadic reciprocality* in which behavior, cognitive and other personal factors, and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants of each other" (Bandura, 1986, p18). Reciprocal causation does not mean that the three sources of influence are of equal strength, nor that the reciprocal influences occur simultaneously. It

takes time for a causal factor to exert its influence and activate reciprocal influences (ibid.). The segment of reciprocality between a person's *behaviour and personal factors* reflect the interaction between thought and action. Researchers examine how beliefs, self-perceptions, and intentions give shape and direction to behaviour. What individuals think, believe, and feel affects how they behave. Scholars who are interested in the reciprocal relationship between *personal factors and environment* examine interactive relations between personal characteristics and environmental influences. People's thoughts, beliefs, feelings, and cognitive competencies are developed and modified by social influences, including modeling, instructional practices, and various modes of social persuasion. The third segment in this triadic interacting system considers the two-way influence between *behaviour and environment*. In the transactions of everyday life, behaviour alters environmental conditions and is, in turn, altered by the very conditions it creates. Social influences, as specified above, alter personal attributes. But also individuals affect the nature of their environment through selection and creation of situations.

Humans exercise five basic capabilities within the above reciprocal framework to function successfully. The capabilities are symbolising, forethought, vicarious, self-regulatory, and self-reflective. The *symbolising capability* implies the ability to process and transform experience into internal models, which can then serve as guides for future action. "People usually test possible solutions symbolically and discard or retain them on the basis of estimated outcomes before plunging into action" (ibid., p18). Second, *forethought capability* is the ability of individuals to anticipate the likely consequences of their actions based on the stored experiences of the symbolic activity. "Future events cannot serve as determinants of behaviour, but their cognitive representations can have strong causal impact on present actions" (ibid., p19). The third ability, *vicarious capability*, is the ability to learn vicariously; that is, from observing other individuals' behaviour and the consequences that occur. Therefore, modeling is an indispensable aspect of learning. Bandura (ibid., p19) stated that this capacity "enables people to acquire rules for generating and regulating behavioral

patterns without having to form them gradually by tedious trial and error". The fourth unique human capability is the *self-regulatory capability*. This is the ability of an individual to set goals. "Most behaviour is motivated and regulated by internal standards and self-evaluative reactions to their own actions" (ibid., p20). Evaluative self-regulation acts as a feedback mechanism after the individual's own personal standards have been set. Much similar to the above capability is the *self-reflective capability*. The capability for reflective self-consciousness "enables people to analyse their experiences and to think about their own thought processes" (ibid., p21). Through self-reflection, individuals monitor their thinking, they decide to act on ideas, they change them or judge the adequacy of them.

Based on SCT's social learning (Bandura, 1977, 1986), individuals learn not only from their own experience but by observing others' behaviours and its consequences. This vicarious learning allows individuals to learn a novel behaviour without the trial-and-error process. Observational learning is defined as "the tendency for a person to reproduce the actions, attitudes or emotional responses exhibited by real-life or symbolised models" (Bandura & Walters, 1963, p89). Observational learning is governed by the processes of attention, retention, production, and motivation (Bandura, 1977, 1986). The first process is *attention*; Learning cannot happen until individuals "attend to and perceive accurately the significant features of the modeled behaviour" (Bandura, 1977, p24). The degree of attention varies. Observers are more motivated to attend to models who possess social power and status. Models who lack attractive qualities will be ignored or actively rejected. Attention is also affected by the observer's beliefs about the functional value of the modeled behaviours. If observers believe that the modeled activities are important and likely lead to desirable outcomes, it motivates them to pay attention. *Retention* is the second process, as the information needs to be retained. In order to learn, individuals need to remember the observed activities and received information. At this stage, the human capability to symbolise is important. "Through the medium of symbols, transitory modeling experiences can be maintained in permanent memory" (ibid., p25). Retention relies mainly upon two

representational systems, imaginal and verbal. Imagery representations are abstractions of events. They occur through repeated exposure to the modeled events so that relatively enduring behavioural representations are later evoked. This happens, even when the actual role model is no longer present. Verbal coding of modeled events also enhances the long-term recall of information learned. In other words, it is not just observing someone behave, but also the verbal exchange (e.g., advice, instruction, encouragement) that leads the observer to engage in similar behaviour in the future. The third process, *production*, refers to engaging in the observed behaviour. This step involves translating the cognitive conceptions of modeled actions into behaviour. Observers refine their skills through practice, feedback, and if necessary additional modeling. Finally, *motivation* is the fourth process. It is a key process in observational learning because people do not enact everything they learn. People are selective; individuals tend to be motivated to learn and perform behaviours that they believe will lead to desirable outcomes and help them attain their goals, as well as to avoid learning behaviours that they believe will be punished.

Bandura's social learning theory emphasises the importance of observing the behaviours of others, but it does not fully explain the processes through which observation is translated into behaviour. In his social cognitive theory of moral thought and action, Bandura (1991) contended that "personal factors in the form of moral thought and affective self-reactions, moral conduct, and environmental factors all operate as interacting determinants that influence each other bidirectionally" (p2). Bandura (ibid.) believed that moral conduct is, in large part, motivated and regulated through individual moral *self-regulatory mechanisms* (see ibid. for a full review). Self-regulation includes self-monitoring of one's actions, self-judgement of behaviour in relation to personal standards and environmental circumstances, and affective self-reaction. These self-regulatory mechanisms are central to the conception of moral agency in social cognitive theory (ibid.). Bandura (1991, 1999) defined *moral agency* as the capacity to exercise control over the nature and quality of an individual's life.

Bandura (1991) noted that effective self-regulation of conduct does require not only self-regulatory skills but also a strong belief in one's capabilities to achieve personal control. Central to the exercise of control is the sense of *self-efficacy*, which has been defined as "a judgement of one's capability to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986, p391). More simply stated, how individuals behave can often be better predicted by their beliefs about their capabilities rather than by their actual capabilities. Self-efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human agency. If people believe that they cannot achieve the results desired, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. "Whatever other factors may operate as guides and motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce effects by one's action" (Bandura, 2001, p10). Self-efficacy beliefs are impacted through four sources: (1) mastery experiences, (2) observation of others (i.e., vicarious experiences), (3) forms of social persuasions, and (4) physiological and psychological arousal (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1986, p396) noted that "measures of self-precept must be tailored to the domain of psychological functioning being explored". As a result, self-efficacy has been operationalised in many particular forms such as academic self-efficacy, job self-efficacy, and creative self-efficacy.

Recently, researchers have extended self-efficacy beliefs to the domain of ethics (Hannah, Avolio & May, 2011a; Mitchell, Palmer & Schminke, 2008; Youssef & Luthans, 2005). Building on Bandura's definition of self-efficacy, *ethical efficacy* has been defined as one's beliefs in their ability to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action that are necessary to enact ethical behaviour (Mitchell & Palmer, 2010). Beliefs about one's confidence to behave ethically motivate people to follow through with what they believe is moral conduct (Youssef & Luthans, 2005). This view is consistent with Bandura's (1991) proposed social cognitive theory of moral thought and action. Accordingly, people are guided by personal standards of ethics, and they try to control their behaviour to meet these standards. However, in order to exercise control over their motivation and actions, individuals

need not only self-regulation skills but also a strong self-belief in one's capabilities (Bandura, 1991). Hence, the stronger the person's ethical efficacy belief is, the more confident he or she is to behave ethically, which thereby motivates ethical behaviour. Research also suggests that ethical efficacy beliefs play an important role in motivating moral conduct. For example, Mitchell et al. (2008) found that ethical efficacy beliefs strengthen self-regulatory abilities by instilling confidence to maintain ethical behaviour in the face of ethically ambiguous situations. With that said, Youssef and Luthans (2005, p7) suggested that ethical efficacy can only be developed in contexts "that are rich in social and emotional support, communication, interaction, and collective efforts". They further note that especially mentors can support protégés to enrich their cognitive frames for moral recognition and moral evaluations and guide them through ethical decision-making efforts.

Judgements of efficacy should not be confused with outcome expectations. Perceived self-efficacy, as discussed above, "is a judgement of one's capability to accomplish a desired level of performance, whereas an outcome expectation is a judgement of the likely consequence such behaviour will produce" (Bandura, 1986, p391). Individuals from outcome expectations about the likely consequences of given actions based on personal experiences from the past, observation of models, or social persuasion. Outcome expectations are a source of motivation (ibid.). People act in ways they believe they will be successful and attend to models of whom they think they will teach them valuable skills. Both self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations, although different, are interrelated. Bandura (ibid., p392) noted that "the types of outcomes people anticipate depend largely on their judgments of how well they will perform in given situations". Nevertheless, he argued that the constructs differ conceptually. People can believe that a certain course of action will produce a particular outcome, but if they question whether they can perform the necessary action, they will not initiate the relevant behaviour. Bandura's conceptual distinction was studied in research on reading and writing achievement by Shell, Murphy and Bruning (1989). The authors found that self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs jointly predicted 32% of the

variance in reading performance, with perceived efficacy accounting for virtually all the variance (28%). Only self-efficacy was a significant predictor of writing performance. These results support Bandura's prediction that self-efficacy plays a larger role in motivation than outcome expectancies.

In summary, Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory emphasises the idea that much human behaviour and learning occur in social environments. People can learn knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, rules, and strategies by interacting with others. They also learn about the usefulness, appropriateness, and consequences of behaviours by observing and interacting with other people. People act in accordance with their self-efficacy beliefs about their capabilities and the expected outcomes of actions. Social cognitive theory has been used for much recent behavioural ethics research including research on ethical leadership, and thus offers a reasonable framework for the development of our hypotheses.

Research question (RQ2): *Is ethics-related mentoring important in developing ethical leaders? And if so, when and why?*

2.4.3 Secondary theory used in the present study

As discussed in the previous section, this thesis adopted Bandura's social cognitive theory as theoretical foundation. The second theory used in this study is Hogg's (2001) social identity theory of leadership (SITL) to explain the moderating effect of mentor prototypicality. Before proceeding to the model development (see Chapter 3), we want to make a few general points about the theory and its application in this study in order to avoid any confusion.

In section 2.1, mentoring has been defined as a is a *dyadic relationship* consisting of a more experienced mentor and a less experienced protégé. However, SITL focuses not on a dyadic level but on a *group* level. This theory explains leadership as "a group process generated by social categorization and prototype-based depersonalization processes

associated with social identity" (Hogg, 2001, p184). Its key assumption is that salient group membership shapes attitudes, feelings, and behaviour. When belonging to a salient group, individuals develop a social identity. They begin to define themselves not only in terms of personal identity and interpersonal relationships, but also in terms of social identity, based upon group salience, one's group membership and the *in-group prototype*. The prototype is a representation of characteristics (e.g., attitudes, feelings, values, behaviour) that define the in-group and distinguishes it from other groups.

Building on SITL, van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003) proposed a framework to analyse leadership effectiveness in organisations, called the Social Identity Model of Organizational Leadership (SIMOL). SIMOL suggests that the extent to which the leader influences group members' identity-related attitudes, emotions and behaviours is to some degree contingent upon the leader's in-group prototypicality (i.e., being "one of us"; embodying the group's identity; and representing what group members have in common and what not). These so-called prototypical leaders are likely to have more in influence than non-prototypical leaders over group members' identity-related inferences (e.g., van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). This is the case because, in salient groups, prototypicality is the basis of perception and evaluation of oneself and other in-group members (Hogg, 2001).

Van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003) expanded the discussion of SIMOL by comparing it with leader member exchange (LMX) theory. Although we conceptually differentiated mentoring from LMX (cf., section 2.1), LMX relationships are dyadic, one-to-one, and individualised relationships, too. We, therefore, would like to draw attention to the following: The authors (ibid.) note that LMX theory is a perspective that emphasises the leader-follower dyadic relationship, and that *ignores* broader social influence factors such as leader prototypicality or group identification. From a social identity leadership perspective, SIMOL proposes that "although personalized, dyadic, leader-member relations may be effective in many groups, they may be less effective in groups that are highly salient and that people identify strongly with" (ibid., p268). To support their argument, the authors refer to a study by

Hogg, Martin, Epitropaki et al. (2005) who found that depersonalised leader-member relationships were associated with greater leadership effectiveness among high (as compared to low) salient groups and identifiers, and personalised leadership effectiveness was less affected by group salience and unaffected by identification. As such, SIMOL assumes that, in salient groups, personalised relationships do not have an advantage; In other words, with increasing salience and identification, depersonalised leader-member relations are better evaluated and leaders who adopt these relations are more effective.

As a result, we recognise that prototypicality is usually examined at a group level, and not a dyadic level. However, we think that this is appropriate in this thesis for the following reason. The SIMOL framework points out that leadership takes place within contexts of shared memberships in social groups. These social groups are cognitively represented as flexible categories whose boundaries and content vary with the comparative context (Ullrich, Christ & van Dick, 2009). Thus, the prototype construal depends on which other groups we have in mind when making comparisons and which fuzzy set of attributes, values, and goals define one's group in reference to the other groups. For example, when interacting with a person from the same organisation as ours, we view that person as an in-group member and perceive that person more favourably – in comparison to an out-group member (i.e., this person is not employed in the same organisation).

Once a person is categorised, then depersonalisation occurs. Depersonalisation refers to a process by which the self and others are perceived as group members rather than autonomous individuals, and who are assigned the prototypical attributes of the group. Because prototypes, as discussed above, describe and prescribe the shared social identity-defining group attributes, members pay close attention to how well they and others conform to the group's prototype. Group members are contrasted with the group's prototype, so they can be more or less prototypical compared to other group members. As a result, "group members conform to, and thus are influenced by, the prototype. Those people who are more prototypical to begin with will be less influenced than those who are less prototypical to begin

with; the former make fewer changes than the latter to approximate the prototype" (Hogg, 2001, p189). This leads us to our research objective.

As outlined in Section 1.1, we aim to investigate the effect of how mentoring – pairing a more experienced senior manager, who has an advising role in the relationship, with a less-experienced manager – relates to developing protégé ethical leadership. In other words, both the mentor and protégé work in leadership roles, with the difference that the protégé is "learning the ropes" and preparing for career advancement at a senior level. Thus, both belong to similar power groups. Such power-based identification helps to shape a protégé's perception of his/her mentor as a role-model based on shared experience and commonality in social identity (Ragins, 1997). Based on the SIMOL framework, which draws on the notion of a category prototype for explaining when and why group members are effective, we suggest a moderating effect of mentor's organisational prototypicality on the relationship between mentor's provision of ethical mentoring and protégé ethical behaviour.

On a final note, leader prototypicality is usually assessed on the team level (i.e., "This leader is a good example of the kind of people that are member of my team"; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). We measured mentor prototypicality on the organisational level. In this respect, Hogg (2001, p195) notes that SITL is intended to describe the role of social identity processes in all forms of leadership; these groups are "ranging from small task-oriented teams to entire nations". Since protégés from this study came from different teams and organisations, we thought that it is most appropriate to let them rate the mentor's representativeness of the organisational identity.

"Sometimes, I have to make decisions in which I need to include ethical calculus [...]. My mentor, she is interim manager, is often faced with, I'd say, companies that struggle in a financial emergency. And I said to myself, ok, I also have to do with that every day because I often make decisions regarding critical risks. And that is, of course, always a question. From a banking perspective, you say to yourself: 'I have invested in this company, and I have to pull the plug' … because you come eventually to the point where you say: 'When you further invest more money, it does not result that the company does not go broke'. And to find the right bounce is sometimes an ethical and moral issue. Because you also know … there are jobs behind … there's an entrepreneurial idea behind … there is a dynasty behind. And that, of course, are things where my mentor and I have found common topics".

(Male protégé)

CHAPTER 3

Model development

3.0 Chapter summary

This chapter outlines the proposed hypothesised model. It begins with an introduction of important protégé outcomes, namely ethical leadership – which is the focal point in this dissertation – as well as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and turnover intentions. Next, it is argued that mentor prototypicality moderates the relationship between the ethics-related mentoring and the three aforementioned ethics-related behaviours. Then, as a mediated moderation model was proposed in this thesis, the next chapter introduces one potential mediator – protégé moral motivation – to start exploring the mechanism of the proposed interaction between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and mentor prototypicality on the outcomes in question. Finally, a conceptual model is outlined.

3.1 Ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical behaviour

Ethics-related mentoring is important because of the protégé behaviours it may influence. This study focuses on three outcomes of ethics-related mentoring that are

particularly important for individual protégés and their organisations: protégé ethical leadership, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and turnover intentions. The following sections further explain the salience of these outcome variables and draw on SCT to explain their proposed relationships with ethics-related mentoring.

3.1.1 Ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical leadership

Due to the recent high-impact ethics scandals (e.g., in the banking sector or the automobile industry), increased attention on ethical leadership in organisations has emerged. Treviño et al. (2000, 2003) were some of the earliest scholars who focused on ethical leadership as a distinct leadership style. After interviewing senior executives and corporate ethics officers in the USA, they described ethical leadership along two essential dimensions: The first is reflected in the "moral person" component and refers to the qualities of the ethical leader. The moral person has desirable traits such as integrity, honesty, and concern for others, and considers the consequences of his or her actions. The second dimension – the "moral manager" component – refers to how the ethical leader uses the tools of the position of leadership to promote ethics in the workplace. Based on Bandura's (1977, 1986) approach to social learning theory, Brown et al. (2005) proposed that followers will come to behave similarly to their leader through observational learning, imitation, and identification. Brown et al. (ibid., p120) define ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationship, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making".

Most empirical work on ethical leadership has focused on the positive effects of ethical leadership on followers' attitudes and behaviours (Eisenbeiss & Giessner, 2012). Recent studies, for example, found positive effects of ethical leadership on *employees' attitudes*, such as followers' job dedication (Brown et al., 2005), follower job satisfaction and affective commitment (Neubert et al., 2009), employee perception of job characteristics including task significance, autonomy, and employee motivation (Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog & Folger,

2010), and *employee behaviours* such as willingness to report problems to management (Brown et al., 2005), employee voice behaviour (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), individual and group organisational citizenship behaviour (Avey, Wernsing & Palanski, 2011; Mayer et al., 2009), job performance (Zhu, He, Treviño, Chao & Wang, 2015), follower misconduct (Mayer, Kuenzi & Greenbaum, 2010), and follower deviance (van Gilsa, van Quaquebekeb, van Knippenberg, van Dijke & De Cremer, 2015).

Several researchers also focused on the importance of ethical leaders at different hierarchy levels for creating an ethical climate and affecting ethical behaviours in the workplace (e.g., Dickson, Smith, Grojean & Ehrhart, 2001; Neubert et al., 2009). In order to influence ethical norms and behaviours, this process usually starts at top management and cascades down through middle management and supervisory levels. Mayer et al. (2009) found a direct negative relationship between both top management and supervisory ethical leadership with group-level deviance, and a positive relationship with group-level organisational citizenship behaviour. They further found that this "trickle-down" model is mediated by supervisory leadership. As a result, top-level managers serve as role models for lower-level managers, who in turn serve as role models for their employees (ibid.). Similarly, Schaubroeck, Hannah, Avolio et al. (2012) tested a "multi-level" model and found that the influences of ethical leadership are not only related to immediate followers within a unit, but also occur across hierarchical levels, through the cascading of ethical culture and the influences of senior leaders on subordinate leader behaviour.

Scholars have also started to examine what makes a leader ethical. Research has begun to relate leader traits, moral identity, moral attentiveness, and cognitive moral development to employee perceptions of ethical leadership. With respect to leader traits, Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) tested three traits of the five-factor (or "Big Five") personality model (Tupes & Christal, 1961), and found a positive relationship between agreeableness and conscientiousness (but not neuroticism) and ethical leadership. Similarly, Kalshoven et al. (2011a) tested the relationship between all Big Five traits and ethical

leadership. They found low but significant relations between personality traits and perceptions of ethical leadership, whereas agreeableness and conscientiousness were most relevant for overall ethical leadership. Further, with regard to research on moral identity, Mayer et al. (2012) proposed and found a positive relationship between the two dimensions of moral identity – that Aquino and Reed (2002) refer to as *symbolisation* (i.e., the public aspect) and *internalisation* (i.e., the private expression) and – and ethical leadership. From that, they concluded that moral identity could act as a source of motivation for leaders to behave in a way that is consistent with a self-schema of traits (e.g., honest, caring, compassionate, hard-working) associated with a moral prototype. Similarly, Zhu et al. (2016) looked at leader moral identity, but also included a new ethics-related leader characteristic, i.e., leader moral attentiveness, in their study on the antecedents of ethical leadership. As hypothesised, they found that both leaders' moral identity and moral attentiveness are associated with follower's perceptions of ethical leadership. Finally, Jordan et al. (2013) suggested that follower perceptions of ethical leadership depend on the leader's cognitive moral development (CMD) and on the relationship between leader and follower CMD. They found a positive relationship between leader CMD and perceptions of ethical leadership. They further showed that ethical leadership is maximised when leaders' CMD is greater than that of their followers.

To sum up, ethical scandals in corporations have generated considerable interest in the topic of ethical leadership. For that reason, organisations want to know how to select, develop and retain ethical leaders. Research has shown that both protégés and subsequently organisations profit from ethical leaders. However, to date, only a few studies have empirically examined the antecedents of ethical leadership. For that reason, several researchers have called for more research on the antecedents of ethical leadership (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Den Hartog, 2015). We respond to this call by introducing ethics-related mentoring as a new predictor of protégé ethical leadership – i.e., as a source of ethical leadership development. In the following, we draw upon Bandura's social cognitive theory

(SCT) and existing literature to explain why ethics-related mentoring should predict protégé ethical leadership.

According to SCT's social learning (Bandura, 1977, 1986), individuals learn by paying attention to and emulating the attitudes, values, and behaviours of attractive and credible models. Attractiveness is based on a number of model characteristics such as status (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963), competence (Kanareff & Lanzetta, 1958), and admiration for a role model (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Most individuals look outside themselves to other individuals for ethical guidance (Kohlberg, 1969; Treviño, 1986). We, therefore, suggest that ethical mentors influence the development of ethical leadership by providing attractive exemplars of personal ethical behaviour and the setting of ethical standards. Both mentoring theory and empirical results suggest that the presence of an ethical mentor can have significant positive effects on protégé ethical leadership.

As outlined in Section 2.3, "*A role for ethics-related mentoring?*", first scholars started to theorise that mentoring can positively influence ethics-related outcomes. Drawing from the fields of philosophy, moral psychology, and counselling, Moberg (2008b) offers several propositions regarding ways mentors can help their protégés form moral character as an integrated system of motivation, emotion, knowledge, and cognition through *experience, reflection, and inspiration*. In terms of how experience can lead to moral character development, Moberg (ibid.) claims that a protégé develops moral character when their mentor tutors him or her in how to identify and solve practical problems they are likely to face. The kind of tutoring identified by him has often been called "Socratic dialogue": The tutor (i.e., mentor) begins by asking his or her protégé a question. If the protégé is unable to respond adequately, the tutor will guide or scaffold the protégé until his or her response is appropriate (Vygotsky, 1978). Similarly, Kram (1985) noted the value of mentors asking questions to broaden the protégé's way of conceptualising the issues that are involved in situations and decision-making. To provide guidance, Moberg (2008b) suggested that the mentor can deconstruct complex problems into simpler problems. The mentor may

demonstrate how to complete one aspect of a task. He or she may also offer hints, explain relevant principles, and initiate tasks which the protégé can complete.

In terms of experience, Moberg (2008b) further asserts that protégés develop moral character when mentors facilitate their accumulation of tacit knowledge. In order for protégés to acquire this kind of knowledge, mentors can use at least four different ways. First, mentors can systematically *expose protégés to relevant contexts*. By assigning them to experience and explore contexts, they become better prepared to learn from them. Second, mentors can *enable protégés to experiment different actions within each context*. For example, mentors can direct protégés to fix a problem, or do a presentation. Matching assignments to the protégé's intrinsic interests greatly increases their procedural learning (Leonard & Swap, 2005). Third, mentors can *ensure that protégés receive effective feedback on how well the task in question is being mastered*. In so doing, protégés acquire tacit knowledge. Feedback also enables protégés to become more reflective, to develop deeper levels of consciousness, and to change behaviours where appropriate (Rock & Garavan, 2011). Feedback can also be used to help protégés resolve issues on their own rather than merely provide solutions (Kram, 1985). Fourth and finally, mentors can *make use of narratives and story-telling*. Tacit knowledge is readily conveyed through narratives. They can illustrate, for example, past management actions, interactions between employees, and aspects that are communicated informally within the organisation (Swap, Leonard, Shields & Abrams, 2001). Stories enhance tacit knowledge as they are engaging, and memorable. They also usually convey rich contextual detail, and therefore convey both patterns and archetypes that lay the foundation for learning (Moberg, 2008b).

Moreover, mentors can support learning by encouraging the ongoing process of reflection. If a protégé reflects regularly but not exorbitantly about the consistency between the protégé's actions and his or her internal states, the protégé can develop moral character (ibid.). Moberg (ibid.) suggests that mentors can engage their protégé in considering whether a particular action is consistent with his or her internal state or values. Moberg (ibid., p97)

offers several questions that help the protégé reflect and analyse situations: “Did I do it for the right reason? Was my action the result of the best available knowledge concerning timing, duration, target object, and extent? Did I have a healthy doubt about the outcome? Were my emotions aligned with my action?”. He notes that without such self-assessment, a protégé may never learn whether he or she has reached the standing of being virtuous. The mentor, on the other hand, can facilitate this type of reflection by asking his or her protégé the above questions, by giving assignments, and by arranging protégés with the same professional background to publicly reflect with others (ibid.).

Mentors can also help their protégés form character through inspiration. In this respect, Moberg (ibid.) proposes that inspiration not only arises from events that occur naturally in the lives of protégés, but also from a person. When a mentor becomes an inspirational role model for a protégé, his or her actions are so invigorating that they motivate the protégé to acquire the character element in question (Lockwood et al., 2002). For this situation to occur, it is necessary that the mentor has mastered specific tasks that are relevant to the protégé, and that the mentor’s level of performance is attainable to the protégé (Moberg, 2008b). Besides identifying with role models who personify moral character, Moberg (ibid.) suggests that protégés develop moral character via social learning from the mentor, as they find the actions and commitments of their mentors helpful. Through observation and imitation, protégés might learn new assertiveness tactics or might discontinue poor communication approaches (Ibarra, 2000). Social learning can also be facilitated by shadowing, meaning that the protégé accompanies the mentor through a typical working day or during a specific event that provides a learning opportunity for the protégé (Barnett, 1990).

In sum, Moberg’s (2008b) theoretical analysis clearly shows that mentors can actively help in framing the moral education of their protégés. He concludes his paper by suggesting that mentors take the role of a moral “character developer” (p100). So from a social learning / cognitive standpoint, mentoring provides a mechanism to develop and exchange not only business knowledge and experiences but also foster moral character development especially

as related to organisational and career success. We, therefore, expect that ethical mentors can positively influence protégés' ethics-related outcomes, such as the development of ethical leadership behaviour.

Preliminary empirical evidence suggests that mentoring can influence protégés' ethical behaviour. McManus and Subramaniam (2009) examined the effect of mentoring on ethical evaluation and orientation of early career accountants (ECAs) in large public accounting firms in Australia. Mentorship style was measured using the instrument developed by Scandura and Viator (1994). The authors found that a career-development mentoring style appears to support ECAs' ethical evaluation of a senior colleague, but no impact was found on their ethical behaviour orientations. Surprisingly, the social support mentoring style was significantly negatively related to the ECAs' ethical evaluations and behaviour. Although the results are rather disappointing (one explanation of the authors was the respondents' limited extent of interactions with their mentors), this study provides first evidence and highlights the importance of mentoring in influencing ethical development at the workplace. Not from a "Western" perspective, but from an Islamic perspective, James and McManus (2011) the ethical orientations of National female graduates (NFG) from the United Arab Emirates. They found a positive relationship between NFG's perceptions of mentoring support (i.e., career development, social support, and role modelling mentorship style) and their evaluation of (1) the seriousness of an unethical situation, (2) the ethical behaviour of their senior colleagues as well as their ethical behavioural intentions in terms of (3) the likelihood they would call a professional body for advice and (4) the likelihood they would make a more ethical decision. Another study that was conducted by Taylor and Curtis (2016) using a sample of 120 public accountants, revealed that perceived mentor relationship quality is significantly associated with disclosure intention. In particular, mentoring was found to increase disclosure of fraud within the company to those in authority, including not only the immediate supervisor but also the mentor.

Evidence for the hypothesised relationship can also be found in the ethical leadership literature. Social learning theory suggests that ethical role modelling is an important antecedent of ethical leadership. Hence, ethical leadership depends on observation and direct interaction. In the qualitative study conducted by Treviño et al. (2000) with 20 senior executives and 20 corporate ethics officers, interviewees said that role modelling through visible action was an important predictor of ethical leadership. To better understand ethical role modelling, Weaver et al. (2005) interviewed 20 experienced managers or professionals who had been influenced by an ethical role model at work. They identified several contextual requirements to be viewed as an ethical role model by another, including regular or „frequent personal interaction" or some other kind of „close relationship" with the ethical role model as well as „being viewed positively by others" and „being widely respected in their organization". Although this study focused specifically on ethical role models and not on mentors, this comparison was drawn as one of the interviewees gave an example of what co-workers said when his ethical role model retired; "Thank you for being my *mentor*, or thank you for being an example" (Weaver et al., 2005, p323-324). The above contextual requirements are also fulfilled by mentors. Johnson (2002) notes that literature on mentoring indicates that effective mentors demonstrate qualities such as being "interpersonally supportive, encouraging, and poised", and they are „ethical", „intentional role models" and „well-known as scholars and professionals". Similarly, Bailey, Voyles, Finkelstein, and Matarazzo (2016) who conducted an exploratory study of mentor prototypes found that the ideal mentor prototype involves guidance, understanding, and role modelling ethical values.

Besides qualitative work to better understand the concept of ethical leadership, quantitative work was conducted to examine its situational influences. Most interestingly in the context of this study, Brown and Treviño (2014) examined the influence of three possible types of role models – early childhood role models, career mentors, and top managers – on the development of ethical leadership. Among others, they argued that "having an ethical mentor provides an important opportunity for employees to learn about ethical leadership

firsthand in the workplace" (p590). The findings of their field study, surveying 217 managers and 659 direct reports from a large insurance firm in the U.S., revealed that having had an ethical mentor in one's career was positively related to ethical leadership. Thus, we expect that having a mentor that provides ethics-related mentoring in the form of guidance and role modelling ethical values on a frequent or regular basis makes it more likely that a protégé will become an ethical leader. In line with the aforementioned arguments and the positive empirical findings, we propose that:

> ***H1:*** *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethics-related mentoring and their own ethical leadership.*

3.1.2 Ethics-related mentoring and protégé OCB

The interest paid to organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) has increased dramatically within the last decade. Very impressive is the fact that over half of the more than 2100 published articles on OCB have been published since 2009 (Podsakoff, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Maynes & Spoelma, 2014). Originally, Organ (1988, p4) defined OCB as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization". More recently, however, he modified this definition to say that OCB is "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (Organ, 1997, p95). Organ (1988) proposed a five-factor OCB model consisting of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. According to Organ (ibid.), *altruism* describes behaviours directly intended to help a specific person with an organisationally relevant task or problem; *courtesy* comprises behaviours aimed at preventing work-related problems that would otherwise occur for co-workers; *conscientiousness* describes behaviours indicating that employees accept and adhere to the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organisation; *civic virtue* relates to behaviour indicating that employees take an active interest in the life of their organisation; and

sportsmanship is defined as an employee's willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining and making problems seem bigger than they actually are.

Other scholars have identified two primary second-order dimensions of the citizenship behaviour domain. For instance, a conceptualization of OCB by Williams and Anderson (1991) organise OCBs into categories on the basis of the target or direction of the behaviour: OCB-*I* (behaviours directed toward the benefit of other individuals; e.g., Organ's (1988) altruism and courtesy) and OCB-*O* (behaviours directed toward the benefit of the organization; e.g., Organ's (ibid.) conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). Some researchers even suggest a uni-dimensional concept of OCB. For example, LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002) demonstrated through meta-analysis that there are strong relationships among most of Organ's dimensions and that the dimensions have equivalent relationships with the predictors that have been most often considered by OCB researchers.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) were among the first researchers to operationalize Organ's (1988) five dimensions. Their resulting OCB scales have served as the basis for OCB measurement in a large number of empirical studies (LePine et al., 2002). Le Pine and colleagues (ibid.) noted that many OCB researchers have combined scores on the behavioural dimensions into one overall score, whereas other scholars have considered a specific OCB dimension in isolation. Due to its recognition, this study refers to Organ's (1988) five-dimensional framework. It is important to note that our hypotheses (as will be derived next) address the specific dimensions of the construct, rather than OCB in general. In this way, we are able to examine the effect of ethics-related mentoring on OCBs directed at the individual (i.e., altruism and courtesy), *and* the organisation (i.e., conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship).

OCB has positive implications both for individual and organisational performance. In their meta-analysis, Podsakoff et al. (2009) examined the relationship between OCBs and a variety of individual- and organisational-level outcomes. They found that OCBs relate to

important individual-level outcomes including managerial ratings of employee performance, reward allocation decisions, and a variety of withdrawal-related criteria (e.g., turnover intentions, and absenteeism). Moreover, OCBs relate to important organisational-level outcomes such as productivity, efficiency, reduced costs, customer satisfaction, and unit-level turnover. Podsakoff et al. (2009) also observed stronger relationships between OCBs and unit-level performance measures in time-lagged studies than in cross-sectional studies, but additional research is needed to further support these findings.

Further, in their review of the OCB literature, Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that recent research on the consequences of OCB has focused on two key issues, namely: (1) effects of OCB on managerial evaluations of performance and judgments such as pay raises and promotions, and (2) effects of OCB on organisational performance and success. In regards to the first issue, the authors found that OCB uniquely accounted for 42.9% of the variance in performance evaluations. With respect to the five OCB dimensions, all dimensions except for courtesy had a significant effect on performance evaluations in the majority of the studies. With regards to the second area of research, Podsakoff et al. (ibid., p543-546) further summarised that OCBs may contribute to organisational success by "(a) enhancing coworker and managerial productivity; (b) freeing up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes; (c) reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions; (d) helping to coordinate activities both within and across work groups; (e) strengthening the organization's ability to attract and retain the best employees; (f) increasing the stability of the organization's performance; and (g) enabling the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental changes". It is therefore understandable why practitioners have been highly interested in how to promote OCBs in order to increase the effectiveness of work teams and organizations. But surprisingly, according to Podsakoff et al. (ibid.), this issue has received little attention in empirical studies.

All in all, the results of the above-described meta-analysis and the review of the OCB literature (Podsakoff et al., 2000; 2009) indicate that OCBs have significant relationships with a variety of individual- and organisational-level outcomes, and give good reasons to choose OCB as an outcome variable. Because of its impact, Podsakoff et al. (2009) suggest that managers should create a work environment that encourages employees to exhibit OCBs. As leaders play a key role in creating such work environments (Podsakoff et al., 2000), it is worth examining the impact of ethical mentors on protégé OCBs. A second reason for choosing OCB as outcome variable is the contribution we make to the mentoring literature. McManus and Russel (1997) considered the linkage between mentoring and protégés' engagement in OCB as a new direction for research in the mentoring literature. To date, only a few researchers have investigated the relationship between mentoring and OCB (Allen et al., 2009; Donaldson et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2015; Ghosh, Reio & Haynes, 2012; Kwan, Liu & Yim, 2011; Kwan et al., 2010; Rodopman, Allen, Xu & Biga, 2007). It is noteworthy that these studies focused on the existing mentoring functions in the literature. We thus contribute by explicitly focusing on the ethical component of mentoring and its impact on OCB. Another reason that speaks for choosing OCB as protégé outcome variable is its obvious moral dimension. All of Organ's (1988) OCB dimensions have an inherently moral quality emphasising respect, fairness, and kindness (Bonner et al., 2014). This is especially true for the altruistic (also labeled helping) dimension of OCB.

As noted earlier, the focal point of this study is to investigate the impact of ethics-related mentoring on ethical leadership behaviour. It is reasonable to examine and predict its effect on OCB as well. Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris and Zivnuska (2011, p633) suggest that ethical leadership and OCB are linked conceptually „as OCB may result in an enhancement of the social good [...] and as such may be seen as reflecting an ethical code of conduct". Having an ethical mentor should, therefore, influence not only ethical leadership behaviour but also organisational citizenship behaviour. Again, we employ SCT's social learning (Bandura, 1977, 1986) to underpin the relationship between ethics-related mentoring and

OCB. This theory posits that people learn by observing the behaviour of respectable others. As such, ethical mentors are likely to signal to protégés, through role modelling, that similar moral behaviours are desirable. Hence, protégés will notice that ethical mentors tend to treat the organisation with respect, honesty, and fairness. Subsequently, we expect that protégés too will find it appropriate to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (ibid). Further, the discussed literature on mentoring and protégé moral character development (cf., Moberg, 2008b) and the empirical evidence, as stated in the previous section on the relationship between ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical leadership (see Section 3.1.1), suggest a positive relationship between ethics-related mentoring and OCB.

In fact, we are quite confident that this relationship exists as previous research found support for the impact of mentoring in general on OCBs. Donaldson et al. (2000) who conducted a longitudinal study found that high-quality mentoring relationships measured in Time 1 are correlated with the self-reported level of OCBs reported six months later. Eby et al. (2015) who used a cross-lagged panel design found that the receipt of supervisory mentoring predicts interpersonally oriented OCBs (i.e., helping behaviours such as helping coworkers and providing emotional support). We, therefore, expect that protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring should be related to protégés' OCB, too. As such, the following is hypothesised:

> ***H2:*** *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethics-related mentoring and their OCB.*

3.1.3 Ethics-related mentoring and protégé turnover intentions

Employee turnover has attracted the attention of management scholars and practitioners alike for decades and remains an issue of interest (Allen, Bryant & Vardaman, 2010). Turnover is defined as the departure of an employee from "the formally defined organization" (March & Simon, 1958, p99). There are different types of turnover, each with its

own implications. More specifically, types of turnover can be described across three dimensions (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). According to Allen et al. (2010), a first important distinction has to be made between *voluntary* and *involuntary turnover*. Voluntary turnover is initiated by the employee, whereas involuntary turnover is initiated by the organisation for various reasons such as poor job performance or organisational restructuring. Most research on employee turnover focuses on voluntary turnover (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008). A second distinction is made between instances of voluntary, meaning that voluntary turnover can be divided into *dysfunctional* and *functional turnover* (Dalton, Todor & Krackhardt, 1982). Dysfunctional turnover is harmful to the organisation; it is characterised by the exit of employees who have skills that are difficult to replace. Functional turnover, although disruptive, may not be harmful. This subtype of turnover is characterised by the exit of employees who are easy to replace; it may even be beneficial as it includes the exit of poor performers (Allen et al., 2010). Finally, dysfunctional turnover can be *avoidable* and *unavoidable*. According to Allen and colleagues (ibid.), avoidable turnover occurs for reasons that the organisation may be able to influence. This includes higher pay at a perceived alternative job, low job satisfaction, and poor supervision. Unavoidable turnover, on the other hand, occurs for reasons that may not be influenced by the organisation, such as health or dual career issues. This third distinction is important because it may make little strategic sense to invest effort in reducing turnover that occurs largely for unavoidable reasons.

Much of the turnover literature is predicated on the idea that turnover matters because it has meaningful consequences. Employee turnover is one of the most significant causes of declining productivity and sagging morale in both the private and public sectors (Abassi & Hollman, 2000). Argote, Insko, Yovetich and Romero (1995) found that groups which did not experience turnover produced significantly more products than did groups which experienced turnover. Moreover, higher turnover rates have been associated with reduced profits (McElroy, Morrow & Rude, 2001; Peterson & Luthans, 2006), lower revenue growth (Baron et al., 2001), lower sales (McElroy et al., 2001; Siebert & Zubanov, 2009), lower service quality

perceptions (Hausknecht et al., 2009), longer customer wait times (Kacmar, Andrews, van Rooy, Steilberg & Cerrone, 2006), higher accident rates, reduced manufacturing efficiency (Shaw, Gupta & Delery, 2005), as well as disrupting operations (Ton & Huckman, 2008).

Turnover, especially the voluntary form, is costly both directly and indirectly for organisations. Direct costs include the costs of lost productivity (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000), recruitment, selection, temporary staffing and training of newly hired employees (Holtom et al., 2008). More specifically, the costs associated with selecting, recruiting and training new employees often exceed 100% of the annual salary for the position being filled (Cascio, 2006). Indirect costs include loss of organisational memory, loss of seasoned mentors (Allen et al., 2010), operational disruption, and demoralisation of employees who remain in the organisation (Staw, 1980). With respect to demoralisation, Staw (ibid.) further noted that the perceived reason for leaving has an effect on the demoralisation of membership. If the reason for leaving is non-organisational in nature, such as family problems, location, or economic conditions, it will produce less of a demoralisation effect. However, if the reason lies in the nature of work, pay, or supervision, then turnover will likely lead to greater demoralisation.

Turnover intention is an important concept in the turnover literature due to its close relationship with actual turnover. Gaertner and Nollen (1992, p448) defined the intent to leave or stay as “a behavioral intention resulting from company policies, labor market characteristics, and employee perceptions”. Tett and Meyer (1993, p261) defined turnover intention as “a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization”. According to Garrison, Wakefield, Harvey and Kim (2010, p110) turnover intention “focuses on the cognitive processes resulting in one’s desire/motivation to leave an organization”. The theoretical justification for focusing on turnover intentions was provided by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p369). The authors suggested that “the best single predictor of an individual’s behavior will be a measure of his intention to perform that behavior”. Indeed, a meta-analysis conducted by Steel and Ovalle (1984) showed not only a strong positive relationship

between employee turnover intention and actual turnover but also demonstrated that turnover intention was a better predictor of actual turnover behaviour than affective variables, such as overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with the work itself, or organisational commitment. A more recent review of the turnover literature by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) reached the same conclusion, that is, turnover intent is often found to be the best predictor of voluntary turnover.

To sum up, turnover correlates with a decline in morale and productivity among the employees who remain with the organisation. Moreover, employee turnover is costly and disruptive. According to Cascio (1991), turnover costs can include, but are not limited to, separation costs associated with administrative activities, recruitment, and training expenses. This can be staggering. Faced with this difficult situation, organisations need to invest in the retention of their employees, especially in order to avoid permanent exit from the market. Or, as Hatch and Dyer (2004, p1155) put it, “firms with high turnover significantly underperform their rivals”. We, therefore, decided to investigate the impact of ethics-related mentoring on protégé’s intent to leave their organisation. This decision is strengthened by the fact that turnover intention also has a moral dimension, as will be shown in the next paragraphs.

From a social learning perspective (Bandura, 1977, 1986), we expect that protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring reduces protégés’ turnover intentions. As reviewed earlier, ideal mentors provide guidance and modeling of ethical values (Bailey et al., 2016). In other words, they provide formal feedback (positive or corrective) on behaviour and performance and informal norms that support ethical conduct in the organisation. In such relationships, protégés thus learn that ethical conduct and behaviour is desirable and that their mentors provide opportunities for them to observe and emulate models of ethical conduct. We expect that protégés who feel that they “fit” with the observed mentor’s ethical values are likely to stay with the organisation. This prediction is grounded in theory and research on person-organisation fit.

Chatman (1989, p339) defines person-organisation fit "as the congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of persons". Contrarily, when an individual perceives individual and organisational values to be incompatible a misfit occurs. P-O fit scholars typically ground their research in terms of Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework. According to Schneider (ibid.), individuals place themselves in organisations that best suit their characteristics and – more important for our study – involuntary or voluntarily leave organisations that do not provide a positive match. The ASA framework ultimately predicts that misfit between individual's and organisation's values will necessarily lead to turnover. As noted by Schneider, Goldstein and Smith (1995, p758) who provide an update of the ASA framework, "the logic here is that fit yields satisfaction and commitment, that these in turn yield retention and, by implication, those who do not fit will leave". Research confirms the linkage between low P-O fit and turnover (e.g., Moynihan & Pandey, 2008; Ponemon, 1992; Schneider, 1987).

Similarly but related to business ethics, De George (1990) argues that individuals who do not believe that they fit with the organisation in terms of ethics usually do not stay long with the organisation. This view is confirmed by research. For instance, Sims and Keon (1997) investigated the link between the organisation's ethical climate and the development of person-organisation fit. They found that organisational ethics and values tend to be related to employees' level of satisfaction and their expressed intention to leave the organisation. More specifically, employees tend to be associated with companies that have ethical work climates which are consistent with their preferences. If this is the case, they tend to be more satisfied and less likely to leave. Further, Dubinsky and Ingram (1984) explored selected correlates of salespeople's ethical conflict (occurring when a person feels pressure to take actions that are not consistent with what he or she feels to be right). They concluded that ethical conflict increases frustration, reduces job satisfaction, and augments turnover. In fact, Schwepker (1999) found that salespeople's ethical conflict is positively related to turnover intentions. From his findings, he concluded that ethical value congruence is important; top

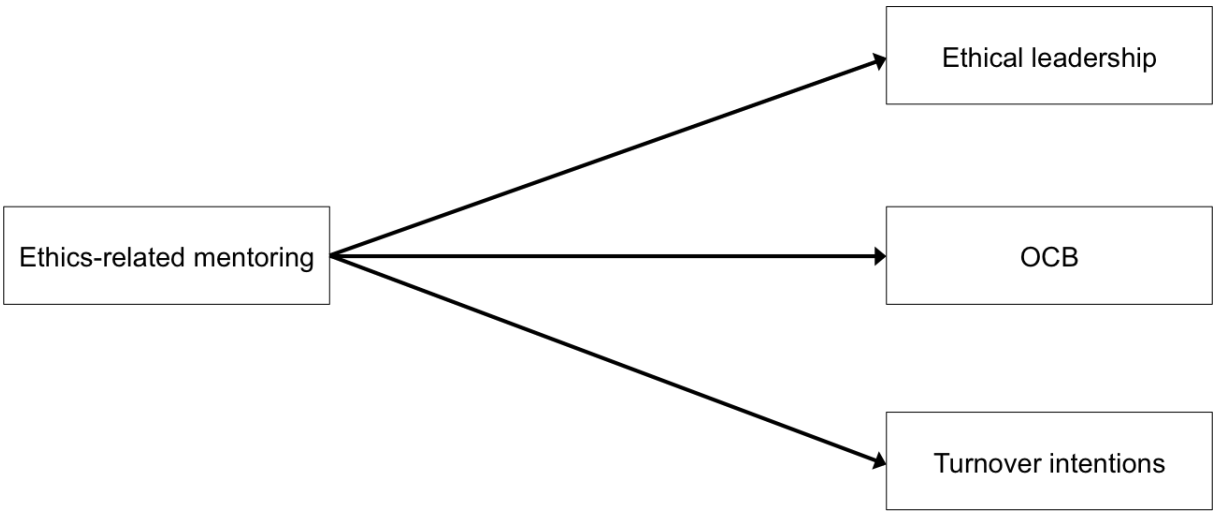
management presumably manifests the ethical values the organisation wishes to exhibit. When top managers' ethical values are perceived to be incongruent with those of employees, ethical conflict is believed to exist, which is associated with higher turnover intentions.

On the basis of the aforementioned arguments and the empirical results, we expect that by receiving ethics-related mentoring protégés should recognise whether their ethical values are congruent with those of their mentors, and thus want to develop or maintain (if they have already developed) ethical conduct. As a result, protégés who feel that they fit with the observed mentor's ethical values are likely to stay with the organisation; the perceived match of ethical values reduces their intention to leave the organisation. The hypothesis reads as follows:

> ***H3:*** *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethics-related mentoring and their turnover intentions.*

For an overview, the conceptual model of the three hypothesised main effects is given in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Conceptual model for main effects



3.2 Mentor prototypicality as a moderator

Drawing on Bandura's (1977, 1986) SCT's social learning, we suggested in the previous section that protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring is positively related to protégé ethical leadership and OCB, and negatively related to turnover intention. These proposed relationships are likely to be moderated by boundary conditions. Past research and theory in the mentoring and ethical leadership literature suggest that the quality of the relationship will moderate the positive protégé/subordinate outcomes of mentors/line managers. For instance, Ragins et al.'s (2000) found that protégés with satisfying formal mentoring relationships – as compared to unsatisfying or marginal mentoring relationships – had higher levels of career and organisational commitment, and organisation-based self-esteem. The authors concluded that the presence of a mentor alone does not automatically lead to positive work outcomes, but that the outcomes depend on the quality of the mentor-protégé relationship. Similarly, but with respect to the ethical leadership literature, we like to highlight Brown et al.'s (2005) discussion about the distance between leaders and followers. The authors state that this distance can be expressed in terms of social distance, physical distance, or frequency of task interaction and that they all have an important impact on how leaders are perceived by their followers as well the outcomes with which they are associated (ibid.). Evidence from the literature of ethical role modelling supports the idea that effective, ethical role models have a close working relationship with their protégés/followers (Brown & Treviño, 2015; Weaver et al., 2005). Accordingly, the results in both fields suggest that it seems useful to examine the qualitative aspect of the mentor-protégé relationship more closely.

With the above said, we decided to focus on prototypicality – more specifically on *mentor* prototypicality – as a moderator variable in our study. The idea of examining the role of mentor prototypicality is new, but important, as will now be discussed. Usually, scholars examine the role of *leader* prototypicality. Hogg's (2001) social identity analysis of leadership

(see Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003 for an overview) suggests that leader prototypicality is a key factor in leader-follower influence.

A leader who is characterised as the group prototype is typically more effective in influencing the followers within the workgroup. The reason is that some group members are more group prototypical than others – they are more representative of the shared social identity of group members and better represent the group's standards, values, and norms (Hogg, Abrams, Otten & Hinkle, 2004). Because of their perceived representativeness of group normative standards, group prototypical leaders are more effective in mobilising and influencing followers (Hogg, 2001). Moreover, they are trusted more to act in the group's best interest (Giessner, van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2009; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) by virtue of their representativeness of the shared social identity of group members – further testifying their greater effectiveness. Previous research on leader prototypicality has examined the relationship between leader group prototypicality and different aspects of leadership effectiveness: performance (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), creativity (Hirst, van Dick & van Knippenberg, 2009), perceived leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, turnover intentions (Pierro, Cicero, Bonaiuto, van Knippenberg & Kruglanski, 2005), and willingness to cooperate and organisational citizenship behaviour (De Cremer, van Dijke & Mayer, 2010).

Leader group prototypicality was also found to be an effective moderator in three previous studies. First, van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005) hypothesised that self-sacrificing leaders are more effective and able to push followers to a higher performance level than non-self-sacrificing leaders and that these effects are expected to be more pronounced for less prototypical leaders than for more prototypical leaders. To test the hypotheses, they used different study designs (i.e., one laboratory experiment, one scenario experiment, and two cross-sectional surveys), different samples (i.e., students, and employees of organisations), and different operationalisations of leadership effectiveness (i.e., perceived effectiveness, willingness to engage in organisational change, and follower

performance). The four studies revealed that the effects of leader self-sacrificing behaviour on leadership effectiveness were stronger for leaders who were less prototypical than for leaders who were more prototypical of the group. Second, Giessner et al. (2009) investigated how perceptions of leader group prototypicality and leader performance influence followers' leadership effectiveness evaluations. The authors conducted three studies using different methodologies (i.e., scenario experiment, cross-sectional field study, and laboratory experiment). They found support for their prediction. Leader group prototypicality moderated the influence of performance information on leadership evaluations. That is, a group prototypical leader received higher evaluations of leadership effectiveness after failure information than non-prototypical leaders. Third, and more recently, Gerpott, van Quaquebeke, Schlamp and Voelpel (2017) made a step toward understanding the underlying moral mechanisms between ethical leadership and organisational outcomes. After having conducted two studies – a scenario experiment and a field study – they found that perceived leader group prototypicality moderated the indirect effect of ethical leadership on OCB through follower moral identity. In sum, the three studies show how prototypicality moderates the positive outcomes for individuals. We emphasise this as our research is interested in exploring the moderating role of prototypicality in enhancing the effect of ethics-related mentoring on protégé ethical outcomes.

However, one limitation is that this research field focuses purely on investigating the concept of *leader* prototypicality. Hardly anything is known regarding the role of other organisational agents and their prototypicality. To our knowledge, only one study exists to date that explored the concept of *mentor* prototypicality. More precisely, Cai (2014) assessed the moderating role of mentor's organisational prototypicality on the relationship between mentoring functions and socialisation outcomes and defined mentor's organisational prototypicality as "the extent to which the mentor is perceived to be a typical and exemplary representative of the organization" (ibid., p73). Survey data were collected both from mentors and protégés (203 dyads in total) of a formal mentoring programme in a manufacturing

company in China. The results indicated that mentor's organisational prototypicality moderated the relationship between mentoring received (the measure included career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring and role modelling) and the two mediator variables: When mentor's organisational prototypicality was high, which means that the mentor shares similar characteristics with the organisation in the eyes of the protégé, the effect of mentoring received on organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) and person-organisation fit was stronger in comparison to the effect when mentor's organisational prototypicality was low (ibid). This study is promising, but much more work is required.

Our study is the second study in the literature that examines the (moderating) role of mentor prototypicality. In comparison to Cai's (ibid.) research, this study includes internal and external as well as formal and informal mentors. Thus, not all mentors were members of the organisation, and not all of them were mentors in an official mentoring programme developed by the organisation. This study, therefore, suggests a broader understanding of mentor prototypicality. Second, our study does not assess the traditional mentor roles (i.e., career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role modelling in general), but the ethical role played by mentors (i.e., ethics-related mentoring). Third, we focus not on socialisation but on ethics outcomes (i.e., protégé ethical leadership, OCB and turnover intentions). Fourth and finally, our data is collected in a different country (i.e., a sample from the United States). We, therefore, add to the limited knowledge of mentor prototypicality.

The combination of Bandura's (SCT; 1977, 1986) social cognitive theory and Hogg's (SITL; 2001) social identity theory of leadership provide the theoretical foundation for our hypotheses, as discussed now. Bandura's (1977, 1986) SCT's social learning has been widely used in the past to explain the link between mentoring and protégé outcomes (e.g., Gibson, 2004a; Zagumny, 1993; as already discussed in Section 2.4.1). According to this theory, people learn by observing the consequences that other individuals receive as a result of their behaviour. This vicarious experience helps accelerate learning, as they do not have to learn by trial and error (cf., Hezlett, 2005). The effect of role modelling is even stronger

when the role model has social power and status. In this respect, Bandura (1991, p15) notes that “sources of high credibility produce increasing cognitive change the more their views differ from those held by the person being influenced whereas, for sources of low credibility, the more discrepant their views, the more they are rejected (McGuire, 1985; Bergin, 1962). Social factors exert a powerful influence on how discrepant conceptions are cognitively processed and received”. However, Bandura’s theory by itself is not sufficient to explain the moderating effect in our model. Implicit in social learning theory is the idea that learners identify with their role models. This is, however, more often than not assumed but not tested. In a leadership context, it, therefore, seems sensible to consider what makes followers identify with their role models. Hogg’s (2001) SITL clarifies this.

More precisely, Hogg (ibid.) has developed the idea that group membership influences the social perception processes of followers which in turn affect leadership emergence and maintenance of power. More specifically, he argues that in situations where members identify strongly with the group, a group prototype develops. Members of the group will vary in their match to this specific prototype. One of Hogg’s (ibid.) key arguments is that as group identity becomes stronger, the basis for leadership perceptions, evaluations, and endorsement becomes noticeably influenced by prototypicality. He notes that “prototypical leaders do not need to exercise power to have influence; they are influential because of their position and the depersonalization process that assimilates members’ behavior to the prototype. They and their suggestions are intrinsically persuasive because they embody the norms of the group; they have referent power (Raven, 1965), or position power, and therefore do not need to exercise personal power (Yukl & Falbe, 1991)” (Hogg, 2001, p194). Accordingly, by combining both theories we are able to extend the notion of the role model and his/her social power and status, and thus to suggest that prototypicality of the mentor acts as a boundary condition on the extent to which mentors provide ethics-related mentoring to their protégés.

In sum, due to the aforementioned arguments and the positive empirical findings in the leader prototypicality and mentor prototypicality literature, it is reasonable to expect that a mentor, if he or she is highly prototypical and socially attractive within a group, is even more effective in influencing protégé's behaviour in comparison to a mentor with lower standing. We, therefore, propose that mentor prototypicality moderates the relationship between ethics-related mentoring provided and the three ethics-related outcomes under examination. When the perception of mentor's prototypicality is high (low), protégés will be more (less) likely to develop ethical leadership and to enact OCBs, and less (more) likely to want to leave the organisation. As such, the following is hypothesised:

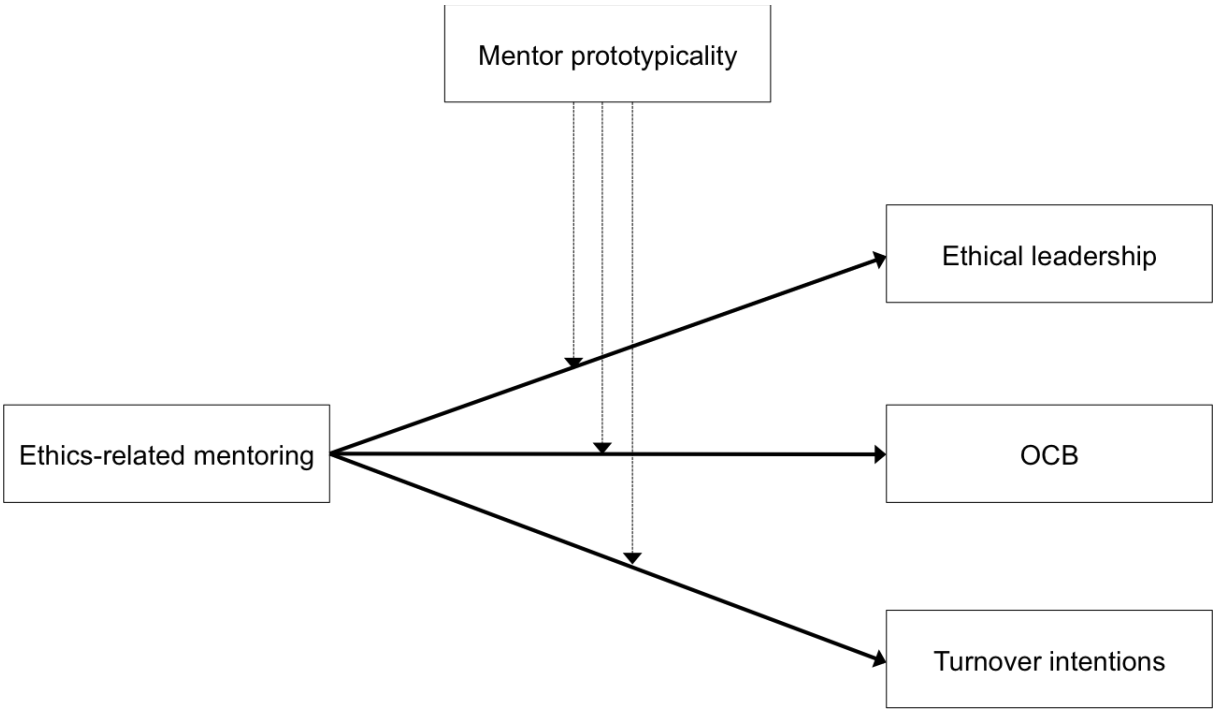
H4: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethics-related mentoring and their ethical leadership, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality is high rather than low.*

H5: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethics-related mentoring and their OCB, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality is high rather than low.*

H6: *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethics-related mentoring and their turnover intentions, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality is high rather than low.*

The conceptual model of the hypothesised moderation effects is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Conceptual model for moderation



3.3 Moral motivation as a mediator

In this section, we review the underlying theory and the relevant findings of the behavioural ethics and mentoring literature in order to propose the mediating effect of protégé moral motivation as a potential mechanism by which the interaction of protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and mentor prototypicality affects protégé ethical outcomes.

Social cognitive theory's social learning suggests that role modelling, or observational learning, influences ethical behaviour through informational and motivational means (Bandura, 1977, 1986). More specifically, as already outlined in Section 2.4.2, observational learning has four component processes: attention, retention, production, and motivation. Motivation is a key process in observational learning because people (i.e., observers) are more likely to attend to, to retain, and to produce the modeled behaviour if this behaviour is seen as important. People are selective; they do not learn or perform everything that they learn. Rather, they try to learn those modeled behaviours and actions that they believe will

lead to positive and desirable outcomes and help them to achieve their goals. On the contrary, they avoid those modeled behaviours and actions that they believe will result in unsatisfactory outcomes (cf., Schunk & Usher, 2012). Therefore, as summarised by Gibson (2004b, p197), "observational learning through modeling can influence behaviour acquisition, inhibition, disinhibition, [and] facilitation". Even moral conduct can be influenced through one's interactions with role models (ibid.). In his social cognitive theory of morality, Bandura (1991) argues that moral development in childhood and adolescence is significantly influenced by the presence of moral role models. In an experiment, Bandura and McDonald (1963) showed that exposure to moral models indirectly reinforced the moral behaviour of children, and thus, their moral development.

Mentoring is also about influencing, motivating, and inspiring people. In the introduction of "*The Handbook of Mentoring at Work: Theory, Research, and Practice*", Ragins and Kram (2007, p3) state that mentoring, at its best, "can be a *life-altering relationship* that inspires mutual growth, learning, and development", and that these relationships "have the capacity to *transform* individuals, groups, organizations, and communities". These statements highlight that mentoring can have a remarkable effect on people. In particular, according to Wanberg et al.'s (2003) process model of formal mentoring, mentoring affects three areas of protégé change, i.e., cognitive, skill-based and – most interesting in our case – affective-based learning. Affective-based learning could be attitudinal (e.g., changes in self-awareness or values) or motivational (e.g., changes in the protégé's motivational disposition, self-efficacy, or goal setting). The authors propose that these proximal learning outcomes partially mediate the relationship between mentoring received and more distal protégé and organisational outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, retention).

Several scholars and researchers have suggested that mentoring can influence protégé motivation in general and protégé moral motivation in particular. More generally speaking, Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng and DuBois (2008) note that protégé motivation and engagement may be enhanced by exposing protégés to educational and social opportunities,

by helping protégés set achievable goals and realise personally relevant outcomes, and by helping them to stay focused on tasks. Also, Lankau and Scandura (2002) propose that protégés often view their mentors as being more politically savvy and knowledgeable about the organisation and the bigger picture, which increase their desire to be like their mentor and motivate them to be more proactive in information seeking. Empirical work confirms the linkage between mentoring provided and protégé motivation. Gaskill and Sibley (1990) used a sample of 205 female executives in middle- and upper-level retail positions, and found that upper-level mentored executives perceived higher levels of job motivation than non-mentored executives. Further, although the sample was rather small with 39 formal mentoring dyads, Orpen (1997) found that the better the relationship between mentors and protégés, the more protégés were motivated to work hard and felt committed to their organisation. This was particularly true for protégés who were physically proximate to their mentors. In the early 2000s, Day and Allen (2004) conducted a study with 125 supervisory, administrative, managerial, and professional employees in a municipality. They found that career-related and psychosocial mentoring was positively related to career motivation. Taken together, these findings confirm that mentors can boost protégés' job- and career-related motivation.

Theory and preliminary results further suggest that mentoring can influence protégés' moral motivation as well. In particular, various theoretical linkages between role modelling (i.e., mentoring) and moral motivation have been identified. Treviño et al. (2006) describe literature that has examined how contextual influences have an impact on Rest's four component model or morality. For instance, some studies investigate the presence of rewards and punishments on moral behaviour. Nevertheless, research has not provided clear support for how rewards and punishments work in relation to eliciting desired behaviour. Further, the employees' perceptions of the organisation's ethical climate and culture can affect individual moral behaviour. Ethical climate has been defined as "a shared perception among organization members regarding the criteria (e.g., egoism, benevolence,

and principle) and focus (e.g., individual, group, society) of ethical reasoning within an organization", whereas ethical culture has been defined as "a slice of the organizational culture that influences employees' ethical behavior through formal and informal organizational structures and systems" (ibid., p966). Both the ethical climate and culture socialise employees as to the standards of the organisation. In addition to this, Treviño and colleagues (ibid.) suggest that other persons' ethical behaviour, including that of peers and leaders, can serve as an influential role model for an employee's own ethical behaviour. Weaver et al. (2006) concluded from their qualitative study that ethical role modelling relationships require relatively close interaction with the role model. As mentoring relationships are close personal relationships (Kram, 1985), it is suggested that not only peers and leaders but also mentors can be considered to be an ethical role model. Hence, mentors should be able to influence Rest's (1986) third and fourth components of ethical decision making, i.e., moral motivation and moral behaviour.

Furthermore, Melé (2005) propose that moral motivation can be fostered through practical wisdom and transitive moral virtues because both give an on-going motivation for acting well and that moral role modelling can play a significant role in motivating individuals towards moral behaviour. Mentors can be such moral role models, as suggested by various scholars. Moberg (2007, p536) defines practical wisdom as a "disposition toward cleverness in crafting morally excellent responses to, or in anticipation of, challenging particularities", and suggests that becoming practically wise involves a lengthy process requiring experience, reflection, and inspiration. As outlined earlier, Moberg (2008b) offered eight propositions of protégé moral character development which fall into these three mechanisms. Similarly, Moberg and Velasquez (2004, p100) conceive the mentor's role as „as a quasi-professional role in which the mentor provides the protégé with the benefits of knowledge, wisdom, and developmental support, and whose purpose is to transfer learning to new generations". Mentors provide these three benefits by acting as a tutor (e.g., through teaching business principles, explaining industry dynamics, etc.), by giving wisdom to the protégé (e.g., through

lessons, stories, and by example), and by having a partiality for the protégé and providing caring support (ibid.). Hence, mentors should be able to animate the capacity to be practically wise, which in turn fosters protégé moral motivation.

Besides Melé (2005), various scholars hold the view that ethical role models, and mentors, in particular, can help to develop moral virtues. Melé (2005) argues that virtues are acquired as a result of personally deliberated and free actions, that can be shown and emphasised to motivate the other side toward moral behaviour. Dobson and Armstrong (1995, p192) also emphasise the essential role played by moral exemplars, or role models, by saying that "the role of exemplars is critical for the application of virtue ethics because it is from these individuals that the virtues are disseminated throughout the profession". Mendonca and Kanungo (2007), who discuss what leaders can do to prepare themselves to meet for the challenging demands of ethical leadership, particularly note that *the practice of virtue* is greatly facilitated by one's moral mentors, who guide protégés both by precept and example. Similarly, Moberg (2008b) proposed in his theoretical work on mentoring for moral character development that protégés can cultivate moral character when they voluntarily set goals to develop virtues, or positive traits, that reflect their intrinsic interests and are congruent with their identities. Mentors can support this process, for example, by helping protégés think critically about what character strengths are truly important to them, and what specific goals are most meaningful and engaging. Taken together, mentors should also be able to facilitate protégés' moral virtues, thus fostering moral motivation.

Based on social learning, Brown et al. (2005) conceptualise ethical leadership and argued that ethical leaders influence followers primarily through modeling processes (e.g., leading by example). In order to be perceived as ethical leaders and to influence ethics-related outcomes, leaders must be attractive, credible, and legitimate. They do this by engaging in behaviour that is evaluated by followers as normatively appropriate (e.g., honesty, trustworthiness, and fairness), and that suggests altruistic motivation. In the latter case, Brown and colleagues (ibid., p130) note that "follower perceptions of the leader's

altruistic motivation and creation of a just work environment contribute to the attractiveness, credibility, and legitimacy of the role model". To act and to decide in an altruistic nature is part of the "moral person" component of ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Batson (2008) notes that altruistic motivation should not be confused or equated with moral motivation, as the utmost goal of the former is to increase another's welfare, whereas the utmost goal of the latter is to act in accordance with moral principles. However, after reporting social psychological experiments that illuminate the distinction between altruistic and moral motivation, he argues that altruism and morality are not the same but in need of each other (Batson, 2014). We, therefore, suggest a linkage between protégé moral motivation and protégé ethical leadership development.

Moral motivation is the "driving force for making good moral judgments" and plays a "crucial role in selecting the right action and in executing it" (Melé, 2005, p105). Moral motivation has been linked to ethical leadership. Aronson (2001, p248) argues that ethical leadership does not per se depend on the leadership style, but rather on the leader's level of moral development or to the extent to which the influence process employed is motivated by ethical values. Similarly, Kanungo and Mendonca (1998) propose that ethical leadership manifests itself on three dimensions, of which one is the leader's motives (besides leader's influence strategies; and the leader's character formation). They believe that it is essential for leaders to be motivated by a desire to benefit others (altruistic motivation as opposed to egoistic motivation), whereby the "others" are the organisation's members and society at large. Ethical leaders even motivate their followers to go beyond their self-interests for the good of their group. Resick et al. (2006) who conducted a comprehensive review of the western-based leadership and ethics literature identified six key attributes that appear to characterise ethical leadership, including *motivating*; that is ethical leaders motivate their subordinates to put the interests of the group ahead of their own.

The notion that ethical leadership is based on the leader's moral motivation is supported by research findings showing that ethical leaders possess personality traits such

as social responsibility and moral identity. More specifically, De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) proposed that leaders' social responsibility (i.e., moral-legal standard of conduct, internal obligation, concern for others, concern about consequences, and self-judgment) is related to ethical leadership. Using a sample of 73 dyads (i.e., CEOs and their direct reports), the authors found that leaders scoring high on social responsibility were rated higher on ethical leadership than leaders scoring low on social responsibility. This is in line with Kanungo (2001) who argues that the social responsibility norm forms the basis of the moral altruism motive and, as a consequence, the moral foundation of ethical leadership behaviour. Another possible source of moral motivation and behaviour is a person's *moral identity* (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Shao, Aquino & Freeman, 2008) which has been shown to predict ethical leadership (Mayer et al., 2012). Because moral identity acts as a self-regulatory mechanism that motivates action, leaders with a strong moral identity act in ways that are consistent with the understandings of what it means to be a moral person. This, in turn, causes them to be perceived as ethical leaders. Based on Aquino and Reed's (2002) work and the data of 115 managers and 542 employees, Mayer et al. (2012) found that two dimensions of moral identity (i.e., internalisation and symbolisation) predict ethical leadership. Further, Zhu et al. (2016) who conducted a similar study in the Chinese context, found that leaders' moral identity is associated with follower's perceptions of ethical leadership. Or, stated differently, leaders with strong moral identity consistently display ethical leadership behaviours, despite ethical dilemmas or pressures. Taken together, the results suggest a linkage between protégé moral motivation and protégé ethical leadership.

Theory and research further suggest a relationship between protégé moral motivation and protégé OCB. Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) argue that the extent to which an individual shows OCB, or any other behaviour, is a function of his or her motivation, ability, and opportunity. With respect to motivation, Organ et al. (ibid.) identify potential reasons as to why employees *want to engage* in citizenship behaviours (including for one's own sake, for the sake of others, for the sake of the organisation, and/or for personal

reasons such as receiving satisfaction, recognition, and other rewards), and as to why employees *ought to engage* in OCB. In the latter case, the authors reason that employees feel that it is their personal responsibility, they believe that it is expected of them based on social norms, or they feel that they have a moral obligation.

Organ et al. (ibid.) discuss various mechanisms through which a leader can influence an employee's motivation to exhibit OCB. They argue that leadership behaviours can be divided into transactional leadership behaviours (i.e., contingent and non-contingent reward and punishment behaviour), and transformational leadership behaviours (i.e., articulating a vision, expressing high-performance expectations, and providing an appropriate role model, individualised support and intellectual stimulation). Podsakoff et al. (2000), who conducted a critical review of the theoretical and empirical OCB literature, found that two forms of transactional leader behaviour were significantly related to the five dimensions of OCB; one positively (i.e., contingent reward behaviour), and the other negatively (i.e., noncontingent punishment behaviour). The transformational leadership behaviours had significant and positive relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue.

With respect to mentoring, supervisory mentors are in the position to provide rewards and punishments, but also to show transformational leadership behaviours. Scandura and Schriesheim (1994) discuss the literature on transformational and transactional leadership as the basis for integrating the LMX approach with the mentoring literature. They describe supervisory career mentoring as "a transformational activity involving a mutual commitment by mentor and protégé to the latter's long-term development, as a personal, extra-organizational investment in the protégé by the mentor, and as the changing of the protégé by the mentor, accomplished by the sharing of values, knowledge, experience, and so forth" (ibid., p1589). The researchers found that LMX and mentoring accounted for meaningful incremental variance over the other. Moreover, Godshalk and Sosik (2000) argue that transformational leadership offers mentors – this includes both supervisory and non-

supervisory mentors – several behaviours to promote protégé development. That is, mentors can (a) build trust by exhibiting idealised influential behaviours; (b) strive to develop protégés through individualised consideration; (c) promote protégé critical thinking and independence through intellectual stimulation; and (d) attach importance to human development through inspirational motivation. Similarly, Scandura and Williams (2004) state that the mentor's role has been conceptualised in transformational terms since the protégé develops into a more satisfied and competent individual, and that both supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring should promote positive work attitudes in the presence of transformational leadership.

From the above, we conclude that mentors showing transactional or transformational leadership behaviours can positively influence a protégé's motivation (including moral motivation) to exhibit OCB behaviour. Empirical research on the relationship between moral motivation and OCB is nearly non-existent. However, related constructs of moral motivation have been examined (i.e., moral identity and altruistic motivation). Winterich, Aquino, Mittal and Swartz (2013) explored the role of moral identity symbolisation in motivating prosocial behaviour[2]. Conducting two studies with a sample of 293 (study 1) and 231 (study 2) respondents from a panel at a university in the southwestern United States, they found that moral identity symbolisation motivates recognised prosocial behaviour, particularly among those individuals with low moral identity internalisation. Lemmon and Wayne (2015) explored altruistic concern for the supervisor and the organisation as an altruistic motive for citizenship behaviour. Analysing data gathered from 164 employee-supervisor dyads, they found support for the relationships. Both results suggest that moral motivation can be related to protégé OCB as well.

Third and finally, a review of the literature and empirical research suggests a link of protégé moral motivation with protégé turnover intentions. Maertz and Griffeth (2004, p667) synthesise and present a framework of eight motivational motives, or forces, that drive

[2] Prosocial (organisational) behaviour is one of several labels for domains of behaviour that overlap with Organ's (1988) OCB domain (LePine et al., 2002).

decisions about whether to stay or leave an organisation and that "can be utilized by turnover researchers as clarification of reported reasons for turnover, as causal mediators of turnover predictors". This framework has started to emerge as a tool for understanding turnover motives (e.g., Holtom et al., 2008). Maertz and Griffeth (2004) suggest that "moral/ethical forces" is one of these motive categories for withdrawal. They argue that employees have an internalised value or norm about turnover behaviour (i.e., Triandis, 1975). At the one end of the spectrum, this value may imply that quitting jobs indicates weak character, whereas at the opposite end of this spectrum, the internalised value may imply that changing jobs is good (e.g., "variety is the spice of life"). In either direction, the psychological motive is the desire to "do the right thing". In this respect, the authors argue that "people want to believe that they act consistently with their values (Festinger, 1957). Maintaining consistency with values makes people believe that they have done right and been true to themselves" (ibid., p674).

Maertz and Boyar (2012) suggest that moral commitment is a predictor variable that captures the moral/ethical force, at least in part. In particular, Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993) have examined the effects of three forms of attitudinal commitment, including moral commitment, on turnover intentions. They define moral commitment as "the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through internalization of its goals, values, and missions" (p955). Because moral commitment is based on goals and values congruence between an individual and the organisation, Jaros et al. (ibid.) suggest that employees experiencing high levels of moral commitment should be less likely to leave their organisations in comparison to those who lack such ties. Although they did not find support for the relationship between moral commitment and withdrawal intentions, it is easy to imagine how situations that compromise or undermine one's moral identification could lead to one's thinking about leaving the company. For that reason, we propose that protégés' moral motivation could be related to their intent to stay or leave their current organisation.

Speaking of moral identification; May, Chang and Shao (2015) introduced this new construct to the literature. They defined moral identification as “the perception of oneness or belongingness associated with an organization that exhibits ethical traits (e.g., care, kindness, and compassion), which also involves a deliberate concern of the membership with an ethical organization” (ibid., p681). They argue that an employee’s moral identity forms the theoretical basis for his or her moral identification with an organisation. Employees with strong (or high) moral identities are sensitive and reactive to ethical or moral issues in comparison to those with weak (or low) moral identities, and that those employees with high (vs. low) moral identities are more likely to morally identify with an ethical organisation. Based on social identity and moral-self theory, May et al. (ibid.) suggest that moral identification plays a significant role in explaining employee retention; Employees who morally identify with their organisation are likely to remain employed as long as their organisation continues to value morality and ethics (i.e., moral identification serves as a “motivational impetus”). In contrast, morally identified employees’ motivation to stay is weakened when their company fails to maintain its high moral standards and consistently follows moral guidelines. Using a sample of 231 full-time nurses from medium to large Korean hospitals, they found support for their hypothesis that employee’s moral identification had a negative relationship with turnover intentions. As moral identification can be seen as a proxy for moral motivation, we expect a relationship between protégé moral motivation and intent to turnover as well.

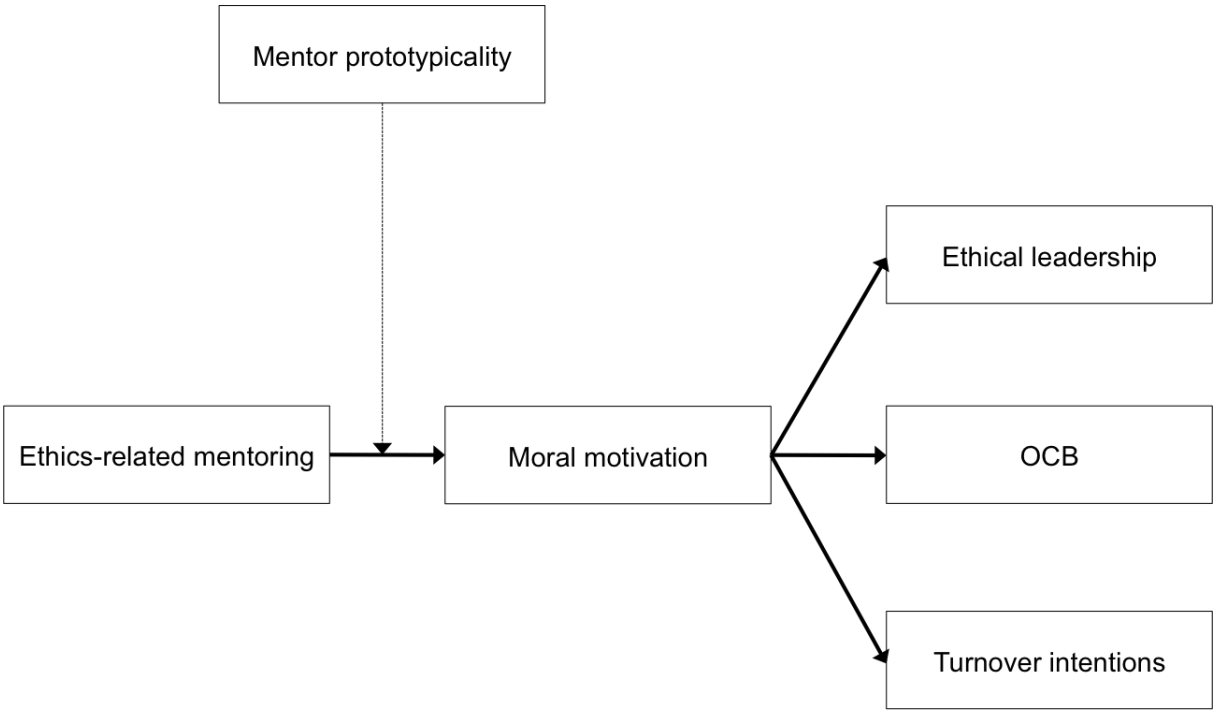
On the basis of the aforementioned arguments and empirical findings, we predict that the relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and the three ethics-related outcomes under investigation (i.e., protégé ethical leadership, OCB, and turnover intentions) is mediated by protégé moral motivation. Studies that have looked explicitly at moral motivation as a mediator and not merely as an independent variable, as outlined above, are rare. However, one study is particularly interesting in relation to our study, as the authors explored similar variables. In the behavioural ethics literature, Gerpott

et al. (2017) proposed that leader group prototypicality moderates the positive effect of perceived ethical leadership on OCB through follower moral identity. They found support for the moderated mediation model: Perceived ethical leadership is positively related to follower OCB via followers' moral identity but only under conditions of high perceived leader group prototypicality. In the mentoring literature, only a few studies have examined the mechanism through which mentoring works (Wanberg et al., 2003). Career motivation was one mediator under investigation. Day and Allen (2004) found that career motivation fully mediates the relationship between career mentoring received and self-reported performance effectiveness. Therefore, we would expect that moral motivation may also be an effective mediator in our model. As such, the following is hypothesised:

> ***H7:*** *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their ethical leadership and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and their ethical leadership, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*
>
> ***H8:*** *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their OCB and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and their OCB, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*
>
> ***H9:*** *Protégé moral motivation is negatively related to their turnover intentions and mediates the negative relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and their turnover intentions, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

To give a better overview, the derived hypotheses have been summarised in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Conceptual model for mediated moderation



"Mentoring does not mean to take someone by the hand and lead him or her the right way. The right way does not necessarily have to be the one I like, but the path that has been considered from all sides and has a solid foundation for a decision. I think this is also an important point, so I do not always have the same opinion as the protégé, but it must be my opinion. But when you make a decision that is properly considered from all sides, and you decide 'This is my way', then you have to do so, and if you are – after three rounds of questioning from different perspectives – if you are still of that opinion, then this is the way and a safe process. This task that I see for me as a mentor is also saying 'I believe that this is a mistake. I would make it different'. But the decision, that one makes, is always his or her decision, and then it does not matter whether I like it".

(Male mentor)

CHAPTER 4

Overall methodology

4.0 Chapter summary

Within this chapter, the general methodological decisions informing this research are discussed. More specifically, arguments for adopting a critical realist perspective and a mixed methodological approach (although mainly quantitative) are presented after comparing and contrasting the different philosophical paradigms in social sciences in general, and in mentoring research in particular. This is followed by a section on the research designs and methods used in the studies presented in this thesis. Finally, an overview of the sampling method and participants is given, and the general data analysis techniques used in this thesis are discussed.

4.1 Research philosophy

An understanding of research philosophy is important because it is fundamental to how researchers approach their study. According to Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008), there are at least three reasons why an understanding of research philosophy is helpful. First, it can help researchers to clarify their research designs. This does not only involve

considering what kind of data and sources are needed, and how it is to be gathered and interpreted, but also how this will ultimately answer the research question(s) being investigated. Second, knowledge of research philosophy can help researchers to evaluate which designs work best. It should further enable them to avoid unnecessary work and inappropriate use of methods, and to assess the limitations of particular approaches. Third and finally, the philosophical stance can help researchers to identify and create research designs that may be outside their past experience. It can even help them to adapt designs according to the constraints of different subject or knowledge structures. In brief, an understanding of research philosophy is important as it allows to think of one's own role as a researcher. The different research philosophies are explained in the next section, followed by introducing the philosophy adopted in this thesis.

4.1.1 Research philosophies in social science

A paradigm can be defined as a "set of interrelated assumptions about the social world which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organized study of that world" (Filstead, 1979, p34). The paradigm sets the context for a researcher's study. More specifically, a well-thought-out set of assumptions (as outlined in the following paragraph) inform the choice of methodology, research strategy, data collection techniques as well as analysis procedures (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). With that said, it is necessary to first compare the main paradigms or philosophical viewpoints in social science, and then to identify the methodological approach that follows from the researcher's belief about what the world is like.

Four assumptions help to distinguish between the paradigms: ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology. Starting with the first term; ontology is a philosophical study of the fundamental beliefs about "the nature of reality", asking the question *"what is there that can be known about it?*" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p108). Two broad set of beliefs exist, namely objectivism and subjectivism (Saunders et al., 2016). As the names suggests, the

objectivist perspective presumes that there exists an objective reality that is external to us and others (referred to as social actors), whereas the subjectivist position is that reality is constructed through perceptions and consequent actions of social actors and that the meaning of the social world is created by social actors (ibid.). For example, an objectivist view on mentoring would place emphasis on the rational elements of mentoring (e.g., using personality profiles or learning styles inventories as they assume a fixed set of qualities), with less consideration of the personal and social world of the protégé. The subjectivist view, on the other hand, acknowledges the personal and social world of the protégé as the basis of the developmental process. Such mentoring recognises the socially constructed nature of reality.

Epistemology is concerned specifically with the nature of knowledge in a particular ontological reality, asking the question *"what is the nature of the relationship between the knower or would-be knower and what can be known?"* (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p108), or briefly worded *"how we know what we know?*" (Crotty, 1998, p8). On this level, three main positions can be distinguished, namely positivism and realism following from an objectivist ontological tradition, and interpretivism (constructivism) following from a subjectivist ontological tradition. Positivism relates to the philosophical stance that is adopted by the natural sciences. The term refers to the importance of what is "posited" – thus, "given" (Saunders et al., 2016).

Epistemologically, positivists emphasise dualism and objectivism, meaning that that the researcher and the investigated "object" (i.e., topic or research participant) are assumed to be independent of one another (dualism), and that the topic or participant can be studied by the researcher without values and bias, so long as the researcher follows rigorous, standard procedures (objectivism; Ponteretto, 2005). Realism is similar to positivism in that it shares the assumption of an objective reality independent of the observer, and it uses the same scientific approach to knowledge generation (Lee & Lings, 2008). Two types of realism can be distinguished, namely direct realism and critical realism (Saunders et al., 2016). While

direct realism assumes that what we experience through our senses represents the world accurately (i.e., what you see is what you get), critical realism entails the view that what we experience are some of the manifestations of the things in the real world, rather than the actual things (ibid.). Critical realists claim that there are two steps to experiencing the world: First, there are the sensations we experience (Note: Direct realists say that the first step is enough). Second, there is the mental processing that goes on sometime after the sensations meet our senses. Therefore, what we see is only a part of the bigger picture (ibid.). Epistemologically, critical realists advocate a modified dualism/objectivism; they acknowledge that the researcher may have some influence on what is being observed, but both researcher-participant independence and objectivity remain important guidelines for the research process (Ponteretto, 2005). Finally, interpretivism (constructivism) opposes the positivism's and realism's ontological view. Interpretivists (constructivists) do not concur that a single true reality exists. Instead, they take the view that multiple, constructed realities exist. Here, the reality is subjective and influenced by the context of the situation, e.g., by the individual's experience and perceptions, the social environment, and the interaction between the individual and the researcher (ibid.). Consequently, context-dependent knowledge generated this way is considered to be unique and not generalisable (Lee & Lings, 2008).

The third level, axiology, refers to the role of values and ethics within the research process, asking the question *"what is the role of values in research, how should we treat our own values when we do research, and how should we deal with the values of research participants?"* (Saunders et al., 2016, p128). Saunders and colleagues (ibid.) further noted that the researcher's values are the basis for making judgements about the research they conduct and how they go about it; it is a demonstration of their axiological skill.

Axiologically, positivists try to remain neutral, detached and independent of what is researched in order to avoid influencing their findings. This means that positivists undertake their research as far as possible in a value-free way. They also maintain an objective stance (ibid.). Next, critical realists recognise that the knowledge of reality is formed by social

conditioning and cannot be understood independently of the social actors (i.e., researchers and research participants) involved. They acknowledge that their research might be influenced by socio-cultural background and experiences involved (i.e., value-laden research). They seek to minimise such biases and errors and try to be as objective as possible (ibid.). Interpretivists, on the other hand, recognise that their own values and beliefs, as well as their interpretation of research materials and data, play an important role in the research process (i.e., value-bound research). Interpretivists, and this is crucial to their philosophy, has to adopt an empathetic stance (ibid.).

Every paradigm is based upon its own ontological, epistemological, and axiological assumptions, which underpin a particular approach to research. This is reflected in their methodology, which described the strategy or plan of action. It shapes the choice and use of particular methods and links them to the objectives of the research (Crotty, 1998). The methodological question is *"how can the inquirer (would-be knower) go about finding out whatever he or she believes can be known?"* (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p108). Or as Brand (2009, p448) put it, the questions *"what can be known?"*, and *"how we can know it?"* are critical to the methodology used. Finally, methods are the techniques or procedures that are used to collect and analyse data (Crotty, 1998). The data collected can either be qualitative or quantitative. Thus, attention to the choice of research paradigm is critical to selecting suitable methods and designing studies that are not only relevant to but also capable of enhancing the existing body of knowledge.

With that said, as positivist research seeks to identify generalisable laws, they are likely to use a highly structured methodology with an emphasis on quantifiable observations of large samples that lend themselves to statistical analysis (Saunders et al., 2016). Critical realists also tend to use quantitative methods, but as they recognise that knowledge is historically situated and that facts are social constructions, a range of data and methods to fit subject-matters is acceptable (ibid.). Both positivists and (critical) realists utilise the hypothetico-deductive method. While it is often characterised as a cycle of deduction and

induction, the essence of the hypothetico-deductive method is the idea that the researcher develops theoretical hypotheses through deductive reasoning, and then collect empirical data in an attempt to falsify those hypotheses method (see Lee & Lings, 2008, for full explication). Generally, such an approach necessitates the use of quantitative methods, including for instance large-scale surveys consisting of valid and reliable measurement scales. However, qualitative methods such as interviews and focus groups can be of great value in this process as well, for example, when a researcher wants to gain an understanding of a particular concept for which a scale needs to be developed. In contrast, as interpretivists aim to understand rather than to predict, they apply methods that are qualitative in nature, and that are characterised by small samples and in-depth investigations (Saunders et al., 2016). An advantage of qualitative research is that it offers a more holistic depiction of reality that cannot be reduced to a few variables, as is typical in quantitative research (Gephart, 2004).

On a final note, a review of the paradigms is a vital aspect of the research process as it opens the researcher's mind to other possibilities, which can lead to an enrichment of his or her research skills but also to an enhancement in confidence that he or she is using the appropriate methodology. So after having discussed the differences in ontology, epistemology, and axiology that affect the choice of methodology in social science in general, we will now introduce the research philosophy used in mentoring research and in this thesis.

4.1.2 Research philosophy in mentoring research

Research within the field of work and organisational psychology is dominated by a positivist approach conducted within a realist paradigm (Arnold, 2004). Mentoring research, in particular, is also dominated by a positivist perspective (Garvey, Stokes & Megginson, 2017), and related research mostly uses quantitative methods (methodology; see meta-analysis of 207 mentoring studies by Allen et al., 2008; 89,9%), such as questionnaire surveys, to test theoretical propositions with empirical data (i.e., hypothetico-deductive

method). As previously outlined, this research underlines the assumption of a single, objective reality (ontology), that can be captured with rigorous research methods (epistemology), yielding generalisable laws that can explain and predict the relationships between mentoring and various outcomes (axiology).

The difference to the interpretivist perspective becomes clear in the fact that the vast majority of mentoring studies examine predictors of mentoring, closely followed by outcomes associated with mentoring and both predictors and outcomes (ibid.) by testing hypotheses, and aim to generalise the findings in order to explain and predict the examined relationships. Mentoring research heavily relies on phenomena that are not directly observable (e.g., mentoring functions), but that can be studied through operationalising them via observations (i.e., theory-laden observations; Lee & Lings, 2008). However, with respect to generalising results, it should be recognised, that the methodology review conducted by Allen et al. (2008) showed that most mentoring research has been based on samples from the United States. Thus, little is known regarding the generalisability of research findings regarding mentoring at work across non-Western cultures. With that said, positivist researchers may want to deepen examinations of mentoring relationships with non-North American samples.

Subsequently, qualitative methods, with their focus on the in-depth understanding of the experience of protégés and mentors gained through interviews are hard to find (cf., Allen et al., 2008). As noted earlier, virtually all studies on mentoring utilise quantitative methods (in relation to OCB, see for example Eby et al., 2015; Ghosh, Reio & Haynes, 2012; Kwan, Liu & Yim, 2011; in relation to turnover intentions, see for example Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Payne & Huffman, 2005). This is interesting to note as *the first study on mentoring* was qualitative and exploratory in nature (Kram, 1985). Ever since, most work on mentoring centers on Kram's (ibid.) two identified mentoring functions, i.e., career-related and psychosocial mentoring. Participants (typically the protégé) are commonly asked to answer questions such as "My mentor helps me attain desirable positions" or "My mentor serves as a role model for me" as a way of assessing if career-related and psychosocial mentoring have

occurred (cf., Ragins & Cotton, 1999). That said, Allen et al. (2008) suggest that mentoring research could benefit from more qualitative research, especially in view of the fact that Kram's initial work was carried out in the 1980's and that careers have changed substantially ever since.

Similarly, most mentoring studies utilise the hypothetico-deductive approach. This means that initial assumptions are informed by a review of existing literature on mentoring and by drawing on existing theoretical frameworks, and guide the development and test of conceptual models and quantitative measures (e.g., Chen et al., 2014; Day & Allen, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990).

4.1.3 Research philosophy and approach in this thesis

I adopt a critical realist rather than a positivist perspective throughout this thesis. I assume the existence of a single, objective reality (ontology), one that can be studied in a scientific manner, and that the conclusions drawn from the data can subsequently be generalised. However, this reality can only be imperfectly apprehended because of flawed human intellectual mechanisms (e.g., the interpretation of data is influenced by the one's previous experience), and the intractable nature of the phenomenon (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, one can never completely capture a "true" reality (Ponteretto, 2005). Moreover, in contrast to positivists who only consider things to exist if they are directly observable, (critical) realists purport that there are some things beyond our ability to confirm their existence directly. In other words, "just because we can't see something, doesn't mean it does not exist" (Lee & Lings, 2008, p32). With that said, I assume that a reality independent of its perception exists (e.g., construct of ethics-related mentoring) and that this reality can be representatively captured (epistemology) if data is collected from a large number of research participants. In terms of axiology, I agree with Scotland (2012) that positivists delude themselves by thinking that they undertake research in a value-free way. First, researchers make value-laden judgments throughout the research process, for example, when selecting

variables, observing actions, and interpreting findings. Second, every knowledge production is political. In fact, my values guided me through the process of selecting a research topic. As I adopt a critical realist philosophical stance, I make use of quantitative methods (i.e., survey design; methodology). Since the critical realist approach guides the conduct of research in a scientific hypothetico-deductive manner, as discussed above, I am able to draw inferences about the relationships between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and the mediator and outcome variables in the current thesis, and to make certain generalisations to the wider business context, in the hope of adding considerable value for practitioners (e.g., Gelade, 2006).

Moreover, when conducting management research, researchers should not only consider the ontology, epistemology, and axiology. Edmondson and McManus (2007) further highlight the crucial role of "methodological fit" in order to ensure quality field research. They defined fit as internal consistency among the four key elements of a piece of field research: research question, prior work, research design, and contribution to literature. Edmondson and McManus (ibid.) argue that that methodological fit depends on the state of relevant theory at the time the research study is designed and executed. In this respect, the authors propose a continuum of theory in management research that runs from mature to intermediate to nascent. They suggest that the mature end of the continuum represents well-established constructs and models that have been studied over time with increasing preciseness, whereas the nascent end of the continuum proposes tentative answers to novel or unusual questions. Intermediate theory research is positioned between mature and nascent. The authors note that "intermediate theory research draws from prior work – often from separate bodies of literature – to propose new constructs and/or provisional theoretical relationships. The resulting papers may present promising new measures, along with data consistent with the provisional theory presented" (ibid., p1165).

According to Edmondson and McManus' (ibid.) definition of intermediate theory research, it is suggested that ethics-related mentoring falls into the intermediate area. The

authors assert to use qualitative techniques (e.g., interviews, and observations) when very little is known about the domain in question, thus falling into the nascent area. The reason the research studies presented within this thesis do not fall towards the nascent part of the continuum, but rather towards the intermediate part, is that there is knowledge present in the area of mentoring. For example, the three categories of mentoring support (i.e., career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role modelling) are widely recognised in research. In fact, mentoring theory and research have begun to mature, but many questions about mentoring remain poorly answered or have yet to be investigated (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005). That said, what is lacking currently is the focus on ethics-related mentoring. As this implies that the research focus of this doctoral study lies towards the intermediate area, Edmondson and McManus (2007) suggest the use of mixed, or as they say, "hybrid" methods in order to propose new constructs and to test for relationships between new and established constructs. More specifically, the authors noted that intermediate research studies "frequently integrate qualitative and quantitative data to help establish the external and construct validity of new measures through triangulation (Jick, 1979). Careful analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data increases confidence that the researchers' explanations of the phenomena are more plausible than alternative interpretations" (ibid., p1165). This seems to fit quite good with the current research which seeks to develop a new dimension of mentoring, that is ethics-related mentoring, as well as to investigate its effect on established mediator and outcome variables (e.g., protégé moral motivation, and ethical leadership).

4.2 Research strategy and design

The research strategy defines the means for answering the research question(s), specifying the methods for data sampling and collection (Bryman, 2003). Methodological strategies can be either deductive or inductive. Deductive methods are aimed at testing an existing theory or hypotheses. They emerge from the positivist paradigm, as discussed

above, and are largely associated with quantitative research methods. In contrast, inductive methods develop new theories by observing patterns in empirical data. These are associated with the interpretivist research paradigm and qualitative research methods (Burell & Morgan, 1979; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In turn, a mixed-method research approach builds on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods, where neither method on its own can achieve a complete understanding of the research question(s). This method has been particularly associated with the "pragmatic" research paradigm which allows scholars to select research methods that are appropriate for investigating the research problem and answering the research question(s), with relatively little regard to the ontological beliefs (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). It should be noted, that critical realists also argue that the choice of data collection methods should be dictated by the nature of the research problem. With that said, in many cases, it is suggested that the most effective approach will be a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (McEvoy & Richards, 2006).

Given the critical realist epistemological research paradigm as well as the more intermediary nature of ethics-related mentoring (as discussed in Section 4.1.3), a mixed-method approach was adopted in this dissertation. It should be noted, however, that the approach taken was broadly deductive, as it was driven by the principal research aim of testing the hypothesised relationships. Quantitative data was collected through survey distribution. This fits with the majority of past empirical studies within the field of mentoring and ethical leadership (cf., Eby et al., 2013; Eisenbeiss & Giessner, 2012). Whilst recognising the emphasis on quantitative methods within this thesis, the novelty of the concept of ethics-related mentoring made an exploratory stage necessary (inductive). Using a qualitative method allows not only to look for rich, in-depth answers which tap into the respondents own experiences, feelings, and opinions, but also to go off-track to pursue interesting angles and examples (Lee & Lings, 2008). Kram's (1985) seminal qualitative work on mentoring introduced the key dimensions of career-related and psychosocial mentoring. Similarly, Treviño et al. (2000, 2003) conducted semi-structured interviews and asked

participants to think about an ethical leader with whom they were familiar and to answer broad questions about the characteristics, behaviours, and motives of that leader. They found that ethical leadership is more than traits such as integrity and more than values-based inspirational leadership: It includes an overlooked transactional component that involves using communication and the reward system to guide ethical behaviour. In appreciation of these observations, semi-structured interviews were conducted with key informants to collect accounts of attributes that might be characteristic for ethics-related mentoring.

From a philosophical standpoint, purist researchers argue that quantitative and qualitative methods cannot be mixed due to different ontological and epistemological roots, and as positivism is concerned with the accurate measurement of objective phenomena, this would preclude a qualitative approach (Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002). However, Howe (1988) brought an interesting point forward as to why quantitative and qualitative methods can be mixed. Appealing to a pragmatic philosophical view, he argued that no "incompatibility between quantitative and qualitative methods exists at either the level of practice or that of epistemology" (ibid., p10) and that researchers should forge ahead with "what works". For that reason, a pragmatic view is taken in this thesis; a mixed-method approach is employed with the intention to attain knowledge of ethics-related mentoring in a systematic way and to apply this knowledge to the business world.

Qualitative research has typically been more concerned with theory building or generation, while quantitative research has typically been more directed at theory testing or verification (Punch, 2005). One major advantage of the mixed-methods approach is therefore that it enables researchers to both generate and verify theory in the same study. A second advantage is that mixed-methods research provides stronger inferences (Molina-Azorin, 2012). A third advantage is that, by mixing qualitative and quantitative methods, the weaknesses in the individual methodologies can be counteracted. As already noted in the previous section, Edmondson and McManus (2007) state that the analysis of mixed method data increases confidence that the researchers' explanations of the phenomenon are more

plausible than alternative interpretations. The combination of both methods can, therefore, promote both insight and rigor – when appropriately applied.

The current thesis consisted of two studies. The first part of Study 1 consisted of a series of semi-structured interviews with mentors, protégés and mentoring experts, with the purpose of identifying and defining the attitudes and behaviours associated with ethics-related mentoring. These interviews provided the initial step in the scale development process by facilitating item generation. The findings were then used in the second part of Study 1. A quantitative survey of protégés was applied to develop and validate the ethics-related mentoring scale. The main quantitative survey was set up in Study 2 to test the hypothesised model.

4.3 Data collection and analysis

The focus of this section is on methods of data collection and analysis. More specifically, the section on participants outlines the procedure taken to recruit participants for Study 1 and Study 2, and informs about the samples of the studies. Next, the approach to data analysis is outlined; for developing the new scale and for testing the mediated moderation model.

4.3.1 Participants

All samples were obtained using a non-probability convenience sampling approach. Most research conducted in the organisational science is based on non-probability samples, and in particular on convenience samples, which means that individuals are selected based on ease of access (Lee & Lings, 2008). The key advantages of the convenience sampling approach are that it is efficient, and simple to implement. The key disadvantage is, however, that the generalisability of results obtained from such a sample can be questionable. For that reason, it is important to ensure that the chosen population from which a sample is to be drawn can provide meaningful information about the research question being tested (ibid.).

The intention of the first research question was to develop a valid and robust ethics-related mentoring scale. So in order for the results of this study to be generalisable, respondents of the qualitative part of this study had to be key informants (i.e., mentors, protégés, and experts) in order to explore the potential facets of ethics-related mentoring. Respondents of the quantitative part of this study had to be protégés in order to potentially observe ethics-related mentoring. The aim of the second research question was to explain and predict under what circumstance and how protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring influences protégé ethical leadership (among others). So in this study, it was not only necessary that respondents were protégés. They also needed to be in a leadership or management position (in order to self-rate their leadership behaviour). Non-protégés were excluded from all studies. Therefore, all three samples should be appropriate for the intended investigation. They are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

4.3.1.1 For initial interviews (study 1, part 1)

With respect to the first part of Study 1, I made "cold calls" in order to recruit participants for the semi-structured interviews. I contacted individuals (1) that were available through my professional network, (2) that were mentioned as a reference on company or university webpages to market its own mentoring programmes, (3) that offered their consulting services as an expert for internal, external or even cross-mentoring programmes, and (4) that were recommendations by other study participants. Interviewees were selected on the basis of their availability and willingness to participate in the study. In total, 25 semi-structured interviews were conducted (including twelve mentors, nine protégés, and four experts for mentoring programmes).[3]

[3] As a rule of thumb regarding sample size, it is suggested that researchers gain enough information on a reasonably complex theory from fewer than 20 interviews, but the more complex the theory, the more interviews will be needed (Lee & Lings, 2008). The sample size in this study was therefore considered appropriate.

Participants were drawn from a variety of sectors (i.e., consultancy; manufacturing; finance, real estate, and insurance; healthcare and social services; transport and logistics; construction; trade; media) where possible, although representativeness of industries was difficult to control due to the small sample size. With respect to their cultural background, all respondents were Germans. They were both male (76%) and female (24%), and of all ages and ranks including, trainee, employee, (senior) manager, managing director, CEO, and chairman of supervisory board. They came from small, medium, and large organisations. By the twenty-fifth interview, many of the same messages and themes were being raised by the participants, and it was felt that further respondents would not add substantially to the already good picture of ethics-related mentoring.

4.3.1.2 For scale development study (study 1, part 2)

With respect to the second part of Study 1, over 100 companies in Germany across a range of sectors and industries were contacted through cold calling and personal network, in a quest to obtain the necessary data to develop and validate the ethics-related mentoring scale. Obtaining the necessary sample for this study was particularly difficult, as only large companies had a professional mentoring programme in place. Four companies and one university with an alumni association agreed to participate. In addition, I contacted potential participants through the social network XING (i.e., the German version of LinkedIn). Professionals who indicated on their profile that they were currently protégés (or mentors), received an invitation to participate in this study (or were kindly asked to forward the invitation to their protégés). Moreover, with the friendly support of Xing group creators and moderators, I also posted the invitation in various mentoring groups.

The final sample consisted of 114 protégés, 10 of these were excluded from the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis as they only filled out part of the scale development questionnaire. While the sample size did not meet Hinkin's (1998) recommendation for scale development (i.e., a minimum of 150 participants), and there is

general agreement in the literature that the factor patterns that emerge from large sample factor analysis are very often more stable, or less variable, in comparison to small sample factor analysis, there is still no fixed agreement or evidence about the question of "how large the sample size is large enough?" to achieve the above objectives (MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999). We also recognise the value of large samples as they increase the generalisability of the conclusions reached by means of factor analysis. However, as other factors such as item communalities also play a role (ibid.), it was decided to perform the factor analysis with the given sample. The factor analysis solution developed in Study 1 was then replicated with a separate sample in Study 2 in order to demonstrate the generalisability of the ethics-related mentoring scale.

The sample consisted of protégés who were currently (51.9%) or within the last 36 months in a formal (57.7%) or informal (23.1%) mentoring relationship (19.2% did neither report the status nor the nature of the mentoring relationship). Non-protégés were excluded from the study as the study exclusively focused on the experience of protégés in a mentoring relationship. The participants were 31 males and 52 females (20 did not report gender). The most prevalent age group was represented by those aged 31-35, followed by 36-40-year-old individuals (see Table 1). Respondents worked in consultancy (26.0%), finance, real estate and insurance (20.2%), manufacturing (13.5%), trade (6.7%), media (5.8%), construction (4.8%), and other sectors. Of the participants' mentors, 54.8% were male (19.2% did not report gender), 50.0% worked in the same company (19.2% did not report the company affiliation). The most prevalent age group was represented by those aged 46-50, followed by 51-55-year-old individuals (see Table 1). In comparison to the protégé, 20.2% worked one rank higher, and 55.7% worked two ranks higher, respectively (19.2% did not report their rank).

Table 1: Distribution of the sample by protégé and mentor age

	Age									
	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	61-65	NA
Protégé (104)	4.8% (5)	15.4% (16)	25.0% (26)	17.3% (18)	13.5% (14)	3.8% (4)	1.0% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	19.2% (20)
Mentor (104)	1.0% (1)	1.9% (2)	1.9% (2)	6.7% (7)	14.4% (15)	19.2% (20)	18.3% (19)	10.6% (11)	6.7% (7)	19.2% (20)

4.3.1.3 For time-lagged study (study 2)

Due to the difficulties of acquiring an adequate sample size in the first survey, the necessity to collect data from another independent sample, and the aim of conducting a time-lagged study, I changed the sampling strategy. To recruit participants for Study 2, I contracted with Qualtrics Panels who then worked with one of their panel partners to supply a national panel of participants for the United States. These partner companies maintain a large pool of email addresses of people who are willing to be contacted for participation in surveys, usually in exchange for a small monetary incentive. Participants were recruited via an e-mail requesting their voluntary participation. The concrete procedure is described in Section 6.2.1.1.

The data was collected from protégés at two points in time with a time separation of two weeks. At Time 1, 210 protégés enrolled in the study. At Time 2, 152 protégés (72.4% retention rate) completed the survey. When repeating the scale-testing process of the new scales, all responses were included in the analysis. The participants were 147 males (70.0%) and 63 females (30.0%). The most prevalent age group was represented by those aged 30-39 (51.7%), followed by 40-49-year-old individuals (17.8%). The average sample age was 37.66 years (SD = 9.74). Respondents worked mainly in construction (21.9%), information technology (19.0%), manufacturing (10.0%), healthcare and social services (9.0%), finance, real estate and insurance (5.7%). The average sample tenure in the current organisation was

14.7 years. Of the participants' mentors, 91.9% worked in the same company. The most prevalent age group was represented by those aged 40-49 (31.4%), followed by 30-39-year-old individuals (25.7%), and 50-59-year-old individuals (23.8%). In comparison to the protégé, 16.2% worked the same rank, 47.6% worked one rank higher, and 26.7% worked two ranks higher, and 9.5% worked three ranks higher, respectively. Sixty-one percent of protégés reported that they were currently in a formal mentoring relationship. Seventy-three percent of protégés reported that their mentors were also their supervisors. The average sample number of completed hours per month spent in the mentoring relationship was 24.43 hours.

When testing the hypothesised model, the focus lay on the 152 protégés that completed both waves of the study. Once again, two-thirds of the participants were male (69.7%), and one-third were female (30.3%). The average sample age was 38.66 years (SD = 10.31). The sector affiliation had not changed significantly: Construction (19.1%), information technology (19.1%), manufacturing (9.9%), healthcare and social services (9.9%), and finance, real estate and insurance (6.6%). The organisation tenure was on an average 14.1 years. Nine out of ten mentors worked in the same company (90.8%). Most mentors were aged between 40 and 49 (31.6%), followed by individuals in the age group 30 and 39 (23.7%), and 50 and 59 (22.4%). The nature and type of the mentoring relationship have not changed significantly either: Fifty-eight percent of protégés reported that they were currently in a formal mentoring relationship, while seventy-two percent indicated that their mentors were their immediate supervisors. Finally, participants reported that they spent an average of 25.33 hours per month in the mentoring relationship.

4.3.2 Approach to data analysis

As discussed in Section 2.3, there is not only a call in practice to understand how to select, develop, and retain ethical leaders, but also a call in research to re-examine the existing mentoring functions in the literature and to capture the ethical nature of mentoring.

Of course, without the presence of a valid and reliable measurement tool, the ability to explore the development of ethical leadership through mentoring as well as to understand the ethical and moral component of mentoring itself is greatly impeded. As a result, the first and foremost objective of this thesis was to develop a scale that measures ethics-related mentoring. The recommendations of Hinkin (1995) and De Vellis (2012) on scale development processes were used to inform the scale development study, which consisted of two parts. In part 1 of Study 1, semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with key informants, in order to identify the attitudes and behaviours associated with ethics-related mentoring, which was subsequently used to generate scale items. Semi-structured interviews were guided by a detailed topic guide which contained specific questions to ask and examples to ask for, but – although the same questions were asked of each interviewee such as in structured interviews – it allowed a lot of flexibility to follow up individual points (see Lee & Lings, 2008). Following this, subject-matter expert ratings were used to refine the number of scale items to those with the greatest content validity. In part 2 of Study 1, the initial 40 item scale was then included in a survey with a sample of 114 protégés. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were used in an iterative fashion to finalise the scale to a 17-item scale with were grouped into three dimensions, to confirm the factor structure of ethics-related mentoring, as well as to establish the psychometric properties of the scale. Subsequently, the scale development process was replicated with a different source of data (Study 2). Further details are provided in the method sections (see Sections 5.2 and 6.2).

After having developed the scale (see Chapter 5), the next objective was to test the hypothesised model (see Chapter 3) in a time-lagged study (see Chapter 6). This model is a so-called mediated moderation model, which will now be more fully described. The mediated moderation model is a moderation model at its foundation and may involve a mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986; James & Brett, 1984; Muller, Judd & Yzerbyt, 2005). In this model, the interaction effect of the independent variable and the moderator on the dependent

variable is transmitted through the mediator variable. Baron and Kenny (1986) coined the term “mediated moderation”. Their approach will be discussed later in this section. Morgan-Lopez and MacKinnon (2006) defined mediated moderation as well. They asserted that it occurs when the interaction between two variables affects a mediator which, in turn, affects a dependent variable. The authors further characterise mediated moderation as the case when “the path from the intervention to the mediator (i.e., X → M) depends on the level of a moderator variable, Z, whereas the effect of the mediator on the outcome (i.e., M → Y) is constant (p78). Another definition is given by Muller et al. (2005, p853) who asserted that mediated moderation “can happen only when moderation occurs: the magnitude of the overall treatment effect on the outcome depends on the moderator”. The mediator then is incorporated to explain the process through which that overall moderated treatment effect is produced. The authors (ibid.) further asserted that there are at least three different types of mediated moderation: between the independent variable and the mediator, between the mediator and dependent variable, or both.

A mediated moderation model conceptualises an interaction between X and a moderator W on Y as carrying its influence through a mediator M (Hayes, 2009, 2013). For instance, Scheufele (2002) suggested that the impact of hard news use (X) on political participation (Y) is moderated by a person’s interpersonal discussion about politics (W), and this moderation is further mediated by political knowledge (M). For people with high levels of self-reported discussion about politics, hard news use leads to increased political knowledge, which enhances political participation. In contrast, for people with low levels of self-reported discussion about politics, hard news use has low influence on political knowledge or political participation.

Researchers can use various methods to analyse mediated moderation. Baron and Kenny (1986) describe the application of the causal steps approach for establishing mediated moderation. First, it is necessary to show that the interaction effect of the independent variable (X) and the moderator variable (W) is associated with both the mediator

variable (M) and the outcome variable (Y). Mediation effects are tested after that (and separately) by applying the four-step analysis. However, this piecemeal approach has been heavily criticised, as it does not test mediation directly, but only infers it logically (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Another criticism is that it proposes a significant direct relationship between the independent and dependent variable as the first necessary condition for establishing mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, more recent recommendations regarding mediation tests emphasise that this is not a necessary condition (MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala & Petty, 2011; Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

In fact, several authors suggest that the widely-used causal steps approach for establishing mediation by Baron and Kenny (1986) be abandoned (Hayes, 2009, 2013; Rucker et al., 2011). The authors suggest that researchers should shift their attention to testing the mediation effect itself and not constrain themselves by placing excessive emphasis on the significance of the X → Y relationship. An indirect effect can be observed in the absence of a total effect (path c) or direct effect (path c') (ibid.). The only prerequisite to confirm a mediation effect is that the product of the path coefficients a and b (i.e., indirect effect) be statistically significant (Hayes, 2013).

The preferred procedure to test for mediated moderation is to estimate the indirect effect of XW on Y through M, and then conduct an inferential test for this indirect effect (see e.g., Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009; Hayes, 2013; Morgan-Lopez & MacKinnon, 2006). So instead of using the traditional piece-by-piece approach, researchers are encouraged to adopt methods such as bootstrapping for inferences about indirect effects (Hayes, 2009). This statistical method was applied within this thesis. In this respect, the SPSS PROCESS macro devised by Hayes (2012) was used which will be outlined in more detail in Section 6.2.1.3.

"All mentors practice ethics. They do it consciously or unconsciously. With 'consciously' I mean language. With 'unconsciously' I mean that mentors do not know that it is an ethical behaviour. Practicing ethics is an essential part of their work".

(Mentoring expert)

CHAPTER 5

Study 1: Scale development and validation

5.0 Chapter summary

Addressing the first research question of this thesis, in the following chapter, the scale development and validation process of the newly-developed ethics-related mentoring scale is outlined. As already discussed in the methodology chapter, the new instrument was developed in two parts. The first part of this section (section 5.1) delineates the item generation and content validation process through semi-structured interviews, whereas the second part (section 5.2) outlines the scale refinement and validation process using a scale development survey. In both studies, the method section is followed by a presentation of the results. In a final step, the findings are discussed, and theoretical as well as practical implications are outlined.

5.1 Overview of the scale development process

In developing the measure of perceived ethics-related mentoring, we followed the recommendations for scale development provided by Hinkin (1998) and De Vellis (2012). The aim was to develop an instrument that spans the full domain of ethics-related mentoring that can apply to both formal and informal mentors, and to all organisational levels. The measure was developed in two different studies using different samples. The first part of Study 1 involved the initial process of conducting qualitative interviews with 25 protégés, mentors, and other experts of mentoring programmes. Details of the sample are presented in

Section 4.3.1.1. The interviews focused on asking participants questions relevant to understand the construct of ethics-related mentoring. These interviews were used to generate an initial item pool of 99 items. Five subject matter experts were exposed to these items and were asked to judge the degree to which these items were representative of the conceptual definition of ethics-related mentoring. By conducting this content (face) validity exercise, the set of items were further refined to 40 items. These 40 items were subject to validation processes in the proceeding studies.

The second part of Study 1 was conducted primarily to examine the trait and nomological validity of the ethics-related mentoring scale (Hinkin, 1998). Details of the sample are presented in Section 4.3.1.2. Both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were used to finalise the scale items, as well as to confirm its factor structure, and establish reliability. Study 2 (see Chapter 6) was not only conducted to test the hypothesised relationships but also to replicate the scale development process with a different source of data to assure the construct validity of the newly developed measure.

For orientation purposes, an overview of the scale development process which illustrates the steps suggested by Hinkin (1998) is given (Table 2). This also includes reference to the studies and result sections in the thesis which relate to these steps.

Table 2: Scale development process

Steps	Study	Results
1a) Item generation	Study 1, Part 1	5.2.2.1
1b) Content validity assessment	Study 1, Part 1	5.2.2.2
2) Questionnaire administration	Study 1, Part 2	---
3) Exploratory factor analysis	Study 1, Part 2	5.3.2.1
4a) Confirmatory factor analysis	Study 1, Part 2	5.3.2.2
4b) Reliability analysis	Study 1, Part 2	5.3.2.3
5) Assessment of convergent, discriminant + criterion-related validity	Study 1, Part 2	5.3.2.4
6) Replication (with a new data-set)	Study 2	6.3

5.2 Part 1: Item generation and content validation

Part 1 refers to the item generation and content validation process of Study 1. This section is divided into two subsections. The method section includes the interview purpose, the interview guide, as well as the data collection and analysis procedures applied in this study, while the result section presents the findings of the item generation and refinement procedures.

5.2.1 Method

Item generation and content validation is the first step in Hinkin's (1998) scale development process. Hinkin (ibid.) suggests two techniques in which preliminary items can be generated. That is, item generation can be conducted *deductively*, starting with a theoretical definition from which scale items are then created, or *inductively*, by generating items first, from which scales are then derived. The inductive approach is usually used when exploring an unfamiliar phenomenon where theory is scarce. Since very little is known about the ethical component of mentoring, we decided to conduct item generation inductively by asking a sample of key informants (e.g., mentors, protégés, and experts) to provide descriptions of their perception and understanding of ethics-related mentoring.

It should be noted that Moberg's (2008a; 2008b) points raised about the mentor's role in developing protégés' moral character, as was discussed in Section 3.1.1, were not explicitly included in the interview guide. As a reminder for the reader, Moberg (ibid.) proposed that mentors can help their protégés form moral character as an integrated system of motivation, emotion, knowledge, and cognition through *experience, reflection, and inspiration*). The reason behind this decision was twofold: First, we did not want to narrow the responses of the interviewees by using „ready-made response categories". Second, there was no previous research, shedding light on the ethical role played by mentors. A more exploratory approach was therefore needed, simply asking key informants how they perceive

and understand ethics-related mentoring. This decision was in line with our research aims and objectives (cf., Section 1.3; RQ1). In the following, we outline the interview and analysis process.

5.2.1.1 Developing the interview guide

Questions for the semi-structured interviews were carefully designed. As the purpose of this study was to clarify the construct of ethics-related mentoring, the interviews aimed to gather detailed descriptions of the characteristics, motivation and behaviours of ethical mentors, as well as the ways in which those aspects of ethics-related mentoring manifest themselves in practice, according to protégés, mentors, and mentoring programme experts. The interviews aimed to collect information on the following topics:

- skills and competencies of ethical mentors;
- qualities and characteristics of ethical mentors;
- visible actions and behaviours of ethical mentors;
- importance of an underlying value or belief system;
- individual and contextual influences on ethics-related mentoring;
- impact of ethics-related mentoring (i.e., on protégé, company);
- key factors or topics that should be included in training programmes;
- questions, issues, or problems, that protégés bring their mentors for advice;
- motivation to be an ethical mentor, as reported by mentors.

Although we asked questions about skills, competencies, qualities, and characteristics of ethical mentors, it should be noted that the focus was on identifying ethical mentoring as a process/activity – as opposed to what an ethical mentor (as a person) looks like. We would expect that an ethical mentor to have the same traits as any other ethical person. Or, in other words, the traits of an ethical mentor should be identical, or at least similar, with those of a „moral person“, as characterised by Treviño et al. (2000, 2003). To recap: The moral person

dimension of ethical leadership reflects the leader's honesty, integrity, trustworthiness, caring about people, openness to input, respect, and principled decision making. For this reason, our research was particularly interested in exploring the practice/process of ethical mentoring.

The interview guide was structured around the above key topics, but within this respondents were allowed to expand on their responses and take the discussion in another direction. The guide was then used to bring back discussions towards the topics that were the focus of the study. Prior to the interviews, the interview questions were discussed with the research supervisory team, and any suggestions were taken on board. The first interviews in the field were also quickly transcribed and used to further refine the interview guide and the approach to conducting the sessions. The complete interview guide can be found in Appendix 1.

5.2.1.2 Conducting the semi-structured interviews

The data collection took place from October to December 2015. The interview schedule can be found in Appendix 2. All of the participants were issued with an information sheet about the interview prior to the data collection (see Appendix 3). Immediately before the interview, they were given a consent form which sought permission to record the sessions (see Appendix 4). 22 interviews were conducted face-to-face, whereas three interviews were conducted by phone. All interviews, whether in person or by phone, took on average 45 minutes, and the responses given were similar to each other. The respondents were free to stop the interview at any time. No personal data was collected during the interviews and all of the details that could identify the participants were subsequently deleted from the transcripts.

The interviews were structured consistently across all interviewees. We followed Myers and Newman's (2007) recommendations for typical semi-structured interviews:

1) introduction from the interviewer;

2) explaining the purpose of the interview;
3) covering the key questions planned;
4) closing the interview.

All participants were taken through the interview questions. Whenever it was needed, the interviewees were asked to elaborate on an unclear point or to explain an interesting point in more detail. This is in line with Myers and Newman (ibid.) who point out that semi-structured interviewers should always use an incomplete script to allow improvisation and flexibility depending on the interviewee responses. At the end of the interviews, the participants were also provided with the opportunity to share any comments, that he or she felt were important and had previously not been raised. The interviewees were then thanked for their time and contributions to the study.

5.2.1.3 Analysing the interview content

Thematic analysis – a process for encoding qualitative information – was used with the aim of identifying characteristics, behaviour, and attitudes of an ethical mentor, the experience with ethics-related mentoring, and their outcomes for protégés (Boyatzis, 1998). More specifically, two layers of analysis were conducted: A systematic *manifest content analysis* of the interviews took place, which is a descriptive account of the apparent data with nothing read into it or assumed about it, followed by a *latent level of analysis* which is concerned with what was meant by the responses, what was inferred or implied. It is more interpretive than the manifest-content analysis (ibid.). It should be noted, that the thematic analysis of the interview data was largely qualitative. A quantitative breakdown of the relatively small number of interviews collected would not have produced meaningful results. This means that the degree to which an interviewee used a particular word, sentence or phrase was not studied.

Following Boyatzis' (ibid.) process for theme and code development, a coding frame for the interviews was developed. Both a *theory-driven* and a *data-driven approach* was taken to reach this goal. The theory-driven code development is probably the most frequently used research approach in social sciences, in which the codes are derived by reading and contemplating theory, prior-research findings, and the codes used in previous research (ibid.). Having said that, the work by Treviño et al. (2000, 2003) served as the basis for developing half of the codes. They conducted exploratory research designed to understand what the term ethical leadership means to senior executives and ethics/compliance officers. They concluded that a reputation for ethical leadership rests upon two essential dimensions. The first is reflected in the "moral person" component of ethical leadership, wherein ethical leaders have desirable traits (i.e., integrity, honesty, trustworthiness); engage in certain kinds of behaviour (i.e., do the right thing, concern for people, being open, personal morality); and make decisions based upon ethical principles (i.e., hold to values, being objective and fair, concern for society, follow ethical decision rules). Although the current study did not focus on ethical leaders, it was assumed that an ethical mentor should be viewed as an "ethical person" as well. The themes and codes emerging from the previous work were therefore reviewed and adapted to the raw information of the current study (Boyatzis, 1998).

Treviño and colleagues' (2000, 2003) second dimension – the "moral manager" component – refers to how the leader uses the tools of the position of leadership to promote ethical conduct at work. As the current study investigated the concept of ethics-related mentoring that should be distinct from the concept of ethical leadership, a data-driven, inductive approach to thematic analysis was taken to develop the second half of the codes. Following Boyatzis' (1998) recommendations, we listened to each of the audiotaped interviews several times to determine similarities and patterns among the pieces of information. The aim was to reduce and divide up the raw information into distinct themes and codes. Either a word, a phrase, a sentence or multiple sentences represented a distinct thought and were allocated to a particular theme and code. For instance, if one interviewee

said, “my mentor is my role model in terms of ethics” and another said “an ethical mentor leads by example in terms of ethical behaviour”, both would be included in a category labeled “ethical role modelling”. During the code development process, the preliminary themes and codes were revised and modified as new themes appeared. The final codes were applied to the entire sample. Both the theory-driven themes and codes (i.e., traits, behaviour, and decision-making) and the data-driven themes and codes (i.e., interaction with protégé; ethical development of protégé; mentor-protégé relationship) are summarised in Table 3. A description and example of each code are outlined as well.

Table 3: Coding frame for qualitative interviews

Theme	Code	Description and example of code
Theory driven themes and codes *(cf., Treviño et al., 2000, 2003)*		
1. Traits	Integrity	The mentor keeps promises, and shows consistency in words and action. Example: *My mentor does things as he/she says.*
	Honesty	The mentor is regarded as an honest person. Example: *My mentor is an open and honest person.*
	Trustworthiness	The mentor is regarded as a trustworthy person. Example: *My mentor is someone I can trust.*
2. Behaviour	Concern for protégé	The mentor cares about the mentee and treats him/her with respect. Example: *My mentor cares about me.*
	Being open	The mentor is a approachable and a good listener, and he/she encourages openness. Example: *My mentor listens to my concerns and problems I face.*
	Personal morality	The mentor has clear personal values and moral principles. Example: *My mentor has clear personal values and moral principles.*
3. Decision-making	Hold to values	When making decisions and actions, the mentor holds to a solid set of ethical values and principles. Example: *My mentor insists of doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy.*
	Objectivity / fairness	The mentor does not practice favouritism, he/she treats others in a way that is right and equal, and makes principled and fair decisions. Example: *My mentor makes fair and balanced decisions.*
	Concern for business Ethics	The mentor shows concern for business ethics, and promotes long-term growth rather than profit maximisation. Example: *My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.*

Theme	Code	Description and example of code
	Data driven themes and codes	
4. Interaction with protégé	Ethical role modelling	The mentor sets an example of ethical behaviour in his/her decisions and actions. Example: *My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.*
	Ethical guidance	The mentor gives ethical advice and guidance. Example: *My mentor provides ethical guidance.*
	Communication about ethics and values	The mentor communicates about ethics and values, and promotes ethical conduct. Example: *My mentor communicates ethical standards.*
	Ethical education	The mentor talks about ethics and explains ethical rules. Example: *My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me.*
	Experience exchange	The mentor shares his/her experience with ethical issues with the protégé. Example: *My mentor shares his/her experience with ethical dilemmas with me.*
5. Ethical development of protégé	Ethical decision-making (protégé)	The mentor helps the protégé to make principled and fair decisions. Example: *My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.*
	Ethical stimulation (protégé)	The mentor inspires and influences the protégé to reflect on his/her own personal value and moral system. Example: *My mentor inspires me to reflect on my personal value and moral system.*
6. Mentor-protégé relationship	Similar value system	The mentor and protégé have a similar value system in place. Example: *My mentor is someone I identify with in terms of personal and moral values.*

5.2.2 Results

This section presents the results of the first part of the scale development and validation process, that is, the findings of the item generation and refinement procedures.

5.2.2.1 Item generation

When developing and validating the ethics-related mentoring scale, recommendations made by Hinkin (1998) and De Vellis (2012) were followed. Domain sampling theory states that it is not possible to measure the construct of interest in its entirety, but that it is important that the sample of items drawn from potential items adequately tap into the underlying

construct (Hinkin, 1998). Following an inductive approach, items were generated through the interviews conducted with mentors, protégés, and experts for mentoring programmes. The responses were analysed, and items were formulated to measure the construct of ethics-related mentoring.

As recommended by Hinkin (1998), items were written carefully and in simple language in order to not threaten the validity of the scale. As “double-barrelled” items may represent two constructs and thus may confuse respondents, efforts were further made to ensure that items addressed only a single issue. Items were also worded as short and concise as possible, as length usually increases complexity and diminishes clarity. The longest item in the item pool comprised of 16 words and 24 syllables, and 15 words and 26 syllables respectively. According to Fry (1977), this sentence length roughly falls at the seventh-grade reading level and therefore deemed to be appropriate for the general population. The opinions about using negatively worded items are divided. Some researchers argue that the use of negatively worded items may reduce the problem of biased responses (e.g., Price & Mueller, 1986), whereas others have found that the use of a few randomly interspersed reverse-scored items within a scale may have a detrimental effect on psychometric properties of a scale (e.g., Harrison & McLaughlin, 1991). We chose not to use reverse-scored items in the ethics-related mentoring scale but followed Hinkin’s (1998) recommendation in this regard that items should be worded very carefully in order to ensure appropriate interpretation by respondents. The final item pool consisted of 99 items. This large number of items allowed for greater scope in selecting items for the final ethics-related mentoring scale.

A Likert scale was chosen as the response format for the scale, as Likert scales are considered ideal in behavioural research, and most suitable for use in factor analysis (Hinkin, 1998). More specifically, a five-point Likert scale was decided upon for the ethics-related mentoring scale as research has shown that coefficient alpha reliability with Likert scales increases with five scale points, but then it levels off (Lissitz & Green, 1975). Moreover, Eby

et al. (2013) conducted a meta-analysis and found that the most commonly used measure of mentoring support was from Scandura (17.8%; 1992) and Noe (17.5%; 1988). Both researchers used a five-point Likert scale to measure the items. With that said, the response options ranged from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”, with “neither disagree nor agree” being the midpoint. These provide respondents with the full range of responses and also allow for neutral responses if respondents feel equally attracted to both disagreement or agreement.

5.2.2.2 Content validation

The next step in the scale development process was to ensure that the items demonstrated content adequacy (Hinkin, 1998). The content validity of a construct can be defined as the degree to which the items actually reflect the theoretical content domain of the construct being examined (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The guidelines provided by Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner and Lankau (1993) were used to confirm the content adequacy of the ethics-related mentoring scale.

To maximise the content validity of the measure, a panel of subject matter experts (i.e., doctoral researchers in the field of organisational psychology, and experts for mentoring programmes) were asked to review the item pool. This approach provided a test for the face validity of the items, that is, indicating that the scale appears to be valid, “on its face”. Thus, items that deemed to be lacking relevance or clarity were removed. In total, five experts were asked to participate in the exercise which is in line with the recommendations made by Rubio, Berg-Weger, Tebb, Lee and Rauch (2003). The experts were provided with a list of all 99 items. Each item has been assigned to 1 of 12 categories of ethics-related mentoring[4]: concern for protégé; being open; hold to values; concern for business ethics; ethical role

[4] As already noted in section 5.2.1.1, we were interested in conceptualising ethics-related mentoring as a process/activity. Or, in other words, we were not interested in identifying what an ethical mentor as a person looks like. We, therefore, decided not to include items in the face validity exercise that tap into the following dimensions, as identified in the coding frame (cf., Table 3): integrity, honesty, trustworthiness, personal morality, and objectivity/fairness. As a result, only 12 dimensions remained.

modelling; ethical guidance; communication about ethics and values; ethical education; experience exchange; ethical decision-making (protégé); ethical stimulation (protégé); and similar value system. Using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”, the experts were asked to read the definition of each category and rate the extent to which each item was a representation of the category at hand. The face validity exercise is given in Appendix 5.

Once the ratings were acquired, efforts were made to refine the selection of items to those with the highest content validity. All items that were rated with “agree” or “strongly agree” across all experts were retained in the item pool. This suggested that the experts did agree considerably over the potential representation of the item in a given category. The items that were rated with disagreement or uncertain by at least one expert were eliminated on the basis that they did not sufficiently tap into their respective category. A table in the appendix illustrates the percentage distribution for each of the 99 items (see Appendix 6) to indicate agreement and disagreement/uncertain among experts.

Besides, we deleted items for the following reasons (for a better understanding, the reader is referred to Appendix 6). Item 5 (My mentor takes care of my work-life-balance) was deleted as it did not explicitly relate to *ethical* mentoring. Item10 (My mentor stands available when I need some advice), item11 (My mentor takes time when I need his/her help), and item 13 (My mentor listens to what I have to say) were very similar in meaning. Because item11 got better ratings (i.e., in comparison, more participants scored with “strongly agree”), we decided to delete item10 and item13 from further analysis. Next, such as above, the items no. 29 (My mentor “walks the talk” in terms of ethical behaviour.) and no. 34 (My mentor “leads by example” in terms of ethical behaviour) were very similar in meaning. As item34 had the better ratings (in comparison, more experts scored with “strongly agree”), we decided to keep this items and delete the other item from further analysis. Similarly, more participants strongly agreed with item no. 28 (My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics) than with the related item no. 31. (My mentor sets an

example of ethical behaviour in his/her actions). As such, item 31 was deleted from the pool of items.

We also kept items in the pool. The reasons were as follows, starting with item no. 25. Although item25 (My mentor promotes environmental and social benefit rather than profit maximization) did not meet the requirements of the face validity exercise (i.e., only 80% (not 100%) of the participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement), we decided to keep this item in the pool. The reason is that we wanted to include at least three items from each dimension in the scale development survey. Within the dimension of "concern for business ethics", item25 achieved the third best rating. Further, we retained item39 (My mentor provides ethical guidance), as four out of five experts rated this statement with "strongly agree". Only one person was uncertain. Next, as only two items (item49 and item52) were left in the dimension "communication about ethics and values", we decided to maintain two further items in the item pool: item50 (My mentor shares his/her view on ethics and morality with me) and item54 (My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards). Both items received 80% agreement. For the same reasons, but with respect to the dimension of "ethical education", we also kept the items no. 57 (My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me), and no. 59 (My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me) in the item pool for the scale development survey. Although item60 and item63 in this category also achieved 80% agreement among experts, they were considered with less priority, as less experts rated these items with "strongly agree" (in comparison to item57 and item59). Within the dimension "experience exchange", none of the items obtained a score of 100% agreement. We, therefore, we chose three items for further analysis: The best rated items were item68 (My mentor shares his/her experience with ethical dilemmas with me), and item73 (My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner). We further decided to keep item71 (My mentor talks about bad decisions and defeats that he/she made) in the item pool. Although this item was not in the top three choices from a quantitative point of view, several interviewees mentioned this particular point when working with protégés

(e.g., see statement from mentoring expert, presented in the beginning of Chapter 2). It was therefore decided to wait for the results of the next survey before deleting this item entirely. Moreover, to keep a set of at least three items, two further items were kept in the category “ethical decision-making”. These were item79 (My mentor asks me questions to help me think about my problem at hand), and item83 (My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions). Finally, it was decided to obtain item no. 91 (My mentor serves as a sounding board for me to develop and strengthen my value system) in the dimension “ethical stimulation”. The reason was that this item also achieved higher agreement (i.e., 80%, including strong agreement) among experts, while the other items in this category were rated significantly lower (i.e., only 20%, 40% or 60% agreement).

In total, 40 items remained. The final pool of items for the scale development survey (study 1, part 2) is presented in Table 4. The order of items was mixed to reduce potential order bias. Each item was given a code number to facilitate identification. Further, it should be noted that De Vellis (2012) suggests that the ideal size of the item pool should be three to four times larger than the final scale. Churchill and Peter (1984) have shown that a greater number of final items are related to a higher reliability estimate. As 40 items were included in the study, it was possible to remove problematic and useless items, whilst still being able to attain a desirable reliability coefficient in the later process.

Table 4: Preliminary scale items and item codes

Items	Code
My mentor “leads by example” in terms of ethical behaviour.	ethic1
My mentor shares his/her view on ethics and morality with me.	ethic2
My mentor values me as a person.	ethic3
My mentor insists on doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy.	ethic4
My mentor practices his/her moral values every day.	ethic5
My mentor listens to my concerns and problems I face.	ethic6
My mentor makes considerate decisions according to his/her personal value system.	ethic7
My mentor cares about me.	ethic8
My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics.	ethic9
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.	ethic10
My mentor promotes environmental and social benefit rather than profit maximisation.	ethic11
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help.	ethic12
My mentor gives me advice on how to solve an ethical issue.	ethic13
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour.	ethic14
My mentor provides ethical guidance.	ethic15
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me.	ethic16
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications.	ethic17
My mentor shows concern for sustainability issues.	ethic18
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.	ethic19
My mentor signals me when he/she does not agree with my behaviour.	ethic20
My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me.	ethic21
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.	ethic22
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards.	ethic23
My mentor’s wisdom and experience influences my personal value system.	ethic24
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself.	ethic25
My mentor communicates ethical standards.	ethic26
My mentor can be asked for advice on legal and ethical issues.	ethic27
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions.	ethic28
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem.	ethic29
My mentor and me share similar values.	ethic30
My mentor shares his/her experience on ethical dilemmas with me.	ethic31
My mentor is someone I identify with in terms of personal and moral values.	ethic32
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner.	ethic33
My mentor inspires me to reflect on my personal value and moral system.	ethic34
My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner.	ethic35
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles.	ethic36
My mentor and I have similar value systems.	ethic37
My mentor talks about bad decisions and defeats that he/she made.	ethic38
My mentor asks me questions to help me think about my problem at hand.	ethic39
My mentor serves as a sounding board for me to develop and strengthen my value system.	ethic40

5.3 Part 2: Scale refinement and validation

Part 2 refers to the scale refinement and validation process of Study 1. Again, this section is divided into two subsections. The method section starts with a description of the procedure and sample characteristics of the survey and ends with an overview of all measures used in this study. The results section presents the findings of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Shortly thereafter, the results of the scale's reliability and validity tests are presented.

5.3.1 Method

After having developed an initial 40-items, the scale was subject to further refinement and subsequent validation in the second part of Study 1. As recommended by Hinkin (1998) and De Vellis (2012), the scale was included in a survey which was administered to a sample of 114 protégés located in Germany. Exploratory factor analysis was then conducted to reduce the number of items in the questionnaire and to look for underlying factors. Items which did not clearly tap into a specific factor of ethics-related mentoring, and items that did not clearly load on a single appropriate factor were subsequently deleted. The scale was then validated in confirmatory factor analysis in order to assess the quality of the factor structure, as well as to explore if an alternative best-fitting model was available. After this step, the internal consistency reliability for the new scale was calculated. More specifically, Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the reliability because it is the most commonly accepted measure in field studies (Price & Mueller, 1986). Finally, the usefulness of the ethics-related mentoring measure was assessed by determining its convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity. A range of bivariate and multivariate tests, such as correlation, hierarchical regression, and one-way ANOVA were used for that purpose. SPSS Statistics 23 (IBM Corp., 2015) and SPSS Amos 23 (Arbuckle, 2014) were used for the analysis.

5.3.1.1 Procedure

The data collection took place from January to July 2016. Several measures were followed to ensure a good sample size (as discussed in Section 4.3.1). The majority of the sample was recruited from four companies and one university with an established mentoring programme in place. In all cases, the persons responsible for the internal mentoring programme identified the current protégés and distributed the survey through the company's internal mail system. They explained that the survey has been approved by the company, and asked the protégés to participate in the study. A separate letter described the importance and procedure of the study (an example is given in Appendix 7). Further, all respondents were told that individual-level data or confirmation of their participation would not be shared with their organisation. In nearly all cases, a reminder letter was sent approximately two to three weeks after the original survey. As an incentive and thank you, 1 euro for each fully completed survey was donated for a good cause. Participants were also offered the overall report upon completion of the project.

In order to increase the sample size, two consulting companies were contacted that offer external and cross-mentoring as a service. They supported the study by informing their members about the study and inviting them to participate. The communication procedure was followed as above. Furthermore, the German business social network XING was used to address additional potential respondents. Users, that indicated on their profile that they currently have (or recently had) a "mentor" were directly contacted and invited to participate in the study. Finally, data collection followed a "snowball" procedure (i.e., contacts were asked to invite their contacts). Besides the advantage of increasing the sample size, this sampling strategy is useful to create a diverse sample in terms of sectors, jobs and hierarchical levels.

The survey was administered with the online survey host Survey Monkey. This platform enables researchers to create and administer questionnaires while ensuring the

confidentiality of the respondents. By clicking on the survey link provided in the invitation letter, the participants confirmed their understanding and consent. The survey took on average 20 minutes to complete. At the end of the survey, they were provided with our contact details, should they need to get in touch. The responses were automatically forwarded to us. The online format of the survey allowed for converting collected survey responses into MS Excel. Obtained data were then coded and cleaned to have a dataset ready for analysis.

The final sample consisted of 114 protégés who were currently or within the last three years in a formal or informal mentoring relationship. Details of the sample can be found in Section 4.3.1.2. It should be noted, that the sample size did not meet Hinkin's (1998) recommendation for scale development (i.e., a minimum of 150 participants). However, arrangements were made, as discussed in Section 4.3.1.2, so that it is believed that this sample allows for testing the first research question and the generalisability of the ethics-related mentoring scale.

5.3.1.2 Measures

Listed below are the measures which were used in the scale development survey. Demographic information about the protégé and the mentor, as well as information about the mentoring relationship was collected at the end of the survey. The complete questionnaire can be found in Appendix 8. Reliability statistics for all measures and items can be found in Appendix 9.

Mentoring. Eby et al. (2013) conducted a meta-analysis and found that the most commonly used measure of career-related and psychosocial support was from Scandura (17.8%; 1992). Due to its wide recognition, this 15-item measure of mentoring functions was used to indicate the extent mentoring was provided. Six items measured career-related mentoring (e.g., “My mentor takes a personal interest in my career”), five items assessed

psychosocial mentoring (e.g., “I consider my mentor to be a friend”), and four items reflected role modelling (e.g., “I admire my mentor‘s ability to motivate others”). Participants responded to the items on a five-point point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The Cronbach’s alphas for overall mentoring were .92, and for the sub-scales career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role modelling .87, .87, and .83 respectively.

Satisfaction with the mentor. The protégé’s satisfaction with the mentor was measured by a 4-item scale by Ragins and Cotton (1999). The items (e.g., My mentor is someone that I am satisfied with”) were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The estimated reliability for the satisfaction scale was .85.

Social desirability. Social desirability was assessed with the impression management scale of Paulhus’ Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (1991). Examples are “I sometimes tell lies if I have to” and “I never cover up my mistakes”. As done by Brown et al. (2005), one of the 20 items was dropped (i.e., “I never read sexy books or magazines”) out of concern about its likely reactivity. After reversing all negatively worded items, a social desirability score was calculated by counting all extreme responses (6, 7) on a seven-point response format as 1 and all other responses as 0. The coefficient alpha for this measure was .72.

Moral motivation. A business-related moral choice developed by Aquino, Freeman, Reed II, Lim and Felps (2009) was adapted in order to measure the respondents’ intention to enact a moral behaviour. Participants were presented the following scenario:

> *Please imagine that you are the brand manager for a breakfast cereal company. Recently, you were approached by the German Cancer Society (DKG) to initiate a cause-related marketing program. Specifically, DKG would like you to donate 25 cents to a special fund for cancer prevention each time one of your products is purchased. According to your*

research department, adoption of the program is likely to cost more than it earns through an incremental sales increase. Consequently, IF YOU CHOOSE TO INITIATE THE PROGRAM, YOU WOULD BE LESS LIKELY TO EARN A YEAR-END BONUS.

Participants were then asked to complete two items: (1) "What is the percentage chance that you would choose to initiate the cause-related marketing program?" (0 to 100%) and (2) "How likely are you to initiate the cause-related program?" (ranging from 1 = "extremely unlikely" to 9 = "extremely likely"). Responses to these items were standardised and averaged to form a measure of motivation to act morally. The Cronbach alpha was .86.

Supervisor's ethical leadership. The protégés' perception of their supervisors' ethical leadership was measured by Brown and colleagues' (2005) 10-item Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS).[5] An example item is "My direct supervisor makes fair and balanced decisions". The responses were made on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". A higher score indicated a greater perception of the supervisor's ethical leadership. The Cronbach alpha of ethical leadership was .93.

[5] Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan and Prussia (2013) developed a similar 15-item scale, i.e., the Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ). Short measures such as the ELS and ELQ are useful in quantitative studies where many other variables are measured, or the number of items needs to be limited. Other researchers have started to investigate ethical leadership as a multi-dimensional construct. These assume that ethical leadership forms an overarching construct that is composed of multiple distinct but related behaviours. For instance, Resick, Hanges, Dickson and Mitchelson's (2006) conceptualisation of ethical leadership included four components (i.e., altruism, motivating, character and integrity, encouraging and empowering), whereas De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) distinguished three dimensions of ethical leadership (i.e., fairness, power-sharing, and role clarification) and related the content of these dimensions to Brown and colleagues' (2005) work. Finally, Kalshoven, Den Hartog and De Hoogh's (2011b) conceptualisation of ethical leadership is based on theory and interviews and includes seven components such as fairness, integrity, ethical guidance, people orientation, power sharing, role clarification, and concern for sustainability. This 38-item measure is known as the Ethical Leadership at Work (ELW) questionnaire. Although some researchers started to use the ELW scale instead (e.g., Kalshoven, Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2011a, 2013a), the ELS scale has been still widely recognised and used (e.g., Hansen, Alge, Brown, Jackson & Dunford, 2013; Jordan et al., 2013; Mayer et al., 2012; Schaubroeck et al., 2012). For that reason, Brown et al.'s (2005) Ethical Leadership Scale was used both in Study 1 and Study 2.

5.3.2 Results

This section presents the results of the second part of the scale development and validation process. First, the findings of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis are presented. This is followed by the results of the reliability and validity assessment of the new ethics-related mentoring scale.

5.3.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is very common in management research and has been used widely as a data analysis tool for the development and refinement of new scales, as well as for the evaluation of construct validity (Ford, MacCallum & Tait, 1986). The purpose of EFA is to identify the underlying factor structure of a set of items. Specifically, EFA examines how many factors exist among a set of items and the degree to which the items are related to the factors. There are several issues that must be considered when conducting an exploratory factor analysis, including (1) the choice of extraction method, (2) the number of factors retained after extraction, (3) the decision about the rotation method, and (4) the interpretation of the factor solution (ibid.). The issues are discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

The method of identifying the factors that best characterise a set of items is known as factor extraction. Although there are many factor extraction methods available (see Gorsuch, 1983), the two most prominent models are the component model and the common factor model (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). The principal component analysis (PCA), which assumes measurement without error, is one of the more frequently used component models, whereas principal axis factoring (PAF), which attempts to account for measurement error, is more commonly used to estimate the common factor model (Schmitt, 2011). Reviews investigating statistical practices in psychological and organisational research have shown that the predominant method of choice is common factor analysis (i.e., PAF) (Conway & Huffcutt,

2003; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999; Ford et al., 1986; Henson & Roberts, 2006). This method is considered ideal if the purpose of the researcher is to understand the latent structure of a set of items (Conway & Huffcut, 2003).

As the purpose of EFA is to retain the fewest possible factors while explaining the most variance of the observed items, it is crucial that the researcher extracts the correct number of factors. The decision about the number of factors being retained in a model can affect results substantially (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Both over or under extracting can lead to significant modeling error (Schmitt, 2011). The techniques that can be chosen to inform the number of factors being retained include Kaiser's (1956) Eigenvalue greater than 1 rule, the Scree test (Cattell, 1966), as well as Bartlett's (1950; 1951) chi-square test. The Kaiser (1956) criterion selects factors with Eigenvalues of at least 1. This rule has been criticised, however, as it does not continuously give an accurate number of factors (Gorsuch, 1997). Second, the procedure tends to be arbitrary, as a common factor with an Eigenvalue of 1.01 is claimed a major factor, whereas an Eigenvalue of .99 is not (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

Another widely known method is the Scree test, which is a visual plot of the Eigenvalues. Cattell (1966) suggests that the right number of factors can be determined by looking at the Scree plot. Ideally, the progression of factors will have a point at which the Eigenvalues suddenly flatten out. This abrupt transition is the so-called the "elbow", which then indicates the number of factors to be retained. That is, factors that are located on the vertical portion of the plot (i.e., above the elbow) should be retained, whereas factors that are located on the horizontal portion should be discarded. This approach has also been criticised as it relies on subjective criteria as to when the graph levels off (e.g., Kaiser, 1970). For that reason, a combination of methods should be used, since no single one has been shown to be significantly more accurate in comparison to the other method (Conway & Huffcut, 2003).

Any solution with two or more factors is usually rotated to find a more interpretable solution. An important criterion for selecting among solutions in EFA is the property of

"simple structure" (Thurstone, 1947). Fabrigar et al. (1999) gave a relatively easy description of this rather complex criterion: Simple structure means that each factor has a number of variables that have large loadings, whereas the rest of the variables have low loadings. Further, each variable should only load highly on some of the factors, and load lowly on the rest. Rotation methods are numerous and can be classified into two broad types: Orthogonal rotations, which forces uncorrelated factors, and oblique rotations, which allows factors to correlate (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). Varimax, quartimax, and equamax are commonly available orthogonal rotation methods. In psychological research, the most widely used orthogonal method is Varimax (Fabrigar et al., 1999). However, as psychological and educational factors are correlated, Schmitt (2011) recommends that researchers only use oblique rotation methods as they generally produce more realistic and more statistically sound factor structures. Direct oblimin, quartimin, and promax are available oblique rotations. There is no widely preferred oblique method – all tend to produce similar results (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

Fourth and finally, it is important for readers to be able to evaluate the researcher's EFA practices and results (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). In line with the recommendation by Hinkin (1989), a principal axis factoring method was used because it mixes common, specific, and random error variances (Ford et al., 1986). Oblique rotation, specifically direct oblimin, was performed as it allows for correlations among factors (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). Based on the above recommendations, the present study extracted factors based on Eigenvalues greater than 1 while also studying the Scree plot. In order to achieve a simple structure, only items which predominantly loaded on a single appropriate factor were retained. As recommended by Ford and colleagues (1986) the .40 criterion level was used, meaning that any loadings of lower than this were deleted from the analysis. In addition, the communality statistics were examined. MacCallum et al. (1999) found that high communalities (all greater than .60) affect the accuracy of parameter estimates, and thus greatly reduces the impact of sample size. Good recovery of population factors can be

achieved even when N is well below 100. Therefore, only items with communalities after extraction greater than .60 were retained in the present study (N = 104). Conducting EFA was an iterative process. After having conducted the initial EFA, inappropriately loading items were deleted, and the analysis was repeated two times with the specified number of factors in order to reach a clear factor structure that explained a high percentage of total item variance (Hinkin, 1998; Kahn, 2006).

Below are the EFA results of the present study. The findings are presented in three stages. Stage 1 refers to the initial EFA including all 40 ethics-related mentoring items. The evaluation of the Eigenvalues and Scree plot suggested 6 factors accounting for 71.05% of the variance, exceeding the minimum acceptable target of 60.00% for scale development (Hinkin, 1998). Table 5 reports the factor loadings, and the communalities after extraction. 14 items were deleted for the following reasons. Five items did not load strongly on the factor (< .40): ethic18, ethic24, ethic27, ethic34, and ethic40. Two items cross-loaded on two factors: ethic3 and ethic7. Finally, seven items also had low communalities (< .60): ethic2, ethic6, ethic11, ethic20, ethic21, ethic31, and ethic38. After the first round of analysis, 26 items remained.

Table 5: Remaining items, item loadings, and communalities after extraction of first EFA (stage 1)

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	Communalities after extraction
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me. (ethic16)	.787						.695
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself. (ethic25)	.690						.671
*My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me. (ethic21)	.622						.561
My mentor communicates ethical standards. (ethic26)	.600						.611
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem. (ethic29)	.586						.734
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications. (ethic22)	.549						.733
*My mentor shares his/her experience on ethical dilemmas with me. (ethic31)	.542						.552
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics. (ethic19)	.536						.758
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications. (ethic17)	.490						.723
*My mentor promotes environmental and social benefit rather than profit maximisation. (ethic11)	.430						.498
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner. (ethic33)	.417						.657
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help. (ethic12)		.697					.684
My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner. (ethic35)		.593					.635
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions. (ethic28)		.571					.718
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles. (ethic36)		.536					.701
*My mentor signals me when he/she does not agree with my behaviour. (ethic20)		.535					.531
My mentor cares about me. (ethic8)		.496					.664
*My mentor listens to my concerns and problems I face. (ethic6)		.459					.493
*My mentor values me as a person (ethic3)		.435		.404			.572
My mentor asks me questions to help me think about my problem at hand. (ethic39)			.469				.671
*My mentor talks about bad decisions and defeats that he/she made. (ethic38)			.465				.468
My mentor and I have similar value systems. (ethic37)				.651			.633
My mentor and me share similar values. (ethic30)				.606			.661
My mentor is someone I identify with in terms of personal and moral values. (ethic32)				.484			.759
My mentor provides ethical guidance. (ethic15)					.615		.783
My mentor gives me advice on how to solve an ethical issue. (ethic13)					.542		.729
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic14)					.493		.732

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	Communalities after extraction
My mentor insists on doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy. (ethic4)						.742	.667
My mentor practices his/her moral values every day. (ethic5)						.682	.621
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values. (ethic10)						.605	.747
My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics. (ethic9)						.544	.691
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards. (ethic23)						.519	.752
My mentor "leads by example" in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic1)						.508	.736
*My mentor shares his/her view on ethics and morality with me. (ethic2)						.481	.552
*My mentor makes considerate decisions according to his/her personal value system. (ethic7)			.446			.470	.649

Note: N = 104; Extraction method = Principal axis factoring; Rotation method = Direct oblimin
** The item was deleted in subsequent analysis.*

Stage 2 refers to the second EFA conducted with the reduced number of 26 items, as informed by the first EFA. Four factors were retained accounting for 71.33 % of the variance. Once again, items that did not load strongly on the factor (< .40), and that had low communalities (< .60) were deleted from the analysis. In total, 7 items were deleted: The items ethic13, ethic26, and ethic32 had low factor loadings, while the items ethic4, ethic5, ethic8, ethic39 had low communalities. Table 6 reports the factor loadings, and the communalities after extraction of the remained 19 items.

Table 6: Remaining items, item loadings, and communalities after extraction of second EFA (stage 2)

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	Communalities after extraction
*My mentor insists on doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy. (ethic4)	.752				.596
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values. (ethic10)	.692				.757
*My mentor practices his/her moral values every day. (ethic5)	.641				.567
My mentor "leads by example" in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic1)	.633				.686
My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics. (ethic9)	.626				.686
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards. (ethic23)	.620				.728
My mentor and me share similar values. (ethic30)		.702			.744
My mentor and I have similar value systems. (ethic37)		.668			.672
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help. (ethic12)			.631		.640
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles. (ethic36)			.621		.687
My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner. (ethic35)			.608		.650
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions. (ethic28)			.579		.710
*My mentor asks me questions to help me think about my problem at hand. (ethic39)			.525		.484
*My mentor cares about me. (ethic8)			.431		.556
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me. (ethic16)				.839	.654
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem. (ethic29)				.806	.741
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications. (ethic22)				.773	.748
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself. (ethic25)				.752	.611
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications. (ethic17)				.732	.710
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics. (ethic19)				.716	.735
My mentor provides ethical guidance. (ethic15)				.661	.652
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner. (ethic33)				.429	.630
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic14)				.412	.658

Note: N = 104; Extraction method = Principal axis factoring; Rotation method = Direct oblimin

** The item was deleted in subsequent analysis.*

Stage 3 refers to the third EFA conducted with the reduced number of 19 items, as informed by the second EFA. Three factors were retained accounting for 71.14% of the variance. Two items were discarded because of low communalities (< .60): item30 and item37. Table 7 reports the factor loadings, and the communalities after extraction. The remaining 17 items were grouped into three dimensions: ethical role modelling (5 items), ethical guidance (8 items), and concern for protégé (4 items).

Table 7: Remaining items, item loadings, and communalities after extraction of third EFA (stage 3)

Items	F1	F2	F3	Communalities after extraction
Ethical role modelling				
My mentor "leads by example" in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic1)	.781			.689
*My mentor and me share similar values. (ethic30)	.723			.586
My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics. (ethic9)	.718			.675
*My mentor and I have similar value systems. (ethic37)	.595			.502
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values. (ethic10)	.582			.671
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards. (ethic23)	.575			.682
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic14)	.570			.679
Ethical guidance				
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me. (ethic16)		-.828		.667
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem. (ethic29)		-.722		.721
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics. (ethic19)		-.702		.759
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself. (ethic25)		-.675		.619
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications. (ethic17)		-.617		.702
My mentor provides ethical guidance. (ethic15)		-.592		.661
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications. (ethic22)		-.578		.640
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner. (ethic33)		-.446		.615

Items	F1	F2	F3	Communalities after extraction
Concern for protégé				
My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner. (ethic35)			.727	.708
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles. (ethic36)			.666	.672
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help. (ethic12)			.603	.592
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions. (ethic28)			.559	.650

Note: N = 104; Extraction method = Principal axis factoring; Rotation method = Direct oblimin
** The item was deleted in subsequent analysis.*

5.3.2.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

One of the weaknesses of exploratory factor analysis is its inability to demonstrate the goodness of fit of the resulting factor structure (Hinkin, 1998). In order to overcome this, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) – which is a confirmation that the prior analysis has been conducted thoroughly and appropriately – was conducted using SPSS Amos 23 (Arbuckle, 2014) in order to test the overall fit of the model. In this respect, not only the proposed model but also alternative models were tested, as recommended by Tomarken and Waller (2003) and Goffin (2007).

First, several first-order factor models were tested (i.e., with one factor, two factors, and three factors), followed by a second-order factor analysis. In the first-order model, the individual variables are allowed to load freely on their underlying factor (i.e., ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé in case of a three first-order factor model), whereas in the second-order model, the individual items are modeled as indicators of their underlying dimensions, and these are modeled as indicators of an overall latent ethics-related mentoring construct. Hence, a second-order factor is a superordinate factor that explains covariation among first-order factors (Rindskopf & Rose, 1988). Results were then compared with each other to ensure the best fitting and also the most conceptually sound model.

There are different fit statistics to assess the fit of the proposed model. The chi-square statistic (χ^2) assesses the goodness of fit and allows the comparison between two models, whereby it is recommended that the smaller the value, the better the fit. In this regard, a nonsignificant chi-square is desirable (Hinkin, 1998). Further, a chi-square that is two or three times as large as the degrees of freedom is considered acceptable, but the closer the χ^2 value is to the degrees of freedom, the better it is (Carmines & McIver, 1981; Thacker, Fields & Tetrick, 1989). However, a well-known criticism against this test is its severe dependence on sample size, as well as on other model characteristics. For instance, moderate discrepancies from normality in the data also lead the chi-square test to reject the model (West, Finch & Curran, 1995). Therefore, it is recommended that the chi-square test should only be used for preliminary and exploratory interpretations when testing model fit (Schmitt, 2011).

Consequently, fit indices were used to supplement the χ^2 test. As a common criticism tends to be that researchers use those fit indices which are favourable in supporting a good model fit (Kline, 2015), indices were chosen in line with recommendations prior to analyses. Bentler (2007) recommends limiting the reporting of indexes to the standardised root mean square residual (SRMR), and at most two other indices of fit, such as the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the comparative fit index (CFI). These fit indices were also deployed in the scale development and validation study by Brown and colleagues (Ethical Leadership Scale; 2005) and were chosen in the present study.

The standardised root mean square residual (SRMR; Hu & Bentler, 1998) is a measure of the average of the standardised fitted residuals. This index also ranges from .00 (perfect fit) to 1.00 (poor fit), whereby a value of less than .08 indicates an acceptable fit. Second, the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990) is a measure of the estimated discrepancy between the population and model-implied population covariance matrices per degree of freedom. Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggest that a value of .05 or less indicate a close fit, and .08 or less indicate adequate fit. Third, the comparative fit index

(CFI; Bentler, 1990) provides a measure of complete covariation in the data. The CFI ranges from .00 (poor fit) to 1.00 (perfect fit). Although the evaluation of this index tends to be somewhat subjective, a value greater than .90 indicates a reasonably good model fit (Hinkin, 1998). Hu and Bentler (1999) also suggest the use of .95 as a criterion for adequate fit. Finally, it was decided to report the non-normed fit index (NNFI; Bentler & Bonett, 1980) – also called the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). While the normed fit index (NFI; not reported in this thesis) is strictly normed to fall on a 0 and 1 continuum, the NNFI can fall outside of this range due to sampling fluctuations. Bentler and Bonett (1980) suggest that values greater than .90 may constitute an acceptable fit. Overall, it is important to note that these cut-off values are simply guidelines for goodness of fit and should not be viewed as golden rules, but as "preliminary interpretations that must be pursued in relation to the specific details of their research" (Marsh, Hau & Wen, 2004, p321).

The results of the proposed and alternative factor models are shown in Table 8. First, although not suggested by the results of the EFA, the one-factor structure of the model was tested. The chi-square test was significant, which indicates a poor model fit. However, as discussed above, the use of the χ^2 value in measuring overall fit is problematic because the sample size is part of the chi-square computation. As large samples are necessary for CFA, there is a high likelihood of the chi-square being significant even when the model provides a good fit to the data (Kahn, 2006). In fact, the chi-square test was significant in all model tests. Continuing the analysis, the fit indices of the one factor model were not satisfactory, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .13, CFI = .86, and NNFI = .84; thus the model was rejected.

Moreover, three alternative two-factor models, in which any two of the three factors were combined into one factor. Neither of these models fit the data well, SRMR ranged between .59 and .61, RMSEA ranged between .10 and .11, CFI ranged between .90 and .91, and the NNFI ranged between .88 and .89. As the CFI index was the only index that was above the recommended value (i.e., .90), the three alternative models were rejected as well.

Next, the proposed three-factor model that emerged from the final exploratory factor analysis was examined. The four fit indices showed that a three first-order factor model with ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé fit the data well: SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .95, and NNFI = .94 were all at or above recommended standards (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Steiger, 1990).

Finally, a second-order CFA was conducted in order to ensure that the best fitting model was selected. Fit indices showed that a unidimensional model (i.e., single ethics-related mentoring factor) fit the data also well. In fact, as shown in Table 8, the goodness-of-fit indices were identical with those obtained with the three first-order factor model. Rindskopf and Rose (1988) noted that at least three first-order factors must be included if the model is to be identified. If there are only three first-order factors, which is the case in this study, then this part of the model is *just-identified*, for that reason, the overall test of goodness of fit does not test the second-order structure. As four or more first-order factors should be included in this situation (as suggested by Rindskopf & Rose, 1988), further analyses were not conducted.

Table 8: CFA comparing proposed and alternative factor structures

Model	χ^2	df	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
One factor structure	315.468 p=.000	119	.067	.127	.858	.838
Two factor structure[1]	250.183 p=.000	118	.059	.104	.905	.890
Two factor structure[2]	259.264 p=.000	118	.059	.108	.898	.883
Two factor structure[3]	257.567 p=.000	118	.610	.107	.899	.884
Three factor structure	191.798 p = .000	116	.050	.080	.945	.936
Second-order structure	191.798 p = .000	116	.050	.080	.945	.936

Note: N = 104; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean-Squared Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index
[1] Ethical role modelling and concern for protégé were combined into one factor
[2] Ethical role modelling and ethical guidance were combined into one factor
[3] Ethical guidance and concern for protégé were combined into one factor

Because the second-order factor model, in which all 17 items load on one ethics-related mentoring factor did not result in a better model fit, the three first-order model was chosen. Although Brown's et al. (2005) uni-dimensional measure is often used to measure ethical leader behaviour – as it combines different leader behaviours, such as acting fairly and honestly, allowing followers' voice, and rewarding ethical conduct, and is therefore useful for certain research purposes – this scale has been criticised for combining such different behaviours into a single undifferentiated construct. Specifically, Kalshoven et al. (2011b) criticise that the 10-item measure could make it harder to uncover the different mechanisms through which ethical leadership develops and may be effective. It is for that reason that they have developed a multi-dimensional Ethical Leadership at Work (ELW) questionnaire. In the mentoring literature, Scandura's (1992) widely-recognised 15-item measure of mentoring functions also measures three different mentoring behaviours: career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role modelling. Distinguishing multiple ethical mentor

behaviours can, therefore, help us understand when and how such behaviours differentially relate to protégé and organisational variables.

Moreover, the decision of establishing a multidimensional ethics-related mentoring scale is in line with the recommendations made by Hinkin (1998) who points out, that scales should possess simple structure and parsimony, and that each final scale should be composed of four to six items. Five items reflect ethical role modelling, eight items assess ethical guidance, and four items measure concern for protégé. It should be further noted, that another CFA will be conducted in Study 2 to evaluate and, at best, to confirm the three first-order factor model.

5.3.2.3 Reliability analysis

The reliability was tested for the individual dimensions. The results are presented in Table 9. Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the reliability because it is the most commonly accepted measure in field studies (Price & Mueller, 1986). A coefficient alpha of greater than .70 suggests acceptable reliability levels (Nunnally, 1976). For all dimensions, the reliability exceeded .70, in accordance with Nunnally's (1976) standard. There was no reason to delete items in order to raise the reliability value (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) in the construction of the measure (Hinkin, 1995).

Table 9: Reliability statistics for the ethics-related mentoring subscales

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Ethical role modelling			
My mentor "leads by example" in terms of ethical behaviour.	.768	.902	.917
My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics.	.794	.897	
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.	.811	.894	
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour.	.764	.903	
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards.	.801	.896	
Ethical guidance			
My mentor provides ethical guidance.	.761	.925	.933
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me.	.766	.925	
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications.	.812	.921	
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.	.804	.922	
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.	.782	.924	
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself.	.719	.929	
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem.	.801	.922	
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner.	.721	.928	
Concern for protégé			
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help.	.740	.853	.884
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions.	.721	.860	
My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner.	.784	.836	
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles.	.741	.853	

5.3.2.4 Convergent, discriminant and criterion-related validity assessment

Further evidence of construct validity can be accomplished by examining the extent to which the newly-developed scales correlate with other measures. Specifically, Hinkin (1998) suggests to assess the extent to which the scales correlate with other measures designed to assess similar constructs (convergent validity); to examine the extent to which the scales do not correlate with other dissimilar measures (discriminant validity); and finally, to examine relationships with other variables with which the measure would be expected to correlate (criterion-related validity). The additional scales that were included in the questionnaire were, namely, the mentoring functions scale (Scandura, 1992), the satisfaction with the mentor

scale (Ragins & Cotton, 1999), the social desirability scale (Paulhus, 1991), the motivation to act morally scale (Aquino et al., 2009), and the ethical leadership scale (Brown et al., 2005). Details on these measures can be found within the measures section (see Section 5.3.1.2).

In order to test for convergent validity, the well-established mentoring functions in the literature (i.e., career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, role modelling), and ethical leadership behaviour were correlated with the three ethics-related mentoring dimensions. The correlation table shows that in all cases, the parallel constructs did correlate significantly and positively with their respective ethics-related mentoring dimensions (see Table 10). More specifically, the ethics-related mentoring dimensions were positively correlated with career-related mentoring (ranging from $r = .38$ to $r = .56$, $p < .01$), psychosocial mentoring (ranging from $r = .49$ to $r = .52$, $p < .01$), and role modelling (ranging from $r = .50$ to $r = .56$, $p < .01$). In all cases, the correlations were of moderate strength. It shows that while the ethics-related mentoring construct and its dimensions may be measuring similar content to the parallel mentoring construct, it still measures different content that is not measured by the existing scale. However, the highest correlation was found between the ethical role modelling dimension and its parallel construct of role modelling. This would suggest that the two have a significant degree of overlap, and so convergent validity could be considered questionable. Nevertheless, this significant overlap between the two does not come as a surprise and was expected, given that both tap into role modelling behaviours.

Furthermore, the three ethics-related mentoring dimensions were significantly and positively correlated with ethical leadership behaviour, ranging from $r = .27$ to $r = .30$ ($p < .01$). As expected, these correlations were lower in comparison to the mentoring correlations, because ethical leadership measures the perceived ethical behaviour of leaders and not of mentors and the mentoring function. Hence, these correlations imply that the ethics-related mentoring measure and the ethical leadership scale measure similar but yet not identical constructs, supporting the construct validity of the ethics-related mentoring scale.

Table 10: Correlations for convergent validity

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Ethical role modelling	---						
2. Ethical guidance	.749**	---					
3. Concern for protégé	.684**	.666**	---				
4. Career-related mentoring	.376**	.448**	.561**	---			
5. Psychosocial mentoring	.492**	.520**	.505**	.566**	---		
6. Role modelling	.555**	.496**	.537**	.651**	.646**	---	
7. Ethical leadership	.303**	.294*	.265*	.207	.142	.265*	---

*Note: N varies between 85 and 113 due to missing variables; *p<0.05 **p<0.01.*

In terms of discriminant validity, it is predicted that protégé reports of received ethics-related mentoring will not be tainted by personal characteristics of the rater such as age or gender. For example, Ambrose and Schminke (1999) concluded in their literature review that finding a definitive answer to the question of gender-related differences in ethics was unlikely. Instead, the authors proposed that only *perceived* gender differences in ethics exist. Moreover, protégés' perceptions of similarity with their mentor should be unrelated to ethics-related mentoring. The similarity-attraction paradigm by Byrne (1971) states that individuals who perceive similarities between themselves and another person will be attracted to each other. In this regard, Turban and Jones (1988) stated that research on perceived similarity has shown that decisions and evaluations regarding the individual who is perceived as similar are biased positively. People also tend to be drawn to those who are similar to them in terms of demographic characteristics (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). This would suggest, that perceived and demographic similarity leads protégés to see their mentor in a more favourable – and therefore more ethical – light.

Finally, it is predicted that protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring is unrelated to a protégé's tendency to provide socially desirable responses. First, if protégés are asked to rate their mentor in terms of providing ethics-related mentoring, and not themselves, there should be little incentive for biased responding (cf., Brown et al., 2005). Second, under

optimal survey conditions, protégés' responses should be anonymous. Hence, the mentor being rated would not see the specific ethics-related mentoring levels being ascribed to him or her by the protégé (cf., ibid.). The tendency for individuals to respond in a socially desirable manner can negatively influence the true relationship between two variables (Dalton & Ortegren, 2011). Further, due to the sensitive nature of business ethics research, social desirability may present a greater risk to the validity of findings in ethics research, in comparison to other, more conventional studies in organisational behaviour (Randall & Fernandes, 1991).

The correlation table (see Table 11) shows that ethical role modelling was unrelated to protégés' age ($r = -.07$) and gender ($r = .01$), as well as to education similarity ($r = .15$), and lifestyle similarity ($r = .08$). Unexpectedly, ethical role modelling was positively related to ethnic similarity ($r = .37$, $p < .01$), perceived religion similarity ($r = .24$, $p < .05$), and social desirability ($r = .27$, $p < .05$) was detected, which is not in line with expectations. Ethical guidance was unrelated to protégés' age ($r = -.16$), lifestyle similarity ($r = -.10$), ethnic similarity ($r = .10$), perceived religion similarity ($r = .04$), and social desirability ($r = .08$) was not detected, which is consistent with the expectations about discriminant validity. Unexpectedly, there was a small negative relationship between ethical guidance and protégés' gender ($r = -.23$, $p < .05$). Concern for protégé was unrelated to protégés' gender ($r = -.02$), lifestyle similarity ($r = .13$), ethnic similarity ($r = .11$), perceived religion similarity ($r = .15$), and social desirability ($r = .11$) was not detected, which is consistent with the expectations about discriminant validity. Unexpectedly, there was a small negative relationship between concern for protégé and protégés' age ($r = .23$, $p < .05$), and education similarity ($r = .25$, $p < .05$), although in both cases the magnitude was small.

Table 11: Correlations for discriminant validity

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Ethical role modelling	---									
2. Ethical guidance	.749**	---								
3. Concern for protégé	.684**	.666**	---							
4. Age	-.069	-.155	.229*	---						
5. Gender	.009	-.232*	-.017	.005	---					
6. Education similarity	.154	.081	.249*	-.010	.154	---				
7. Lifestyle similarity	.080	-.096	.128	-.186	.301**	.337**	---			
8. Ethnic similarity	.369**	.098	.109	.133	.182	.251*	.340**	---		
9. Religion similarity	.240*	.039	.153	.015	.029	.220*	.363**	.543**	---	
10. Social desirability	.267**	.076	.111	-.001	.187	.159	-.013	-.013	.104	---

*Note: N varies between 83 and 113 due to missing variables; *p<0.05 **p<0.01.*

In order to assess criterion-related validity – the ability of the ethics-related mentoring scale to predict relevant outcomes – respondents of the survey provided information on protégé outcomes that are predicted to be associated with ethics-related mentoring. In particular, protégés were asked to rate their moral motivation. The use of the thesis' mediator variable allowed us to pre-test part of the hypothesised relationships, as outlined in Section 3.3, and therefore to assess the predictive power of the ethics-related mentoring scale. Besides, protégés were asked to rate their satisfaction with the mentor. Employees who feel supported, cared for and fairly treated are more likely to develop satisfaction (Brown et al., 2005). In fact, the results of research on the effects of ethical leadership demonstrate positive relationships with a variety of followers' attitudes, including satisfaction with the leader (Brown et al., 2005; Kalshoven et al., 2011b). As ethical mentors were also characterised by interviewees as honest, caring, and principled individuals who take the time and help their protégés to make fair and balanced decisions, it is predicted that protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring will be positively related to protégés' satisfaction with their mentor.

Against predictions, neither of the three dimensions (i.e., ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé) were related to protégé moral motivation. One explanation is the relatively small sample size and, as a consequence, the relatively low statistical power associated with the test of these relationships. Perhaps with a larger sample size, significant results may have been obtained. As Study 2 collects data from a larger population, it was decided to test the proposed relationships again. However, as predicted, all dimensions were positively related to satisfaction with the mentor, ranging from r = .46 to r = .72 ($p < .01$). The results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Correlations of criterion-related validity

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ethical role modelling	---				
2. Ethical guidance	. 749**	---			
3. Concern for protégé	.684**	.666**	---		
4. Moral motivation	.170	.155	.153	---	
5. Satisfaction with mentor	.608**	.457**	.723**	-.090	---

*Note: N varies between 86 and 113 due to missing variables; *p<0.05 **p<0.01.*

5.4 Discussion

This study addressed the first of two research questions of the thesis, namely how do key informants perceive and understand ethics-related mentoring, and what is the content domain of ethics-related mentoring from their perspectives. In this chapter, the results obtained from the scale development and validation process are summarised, followed by a definition of ethics-related functions. Next, the contributions to research and practice are discussed, and the limitations of this study are outlined. This chapter ends with a conclusion.

5.4.1 Summary of findings

This chapter illustrated the scale development process of the ethics-related mentoring scale. In the first part of this study, semi-structured interviews with 25 protégés, mentors, and

experts for mentoring programmes were conducted to generate items for the measure. From the initial pool of 99 items, 40 were retained after being subjected to a content validity assessment through utilising five expert subject-matter ratings. In the second part of this study, these 40 items were subject to exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis with a sample of 104 participants to finalise the scale items, as well as to confirm its factor structure and establish reliability. In detail, after three rounds of factor extraction (direct oblimin rotation) were performed, the final three-factor solution was obtained, accounting for 71.14% of the variance. After discarding items that had low factor loadings (< .40) and low communalities (< .60), a total of 17 items scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree) remained. These items were grouped into three subscales: ethical role modelling (5 items), ethical guidance (8 items), and concern for protégé (4 items). Subsequently, CFA was conducted to test the overall fit of the model. All fit indices showed that the three-factor model fit the data well: SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .95, and NNFI = .94.

Further analysis suggested that the newly-developed subscales possessed good psychometric properties. The internal reliability of the three sub-scales was found to be satisfactory. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were .92, .93, and .88 for ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé, respectively. The three ethics-related mentoring dimensions were significantly and positively related to the existing mentoring functions in the literature (i.e., career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role modelling) supporting convergent validity. Yet, the new and existing subscales also clearly differ. Moreover, as expected, positive (but not too high) relationships were found with ethical leadership. Although some results were not as expected, discriminant validity was demonstrated by non-significant relations with personal characteristics of the protégé (age and gender) and with constructs which should not be related to the ethics-related mentoring behaviours (similarity with the mentor, social desirability). Finally, support was found for criterion-related validity. More specifically, all three dimensions were positively related to

protégés' satisfaction with their mentor. No support was found for the relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and protégé moral motivation. The sample size was presumably too small to find significant results. As the aim was to collect a larger sample in Study 2, it was decided to keep the measure of protégé moral motivation in the next survey and to test the hypothesised relationship (i.e., the mediator in the proposed conceptual model, as discussed in Section 3.3).

Taken together, the findings presented in this chapter suggested that we developed a reliable and valid measure of ethics-related mentoring, which consists of three distinct dimensions, i.e., ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé. From this, we follow a definition of ethics-related mentoring. Generally speaking, Kram (1985, p22) noted that "mentoring functions are those aspects of a developmental relationship that enhance both individuals' growth and advancement". As discussed in Section 2.1, these functions were summarised in three broad categories: *career functions, psychosocial functions* (as identified by Kram, 1985) and *role modelling* (as proposed later by Scandura, 1992; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). *Career functions*, for example, "are those aspects of the relationship that enhance learning the ropes and preparing for advancement in an organization" (Kram, 1985, p22). Career functions serve to help to advance in the organisational hierarchy. These functions are possible because of the mentor's experience, rank, and influence in the organisation; it is this structural role relationship that enables the mentor to provide sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments, and therefore help the protégé to "navigate effectively in the organisational world" (Kram, 1985, p22).

Due to the findings of this study, we offer a new dimension of mentoring functions provided by mentors, i.e., *ethics-related functions*. Ethics-related functions are those aspects of the relationship that enhance clarity of one's value system, and ethical decision-making and behaviour in professional contexts. Ethics-related functions are possible because of the mentor's reputation for being open, honest, and trustworthy; for having clear personal values

and moral principles in place; for making fair and balanced choices; for showing strong concern for business ethics; and for promoting long-term growth rather than short-term goals. The mutually trusting relationship enables the mentor to provide ethical role modelling and ethical guidance and to show concern for the protégé in order to help the protégé to reflect on their personal values and moral principles, and to make principled and fair decisions in their professional lives.

5.4.2 Contributions

These research findings contribute to research and practice in at least two significant ways. First, we make a methodological contribution by offering a new category of mentoring functions, i.e., ethics-related mentoring. So far, very little research or theory development has considered the ethical component of mentoring. As discussed in Section 2.3, "*A role for ethics-related mentoring?*", Allen et al. (2008) had suggested that the mentoring functions identified by Kram (i.e., career-related and psychosocial mentoring) should be re-examined because her qualitative study on mentoring was conducted over 30 years ago when careers were linear, stable, and hierarchical. Similarly, Moberg (2008b) has pointed out that, to date, mentoring scholars have focused on the „technical, social, and political lessons", not on the moral and ethical ones. Therefore, he and other scholars (i.e., Goosen & Van Vuuren, 2005) have examined, theoretically, the role of mentoring as a tool for developing protégés' ethical and moral behaviour. Based upon their theoretical work, it has been proposed that mentors provide not only career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role modelling, but also ethics-related mentoring.

Now, after having conducted the present study in accordance with the guidelines for scale development provided by Hinkin (1998) and De Vellis (2012), mentoring theory and research can start to examine the mentor's role of providing ethics-related mentoring to their protégés. In the light of recent scandals (e.g., Volkswagen's dieselgate), and increasing job insecurity, this becomes more important than ever. Although our results are encouraging,

scale development is a continuous process. With that said, we replicate this process in the subsequent study. Nevertheless, by basing the newly-developed construct on a foundation of social cognitive theory, constructing a reliable and valid measure of it, and demonstrating to some extent its predictive validity, we hope to encourage further study of ethics-related mentoring, its antecedents and consequences.

Second, we make a practical contribution. Currently, there is no established quantifiable standard against which organisations can measure and evaluate the ethics-related dimension of mentoring. With that said, and as organisations need employees and managers that behave ethically in order to achieve the organisation's objectives in a socially responsible manner and to protect their reputation, the development of the ethics-related mentoring scale has practical implications for organisations. The three-dimensional measure gives organisations an idea of how mentors can provide ethics-related mentoring to their protégés. Based on this, more specific mentor selection, matching, and training initiatives can be developed (For details, the reader is referred to Section 6.5.3.4). Initial results on the effects of ethics-related mentoring are positive. Therefore, it may well be worthwhile for organisations to invest in the development of protégés' ethical behaviour.

5.4.3 Limitations

Several limitations of this study are worth noting. The first limitation is that we focused on perceptions of ethics-related mentoring. Such perceptions may or may not be indicative of actual ethics-related mentoring. Moreover, we did not examine the views of mentors. Yet, mentors and protégés may have different perceptions about the extent to which mentors provide ethics-related mentoring. Thus, mentor self-ratings might be considered in future research. In this case, caution must be exercised regarding the interpretation of results, since the nature of self-report data raises the potential problems of common method and social desirability bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Also, research on self-perception (Ashford, 1989), and self-other agreement (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino & Fleenor, 1998) suggests

that mentors are likely to rate themselves favourably on the ethics-related dimension of mentoring. In sum, we acknowledge the widespread criticism of using self-report data. However, there are also good reasons to expect high agreement between mentor self-reports and protégés' ratings. The ethics researchers Beck and Ajzen (1991) suggest, with respect to self-report data, that "there are few, if any, practical alternatives that could provide equally interesting and detailed information about an individual. The practice of relying on self-reports is thus likely to continue, even though it is well recognized that such reports may be biased by tendencies to furnish socially desirable responses and to deny holding socially undesirable attitudes or performing socially undesirable behaviors (ibid., p291)". In addition, Beck and Ajzen (ibid.) refer to evidence that self-reports can be accurate (here: self-reports of dishonest behaviour; Himmelfarb & Lickteig, 1982). They also found a high frequency of admission of unethical behaviour (that is, cheating, shoplifting, and lying) which suggests a willingness to report such behaviours accurately. Hence, both sides have their points. Given that we conceptualised ethics-related mentoring as modeled, observable behaviour, and that most mentoring research involves protégé ratings of mentors, we believe that our choice of others' ratings was appropriate.

A further limitation is the use of self-report measures for outcomes which introduced the possibility that common source variance inflated observed relationships. For some relationships, the use of self-reports as outcome variables is justified by the nature of the variables being investigated (Spector, 1994). For instance, when examining attitudinal or motivational variables such as moral motivation. Further, Spector (2006) argued that self-report designs are useful as a first study: Once researchers establish that the variables of interest are related, and this might be done most efficiently with self-report data, they can conduct further studies and analyses in order to control and test for plausible biases that might have distorted the observed relationship.

Another limitation is the study's cross-sectional design. This design does not allow us to rule out reverse causality. As Mitchell and James (2001) point out, because we did not

manipulate X (the predictor), we cannot rule out the likely explanation that the variance in Y (the outcome), which we attribute to X, may indeed be attributable to an earlier Y. In other words, while reverse causality is unlikely for some effects (e.g., protégé intention to leave the mentoring relationship is not likely to be a predictor of ethics-related mentoring), reverse causality is possible for other relationships (e.g., ethics-related mentoring may be a consequence of mentoring relationship quality). Additional research using longitudinal designs is an important next step to tease apart such issues (ibid.). Introducing time lags can be powerful; however, the challenge is to ensure that the lag is neither too short nor too long. More precisely, when the time lag is too short, effects may not have fully matured and stabilised by the time of measurement, and when it is too long, effects may wear off (ibid.).

Participants were included in the sample regardless of whether they were currently or within the last 36 months in a mentoring relationship. Hence, another concern may be the fact that some of the participants were referring to a previous mentoring relationship, thus leading to retrospective recall errors. Although retrospective reports are often criticised for lacking validity, researchers can continue to rely on retrospective survey data, *if* the measures used are reliable and valid, participants are knowledgeable, the questions asked are concrete and do not ask participants to recall facts from the distant past, and participants are motivated to respond accurately by assuring confidentiality, minimising duration and inconvenience of data collection, and explaining the usefulness of the research project to participants (Miller, Cardinal & Glick, 1997). Since all of these conditions are met in this study, it is unlikely that recall bias poses a major threat to the validity of our findings.

The modest response rate may also be viewed as a limitation. It is possible that the relatively small sample size may have influenced the robustness of the findings, as a consequence of lower statistical power (e.g., Collins & Morris, 2008; Tett et al., 2009). It is also difficult to know if there is response bias. It might be that participants were more likely to respond to the questionnaire if they were in a satisfying relationship with, in their view, an

ethical mentor. It should also be noted, that the use of a convenience sample may also threaten the generalisability of our findings.

There are also two limitations with the ethics-related mentoring scale. First, the goodness-of-fit indices obtained with the second-order factor model were identical to their counterparts obtained with the first-order factor model. We based our decision to proceed our research efforts with a three-dimensional scale on existing theory and research. Nevertheless, future research may want to explore the factor structure of the ethics-related mentoring scale. A second potential limitation concerns the discriminant validity of the new measure. Against expectations, the first dimension of the scale, i.e., ethical role modelling, was positively related to social desirability. As discussed earlier, the tendency for participants to respond in a socially desirable manner can negatively affect the true relationship between two variables. On the positive side, the other two dimensions, i.e., ethical guidance and concern for protégé, respectively, were not associated with social desirability bias. We acknowledge that the effort to establish the construct validity of the ethics-related mentoring scale remains an on-going process.

5.5 Conclusion

The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a psychometrically sound instrument measuring protégés' perceptions of ethics-related mentoring. The results find support for the reliability and validity of the newly developed measure and provide a foundation for future research on ethics-related topics in mentoring relationships. In Study 2, we use this measure to test the hypothesised model. Before doing so, we replicate the scale development process to assure the construct validity of the new scale.

Two general conclusions can be reached. First, protégés' perceptions of ethics-related mentoring represent a multi-dimensional construct that is conceptually distinct from existing mentoring functions (i.e., career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and role

modelling) and from ethical leadership. Three distinct types of ethics-related mentoring were found: ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé. Although the results of the CFA were identical, we recommend that these three scales be used separately in subsequent research rather than combined into one overall measure. Second, all three dimensions of ethics-related mentoring were related to protégés' satisfaction with their mentor.

"The young lady, whom I accompanied as a mentor, had her own company. She and her husband set up their own company, with classic employees. And, of course, we have talked about topics that had a certain explosive nature. These were, for example, moral or immoral offers made to this young company … to enter into a business, where it was obvious, that someone is pulled over the table… or it was about kickback payments or the like. So there were some topics raised [in our mentoring meetings] where one is concerned with the question: 'May I or may I not?' And then the answer is not: 'You may or you may not'. However, the question is much more: 'How do you think about it, dear protégé? How do you see that? How do you feel about it? And why do you feel good or bad about this execution?' And behind this lies the thought process: 'Ah, ok, all clear'".

(Male mentor)

CHAPTER 6

Study 2: Model testing

6.0 Chapter summary

This chapter addresses the second research question of this thesis. As a multi-dimensional ethics-related scale was developed in Study 1, this chapter begins with a brief review of the conceptual model and adapted hypotheses which are to be tested in Study 2. What follows this review is an outline of the study's design in terms of procedure, sample characteristics, and the measures used. Moreover, the statistical analyses adopted within this research are introduced. This is followed by a presentation of the key findings. In this respect, it should be noted that Study 2 was not only carried out to test the conceptual model, which was the primary aim of this study but also to conduct the final step in Hinkin's (1998) outlined scale development process which is replication. With that said, the results from the further scale refinement are presented first. This section includes the results from the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, and from the reliability and validity assessment. Next, the results of the model testing are presented. More specifically, this section includes the findings from the main effect, moderation and mediated moderation analyses. What then follows is a discussion on the theoretical, methodological, and empirical

contributions to the literature, as well as the practical implications for organisations. Finally, the limitations are highlighted, and suggestions for further research are made.

6.1 Adapted hypotheses and conceptual models

In Study 1, we developed a three-dimensional measure to assess ethics-related mentoring which encompassed a mentor's ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for their protégé. Against this backdrop, it was important to review the early hypotheses of the thesis. Hence, Sections 6.1.1, 6.1.2 and 6.1.3 present the adapted hypotheses and conceptual models, in order to explore the objectives of this study.

6.1.1 Relationship with protégé outcomes

The originally stated hypotheses were adapted. More specifically, as ethics-related mentoring is not a uni-dimensional but a three-dimensional scale consisting of ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé, the Hypotheses H1, H2, and H3 (originally stated in Section 3.1) were adapted as follows:

H1a: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their own ethical leadership.*

H1b: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical guidance and their own ethical leadership.*

H1c: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' concern for protégé and their own ethical leadership.*

H2a: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their own OCB.*

H2b: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical guidance and their own OCB.*

H2c: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' concern for protégé and their own OCB.*

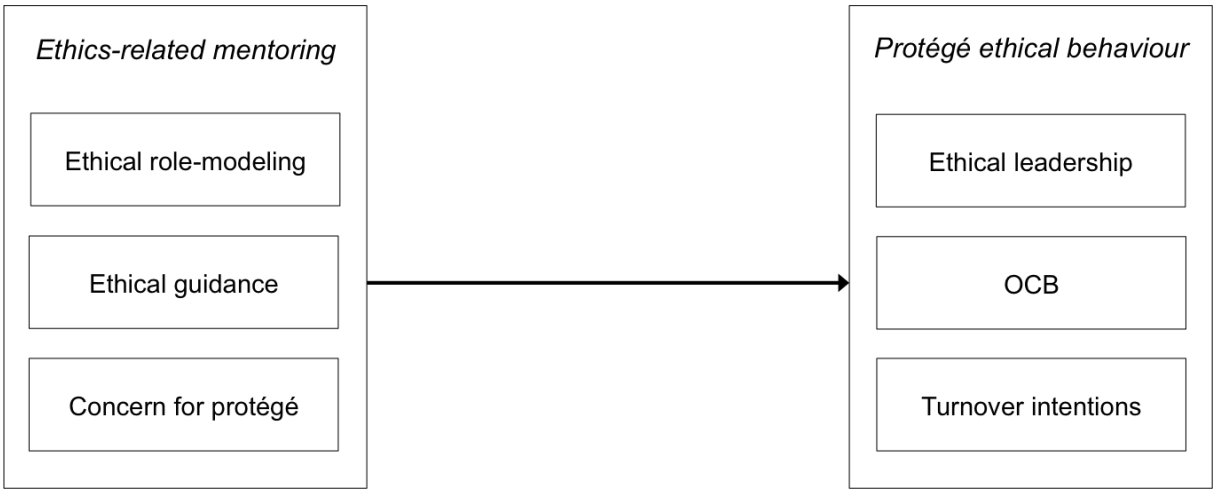
H3a: *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their own turnover intentions.*

H3b: *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical guidance and their own turnover intentions.*

H3c: *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' concern for protégé and their own turnover intentions.*

Moreover, based on the results of the scale development study, the proposed conceptual model (as shown at the end of Section in 3.1.3) was adapted. More specifically, the ethics-related mentoring variable was extracted into three factors, namely ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and concern for protégé. The revised conceptual model for the proposed main effects is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Adapted conceptual model for main effects



6.1.2 The influence of mentor prototypicality

For the reasons given in the previous section, the Hypotheses H4, H5, and H6, as originally stated in Section 3.2, were adapted as follows:

H4a: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their own ethical leadership, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

H4b: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical guidance and their own ethical leadership, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

H4c: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' concern for protégé and their own ethical leadership, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

H5a: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their own OCB, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

H5b: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical guidance and their own OCB, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

H5c: *There is a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' concern for protégé and their own OCB, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

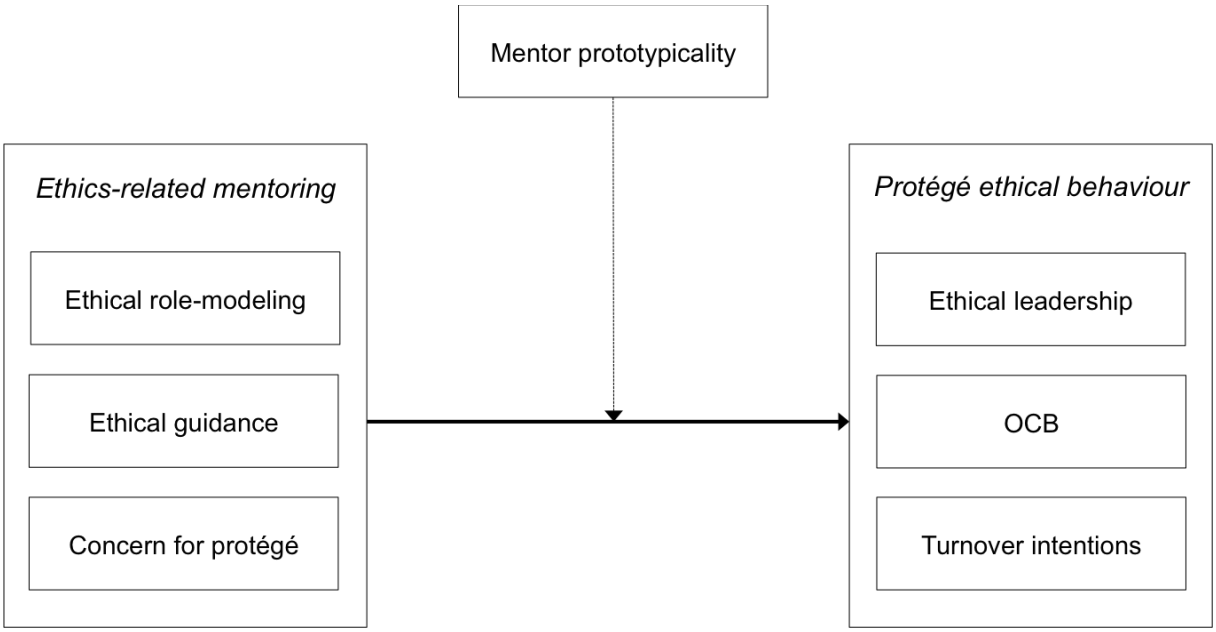
H6a: *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their own turnover intentions, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

H6b: *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' ethical guidance and their own turnover intentions, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

H6c: *There is a negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' concern for protégé and their own turnover intentions, and this will be significantly stronger when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high rather than low.*

The proposed conceptual model as shown in Section 3.2 was adapted as well. The revised conceptual model for the proposed moderating effects is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Adapted conceptual model for moderation



6.1.3 Mediated moderation

Hypothesis H7, H8, and H9 (initially stated in Section 3.3) which proposed that *moral motivation* mediates the moderation effect of mentor prototypicality on the relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and important protégé outcomes (i.e., ethical leadership, OCB, and turnover intentions), were adapted by substituting ethics-related mentoring with the three newly-developed dimensions of this construct. The hypotheses now read as follows:

> ***H7a:*** *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their ethical leadership and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of ethical role-modelling and their ethical leadership, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*
>
> ***H7b:*** *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their ethical leadership and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of ethical guidance and their ethical leadership, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

H7c: *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their ethical leadership and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of their mentors' concern for their protégé and their ethical leadership, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

H8a: *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their OCB and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of ethical role-modelling and their OCB, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

H8b: *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their OCB and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of ethical guidance and their OCB, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

H8c: *Protégé moral motivation is positively related to their OCB and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of their mentors' concern for their protégé and their OCB, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

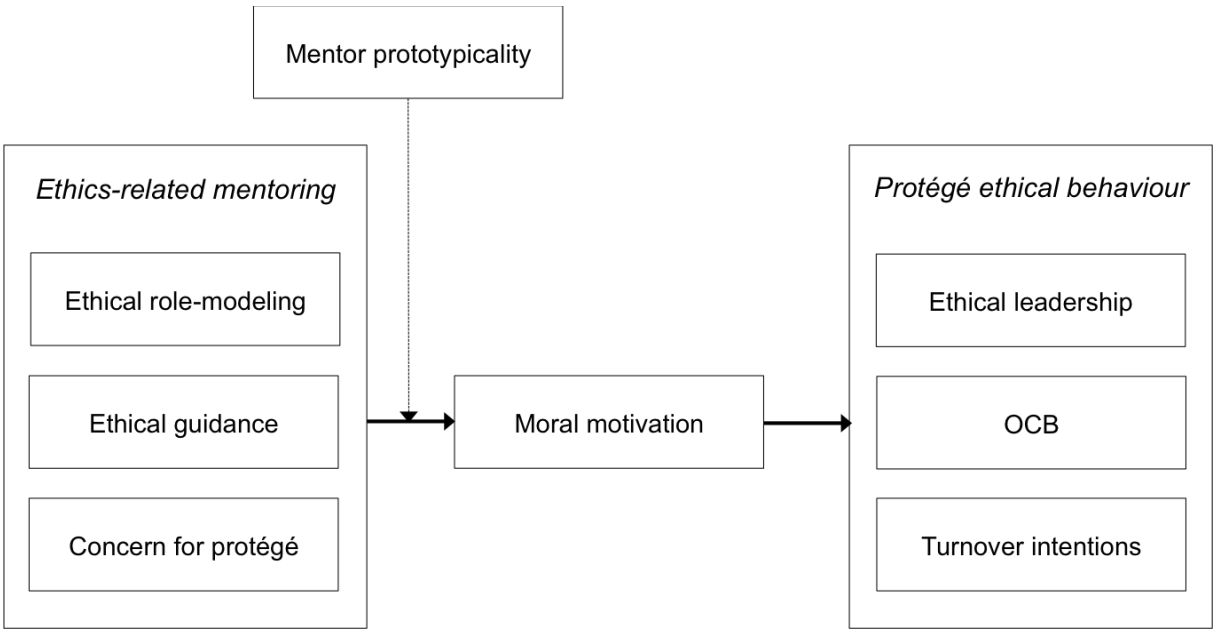
H9a: *Protégé moral motivation is negatively related to their turnover intentions and mediates the negative relationship between protégé perceptions of ethical role-modelling and their turnover intentions, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

H9b: *Protégé moral motivation is negatively related to their turnover intentions and mediates the negative relationship between protégé perceptions of ethical guidance and their turnover intentions, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

H9c: *Protégé moral motivation is negatively related to their turnover intentions and mediates the negative relationship between protégé perceptions of their mentors' concern for their protégé and their turnover intentions, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.*

Once again, the proposed conceptual model (as shown in Section 3.3) was adapted. The revised conceptual model for the hypothesised mediating moderation effects is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Adapted conceptual model for mediated moderation



6.2 Method

A time-lagged design (two data collections occurring 2 weeks apart) was employed, as the temporal separation between measures (i.e., predictors, mediating and outcome variables) is an appropriate approach to reducing the negative impact of common method variance on the validity of the empirical results (Brannick, Chan, Conway, Lance & Spector, 2010, 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). For that reason, the

independent variable – the newly developed ethics-related mentoring scale (see Chapter 5) – and the moderating and mediating variables were measured during the first wave of data collection. After a 2 weeks time-lag, the dependent variables were measured during the second wave of the survey. As Study 2 was not only conducted to test the hypothesised relationships but also to replicate the scale development process, the participants were different from those in Study 1 (Hinkin, 1998).

The following subsections give a detailed description of the procedure and sample characteristics, followed by a comprehensive overview of all measures and data analysis techniques used throughout the time-lagged study.

6.2.1.1 Procedure

The data was collected from protégés at two points in time with a time separation of up to one month (Ostroff, Kinicki & Clark, 2002). The first data collection took place in late October 2016. The second data collection was held in mid-November 2016. The surveys were developed and administered using Qualtrics survey software. As discussed earlier, to recruit participants for this study, we contracted with Qualtrics Panels who then worked with one of their panel partners to supply a national panel of participants for the United States.

Right at the beginning of the first survey, the potential respondents were informed of the study objectives and the scope of the study, advised of time required to complete both surveys, the voluntary nature of their participation, and the possibility of withdrawing from the study at any time. It was also clearly noted that respondents *must* have a mentor and work in a leadership position or management role in order to be able to answer all questions.

Also, participants were provided with an established definition of a mentor (Ragins & Cotton, 1999, p535): “A mentor is generally defined as a higher ranking, influential individual in your work environment who has advanced experience and knowledge and is committed to providing upward mobility and support to your career. Your mentor may or may not be in your

organization and s/he may or may not be your immediate supervisor". To ensure that respondents also had a clear understanding that both formal and informal mentors exist, they were also provided with an established definition of both types (Ragins & Cotton, 1999, p535): "In order to assist individuals in their development and advancement, some organizations have established formal mentoring programs, where protégés and mentors are linked in some way. This may be accomplished by assigning mentors or by just providing formal opportunities aimed at developing the relationship. To recap: Formal mentoring relationships are developed with organizational assistance. Informal mentoring relationships are developed spontaneously, without organizational assistance. You may be in a formal or informal mentoring relationship".

After that, a pre-screening was conducted. More specifically, protégés were asked to confirm that (1) they were eligible for this survey by answering that they currently worked in a leadership position or management role and that (2) they were currently a protégé in a formal or informal mentoring relationship. If yes, they were then asked to indicate whether they were in a formal or informal as well as supervisory or non-supervisory mentoring relationship. The study then controlled for both the nature (formal or informal) as well as the type (supervisory or non-supervisory) of the mentoring relationship. Participants that answered at least one of the two mandatory eligibility criteria with "no", were precluded from the study.

The first survey asked questions about their mentoring experience, their values and attitudes at work, their relationships with other people, and their organisational climate (i.e., antecedents, moderator, and mediator variables). At the end of the survey, respondents were provided with our contact details, should they need to get in touch. It should be noted that a "soft launch" of the survey was undertaken to review the overall quality of the first 50 responses. The quality of the data was not of concern at this point, but it was decided to add an attention filter to increase data quality before moving forward with the full launch. The median survey length was 16 minutes to complete. The Qualtrics panels project manager, therefore, added a speeding check – measured as one-third the median soft launch time –

that was automatically terminating those not responding thoughtfully to the survey. The final data set was forwarded to us.

The Time 2 survey was sent to only those participants who completed the Time 1 questionnaire. The second survey, which was sent 2 weeks later, asked questions about the outcomes of the mentoring relationship. This took on average 8 minutes to complete. Once again, respondents were provided with our contact details, should they need to get in touch. The second data set was compiled and forwarded to us. The two surveys were then linked using the respondent's assigned Qualtrics ID number. Both surveys can be found in Appendix 10 (Time 1) and Appendix 11 (Time 2).

The result is satisfactory: At Time 1, 210 protégés enrolled in the study. At Time 2, 152 protégés (72,4% retention rate) completed the survey. The sample spanned a variety of industries and did not show any obvious abnormalities in terms of participants' demographics or other characteristics. Details of the sample can be found in Section 4.3.1.3. It should be noted that the focus of the analysis lay on the 152 protégés that completed both waves of the study when testing the second research question.

6.2.1.2 Measures

Listed below are the measures which were used in the Time 1 survey and Time 2 survey. The reliabilities statistics for all measures and items can be found in Appendix 12.

Ethics-related mentoring. These behaviours were assessed using the newly-developed 17-item multi-dimensional scale. The reader is referred to Chapter 5 which outlines the approach taken for developing and validating this scale. The replication of the scale-testing process is outlined in the following section.

Mentor prototypicality. Mentor's prototypicality was assessed with five items adapted from the work of van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005): "[My mentor] is a good example of the kind of people in my organization", "[My mentor] has a lot in common with the

members of my organization", "[My mentor] represents what is characteristic about my organization," [My mentor] is very similar to what the members of my organization value", and "[My mentor] represents what this organization stands for". The response scale ranged from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree). The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .88.

Moral motivation. A business-related moral choice scenario developed by Aquino and colleagues (2009) was used in order to measure the participants' intention to enact a moral behaviour. Respondents, who were located in the United States, were presented the following scenario:

> *Please imagine that you are the marketing manager for a breakfast cereal company. Recently, you were approached by the American Cancer Society (ACS) to initiate a cause-related marketing program. Specifically, ACS would like you to donate 25 cents to a special fund for cancer prevention each time one of your products is purchased. According to your research department, adoption of the program is likely to cost more than it earns through an incremental sales increase. Consequently, IF YOU CHOOSE TO INITIATE THE PROGRAM, YOU WOULD BE LESS LIKELY TO EARN A YEAR-END BONUS.*

Participants were then asked to complete two items: (1) "What is the percentage chance that you would choose to initiate the cause-related marketing program?" (0 to 100%) and (2) "How likely are you to initiate the cause-related program?" (ranging from 1 = "extremely unlikely" to 9 = "extremely likely"). Responses to these items were standardised and averaged to form a measure of motivation to act morally. The Cronbach alpha was .73.

Supervisor's ethical leadership. To check for convergent validity of the newly developed scale, the protégés' perception of their supervisors' ethical leadership was measured once again by Brown and colleagues' (2005) 10-item Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS). An example item is "My direct supervisor defines success not just by results but also

the way that they are obtained“. Each response was made on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. A higher score indicated a greater perception of the supervisor’s ethical leadership. The Cronbach alpha of mentors’ ethical leadership was .91.

Protégé’s ethical leadership. Protégés were asked to self-rate their own ethical leadership behaviour. The protégés’ perception was measured by Brown et al.’s (2005) 10-item Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS). An adapted example item is “I make fair and balanced decisions“. The responses were made on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). A higher score indicated a greater perception of the protégé’s ethical leadership. The Cronbach alpha was .83.

Organisational citizenship behaviour. OCB was measured using the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). They were among the first researchers to operationalise Organ’s (1988) five dimensions. Their resulting OCB scales have served as the basis for OCB measurement in a large number of empirical studies (LePine et al., 2002). LePine et al. (ibid.) noted that many OCB researchers have combined scores on the behavioural dimensions into one overall score, whereas other scholars have considered a specific OCB dimension in isolation. Due to its recognition, this study refers to Organ’s (1988) five-dimensional framework. The five OCB factors included altruism (5 items), conscientiousness (5 items), sportsmanship (5 items), courtesy (5 items), and civic virtue (4 items). Items were modified for self-reporting. Sample items include “I help others who have heavy workloads” (altruism), “I am one of the most conscientious employees” (conscientiousness), “I am the classic “squeaky wheel that always needs greasing” (sportsmanship), “I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers” (courtesy), and “I keep abreast of changes in the organization” (civic virtue). Participants responded on a five-point scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The Cronbach’s alpha for ethical climate was .85. For the five dimensions, the Cronbach’s a scores were .75 (altruism), .69 (courtesy), .87 (sportsmanship), .70 (conscientiousness), and .55 (civic virtue) respectively. Due to the

low Cronbach alphas of courtesy and civic virtue, these subscales were not used in further analysis.

Turnover intentions. Turnover intentions were measured with three items based on Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Flesh's (1983) scale. A sample item is "How likely is it that you will actually leave your current employer?" Responses were indicated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all" to "extremely". Cronbach's alpha was .94.

Ethical climate. Ethical climate was measured by the 26 items from the ethical climate questionnaire (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Respondents were asked to indicate on a six-point Likert scale (ranging from completely false to completely true) how accurately each of the items described their general work climate. Five different climate types were rated: caring climate (7 items), law and code climate (4 items), rules climate (4 items), instrumental climate (4 items), and independence climate (7 items). Example items are "What is best for everyone in the organization is the major consideration here" (caring), "People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations" (law and code), "It is very important to follow the organization's rules and procedures here" (rule), "In this organization, people protect their own interests above all else" (instrumental), and "In this organization, people are expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs" (independence). The Cronbach alpha for ethical climate was .88. For the five dimensions, the coefficient alphas were .82 (caring), .74 (law and code), .75 (rules), .84 (instrumental), and .78 (independence), respectively.

Control variables. Protégés also provided information on demographic and background variables about themselves, their mentor and the mentoring relationship. Prior research on mentoring suggest that the following individual and contextual factors should be controlled (Koberg, Boss, Chappell & Ringer 1994; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990): protégé age; protégé gender; mentor gender; mentor age; mentor organisational rank; type

of mentoring relationship (supervisory or non-supervisory); nature of mentoring relationship (formal or informal); average number of hours spent in the mentoring relationship per month.

6.2.1.3 Analysis

The final step in the scale development and validation process is to cross-validate the psychometric properties of the new scale (Hinkin, 1998). In order to enhance the generalisability of the newly-developed measure, it is necessary to collect data from another appropriate sample and repeat the scale-testing process with the new scale. In the latter case, Hinkin (ibid.) recommends that the replication should include confirmatory factor analysis, assessment of internal consistency reliability, as well as convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity assessment. With that said, two remarks should be made. First, although not explicitly recommended by Hinkin (ibid.), exploratory factor analysis was conducted again based on the final 17 items. The reason behind this decision is that Osborne and Fitzpatrick (2012) discussed in their paper why replication analysis in exploratory factor analysis makes the analysis better. The methodologists noted that "It is important to know whether a solution (or evident factor structure) within a particular data set is likely to be observed within another, similar data set. The lowest threshold for replicability should be replicating the same basic factor structure (same number of factors extracted, same items assigned to each factor) within a similar sample. A more rigorous threshold for replicability would be seeing the same number of factors extracted, the same items assigned to the same factors, and the same range of magnitudes of factor loadings (within reason). Stronger replicability gives researchers more confidence that a particular scale will behave as expected in data subsets or a new sample" (Osborne & Fitzpatrick, 2012, p2-3). For that reason, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to (at best) confirm the obtained three-factor structure of the ethics-related mentoring scale (see Section 5.3.2.1). Second, criterion-related validity was not explicitly examined at this stage of the analysis. The reader is referred to Section 6.4 for the findings of the hypothesised model.

Moderation and mediated moderation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS macro for SPSS provided by Hayes (2012, 2013). PROCESS generates conditional effects in moderation models, but also direct effects, indirect effects, and conditional indirect effects in moderated mediation models with a single or multiple mediators, while simultaneously controlling for other potentially influential variables (i.e., control variables). A strength of macros, such as the PROCESS macro, is that they allow for sophisticated and effective moderation and mediation analysis, even for complex models. Moreover, the macro provides many of the capabilities of existing programmes and tools (such as SEM in Mplus) whilst expanding the number and complexity of models, all in a single, easy-to-use command (Hayes, 2012).

To test the derived hypotheses, two PROCESS models were applied; 1 and 8. PROCESS model 1 was used to test for simple moderation. As outlined by Hayes (ibid.), this model displays the coefficient of the interaction between the independent variable (i.e., ethical role modelling and ethical guidance, respectively) and the moderator (i.e., mentor prototypicality) and its test of significance. It further examines the proportion of the total variance that is uniquely attributable to the interaction (the so-called R^2 change) as well as a test of significance. When probing interactions, researchers commonly use the mean, one standard deviation above the mean, and one standard deviation below the mean as definitions of moderate, high, and low on the moderator, respectively. However, as there is no guarantee that all three values will be within the range of the data, investigators can make use of the 10^{th}, 25^{th}, 50^{th}, 75^{th}, and 90^{th} percentiles of the moderator – an option offered by PROCESS – in order to estimate the conditional effects of the independent variables. The interaction effects can be further analysed by applying the Johnson-Neyman (J-N) technique. This technique allows to directly identify regions in the range of the moderator variable where the effect of the predictor transitions between statistically significant and non-significant (Hayes & Matthes, 2009).

As discussed by Hayes (2012), the mediation of a moderated effect of X on Y can be assessed by estimating the indirect effect of the product of X and the moderator W on Y through a mediator M. To accomplish such an analysis, PROCESS has two models programmed; 8 and 12. Model 8 allows for the estimation of the indirect effect of a two-way interaction involving X and W, whereas model 12 allows for the estimation of the indirect effect of a three-way interaction between X and two moderators W and Z. As we were interested in examining the interaction of ethics-related mentoring (X) and mentor prototypicality (W), model 8 was used in this thesis to test for mediated moderation.

To probe the moderating effect, we made use of the 10^{th}, 25^{th}, 50^{th}, 75^{th}, and 90^{th} percentiles of the moderator once more. It should be further noted that model 8 does not produce the output used to probe the interaction with the Johnson-Neyman technique, but it can be easily done by using PROCESS model 1 (for simple moderation) which was the case at hand. Moreover, the number of bootstrap samples for the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs) was 5000, as per Hayes (2013) recommendations. Prior to analysis, all variables involved in the interaction terms were mean-centered in order to reduce the multicollinearity between main effects and interaction (Aiken & West, 1991). This approach was also taken when applying model 1.

One final remark may be added: Hayes (2015) introduced an approach to testing a moderated mediation hypothesis based on an “index of moderated mediation” (a term coined by him). This index quantifies the relationship between the moderator W and the size of the indirect effect of X on Y through M. Hayes (ibid.) recommended a bootstrap confidence interval as this index directly quantifies the relationship between the indirect effect and the moderator. Since its publication, this index approach to testing a moderated mediation hypothesis has become popular (Hayes, 2017). First examples can also be found in the mentoring and ethical leadership literature (e.g., Hu, Wang, Wang, Chen & Jiang, 2016; Wu, 2017). For that reason, and as PROCESS model 8 automatically produces the output of this analysis, the index will also be reported in the results section (see Section 6.4.4).

6.3 Results of further scale validation (replication)

This chapter presents the results of the replication of the measure, beginning with the findings of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, followed by the results of the reliability assessment, and ending with results of the convergent, and discriminant validity test of the newly-developed scale. Although Hinkin (1998) suggests that the replication should include the criterion-related validity assessment as well, this analysis has been skipped. In this respect, the reader is referred to Section 6.4 which presents the findings of the model testing.

6.3.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis

The sample size for the present EFA was 210 which met and exceeded the sample size requirements of 150 for EFA analyses (Hinkin, 1998). Principal axis factoring method was performed again using oblique rotation (direct oblimin) (Fabrigar et al., 1999). The present study extracted factors based upon Eigenvalues greater than 1 while also studying the Scree plot. Only items which predominantly loaded on a single appropriate factor were retained. Once again, the .40 criterion level was used in judging factor loadings as meaningful (Ford et al., 1986). In addition, MacCallum and colleagues (1999) suggest that good recovery of population factors can be achieved with communalities in the range of .60 if one has well-determined factors (i.e., a small number of factors with only a few indicators each) and a sample between 100 and 200. All items with communalities after extraction in the range of .60 were therefore retained in the present study (N = 210; pool of 17 items).

Below are the EFA results of the present study. The findings are presented in two stages. Stage 1 refers to the initial EFA including all 17 ethics-related mentoring items. The evaluation of the Eigenvalues and Scree plot suggested 2 factors accounting for 58.18% of the variance, which nearly meets the minimum acceptable target of 60.00% for scale development (Hinkin, 1998). One item (ethic16) was deleted as it did not load strongly on the

factor (< .40). 16 items therefore remained. Table 13 reports the factor loadings, and the communalities after extraction for the two emergent factors: ethical role modelling, and ethical guidance.

Table 13: Remaining items, item loadings, and communalities after extraction of first EFA (stage 1)

Items	F1	F2	Communalities after extraction
Ethical role modelling			
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic4)	.801		.598
My mentor "leads by example" in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic2)	.796		.523
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics. (ethic14)	.717		.626
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help. (ethic7)	.715		.465
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values. (ethic13)	.655		.539
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards. (ethic17)	.644		.551
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions. (ethic1)	.590		.441
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles. (ethic8)	.423		.531
My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner. (ethic12)	.409		.552
Ethical guidance			
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself. (ethic6)		.716	.442
My mentor provides ethical guidance. (ethic9)		.713	.599
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner. (ethic5)		.709	.407
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem. (ethic15)		.621	.527
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me. (ethic10)		.584	.539
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications. (ethic11)		.521	.566
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications. (ethic3)		.458	.519

Note: N = 210; Extraction method = Principal axis factoring; Rotation method = Direct oblimin

Stage 2 refers to the second EFA, as informed by the first EFA. At this point, it was further decided to remove the ethic12 item ("My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner") from the ethical role modelling scale. In conceptual terms, the item seems to be

clearly an item of the ethical guidance scale, and it does not seem to fit with the other role modelling items. The second EFA was therefore conducted with 15 items. Two factors were retained accounting for 58.91% of the variance. Table 14 reports the factor loadings, and the communalities after extraction of the final two-factor structure of the ethics-related mentoring scale.

Table 14: Remaining items, item loadings, and communalities after extraction of second EFA (stage 2)

Items	F1	F2	Communalities after extraction
Ethical role modelling			
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic4)	.805		.609
My mentor "leads by example" in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic2)	.795		.532
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics. (ethic14)	.714		.616
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help. (ethic7)	.707		.458
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values. (ethic13)	.656		.542
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards. (ethic17)	.638		.539
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions. (ethic1)	.588		.444
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles. (ethic8)	.428		.515
Ethical guidance			
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself. (ethic6)		.720	.450
My mentor provides ethical guidance. (ethic9)		.683	.574
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner. (ethic5)		.705	.406
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem. (ethic15)		.619	.527
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me. (ethic10)		.599	.558
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications. (ethic11)		.517	.562
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications. (ethic3)		.478	.541

Note: N = 210; Extraction method = Principal axis factoring; Rotation method = Direct oblimin

6.3.1.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

CFA was conducted to ensure that the best level of model fit had been obtained. More specifically, Cabrera-Nguyen (2010) suggests to compare the suggested CFA model with competing or alternative models. The identification of the preferable model is based on appropriate fit statistics, parsimony, and relevant theory. For that reason, the proposed two-factor model that emerged from the EFA of the present study was compared to the obtained three-factor structure that resulted from the EFA of the pilot study (see Section 5.3.2.1) as well as to a single factor solution in which all dimensions were combined. Judging solely on the basis of fit statistics, it is evident that the two-factor model fits the data better than either the single-factor or three-factor models as shown in Table 15. The proposed two-factor solution with ethical role modelling, and ethical guidance produced the best fitting model: SRMR = .04, the root mean RMSEA = .05, CFI = .97, and NNFI = .96. These fit indices were all at or above recommended standards (i.e., Bentler, 1990; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Steiger, 1990).

Table 15: CFA results of competing or alternative models

Model	χ^2	df	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
One-factor model	267.155 p = .000	119	.052	.077	.922	.911
Two-factor model	142.947 p = .000	89	.042	.054	.966	.960
Three-factor model	239.681 p = .000	116	.049	.071	.935	.924

Note: N = 210; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean-Squared Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index

The decision of choosing a two-dimensional over a three-dimensional ethics-related mentoring scale is in line with the recommendations made by Hinkin (1998). As discussed earlier, he points out that scales should possess simple structure or parsimony. That is, any

one measure should have the simplest possible factor constitution in order to obtain construct validity. Similarly, De Vellis (2012) further notes that shorter scales also place less of a burden on participants. Furthermore, Hinkin (1998) points out that researchers should ensure an adequate sample size to appropriately conduct subsequent analyses (i.e., factor, reliability, and validity analysis). This said, the sample size in the replication study (N = 210) was twice as large as in the first study (N = 104) and was in line with Hinkin's (ibid.) recommendations. More specifically, he noted that a sample size of 150 respondents should be sufficient to obtain an accurate solution in EFA as long as item inter-correlations are reasonably strong (here: $r = .75$, $p < .01$, as outlined later in Section 6.3.1.4). As a result, the newly-developed measure has been downscaled by one factor and two items.

6.3.1.3 Reliability analysis

The reliability was tested for the individual dimensions. The results are presented in Table 16. The Cronbach's alpha of both subscales exceeded the acceptable level of scale reliability (i.e., greater than .70), following Nunnally's (1976) standard. The ethics-related mentoring subscales, therefore, demonstrated strong internal consistency. There was also no reason to erase items in order to increase the reliability value in the construction of the measure (Hinkin, 1995).

Table 16: Reliability statistics for the ethics-related mentoring subscales (Two factor model)

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Ethical role modelling			
My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic4)	.744	.878	.897
My mentor "leads by example" in terms of ethical behaviour. (ethic2)	.667	.885	
My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics. (ethic14)	.735	.879	
My mentor takes time when I need his/her help. (ethic7)	.625	.889	
My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values. (ethic13)	.692	.883	
My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards. (ethic17)	.688	.883	
My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions. (ethic1)	.633	.888	
By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles. (ethic8)	.650	.887	
Ethical guidance			
My mentor provides ethical guidance. (ethic9)	.687	.853	.875
My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself. (ethic6)	.607	.864	
My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner. (ethic5)	.580	.868	
My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem. (ethic15)	.673	.855	
My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me. (ethic10)	.699	.852	
My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications. (ethic11)	.682	.854	
My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications. (ethic3)	.674	.855	

6.3.1.4 Convergent and discriminant validity assessment

Hinkin (1998) suggests that the replication study should not only include the confirmatory factor analysis, and the assessment of internal consistency reliability, but also the convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity assessment. Although the replication was not the focus of the present study, we included one measure in the questionnaire to examine the convergent validity, that is, ethical leadership of the direct supervisor (Brown et al., 2005). The aim was to show once again that the ethics-related mentoring measure and the ethical leadership scale measure similar but not identical constructs. In regards of discriminant validity, it was predicted once more that employee

reports of their supervisor's ethical leadership would not be tainted by personal characteristics of the rater (i.e., by age or gender).

The correlation table (see Table 17) shows that the two ethics-related mentoring dimensions were significantly and positively correlated with ethical leadership behaviour, ranging around r = .34 (p < .01). However, these correlations were lower than the correlation between the ethics-related mentoring subscales (r = .75, p < .01). The results imply that the ethics-related mentoring measure and the ethical leadership scale measure similar but yet not identical constructs, supporting the construct validity of the newly-developed scale.

Table 17: Correlations for convergent validity

Variable	1	2	3
1. Ethical role modelling	---		
2. Ethical guidance	.747**	---	
3. Ethical leadership	.338**	.344**	---

*Note: N = 210; **p<0.01*

The correlation table (see Table 18) shows that ethical role modelling was unrelated to protégés' age (r = .02) and gender (r = .05). Unexpectedly, there was a small negative relationship between ethical guidance and protégés' age (r = .-14, p < .05). However, as expected, ethical guidance was unrelated to protégés' gender (r = .06). Thus, with one exception, the results are consistent with the expectations about discriminant validity.

Table 18: Correlations for discriminant validity

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Ethical role modelling	---			
2. Ethical guidance	.747 **	---		
3. Age	.022	-.143*	---	
4. Gender	.054	.064	-.022	---

*Note: N = 210; *p<0.05; **p<0.01.*

6.4 Results of model testing

This section presents the findings of the model testing. The descriptive statistics of the main variables and the CFA results of the measurement model are shown first, followed by an update of the conceptual model. Thereafter, the results of the main effect, moderation and the mediated moderation analyses are presented.

6.4.1 Descriptive statistics

Table 19 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the independent, moderator, mediator, dependent, and control variables. The analysis of the correlation values revealed that the key variables used in the present study had – with a few exceptions – positive and significant associations with each other. Three of the four control variables, more specifically, protégé age, mentor age, and nature of the mentoring relationship (i.e., formal vs. informal mentoring) were considered in further analysis[6]. We further controlled for the second dimension of ethics-related mentoring.

[6] In the interest of keeping the data analysis as parsimonious as possible, it was decided to delete ethical climate from further analysis.

Table 19: Means, standard deviations, and correlations for the independent, moderator, mediator, dependent and control variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Ethical role modelling	4.22	0.56	---										
2. Ethical guidance	4.08	0.62	.747**	---									
3. Mentor prototypicality	4.15	0.65	.675**	.609**	---								
4. Moral motivation	0.00	0.90	.159*	.208**	.169*	---							
5. Ethical leadership	4.35	0.46	.333*	.255**	.303**	.172*	---						
6. OCB altruism[7]	4.26	0.50	.266**	.165*	.397**	.136	.601**	---					
7. Turnover intentions	3.06	1.75	-.078	.080	.013	.187*	-.207*	-.204*	---				
8. Protégé age	37.66	9.74	.022	-.143*	-.023	-.269**	.218**	.151	-.182*	---			
9. Mentor age	2.96	1.12	.037	-.138*	-.143*	-.135	.126	.003	-.127	.517**	---		
10. Nature	1.39	0.49	-.020	-.184**	-.142*	-.288**	.177*	-.026	-.206*	.396**	.420**	---	
11. Ethical climate	4.34	0.61	.304**	.370**	.415**	.334**	.317**	.316**	.179*	-.201**	-.267**	-.335**	---

*Note: N varies between 152 and 210 due to different survey waves; *p<0.05; **p<0.01.*

[7] During the CFA analysis of the measurement model, it was decided to carry out the hypothesis tests with OCB altruism. The reasons for this decision are outlined in Section 6.4.3.

6.4.2 Analysis of the measurement model

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to confirm the goodness of the overall measurement model. The outcomes of the CFA analysis indicated that the seven-factor measurement model (i.e., including all key variables) was a moderate fit of the data since some of the fit indices were slightly below the minimum requirements, as indicated in Table 20. For example, the value of Chi-square (χ^2) recorded 1070.497 (p = .00), SRMR < .05 = .07, RMSEA < .08 = .06, CFI > .90 = .88, and NNFI > .90 = .87. For that reason – and as Boomsma (1982) noted that CFA should be used with caution when the sample size is below 200 (here: N = 148) – the overall model was split into two parts. The first CFA was carried out on the independent variables (IVs) and the moderator (i.e., ethical role modelling, ethical guidance, and mentor prototypicality), while the second CFA was performed on the mediator and the dependent variables (DVs) including moral motivation, ethical leadership, OCB altruism[8], and turnover intentions.

As reported in Table 20, fit indices showed that the first CFA model (IVs and moderator) fit the data well: the Standardised Root Mean-Squared Residual (SRMR) = .06, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .06, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .94, and the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = .93 were all at or above-recommended standards (e.g., Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1998). The results of the second CFA model (mediator and DVs) suggested an adequate model fit as well (as displayed in Table 20): SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .91, and NNFI = .90. Thus, the results of the split CFA model confirmed the efficacy of the measurement model.

---

[8] In the first instance, the CFA was carried out with the overall measure of OCB. Both the seven-factor measurement model (χ^2 = 2821.671, df = 1574, SRMR = .10, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .72, NNFI = .70) and the second CFA model (χ^2 = 1394.276, df = 659, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .70, NNFI = .68) suggested a poor fit of the data. It is assumed that the small sample size decreased the statistical power of the analysis. In order to achieve significant results, it was decided to look at one dimension of OCB only. Because our second research question asked whether ethics-related mentoring is important in developing ethical leaders, OCB altruism was chosen for further analysis. Ciulla (2005) noted that some leadership scholars use altruism as the "moral gold standard for ethical leadership" (p327). For example, Brown et al. (2005) who conceptualised ethical leadership concluded that ethical leaders engage in behaviour that is motivated by altruism (e.g., treating employees fairly).

Table 20: CFA results of main model and split model

Model	χ^2	df	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
Seven-factor model[1]	1070.497 p = .000	719	.066	.058	.878	.868
IVs and Moderator	258.134 p = .000	167	.056	.061	.940	.932
Mediator and DVs	264.037 p = .000	164	.067	.064	.914	.900

Note: N = 148; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean-Squared Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index
[1]Seven-factor model includes antecedent, moderator, mediator, and outcome variables

Due to the inconsistency among the pilot study and present study in regards to the factor structure, an analysis was performed on the first part of the CFA model (IVs and moderator). More specifically, it was examined whether a two-dimensional construct leads to a better model fit than the single or three-dimensional construct of ethics-related mentoring. As illustrated in Table 21, the post-hoc analysis provides strong support for the two-factor model: All fit indices, and without exception, indicated a good model fit and were far above the results of the competing CFA models. The two-dimensional ethics-related mentoring scale was therefore used when testing the hypotheses.

Table 21: Post-hoc CFA results of first CFA model (IVs and moderator)

Model	χ^2	df	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
IV and moderator[1]	397.915 p = .000	208	.064	.079	.891	.879
IV and moderator[2]	258.134 p = .000	167	.056	.061	.940	.932
IV and moderator[3]	363.972 p = .000	203	.060	.073	.908	.895

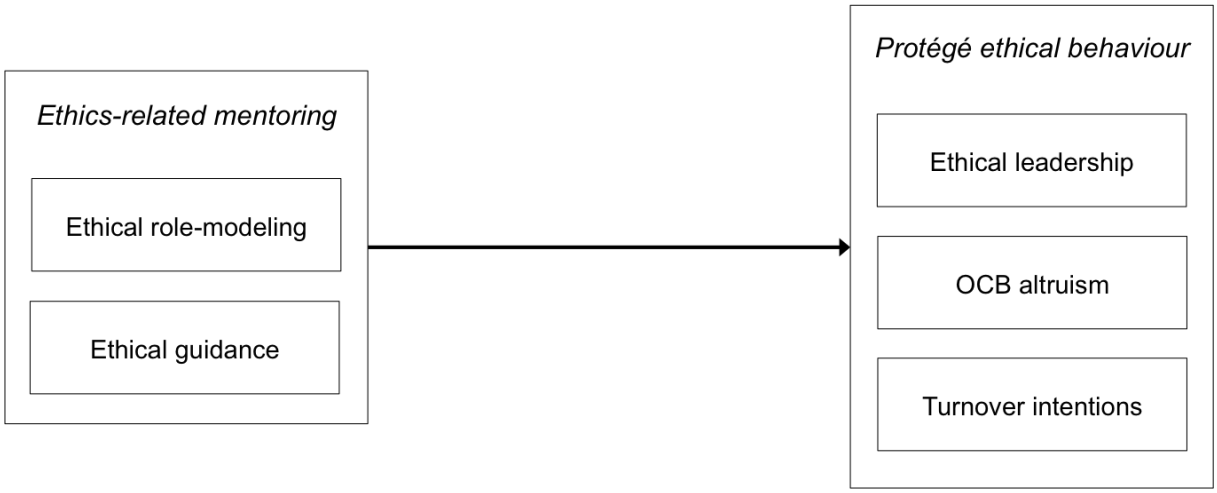
Note: N = 210; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean-Squared Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index
IV and Moderator[1]: IV = One-factor model
IV and Moderator[2]: IV = Two-factor model
IV and Moderator[3]: IV = Three-factor model

6.4.3 Overview of the adapted model (update)

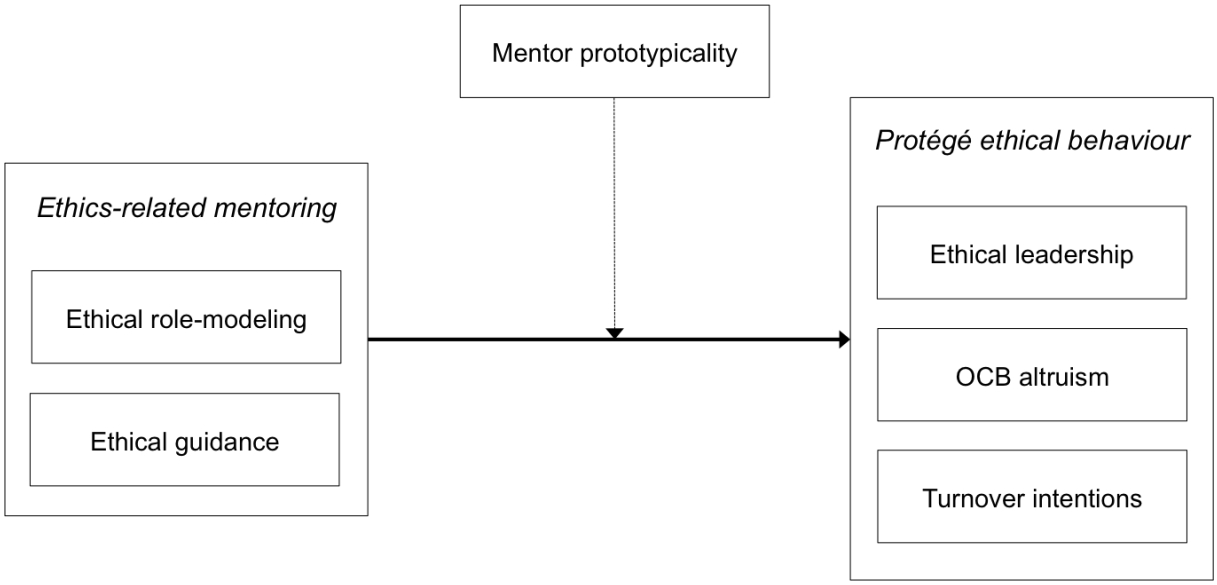
It was necessary to update the conceptual model once more. The reasons for this decision were twofold: First, for the sake of parsimony, it was decided to choose a two-dimensional over a three-dimensional ethics-related mentoring scale (as discussed in Section 6.3.1.2). Second, due to the comparatively small sample size, it was not possible to include the overall measure of OCB in the analysis. We decided to focus our analysis on OCB altruism only for various reasons. Firstly, this dimension is the most commonly studied dimension of OCB (Mayer et al., 2009), and many scholars doing work in this domain have identified helping behaviour as an important form of OCB (Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997). Secondly, OCB altruism is the focal dependent variable in other business ethics studies (e.g., Kalshoven, Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2013b; Mayer et al., 2009; Piccolo et al., 2010) and is closest to the concept of ethical behaviour. Finally, a recent meta-analysis conducted by LePine et al. (2002) has shown that the different OCB dimensions are strongly related to one another and have similar relationships to commonly studied outcomes. The final conceptual models are shown in Figure 7. In order to avoid repetition, the hypotheses that were tested in this study are recalled in the subsequent chapter when presenting the results. In short, Hypotheses H1c, H2c, H3c, H4c, H5c, H6c, H7c, H8c, and H9c were dropped from the analysis as the third factor of ethics-related mentoring was dropped from our model.

Figure 7: Adapted conceptual models (update)

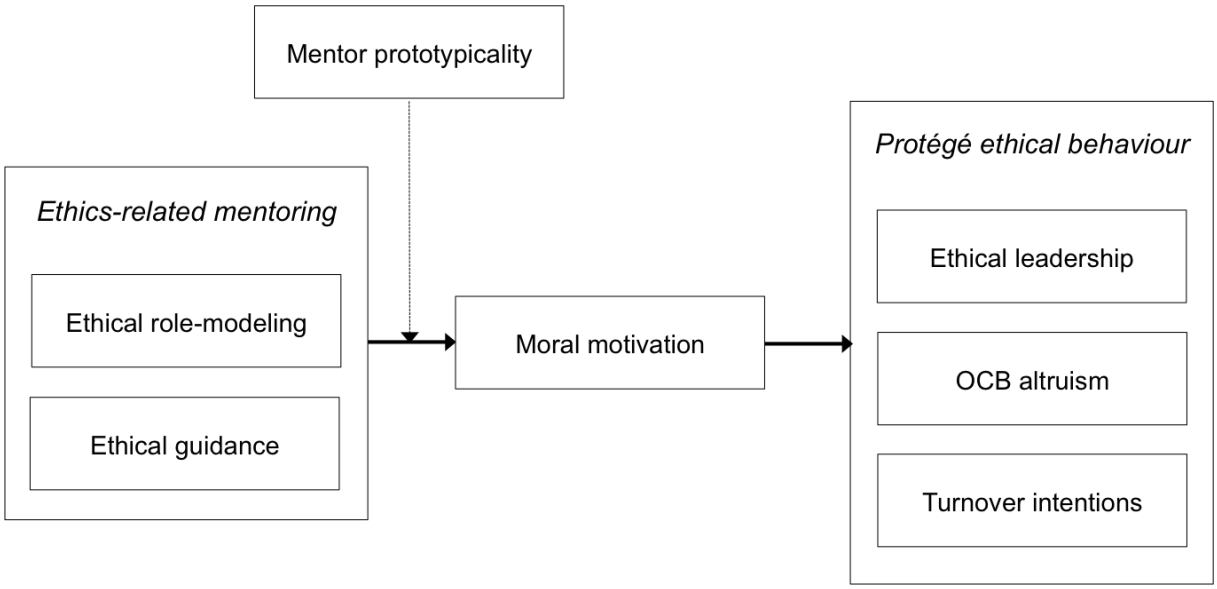
Conceptual model for main effects



Conceptual model for moderation



Conceptual model for mediated moderation



6.4.4 Tests of hypotheses: Protégé ethical leadership

6.4.4.1 The main effects model

Hypothesis H1a proposes a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical role modelling* and their own ethical leadership. The result of the main effect is presented in Table 23.[9] As predicted, mentor ethical role modelling significantly and positively effects protégé ethical leadership. H1a was thus supported.

Table 22: Summary of simple regression analysis for ethical role modelling predicting protégé ethical leadership

	Ethical leadership					
	B	SE	ß	t	Sig. (p)	R^2
Ethical role-modelling	.187	.089	.228	2.101	.037	.176
Controls						
Protégé age	.008	.004	.176	1.878	.062	
Mentor age	-.009	.037	-.023	-.244	.807	
Nature	.145	.078	.157	.1853	.066	
Ethical guidance	.111	.084	.146	.1315	.191	

Note: N = 152.

Hypothesis H1b proposes a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical guidance* and their own ethical leadership. Against predictions, the positive relationship between mentors' ethical guidance and protégés' ethical leadership was non-significant. The hypothesis was, therefore, not supported. The associated results can be found in Table 23.

[9] The "main effects" hypothesis was tested using a simple regression analysis with perceived mentor's ethical role-modeling (mentor's ethical guidance, respectively) as the independent variable and protégé ethical leadership (protégé OCB altruism, and turnover intentions, respectively) as dependent variable.

Table 23: Summary of simple regression analysis for ethical guidance predicting protégé ethical leadership

	Ethical leadership					
	B	SE	ß	t	Sig. (p)	R^2
Ethical guidance	.111	.084	.146	1.315	.191	.176
Controls						
Protégé age	.008	.004	.176	.1878	.062	
Mentor age	-.009	.037	-.023	-.244	.807	
Nature	.145	.078	.157	1.853	.066	
Ethical role-modelling	.187	.089	.228	2.101	.037	

Note: N = 152.

6.4.4.2 The moderation model

Hypothesis H4a proposes that the positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical role modelling* and their own ethical leadership will be significantly stronger when they perceive their mentors' to be prototypical. As predicted, mentor ethical role modelling is positively related to protégé ethical leadership (b = .26, t = 2.83, p < .001) and this relationship is moderated by mentor prototypicality (b = .23, t = 5.65, p < .05, ΔR^2 = 14.66%; see Table 24). In order to explore the nature of the significant interaction effect, the conditional direct effects were reviewed. The results show that the relationship between ethical role modelling and protégé ethical leadership was non-significant at the 10th percentile of mentor prototypicality. To further illustrate the nature of this interaction, the Johnson-Neyman (J-N) technique was used (as suggested by Hayes, 2012). The conditional relationship between mentor ethical role modelling and protégé ethical leadership transitioned negative and significant at a mentor prototypicality value of -2.06, b = -.21, SE = .11, t = -1.98, p = .05, 95% CIs [.42, .00], and remained significant for all values below this point. Moreover, the conditional effect transitioned positive and significant at a mentor prototypicality value of -.37, b = .18, SE = .09, t = 1.98, p = .05, 95% CIs [.00, .36], and remained significant for all values above this point. In short, it appears that mentors' ethical role modelling is positively related to protégé ethical leadership and that this relationship is

stronger and more important when protégés' perceive their mentor to be prototypical. Full support was found for Hypothesis H4a.

Table 24: Interaction effect of *mentors' ethical role modelling* (X) and mentor prototypicality (M) on protégé ethical leadership (Y1) – PROCESS model 1

	Ethical leadership			
	B	SE	t	p
Constant	3.3194	.3730	8.8993	.0000
Controls				
Protégé age	.0096	.0038	2.5280	.0126
Mentor age	-.0074	.0341	-.2177	.8280
Nature	.1185	.0709	1.6702	.0971
Ethical guidance	.1127	.0771	1.4617	.1460
Ethical role modelling	.2642	.0933	2.8308	.0053
Mentor prototypicality	.1251	.0672	1.8617	.0647
Interaction	.2305	.0408	5.6455	.0000
	Direct effect	SE	t	p
Conditional effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	.0876	.0897	.9773	.3301
25th Percentile	.2259	.0916	2.4656	.0149
50th Percentile	.2721	.0937	2.9027	.0043
75th Percentile	.3643	.0998	3.6505	.0004
90th Percentile	.4565	.1080	4.2267	.0000

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

Hypothesis H4b proposes that the positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical guidance* and their own ethical leadership will be significantly stronger when they perceive their mentors' to be prototypical. The positive relationship between mentors' ethical guidance and protégés' ethical leadership was non-significant (b = .11, t = 1.38, p = .17). However, as hypothesised, mentor prototypicality moderated this relationship and in the predicted direction (b = .24, t = 5.69, p < .001, ΔR^2 = 14.86%; see Table 25). The conditional direct effects revealed that the relationship between ethical guidance and protégé ethical leadership was only significant at the 75th and 90th percentile of mentor prototypicality. The J-N technique further showed that the conditional effect of ethical guidance on ethical leadership transitioned negative and significant at a mentor

prototypicality value of -1.12, b = -.18, SE = .09, t = -1.98, p = .05, CIs [-.36, .00], and remained significant for all values below this point. Furthermore, the conditional effect transitioned positive and significant at a mentor prototypicality value of .20, b = .15, SE = .08, t = 1.98, p = .05, CIs [.00, .31], and remained significant for all values above this point. In short, therefore, it appears that mentor ethical guidance only matters in terms of its relationship with protégés' ethical leadership when they perceive their mentor to by highly prototypical. These findings support Hypothesis H4b.

Table 25: Interaction effect of *mentors' ethical guidance* (X) and mentor prototypicality (M) on protégé ethical leadership (Y1) – PROCESS model 1

	Ethical leadership			
	B	SE	t	p
Constant	2.7783	.3879	7.1626	.0000
Controls				
Protégé age	.0104	.0038	2.7174	.0074
Mentor age	-.0073	.0341	-.2144	.8305
Nature	.1237	.0707	1.7490	.0824
Ethical role modelling	.2274	.0915	2.4851	.0141
Ethical guidance	.1060	.0769	1.3775	.1705
Mentor prototypicality	.1521	.0673	2.2589	.0254
Interaction	.2380	.0418	5.6939	.0000
	Direct effect	SE	t	p
Conditional effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	-.0763	.0823	-.9271	.3554
25th Percentile	.0665	.0770	.8639	.3891
50th Percentile	.1141	.0770	1.4821	.1405
75th Percentile	.2093	.0797	2.6275	.0095
90th Percentile	.3045	.0856	3.5583	.0005

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

6.4.4.3 The mediated moderation model

Hypothesis H7a proposes that protégé moral motivation is positively related to their ethical leadership and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of

ethical role-modelling and their ethical leadership, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.

Before testing our hypothesis, we first explored the proposed interaction effects of mentor ethical role modelling and mentor prototypicality on protégés' moral motivation. As predicted, mentor prototypicality moderated the positive relationship between protégés perceptions of their mentor's ethical role modelling and their moral motivation, and in the predicted direction ($b = .27$, $t = 2.92$, $p < .005$, $\Delta R^2 = 17.83\%$). That is, the relationship between mentor ethical role modelling and protégé moral motivation was significant only when perceptions of mentor prototypicality were high.

Given this finding, we proceeded to explore our first mediated-moderation hypothesis. As predicted, protégés' moral motivation was positively related to their own ethical leadership ($b = .07$, $t = 2.04$, $p < .05$). Moreover, tests of conditional indirect effects confirmed that protégés' moral motivation mediated the positive relationship between their perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their own ethical leadership but only when their perceptions of mentor prototypicality was high (75^{th} and 90^{th} percentiles; see Table 26). The index of moderated mediation was non-significant ($b = .02$, $SE = .02$, $CI = -.01$ to $.06$), suggesting that moral motivation did not explain all variance in ethical leadership predicted by this interaction (Hayes, 2015). Partial support for Hypothesis H7a is provided, therefore.

Table 26: Conditional indirect effects of mentors' *ethical role modelling* (X) on protégé ethical leadership (Y1) via their moral motivation (M) at levels of mentor prototypicality (W) – PROCESS model 8

	Moral motivation[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Mediator variable model				
Constant	.7965	.8474	.9399	.3488
Ethical role modelling	.4005	.2120	1.8890	.0609
Mentor prototypicality	-.0250	.1527	-.1639	.8701
Interaction	.2705	.0928	2.9155	.0041
	Ethical leadership[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Dependent variable model				
Constant	3.2605	.3701	8.8097	.0000
Moral motivation (mediator)	.0740	.0363	2.0395	.0432
	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI
Conditional indirect effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	.0143	.0236	-.0270	.0667
25th Percentile	.0263	.0230	-.0047	.0894
50th Percentile	.0303	.0240	-.0012	.0994
75th Percentile	.0383	.0274	.0020	.1214
90th Percentile	.0463	.0323	.0026	.1407

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit.

[a] *Control variables = protégé age, mentor age, nature of mentoring relationship, ethical guidance*

Hypothesis H7b proposes that protégé moral motivation is positively related to their ethical leadership and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of *ethical guidance* and their ethical leadership, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak.

Before testing our hypothesis, we again first explored the proposed interaction effects of mentor ethical guidance and mentor prototypicality on protégés' moral motivation. As predicted, mentor prototypicality moderated the positive relationship between protégés perceptions of their mentor's ethical guidance and their moral motivation, and in the predicted direction (b = .33, t = 3.47, p < .001, ΔR^2 = 19.70%). That is, the relationship between mentor ethical guidance and protégé moral motivation was significant only when perceptions of mentor prototypicality were high.

We again proceeded to our main hypothesis testing. The relationship between protégés' moral motivation and their own ethical leadership (b = .07, t = 1.80, p < .10) was non-significant. The lower and upper confidence intervals of all conditional indirect effects crossed zero, suggesting that the relationship was not significant. As a result, no support was found for hypothesis H7b (see Table 27).

Table 27: Conditional indirect effects of mentors' *ethical guidance* (X) on protégé ethical leadership (Y1) via their moral motivation (M) at levels of mentor prototypicality (W) – PROCESS model 8

	Moral motivation[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Mediator Variable Model				
Constant	-.6937	.8725	-.7951	.4279
Ethical Guidance	.0399	.1730	.2304	.8181
Mentor Prototypicality	.0128	.1514	.0846	.9327
Interaction	.3264	.0940	3.4719	.0007
	Ethical leadership[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Dependent variable model				
Constant	2.8242	.3858	7.3213	.0000
Moral motivation (mediator)	.0662	.0368	1.8002	.0739
	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI
Conditional indirect effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	-.0139	.0195	-.0647	.0160
25th Percentile	-.0009	.0156	-.0296	.0346
50th Percentile	.0034	.0157	-.0182	.0496
75th Percentile	.0120	.0179	-.0087	.0681
90th Percentile	.0207	.0220	-.0050	.0890

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit.

[a] *Control variables = protégé age, mentor age, nature of mentoring relationship, ethical role modelling*

6.4.5 Tests of hypotheses: Protégé OCB altruism

6.4.5.1 The main effects model

Hypothesis H2a proposes a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical role modelling* and their own OCB altruism. As predicted, the positive

relationship between protégé perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their OCB-altruism was significant. Hence, H2a was supported. Table 29 presents the results of the main effect.

Table 28: Summary of simple regression analysis for ethical role modelling predicting protégé OCB altruism

	OCB altruism					
	B	SE	ß	t	Sig. (p)	R^2
Ethical role-modelling	.251	.100	.283	2.501	.013	.104
Controls						
Protégé age	.011	.005	.221	2.262	.025	
Mentor age	-.048	.042	-.114	-1.161	.247	
Nature	-.065	.089	-.065	-.736	.463	
Ethical guidance	-.031	.095	-.037	-.323	.747	

Note: N = 152.

Hypothesis H2b proposes a positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical guidance* and their own OCB altruism (H2b). Against predictions, ethical guidance was not significantly related to protégé OCB-altruism. This hypothesis was, therefore, not supported either. The associated results can be found in Table 29.

Table 29: Summary of simple regression analysis for ethical guidance predicting protégé OCB altruism

	OCB altruism					
	B	SE	ß	t	Sig. (p)	R^2
Ethical guidance	-.031	.095	-.037	-.323	.747	.104
Controls						
Protégé age	.011	.005	.221	2.262	.025	
Mentor age	-.048	.042	-.114	-1.161	.247	
Nature	-.065	.089	-.065	-.736	.463	
Ethical role-modelling	.251	.100	.283	2.501	.013	

Note: N = 152.

6.4.5.2 The moderation model

Hypothesis H5a proposes that the positive relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical role modelling* and their own OCB altruism will be significantly stronger when they perceive their mentors' to be prototypical. The positive relationship between protégé perceptions of their mentors' ethical role modelling and their OCB-altruism was non-significant (b = .18, t = 1.70, p = .09). But as hypothesised, the interaction of ethical role modelling and mentor prototypicality was found to be significant (b = .18, t = 3.75, p < .001, ΔR^2 = 7.25%), and this interaction was in the predicted direction (see Table 30). The conditional direct effect was significant at the 75^{th} and 90^{th} percentile of mentor prototypicality. Additionally, the J-N technique showed two significant regions for the effect of ethical role modelling on protégé OCB altruism: for mentor prototypicality below -2.57, b = -.27, SE = .14, t = -1.98, p = .05, CIs [-.54, .00], and above .204, b = .22, SE = .11, t = 1.98, p =.05, CIs [.00, .44]. In short, the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of their mentor's ethical role modelling and their OCB altruism was only significant at high levels of perceived mentor prototypicality. Support for Hypothesis H5a was therefore found.

Table 30: Interaction effect of *mentors' ethical role modelling* (X) and mentor prototypicality (M) on protégé OCB altruism (Y2) – PROCESS model 1

	OCB altruism			
	B	SE	t	p
Constant	4.2709	.4273	9.9950	.0000
Controls				
Protégé age	.0104	.0044	2.3891	.0182
Mentor age	-.0219	.0391	-.5609	.5758
Nature	-.0817	.0812	-1.0050	.3166
Ethical guidance	-.0661	.0883	-0.7484	.4555
Ethical role modelling	.1816	.1069	1.6984	.0916
Mentor prototypicality	.3130	.0770	4.0650	.0001
Interaction	.1756	.0468	3.7534	.0003
	Direct effect	SE	t	p
Conditional effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	.0471	.1027	.4586	.6472
25th Percentile	.1525	.1050	1.4522	.1486
50th Percentile	.1876	.1074	1.7470	.0828
75th Percentile	.2578	.1143	2.2553	.0256
90th Percentile	.3280	.1237	2.6514	.0089

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

Hypothesis H5b proposes that the positive relationships between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical guidance* and their own OCB altruism (H5b) will be significantly stronger when they perceive their mentors' to be prototypical. As shown in Table 31, ethical guidance was also not significantly related to protégé OCB- altruism (b = -.07 , t = -.81, p = .42). However, the interaction of the two predictor variables was found to be significant (b = .05, t = 3.99, p < .001, ΔR^2 = 8.11%), and again in the predicted direction. The conditional direct effect was significant at the 10th percentile of mentor prototypicality. Interestingly, the effects further revealed that the relationship between ethical guidance and OCB altruism became negative when mentors were perceived as non-prototypical. This finding suggests that protégés who receive ethical guidance from non-prototypical mentors do not act altruistic or pro-social but in the opposite manner. Finally, the J-N technique was applied. The

conditional direct effect of ethical guidance on OCB altruism transitioned in significance at a mentor prototypicality value of -.57, b = -.18, SE = .09, t = -1.98, p = .05, CIs [-.36, .00], with the relation between ethical guidance and OCB altruism significant at mentor prototypicality values below this threshold and non-significant at mentor prototypicality values above this threshold. Hence, support was found for Hypothesis H5b.

Table 31: Interaction effect of *mentors' ethical guidance* (X) and mentor prototypicality (M) on protégé OCB altruism (Y2) – PROCESS model 1

	OCB altruism			
	B	SE	t	p
Constant	3.3026	.4425	7.4641	.0000
Controls				
Protégé age	.0111	.0044	2.5543	.0117
Mentor age	-.0223	.0389	-.5740	.5669
Nature	-.0785	.0807	-.9732	.3321
Ethical role modelling	.1579	.1044	1.5126	.1326
Ethical guidance	-.0706	.0877	-.8049	.4222
Mentor prototypicality	.3347	.0768	4.3586	.0000
Interaction	.1904	.0477	3.9943	.0001
	Direct effect	SE	t	p
Conditional effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	-.2164	.0938	-2.3065	.0225
25th Percentile	-.1022	.0878	-1.1636	.2465
50th Percentile	-.0641	.0878	-.7300	.4666
75th Percentile	.0121	.0909	.1327	.8946
90th Percentile	.0882	.0976	.9039	.3675

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

6.4.5.3 The mediated moderation model

Hypothesis H8a proposes that protégé moral motivation is positively related to their OCB altruism and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of *ethical role-modelling* and their OCB altruism, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak. Against predictions, protégés' moral motivation was not significantly related to OCB altruism (b = .05, t =

1.23, p = .22; see Table 32). Also, the lower and upper confidence interval for the conditional indirect effects crossed zero, suggesting that the relationship was non-significant. As a consequence, Hypotheses H8a is rejected.

Table 32: Conditional indirect effects of mentors' *ethical role modelling* (X) on protégé OCB altruism (Y2) via their moral motivation (M) at levels of mentor prototypicality (W) – PROCESS model 8

	Moral motivation[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Mediator variable model				
Constant	.7965	.8474	.9399	.3488
Ethical role modelling	.4005	.2120	1.8890	.0609
Mentor prototypicality	-.0250	.1527	-.1639	.8701
Interaction	.2705	.0928	2.9155	.0041
	OCB altruism[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Dependent variable model				
Constant	4.2299	.4279	9.8862	.0000
Moral motivation (mediator)	.0515	.0419	1.2269	.2219
	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI
Conditional indirect effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	.0100	.0210	-.0142	.0750
25th Percentile	.0183	.0231	-.0073	.0977
50th Percentile	.0211	.0246	-.0056	.1059
75th Percentile	.0267	.0285	-.0047	.1339
90th Percentile	.0322	.0332	-.0051	.1524

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit.

[a] *Control variables = protégé age, mentor age, nature of mentoring relationship, ethical guidance*

Hypothesis H8b proposes that protégé moral motivation is positively related to their OCB altruism and mediates the positive relationship between protégé perceptions of *ethical guidance* and their OCB altruism, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak. As shown in Table 33, the relationship between protégés' moral motivation and their own OCB altruism (b = .04, t = 1.02, p > .10) was non-significant. Again, the lower and upper confidence intervals of all conditional indirect effects included zero, indicating that the relationship was non-significant. Thus, hypotheses H8b is rejected.

Table 33: Conditional indirect effects of mentors' *ethical guidance* (X) on protégé OCB altruism (Y2) via their moral motivation (M) at levels of mentor prototypicality (W) – PROCESS model 8

	Moral motivation[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Mediator Variable Model				
Constant	-.6937	.8725	-.7951	.4279
Ethical Guidance	.0399	.1730	.2304	.8181
Mentor Prototypicality	.0128	.1514	.0846	.9327
Interaction	.3264	.0940	3.4719	.0007
	OCB altruism[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Dependent variable model				
Constant	3.3324	.4434	7.5161	.0000
Moral motivation (mediator)	.0430	.0423	1.0186	.3101
	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI
Conditional indirect effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	-.0090	.0178	-.0683	.0108
25th Percentile	-.0006	.0132	-.0334	.0239
50th Percentile	.0022	.0133	-.0144	.0456
75th Percentile	.0078	.0161	-.0074	.0646
90th Percentile	.0134	.0211	-.0094	.0811

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit.

[a] *Control variables = protégé age, mentor age, nature of mentoring relationship, ethical role modelling*

6.4.6 Tests of hypotheses: Protégé turnover intentions

6.4.6.1 The main effects model

Hypothesis H3a proposes a negative relationship between their perceptions of their mentors' *ethical role modelling* and their turnover intentions. The result of the main effect is presented in the subsequent table (Table 34). Against predictions, ethical role modelling was not significantly related to protégé turnover intentions. Hence, H3a was not supported.

Table 34: Summary of simple regression analysis for ethical role modelling predicting protégé turnover intentions

	Turnover intentions					
	B	SE	ß	t	Sig. (p)	R^2
Ethical role-modelling	-.662	.359	-.211	-1.841	.068	.078
Controls						
Protégé age	-.018	.017	-.108	-1.095	.275	
Mentor age	.035	.149	.023	.234	.815	
Nature	-.496	.317	-.141	-.1566	.119	
Ethical guidance	.551	.341	.189	1.615	.108	

Note: N = 152.

Hypothesis H3b proposes a negative relationship between their perceptions of their mentors' *ethical guidance* and their turnover intentions. This hypothesis was not supported either, as can be seen in the results presented in Table 35.

Table 35: Summary of simple regression analysis for ethical guidance predicting protégé turnover intentions

	Turnover intentions					
	B	SE	ß	t	Sig. (p)	R^2
Ethical guidance	.551	.341	.189	1.615	.108	.078
Controls						
Protégé age	-.018	.017	-.108	-1.095	.275	
Mentor age	.035	.149	.023	.234	.815	
Nature	-.496	.317	-.141	-1.566	.119	
Ethical role-modelling	-.662	.359	-.211	-1.841	.068	

Note: N = 152.

6.4.6.2 The moderation model

Hypothesis H6a proposes that the negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical role modelling* and their turnover intentions will be significantly stronger when they perceive their mentors' to be prototypical. As can be seen in Table 36, ethical role modelling was found to be significantly and negatively related to protégé turnover intentions ($b = -.90$, $t = -2.14$, $p < .05$). However, against expectations, the interaction of ethical role modelling and mentor prototypicality was found to be non-significant ($b = -.21$, $t = -1.12$, $p = .26$). Consequently, no support was found for Hypothesis H6a.

Table 36: Interaction effect of *mentors' ethical role modelling* (X) and mentor prototypicality (M) on protégé turnover intentions (Y3) – PROCESS model 1

	Turnover intentions			
	B	SE	t	p
Constant	2.3800	1.6734	1.4223	.1571
Controls				
Protégé age	-.0220	.0171	-1.2895	.1993
Mentor age	.0654	.1532	.4271	.6699
Nature	-.4676	.3182	-1.4696	.1438
Ethical guidance	.5025	.3459	1.4529	.1484
Ethical role modelling	-.8950	.4187	-2.1379	.0342
Mentor prototypicality	.1662	.3015	.5511	.5824
Interaction	-.2056	.1832	-1.1225	.2635
	Direct effect	SE	t	p
Conditional effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	-.7376	.4022	-1.8337	.0688
25th Percentile	-.8609	.4111	-2.0942	.0380
50th Percentile	-.9021	.4205	-2.1454	.0336
75th Percentile	-.9843	.4477	-2.1988	.0295
90th Percentile	-1.0666	.4845	-2.2013	.0293

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

Hypothesis H6b proposes that the negative relationship between protégés' perceptions of their mentors' *ethical guidance* and their turnover intentions will be significantly stronger when they perceive their mentors' to be prototypical. Against prediction, both the main effect for ethical guidance on turnover intention (b = 0.51, t = 1.47, p = .14) as well as the interaction of ethical guidance and mentor prototypicality on turnover intentions (b = 0.20, t = -1.07, p = .29) were not found to be significant, thus providing no support for the predictions made (see Table 37). Hypothesis H6b is thus rejected. It appears, in this study at least, that protégé perceptions of their mentors' ethical guidance do not impact upon their intentions to leave their employer, and the prototypicality of their mentor has no effect on this either.

Table 37: Interaction effect of *mentors' ethical guidance* (X) and mentor prototypicality (M) on protégé turnover intentions (Y3) – PROCESS model 1

	Turnover intentions			
	B	SE	t	p
Constant	8.0768	1.7436	4.6323	.0000
Controls				
Protégé age	-.0225	.0172	-1.3123	.1915
Mentor age	.0647	.1532	.4224	.6733
Nature	-.4734	.3180	-1.4887	.1388
Ethical role modelling	-.8569	.4114	-2.0830	.0390
Ethical guidance	.5092	.3458	1.4728	.1430
Mentor prototypicality	.1436	.3026	.4746	.6358
Interaction	-.2009	.1879	-1.0695	.2866
	Direct effect	SE	t	p
Conditional effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	.6631	.3698	1.7932	.0750
25th Percentile	.5425	.3461	1.5678	.1191
50th Percentile	.5024	.3460	1.4517	.1488
75th Percentile	.4220	.3580	1.1786	.2405
90th Percentile	.3416	.3846	.8882	.3759

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

6.4.6.3 The mediated moderation model

Hypothesis H9a proposes that protégé moral motivation is negatively related to their turnover intentions and mediates the negative relationship between protégé perceptions of *ethical role-modelling* and their turnover intentions, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak. Counter to our predictions, protégés moral motivation was positively (not negatively, as hypothesised) related to their turnover intentions ($b = .32$, $t = 1.99$, $p < .05$). In turn, our tests for mediated-moderation confirmed a significant conditional indirect effect, where protégés' moral motivation is positively related to their turnover intentions and mediates the negative relationship between protégés perceptions of their mentors ethical role modelling and their turnover intentions, but only when perceptions of mentor prototypicality are high (75^{th} and 90^{th} percentiles; see Table 38). Again, the index of moderated-mediation was non significant ($b = .09$, $SE = .08$, CI = -.03 to .26), suggesting

only partial mediated-moderation. Limited support is found for Hypothesis H9a as the relationship between moral motivation and turnover intentions is the opposite of that predicted.

Table 38: Conditional indirect effects of mentors' *ethical role modelling* (X) on protégé turnover intentions (Y3) via their moral motivation (M) at levels of mentor prototypicality (W) – PROCESS model 8

	Moral motivation[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Mediator variable model				
Constant	.7965	.8474	.9399	.3488
Ethical role modelling	.4005	.2120	1.8890	.0609
Mentor prototypicality	-.0250	.1527	-.1639	.8701
Interaction	.2705	.0928	2.9155	.0041
	Turnover intentions[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Dependent variable model				
Constant	2.1217	1.6615	1.2770	.2037
Moral motivation (mediator)	.3242	.1629	1.9904	.0485
	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI
Conditional indirect effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	.0627	.1106	-.1164	.3223
25th Percentile	.1153	.1071	-.0311	.4129
50th Percentile	.1328	.1111	-.0145	.4584
75th Percentile	.1679	.1255	.0017	.5648
90th Percentile	.2030	.1464	.0059	.6759

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit.

[a] Control variables = protégé age, mentor age, nature of mentoring relationship, ethical guidance

Hypothesis H9b proposes that protégé moral motivation is negatively related to their turnover intentions and mediates the negative relationship between protégé perceptions of *ethical guidance* and their turnover intentions, and this indirect effect is stronger when mentor prototypicality is strong rather than weak. Against predictions, the relationship between protégés moral motivation and their turnover intentions was significant but positive (not negative as predicted) ($b = .34$, $t = 2.05$, $p < .05$). The lower and upper confidence intervals

of all conditional indirect effects included zero, indicating that the relationship was non-significant. Hence, hypothesis H9b is rejected (see Table 39).[10,11,12]

Table 39: Conditional indirect effects of mentors' *ethical guidance* (X) on protégé turnover intentions (Y3) via their moral motivation (M) at levels of mentor prototypicality (W) – PROCESS model 8

	Moral motivation[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Mediator Variable Model				
Constant	-.6937	.8725	-.7951	.4279
Ethical Guidance	.0399	.1730	.2304	.8181
Mentor Prototypicality	.0128	.1514	.0846	.9327
Interaction	.3264	.0940	3.4719	.0007
	Turnover intentions[a]			
	B	SE	t	p
Dependent variable model				
Constant	8.3108	1.7283	4.8086	.0000
Moral motivation (mediator)	.3374	.1647	2.0483	.0424
	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI
Conditional indirect effect at mentor prototypicality				
10th Percentile	-.0709	.1023	-.3705	.0744
25th Percentile	-.0048	.0817	-.1752	.1664
50th Percentile	.0172	.0803	-.1111	.2284
75th Percentile	.0613	.0868	-.0531	.3146
90th Percentile	.1053	.1034	-.0272	.4029

Note: N = 152. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit.

[a] *Control variables = protégé age, mentor age, nature of mentoring relationship, ethical role modelling*

[10] The mediated moderation analysis was conducted without using control variables. In all six cases, the conditional indirect effects were non-significant. Thus, no support for moderated mediation was found.

[11] The mediated moderation analysis was conducted by adding ethical climate as control variable. In all six cases, the conditional indirect effects were non-significant. Thus, no support for moderated mediation was found.

[12] The mediated moderation analysis was conducted with overall OCB (with the usual controls). The results were the same: No support for moderated mediation was found.

6.5 Discussion

In this section, we addressed the second of two research questions of the thesis, namely is ethics-related mentoring important in developing ethical leaders, and if so, when and why. This section summarises the findings from the model testing, followed by a discussion as well as the theoretical and practical implications. Next, the limitations of this study and areas for future research are identified.

6.5.1 Summary of findings

This study had two objectives. The secondary objective of this study was to conduct a replication study of the reliability and validity of the ethics-related mentoring scale developed in Study 1. The study confirmed a two-factor (not three-factor) model of ethics-related mentoring, consisting of ethical role modelling (8 items) and ethical guidance (7 items). Evidence supports that they are reliable, independent and valid measures of ethics-related mentoring, and provides us with the confidence that the measure is suitable for use in the current study and future research.

The primary objective of this research was to provide support for the role of ethics-related mentoring as a determinant of ethical leadership and other ethics-related protégé outcomes (i.e., OCB altruism and turnover intentions). To interpret when and why these relationships arise, we developed a mediated-moderation model. First, we tested the association of mentor's ethical role modelling, and ethical guidance, with ethical leadership, providing the answer to the question, how can ethical leaders be developed more deliberately. Findings show that mentor's ethical role modelling is positively related to protégé ratings of their own ethical leadership behaviour and their OCB altruism. Against expectations, the second dimension of ethics-related mentoring, i.e., ethical guidance, is not related to protégé ethical leadership and and OCB altruism. However, on the positive side, this result shows that both dimensions are independent of one another. Furthermore, we

tested the main effects of ethical role modelling and ethical guidance on turnover intentions. No main effects were found.

Moreover, we found support that the relationships between both mentor ethical role modelling and ethical guidance and protégés own ethical leadership, and OCB altruism are a function of their mentors' prototypicality. Hence, mentor prototypicality acts as a moderator between mentor's ethics-related support and protégé's ethics-related behaviour. Specifically, when mentor prototypicality was high, which means that the mentor shares similar characteristics with the group/organisation in the eyes of the protégé, the effect of mentor's ethics-related support on protégé ethical leadership and OCB altruism is stronger than the effect when mentor prototypicality was low. In fact, the later analysis of the conditional direct effects revealed that the relationship between ethical guidance and OCB altruism became negative when mentors were perceived as non-prototypical.

Efforts were also made to explore protégé's moral motivation as a mediating mechanism through which protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring affect protégé ethics-related outcomes. While a similar interaction effect was found to predict protégés' moral motivation, our findings suggest that moral motivation was not a strong mediator in our conceptual model. The results from this thesis only confirm the mediating role of moral motivation in the influence of ethical role modelling provided by prototypical mentors on the development of protégé ethical leadership and the reduction of protégé turnover intention. Although the findings are not entirely disappointing, several other factors may influence the relation between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and protégé's ethical behaviours. In the following, we outline four potential mediators that can be tested in future studies. By so doing, it is anticipated that this research will provide the momentum to enhance further interest in exploring the mechanisms through which ethics-related mentoring may shape protégé behaviour and attitudes. After that, we discuss the implications and limitations of this study.

6.5.2 Suggesting alternative mediators

In this thesis, we focussed on the mediating role of protégé moral motivation, which is also known as Rest's (1986) third psychological component of ethical decision-making. Future researchers may want to investigate Rest's other components of morality as potential mediators of the relationship between perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and protégés' ethical behaviour. According to his model, ethical behaviour involves at least four psychological components: *moral awareness* (i.e., being aware that there is a moral problem); *moral judgement* (i.e., making a judgment about which course of action is morally right or fair and determining a course of action); *moral motivation* (i.e., giving priority to moral values above other personal values, such that an intention to do what is morally right is formed); and *moral behaviour* (i.e., having courage and implementing skills to carry out a line of action) (Rest, 1986; Rest et al., 1999).

The idea behind Rest's (1986) model is that a person must first become aware that a moral problem exists in a situation (i.e., moral awareness). This also implies that a moral standard exists to which behaviour can be compared. Once a person becomes aware of a moral issue, he or she can begin to judge what is right. Usually referred to as moral judgement, cognitive development scholars (Kohlberg 1984, Piaget, 1932; Rest, 1986) depict moral reasoning as the logical processes through which a person construes and evaluates moral conflicts (MacCallum, 1991). Kohlberg (1984) and Rest (1986) who extended Kohlberg's cognitive moral development (CMD) approach to researching moral reasoning propose that individuals develop their ethical predispositions through three stages, i.e., pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional. The pre-conventional level (Kohlbergian stages 1 and 2) is characterised by concerns with punishment or reward; the conventional level (stages 3 and 4) relies on the expectations of significant others or norms and rules; and the post-conventional level (stages 5 and 6) is characterised by the use of higher, universal principles of justice and rights to determine the most moral course of action in difficult situations. Treviño et al. (2006) note that research has found that people only rarely attain

this more advanced level and that Kohlberg's six stages can be used to characterise manager's moral reasoning in ethical business situations. Moral awareness and judgement are generally considered cognitive processes that serve as precursors to moral motivation and behaviour (ibid.). With that said, we expect that moral awareness and moral reasoning mediate the relationship between the mentors' provision of ethics-related mentoring and the protégés' development of ethical leadership and altruistic behaviour[13].

Other mediators may also influence the relation between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and protégé's ethical behaviours. In their theoretical work, Hannah et al. (2011a) explored moral efficacy and moral courage as elements of moral conation capacities that contribute to moral motivation and moral action, and that can be developed through training initiatives. Based on social cognitive theory, we suggest that protégé moral efficacy and courage mediate the relationships that were hypothesised in this research, as will be discussed now.

Hannah et al. (2011a, p675) defined moral efficacy as "an individual's belief in his or her capabilities to organize and mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, means, and courses of action needed to attain moral performance, within a given moral domain, while persisting in the face of moral adversity". In their theoretical paper, the authors proposed that higher levels (or lower levels, respectively) of moral efficacy will be associated with higher (or lower) levels of moral motivation and moral action (ibid.). Moral efficacy can be an important pathway mediating the effect of mentor's provision of ethical role modelling and ethical guidance on protégé's ethical leadership and altruistic behaviour. In his social cognitive

[13] In this thesis, we wanted to explore the mediating mechanism of protégé moral awareness and protégé moral reasoning, too. Unfortunately, we were not able to test these variables as a result of rating issues. Jackson's (2001) Questionnaire on Ethical Attitudes was used to measure moral awareness. The bimodal distribution skewed histogram suggested that respondents have misunderstood the items. Moral reasoning was measured using Reidenbach and Robin's (1990) Multidimensional Ethics Scale. The skewed rather than normally distributed histogram also suggested that the scale may be misleading, and thus not completely suitable for analysis. Future research may want to revisit the scale instructions, scale items, and answer format to determine their usefulness in studies.

theory of morality, Bandura (1991, p69) notes that “the stronger the perceived self-regulatory efficacy, the more perseverant people are in their self-controlling efforts and the greater is their success in resisting social pressures to behave in ways that violate their standards. A low sense of self-regulatory efficacy heightens vulnerability to social pressures for transgressive conduct”. Efficacy beliefs, including moral efficacy beliefs, are usually determined and modified by four principal sources of information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states (Bandura, 1997).

We agree with Day and Allen (2004) who examined whether career self-efficacy mediated the relationship between mentoring provided and protégé outcomes that two of these sources are especially important to the mentoring relationship, i.e., vicarious experience, and verbal persuasion. With respect to this thesis, ethical role modelling provided by mentors should provide protégés with this vicarious experience. By observing what is morally right or wrong from their mentors and by learning how to perform their job (also as a leader) in an ethical manner, protégés’ beliefs in their moral efficacy should be strengthened. Second, verbal persuasion should also contribute to moral efficacy, that is, mentors can tell their protégé that he or she possesses the skills and capabilities to master the difficult situation at hand. Bandura (1997) noted that social persuasion techniques are more effective as an intervention when provisional aids are also provided. As mentors also provide ethical guidance to their protégés (e.g., he or she helps the protégé to make decisions with ethical and moral implications), the mentoring experience helps protégés to learn what moral standards are and how to systematically apply those standards. Protégés of ethical mentors should also have higher feelings of competence in their job and leadership position.

Empirical work on moral efficacy is in its early stage. Lee, Choi, Youn and Chun (2017) found that moral efficacy mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and moral voice. With respect to the literature on mentoring, Day and Allen (2004) found partial support

for career self-efficacy as a mediator between mentoring and indicators of career success. Given the above arguments and the positive empirical findings, we expect moral efficacy to be a mediator in the relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and the development of protégé ethical behaviour.

The second proposed mediating variable, i.e., moral courage, has been defined by several scholars. Among others, Hannah, Avolio and Walumbwa (2011b, p560) defined moral courage as "1) a malleable character strength, that 2) provides the requisite conation needed to commit to personal moral principles, 3) under conditions where the actor is aware of the objective danger involved in supporting those principles, 4) that enables the willing endurance of that danger, 5) in order to act ethically or resist pressure to act unethically as required to maintain those principles". Lopez et al. (2010, p23) described it as "the behavioral expression of authenticity in the face of the discomfort of dissension, disapproval or rejection". May, Chan, Hodges and Avolio (2003, p255) defined moral courage in the workplace as "the fortitude to convert moral intentions into actions despite pressures from either inside or outside of the organization to do otherwise". All three definitions make clear that a morally courageous person is praised for standing up for his or her principles, however, he or she may face negative consequences or disapproval by others.

In their theoretical work, Hannah et al. (2011a) suggest that moral efficacy is the foundation for moral courage because individuals need great confidence in their abilities to justify a courageous moral action and to deal with potential or actual threats related to it. The authors proposed that not only moral efficacy but also moral courage is a significant determinant regarding the levels of moral motivation and moral action. Researchers have suggested that (moral) courage is "malleable or state-like rather than trait-like in nature" (May, Luth & Schwoerer, 2014, p71), and have proposed that mentoring offers an excellent opportunity for developing moral courage in others (Lester, Vogelgesang, Hannah & Kimmey, 2010; Simola, 2016). The close mentor-protégé relationship allows protégés to explore what it means to be morally courageous. Lester et al. (2010) draw on the learning

mechanisms set out in Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory and the self-efficacy literature (i.e., mastery experiences, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological and emotional arousal) to explain the proposed connection. They suggest that (1) mentors can be role models in the development of courage in protégés through their observations of the mentor; (2) mentors can help protégés understand of where and how they are expected to show moral courage in a given profession, for example, by transmitting their own personal and professional values; (3) mentors may use self-disclosure, that is, they can provide personal stories about situations in which they hesitated or failed to show moral courage and how they solved the issue; and in situations that call for morally courageous action (4) mentors can offer counsel, for example, by assisting their protégés in identifying the potential courses of action available. In the light of painful emotional outcomes for morally courageous people, Simola (2016) similarly argues that mentoring provides much-needed support and encouragement. Thus, when mentors provide ethics-related mentoring in the form of ethical role modelling and ethical guidance, we expect that protégés develop moral courage to face challenging situations and manifest beliefs into ethical action.

Hannah and Avolio (2010) noted that empirical research on moral courage is nascent, particularly in terms of its relationship to leadership. Recently, authentic leadership has been linked to followers' moral courage and their ethical and pro-social behaviours (Hannah et al., 2011b). Also, May et al. (2014) found that moral courage can be developed in individuals in educational settings. On the basis of the aforementioned arguments and the empirical results, we expect that moral courage mediates the relationship between the mentors' provision of ethics-related mentoring and the protégés' development of ethical leadership and altruistic behaviour.

6.5.3 Implications

In the four subsections that follow, we summarise the theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions to the literature, namely the mentoring, prototypicality, ethical leadership, and turnover literature, as well as the practical implications for organisations.

6.5.3.1 Implications for theory

We make a theoretical contribution by bringing social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) and social identity theory of leadership (Hogg, 2001) together in order to explain the moderating role of mentor prototypicality. Bandura's (1986) SCT is shown to have high potential use for human resource development because of its comprehensive nature for explaining learning and behaviour (Gibson, 2004b). In his social cognitive theory of moral thought and action, Bandura (1991) argues that people develop moral standards from a variety of influences and that the exemplified standards carry more weight when the person modeling those standards has *social power and status*. In his social identity theory of leadership, Hogg (2001) develops the idea that group membership influences the social perception processes of followers, which in turn affect leadership emergence and maintenance of power. One of his key arguments is that as group identity becomes stronger, the basis for leadership perceptions, evaluations, and endorsement becomes noticeably influenced by *prototypicality*. By having combined both theories, we were able to extend the notion of the model's social power and status, and thus to suggest that prototypicality of the mentor acts as a boundary condition on the extent to which mentors provide ethics-related mentoring to their protégés.

6.5.3.2 Implications for methodology

Another significant contribution made by this thesis is the development and validation of the two-dimensional ethics-related mentoring scale measuring ethical role modelling, and ethical guidance. As such, we further mentoring research by extending mentoring roles beyond the established, i.e., career, psychosocial and role modelling roles (e.g., Kram, 1985; Scandura, 1992; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). In order to ensure that the instrument was psychometrically sound, the recommendations made by Hinkin (1998) and De Vellis (2012) were closely applied. Given that research on ethics-related mentoring is in its nascent stage, a deductive approach was used to generate items, and efforts were made to ensure context-independence of the measure through comparing the views of different interview partners from various industries, and with different occupational backgrounds. Moreover, the scale was tested in a different sample to further increase the rigour of the scale development process. The final measure demonstrates good reliability and predictable relationships with variables in the nomological network of ethics-related mentoring. It was further shown that the newly-developed ethics-related mentoring scale and the well recognised ethical leadership scale (Brown et al., 2005) measure similar but yet not identical constructs. Finally, the two-dimensional measure is relatively short (15 items) and can be readily incorporated into survey research.

6.5.3.3 Implications for empirical work

This research has empirical implications in at least three areas. First, it has important implications for the mentoring literature. We provide first empirical evidence on the effects of perceived ethics-related mentoring on important protégé outcomes. As we showed that one of its subdimensions, i.e., ethical role modelling, is positively related to ethical leadership, this study contributes to the limited research on the antecedents of perceived ethical leadership. It represents an important step in examining how ethical leadership can be developed and extends the work of Brown and Treviño (2014) who studied the role of career models in

general. With our work, we start to close the gap in the ethical leadership literature on how ethical leaders can be developed. In the future, this development tool can be analysed in more detail in order to find out which specific characteristics of the mentoring programme (e.g., internal versus external mentoring, supervisory versus non-supervisory mentoring, formal versus informal mentoring) impact most on ethical leadership development. Further, we contribute to the mentoring literature by showing that mentor prototypicality acts as a moderator between providing ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical leadership and OCB altruism, respectively. The influence of mentor characteristics as a boundary condition of protégé outcomes has rarely been examined (cf., meta-analyses conducted by Allen et al., 2008; Eby et al., 2013). With that said, this study advances our understanding of how mentor characteristics – in particular, mentor prototypicality – can influence the effectiveness of providing mentoring support. In so doing, we also respond to the call for exploring the mechanisms through which mentoring works (Wanberg et al., 2003).

Second, our findings extend the literature of leader group (or organisational) prototypicality. As already noted in Section 3.2, one of the main ideas behind Hogg's (2001) social identity theory of leadership is that prototypical leaders (in comparison to less prototypical leaders) are seen as exemplifying the shared group or organisational identity, and as representing what defines the group and distinguishes it from other groups. Leadership studies have examined the moderating effects of leader (group) prototypicality on employee feelings of respect and leader endorsement (Koivisto & Rice, 2016; Ullrich, Christ & van Dick, 2009), shared leadership (Grille, Schulte & Kauffeld, 2015), leader effectiveness (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), employees' trust in coworkers (Seppälä, Lipponen & Pirttilä-Backman, 2012), employee's creativity (Hirst et al., 2009), and employee's status judgements (i.e., pride and respect; Lipponen et al., 2005). To our knowledge, this is one of the first studies that looks at *prototypicality of the mentor*. Previously, Cai (2014) found support for the moderating role of mentor prototypicality in the mentoring-socialisation link. This study found similar findings, that is, when mentor

prototypicality is high, support from ethical mentors in the form of ethical role modelling and ethical guidance is more likely to lead protégés to develop ethical leadership and altruistic behaviour. Interestingly to note is that the reference frame was the protégé's organisation when answering the questionnaire items (e.g., "My mentor represents what is characteristic about my organisation"). The present results, therefore, invite a broader understanding of leader (group or organisation) prototypicality.

Third and finally, the results have implications for the ethical leadership literature, since this thesis made efforts to not only develop a rigorous new measurement tool of ethics-related mentoring, but also to then apply this scale in order to test a conceptual model connecting ethics-related mentoring and, most importantly, ethical leadership. In their review, Brown and Mitchell (2010) called for more research on the antecedents of ethical leadership. So far, only a handful of studies have empirically examined the antecedents of ethical leadership. Those that have, investigated the "trickle-down" effect of ethical leadership (Mayer et al., 2009), the Big-Five personality attributes (Kalshoven et al., 2011a; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), as well as ethics-related leader characteristics such as cognitive moral development (Jordan et al., 2013), moral identity (Mayer et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2016), and moral attentiveness (Zhu et al., 2016). However, situational predictors of ethical leadership were yet under-explored. With our work, we start to close this gap, as we provide first empirical evidence on the positive effects of ethical role modelling provided by mentors on the development of protégé ethical leadership. Our results are in line with the qualitative investigation conducted by Treviño et al. (2003) who revealed that having an ethical role model is an important antecedent of ethical leadership. Similarly, interviews done by Weaver et al. (2005) found that individuals who had been influenced by an ethical behaviour (e.g., caring, honesty, and fairness) agreed that having an ethical role model was an important antecedent of ethical leadership. Moreover, our results extend previous quantitative research on career models in general (Brown & Treviño, 2014) and demonstrate the value of ethical mentors as predictor of ethical leadership.

6.5.3.4 Implications for practice

The results from this research have a number of practical implications. First and foremost, our findings suggest that organisations are able to promote ethical leadership by employing mentoring programmes within their organisations. More specifically, the results suggest that prototypical mentors play an important role in the occurrence of altruistic and ethical leadership behaviour of protégés in organisations by providing ethical role modelling and ethical guidance. Thus, this research informs organisations about a new way of developing future ethical leaders. They may want to incorporate this information into mentor selection, matching, and training initiatives. We discuss this possibility in detail below.

Organisations that are interested in promoting ethical conduct in general and ethical leadership in particular should make efforts to identify and select mentors that have a reputation for being ethical. By selecting only those individuals that have the "requisite abilities, skills and interests, organizations may be able to avoid the negative potential consequences of ineffective relationships" (Allen & Poteet, 1999, p68). Research on role modelling, in general, suggests that older employees tend to learn from both positive (i.e., learn how to behave) and negative (i.e., learn how not to behave) role models (Gibson, 2003). Although protégés always have the choice of how to behave, the possibility is there that protégés who are committed to an unethical mentor may be encouraged to act unethically (Taylor & Curtis, 2016). Hence, efforts should be made to identify the "right" mentors. In view of our key informants, ethical mentors are highly regarded for their integrity, honesty, and trustworthiness. They care about their protégés and treat them with respect. They are approachable and good listeners and encourage openness in the mentor-protégé relationship. Ethical mentors have clear personal values and moral principles in place. When making decisions and actions, they hold to a solid set of ethical values and principles. They also show a strong concern for business ethics and promote long-term growth rather than short-term goals. Hence, in terms of traits, behaviours, and decision-making, the ethical

mentor has a lot in common with the moral person component of ethical leaders (cf., Treviño et al., 2000).

Further, Mayer et al. (2009) found that ethical leadership flows from one organisational level to the next. We, therefore, suggest that top management is involved in the selection of mentors. In fact, Cranwell-Ward and colleagues (Cranwell-Ward, Bossons & Grover, 2004), Clutterbuck (2004), and others, recognise the importance of top management commitment to the success of a mentoring programme. Cranwell-Ward et al. (2004, p60) pointed to the dangers of not involving senior people: *""Why wasn't I asked?" was a question the scheme manager had to address from a number of senior people in the organization, whom it had been assumed would have been too busy to be interested"*. Moreover, although typical time constraints of top managers may suggest something else, they may even want to mentor others as well (cf., Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004). In this respect, one interviewee from Study 1, who sits on several supervisory boards of large companies, noted that *"I am now 63 years old, and I observe that many colleagues of my vintage are very willing to share their wealth of experience with young people and also to give advice, and then, of course, to be a mentor".*

However, being an ethical mentor is not sufficient. Allen and Poteet (1999, p68) further noted that "even well-intentioned individuals who are genuinely interested in mentoring others may not possess the skills to effectively do so". With that said, our results suggest that it is worthwhile to select those mentors for a mentoring programme who are most prototypical. The reason is that ethical role modelling and ethical guidance were positively related to protégé's altruistic behaviour, but *only* when they perceived their mentor to be prototypical. The same applied to the relationship between ethical guidance and ethical leadership. It is also interesting to note that having a non-prototypical mentor who provides ethical guidance leads to the contrary effect; the protégé would not behave altruistic but egoistic.

Yet, selecting prototypical mentors, in general, is only the first step. The finding also has implications for the matching process. As noted by van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005), “as a function of the match between personal characteristics and group-prototypical characteristics, some group members are more prototypical than others”. Consequently, the person responsible for selecting mentors and the protégé who is appointed to a particular mentor might have different perceptions of mentor prototypicality. We, therefore, suggest that protégés are allowed to choose among mentors, or at least, that protégés are surveyed for information that is used in the matching process. This recommendation is in line with the opinions of various mentoring experts. For example, Chao et al. (1992, p634) suggested that the “practice of random assignment of protégés to mentors is analogous to blind dates”. Viator (1999) found that allowing the protégé to have input into the matching process is associated with higher protégé satisfaction with the mentor.

The reality of organisational life is, however, that mentors are often not selected by protégés but are appointed by third parties. Previous research clearly shows that organisations vary regarding the degree that they manage the matching process versus how much control is given to mentors and protégés, respectively. Ragins et al. (2000) were interested in how mentors and protégés are matched and connected. They analysed the data of 1.162 respondents and found that 63.2% of the respondents indicated that mentors and protégés were assigned to each other; only 15.2% indicated that it was a mutual decision; and 3.2% indicated that the protégé chose the mentor. Viator (1999) also examined the role of the matching process in formal mentoring programmes. His results showed variability in how protégés were matched with their mentors, with 197 participants indicating they had input into the selection of their mentor (e.g., protégé submitted a list of candidates) and 113 participants indicating no input. However, the drawback of not involving the protégé in the matching process is that the assigned mentor may or may not represent the organisation’s identity in the eyes of the protégé. Nevertheless, this point should be taken into account by programme managers when deciding to match a mentor with a protégé, in that it may be

useful to select mentors on the basis of the extent to which they represent core values of the organisation. This suggests that it may be worthwhile to select those mentors for a mentoring programme who are most prototypical. In so doing, it is necessary (and probably more important) to recognise how the protégé himself defines its characteristics.

To round up the discussion on mentor selection and matching, we like to give a practical and pragmatic example. One of the interviewees in Study 1, who was a senior manager in a major oil company and one of the persons responsible for the new mentoring programme, noted that the top management wanted to start an internal mentoring programme to foster the company's culture. With respect to mentor selection, he noted: *"The management looked out for suitable mentors. 'Who does it?' – 'You do not do it, please. You are not a mentor. Think about it again' ... and in other cases, we said: 'You have to join in! […]'"*. With respect to the matching process, he further noted: *"The list of mentors was published on the bulletin board. The programme enjoyed a large interest. Protégés had free choice. Mentors were then asked if they would do it. […] It worked great".*

The current findings also draw some important implications for mentor training. Mentors should be trained to understand the importance of their role of providing ethics-related mentoring (e.g., developing protégé moral character and ethical behaviour; institutionalising business ethics) and how they can become ethical role models for their protégés. Training topics could include things like communicating the importance of ethics, serving as ethical role models and providing ethical guidance. In order to inform mentors about their additional role, practitioners can use the questions from the semi-structured interviews (see Section 5.2.1.1, and Appendix 1 for details), the coding frame for the interviews (see Section 5.2.1.3 for details), and the items of the ethics-related mentoring scale (see Section 6.3.1.3 for details). Also, training on the key components of social cognitive and social learning theory may prove useful. Our recommendation is in line with suggestions made by previous researchers. Allen, Eby and Lentz (2006) found that training for mentors had direct effects on programme understanding and perceived programme effectiveness. Further, qualitative

research conducted by Eby and Lockwood (2005) revealed that many mentors who participate in formal mentoring programmes repeatedly report frustration related to not understand what the programme is supposed to accomplish or how to effectively utilise the relationship as a developmental experience.

However, it is important to note that, based on the results of the interviews conducted in Study 1, ethics training programmes for mentors should be aligned with mentors' needs and expectations. While first time mentors may be interested in receiving information to feel (more) prepared for their work as a mentor, more experienced mentors may think that training is not appealing. The interviews revealed that it is important to *raise the awareness* of being an ethical mentor and its influence on protégé development. As one of the mentoring experts noted, *"all mentors have a practiced ethic that they use consciously and unconsciously, and that is an integral part of this work*". The majority of mentors also noted that they are interested in experience exchanges with other mentors (i.e., asking questions about, *"How is it going with your protégé? What are your topics?")* and collegial advice among themselves (i.e., asking questions about, *"How are you doing this and that?")*. Hence, a pragmatic workshop approach, which first highlights the importance of providing ethics-related mentoring and its potential to develop future ethical managers, and then focuses on face-to-face discussions and experience exchanges with other mentors, may be more effective than providing theoretical tools.

But to be clear, we suggest that programme managers enter into a dialogue with mentors before developing ethics training for this specific group. This effort may be worthwhile. We agree with Delaney and Sockell (1992) that ethics programmes can positively impact behaviour within an organisation; however, the imposition of such training by law or regulation may not result in positive benefits. Moreover, as noted by Treviño and Youngblood (1990, p384), "ethical behaviour in organizations is a complex phenomenon by the interplay of individual differences, how individuals think about ethical decisions, and how organisations manage rewards and punishments". Research has also shown that formal

codes of ethics do not have a strong influence on employee behaviours, whereas day-to-day interactions with managers do (Treviño et al., 2006). We conclude that the same is true for interactions with mentors, as "mentoring uniquely involves the sharing of experience and information between current leaders and future leaders" (Wanberg et al., 2003, p84). Thus, this research may serve as awareness-raising to mentors about the importance of their ethical role modelling and ethical guidance behaviour to the protégés that look up to them.

6.5.4 Limitations

However, the current study is not without its limitations. First, the study suffered from a limited sample size. Past research has demonstrated that restricted sample sizes can have a negative effect on analysis; it is possible that this may have hampered the robustness of the derived results, as a result of reduced statistical power (e.g., Collins & Morris, 2008; Tett et al., 2009). Further, Salgado (1998) reported that the average sample size in typical criterion-related validity studies (N = 153) is too small to generate stable, generalisable conclusions. Our study included a sample of 152 participants which is equal to the mean sample size from which Salgado (ibid.) derived his conclusions. Therefore, all non-significant findings in the present study should be considered with caution given this weakness. It is completely feasible that the hypothesised mediated moderation interactions do exist, but were not detected as a result of this reduced statistical power. Hopefully, future research can use a larger sample compared to this study in order to achieve better mediated moderation results.

Due to the comparatively small sample size, it was not possible to include the overall measure of OCB in the analysis. We, therefore, decided to focus our analysis on OCB altruism only (cf., Section 6.4.3), and thus to exclude the other four dimensions of Organ's (1988) OCB framework (i.e., courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). As outlined in Section 3.1.2, OCB altruism is sometimes associated with being a measure of OCBs directed at helping other individuals (cf., Williams & Anderson, 1991; OCB-*I*). As our study was not able to examine OCBs directed at the organisation (cf., Williams & Anderson,

1991; OCB-*O*), future research may want to use Organ's (1988) OCB civic virtue as a proxy measure for this.

Further, our sample included employees for whom the leader and mentor are actually the same person. This may seem confusing given that the aim of the convergent validity analysis was to show that the ethics-related mentoring scale and the ethical leadership scale measure similar but not identical constructs. We like to note that we did not run additional tests (e.g., exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis on subsample), as the subsample of employees with non-supervisory mentors would only have been N = 111 and this would not have meet minimum sample size requirements for a valid EFA and CFA (Hinkin, 1998), thus limiting the meaningfulness of any results received. What we did, instead, was to control for whether the protégé's mentor was also the line manager in all subsequent model testing.

Another limitation of this study is that it relies on self-reports of protégés. Although methods based on self-reported data are commonly used in mentoring (Allen et al., 2008) and in wider social science research, there are problems associated with the accuracy of individuals' responses. First, eliciting honest responses is a challenge, when studying sensitive topics that may raise individuals' concerns with the image they are projecting when describing their attitudes and behaviours. Questions about protégé ethical behaviours are particularly likely to elicit socially desirable responses, given the positive social value associated with ethics and morality. In fact, research has found that managers' self-ratings of their own performance are unrelated to ratings made by superiors and followers (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994). This suggests that participants in this study (i.e., protégés who work in a leadership position or management level role) may have rated themselves in a favourable light when having been asked about their moral motivation, and ethical behaviours.[14] Second, the honesty of responses is an issue, when studying

[14] We acknowledge the widespread criticism of using self-report data. However, as already noted in the limitations section in Study 1 (see Section 5.4.3), we like to stress that there is also empirical research on ethical behaviour, suggesting that self-reports can be very accurate (self-reports of

topics that may raise respondents' concerns about the potential consequences of truthful responses. In other words, protégés in the current research could have been concerned that their responses on ethics-related mentoring would become known to their mentors, and consequently avoided negative descriptions of their mentors. In order to reduce the impact of bias associated with self-reports, not only Study 1 but also Study 2 assured respondents the confidentiality of their responses. Nevertheless, as the present study solely relied on protégé self-report ratings, it is recommended that future research collects employees' evaluations of their supervisors. These ratings provide the best estimates of the protégés' supervisory ethical behaviour.

A further limitation of this study is the use of single source data. Such a protégé-centric approach to data collection may raise concerns relating to common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It is widely assumed that common method bias inflates relationships among the variables as they were measured from the same source. For instance, Podsakoff and Todor (1985, p65) stated "when self-report measures obtained from the same sample are utilized in research, concern over same-source bias or general method variance arises". Organ and Ryan (1995, p779) who conducted a meta-analysis of correlates of OCB stated that "studies that use self-ratings of OCB along with self-reports of dispositional and attitudinal variables invite spuriously high correlations confounded by common method variance". Method variance "produces a potential threat to the validity of empirical findings" (Bagozzi & Yi, 1990, p547). To reduce such common method variance/same-source bias, we separated the collection of the independent and dependent variables (as recommended by Podsakoff et al., 2003) by 2 weeks. In the first wave, protégés rated their mentor's on providing ethics-related mentoring, and on being prototypicality, and they rated their own moral motivation. In the second wave, protégés responded to questions regarding their ethical leadership behaviour,

---

dishonest behaviour; cf., Himmelfarb & Lickteig, 1982; self-reports of cheating, shoplifting, and lying; cf., Beck & Ajzen, 1991).

organisational citizenship behaviour, and their intentions to leave their organisation. Thus, same-source bias was mitigated.

Furthermore, as the independent and dependent variables were measured at different points in time but on only one occasion in each case, this study adopted a quasi-longitudinal design. Although this helps to determine directionality, we cannot confidently assert causal relationships from the present findings, that is, we still cannot affirm that because the predictors (i.e., ethical role modelling, and ethical guidance) were measured prior to the outcomes (i.e., ethical leadership, OCB altruism, and turnover intentions), that they indeed cause these outcomes. Because we did not manipulate X, we cannot rule out the explanation that some of the variance in Y accounted for by X may indeed be accounted for by an earlier Y (Mitchell & James, 2001). Moreover, while we can preclude reverse causality as we have demonstrated that the interaction of protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and mentor prototypicality measured at Time 1 are able to predict ethical leadership and OCB altruism at Time 2, we cannot conclude that these predictors caused improvements and changes in both outcome variables. Day (2011, p563) summarised the work of previous researchers as follows; “Two waves of data are better than one, but not much better. Simply put, two data points provide minimal information about individual change, and also constrains the estimation of change to a linear trend”. In this respect, Singer and Willett (2003) noted that longitudinal data are necessary for studying change. The authors further proposed three methodological features of any study of change: (1) numerous waves of data, (2) a meaningful metric for tracking time, and (3) an outcome with values that change systematically. Nevertheless, given the infancy of ethics-related mentoring research, especially with regards to protégé ethical-behavioural contributions, this study is an important step in investigating the directionality of findings, and thus provides a common starting point for future research to establish the causality of such relationships more definitively.

Also, this study was conducted in the U.S. Therefore, caution must be exercised when generalising the results to other social, economic, and cultural environments. Culture is

important to consider when examining close relationships such as mentoring, since expectations of relationships and acceptable patterns of interaction may vary considerably across cultures (Allen et al., 2008). Allen et al. (ibid.) noted that cultural differences might dramatically influence norms and expectations regarding mentorships in the workplace. As both Study 1 and Study 2 were conducted in Western countries, generalisability should be further addressed. With respect to scale development, Hu, Pellegrini and Scandura (2011) assessed the measurement equivalence of the widely-recognised Mentoring Functions Questionnaire (MFQ-9) across two diverse cultural settings, the U.S. and Taiwan. Their results suggested that MFQ-9 may provide acceptable comparisons and meaningful interpretations across both countries. Their cross-cultural examination is a good starting point when seeking to further validate the ethics-related mentoring scale.

Moreover, it should be noted that the results of this study are limited by the use of an online panel for data collection (i.e., Qualtrics online panel). Landers and Behrend (2015), who propose to reevaluate the legitimacy of using the so-called convenience samples (e.g., online panels, crowdsourcing, and student samples) in comparison with traditional organisational samples in industrial-organizational (I-O) psychology research, provide a description of online panels; Panel participants usually provide demographic or other information to panel organisers who then make this information available to researchers who wish to recruit participants fitting a particular criterion (in our case: respondents *must* have a mentor and work in a leadership position or management role). Panel participants may make the decision to take part (or not) in a particular study on the basis of (1) their interest in the research topic, (2) their availability, or (3) the compensation being offered. They are often paid a small monetary incentive to complete a study, and researchers typically pay both the panel host and participant (ibid.). The advantage of using online panel providers such as

Qualtrics, or crowdsourcing platforms such as Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk)[15], is that researchers can collect inexpensive and easy to obtain data (Buhrmester, Kwang & Gosling, 2011; Smith, Roster, Golden & Albaum, 2016). On the other hand, according to Ford (2017), the main disadvantage of using MTurk data (and to an extent, online panel data in general) is that some respondents are likely to be *cheaters* or *speeders*, which are difficult to control properly. Cheaters answer dishonestly, and speeders quickly go through the questions as they are interested in collecting their incentive with as little time spent as possible.

To prevent a situation such as above, we used the assistance of our Qualtrics panels project manager. More specifically, as also recommended by Kees, Berry, Burton and Sheehan (2017) who have provided a comparison across five convenience samples (including a sample from Qualtrics), we discussed data quality expectations before committing to the project. In so doing, we asked the project manager to run a stringent screening. That is, participants have been asked the following two questions: (1) *Do you currently work in a leadership position or management level role?* (2) *Are you currently in a formal or informal mentoring relationship?* If they selected „No", they have been screened out of the survey. Moreover, we conducted a soft launch of the survey (i.e., we gathered 25% of the total sample size) to provide us with an idea of the overall quality of the responses, and to obtain an initial idea of the time needed to respond. The soft launch revealed that the median length of survey completion time was 16 minutes. On that basis, we have added a speeding check (i.e., measured as 1/3 the median soft launch time) that automatically terminated those not responding thoughtfully). Although the keyword entry (i.e., „Qualtrics") in British Library EThOS[16] (2018) database suggests, that this is one of the first doctoral

[15] MTurk is the largest crowdsourcing platform and has become increasingly popular in social science research (Harms & DeSimone, 2015). Since the Amazon Mechanical Turk platform is not available in Europe, we opted for another similar service (i.e., Qualtrics online panel service).

[16] EThOS is the abbreviation for E-Theses Online Service. EThOS is the UK's national thesis service, and provides access to approximately 480,000 doctoral theses awarded by over 120 UK Higher Education institutions. Around 260,000 of theses also provide access to the full text record. Every month around 3,000 new theses are added and an additional 2,000 full text records become accessible (EThOS, 2018).

theses in the UK that has used a Qualtrics sample, we are confident that this convenient sampling strategy was appropriate. As concluded by Landers and Behrend (2015, p162); “Scaring researchers away from these sources [including online panels such as Qualtrics] slows scientific progress unnecessarily. Sample sources like MTurk and other Internet sources are neither better nor worse than other more common convenience samples; they are merely different”.

Finally, it is important to make one note about the newly-developed scale. The results of the scale replication (Study 2) showed that ethical role-modeling and ethical guidance had a high correlation with each other (r = .75). Further, the results of the model testing revealed that ethical role modelling was positively related to protégé ratings of their own ethical leadership behaviour, while ethical guidance was not related to protégé ethical leadership. The same was true for the relationship between ethics-related mentoring and turnover intentions; Protégés who received ethical role modelling were less likely to have intentions to leave the organisations. But again, no main effect was found for the second dimension, i.e. ethical guidance. So against expectations, only ethical role modeling significantly influenced protégé ethical behaviour (when testing for main effects). On the positive side, this finding suggests that both dimensions are independent of one another.

From this, two questions arise that future research needs to adress. The first question is whether ethical role-modeling and ethical guidance relate (i.e., do they have independent effects on outcomes or are they assumed to interact with each other). The second question is whether one can expect differential effects (i.e., do the subscales influence different types of outcome variables and which will these be). Going back into the literature to look at the history of how the sub-dimensions of the “traditional” mentoring functions (e.g., to examine the five subdimensions of career-related mentoring: sponsoring, coaching, protection, challenging assignments, and exposure) influence various outcomes may be a good starting point for this analysis. For instance, Aryee and Chay (1994) found that the five career-related roles were differentially related to three examined work commitment attitudes (organisational,

job, and career); e.g., sponsoring and exposure was significantly correlated with career satisfaction, while three of the five mentor roles – sponsoring, coaching, and challenging assignments – were significantly correlated with organisational commitment. Protection was not significantly correlated with any of the three outcomes variables. Their study, therefore, suggests that mentor roles do not equally but differently predict outcomes. However, as this was beyond the scope of this thesis, we did not further go into detail, and suggest that future studies should explore the differential effects of ethical role modeling and ethical guidance.

6.6 Conclusion

The purpose of Study 2 was two-fold. One objective was to replicate the EFA, CFA, and psychometric analyses of the ethics-related mentoring scales in a different sample. The analyses suggested not a three-dimensional but a two-dimensional measure, consisting of ethical role modelling and ethical guidance. The newly-developed measure was both reliable and valid and therefore opens up new avenues for future research.

The second, and foremost, objective of this study was to test a series of hypothesised relationships. Our findings support the idea that protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring is related to ethical leadership. More specifically, having a prototypical mentor that provides ethical role modelling, and/or ethical guidance is positively related to protégé ethical leadership and protégé OCB altruism, which is said to be the “moral gold standard for ethical leadership”. Overall, these findings suggest that organisations can promote and develop ethical leadership within their organisations by employing mentoring programmes. Having done so, it is important that organisations not only select mentors who have a reputation for being ethical, but who are also perceived by their protégé(s) as being a prototypical member of the organisation.

The present study further investigated a first potential mediator of the above relationship. Our findings suggest that moral motivation only acts as a mediator of the

moderating effect of mentor prototypicality on the correlation between ethical role modelling and ethical leadership and turnover intentions, respectively. We, therefore, conclude that moral motivation is not a strong mediator of the relations. Future research should investigate other potential moderating and mediating mechanisms behind how ethics-related mentoring support affects important protégé outcomes.

"I earn my 5 EUR in an honest manner. It is important to me that one impart this value to protégés. But it is also important to me that one says: 'Is the business that I actually make morally justifiable? Do I look in the mirror in the morning and see if I am still honest?'. Today, it is very hard, especially if you have guidelines ... because you are maybe slower than the others who are around you. But it pays off at some time. The others get faster to the goal, also with fast profit, but after that, they run empty. And oneself has stable and clean results, figures and values".

(Male mentor)

CHAPTER 7

Summary, recommendations for future research and conclusion

7.0 Chapter summary

In this final chapter of the thesis, the main results of the two studies are summarised briefly. Next, the implications for research and practice following from the studies' findings are outlined. This is followed by suggestions for further research in order to expand upon the insights gained from the presented studies. The chapter closes with a conclusion of this thesis.

7.1 Summary of findings

The purpose of this doctorate thesis was two-fold. First, to develop a psychometrically sound instrument measuring protégés' perceptions of ethics-related mentoring. Second, to examine the importance of ethics-related mentoring for protégé ethical behaviour. We have been successful in these endeavours. We provide the mentoring, ethical leadership and behavioural ethics literature with a reliable and valid measure of ethics-related mentoring which consists of two distinct dimensions – ethical role modelling, and ethical guidance. Ethics-related mentoring, therefore, are those aspects of the mentoring relationship that help

protégés to clarify their one's own value system, ethical decision-making skills and ethical behaviour in professional contexts.

We also provide the first testing of the role of ethics-related mentoring in developing protégé ethical behaviour. We began by testing the main effects of ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical behaviour. As predicted, mentor ethical role modelling was found to significantly and positively influence protégé ethical leadership and OCB altruism. Against expectations, mentor ethical role modelling was not significantly related to OCB altruism and protégé turnover intentions. Further, mentor ethical guidance was not significantly related to the three ethical outcomes.

Next, we tested our moderation model. It appears that a positive relationship between mentor ethics-related mentoring (ethical role modelling and ethical guidance) and protégé ethical behaviour (protégé ethical leadership and OCB altruism) was only significant at high levels of mentor prototypicality. In other words, mentors – through their ethical guidance and role modelling – may only be able to influence protégé ethical behaviours when they share the same values and attributes as the wider organisation and group. When mentors are not prototypical to the group and organisation, however, their efforts to influence protégé ethical behaviours through the provision of ethical guidance and role modelling may be in vain.

Finally, we tested our mediated moderation model. While a similar interaction effect between mentor ethics-related mentoring (ethical role modelling and ethical guidance) and mentor prototypicality was found to predict protégé moral motivation, the role of protégé moral motivation in explaining the above effects is less well supported by our findings. That is, partial support for mediated moderation was found for the relationship between mentor ethical role modelling and protégé ethical leadership, as well as between mentor ethical role modelling and protégé intentions to stay in the organisation, while no support was found for

the other hypothesised mediated moderation relationships. It appears, therefore, that moral motivation was not a strong mediator in our conceptual model[17].

7.2 Summary of implications

Our research contributes in four important ways. We first condense the theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions. After that, we briefly summarise the practical implications for organisations. For detailed implications, the reader is referred to Study 2 (see Section 6.5.3).

7.2.1 Implications for research

This thesis makes three significant contributions to advance several streams of research. First, we make a theoretical contribution by bringing social cognitive theory (SCT; Bandura, 1986) and social identity theory of leadership (SITL; Hogg, 2001) together in order to explain the influence of the moderator variable, i.e., mentor prototypicality. This research was underpinned by SCT which suggests that people learn by observing the behaviour of others (i.e., role modelling) and that social power and status can exert a strong impact on modeling. However, Bandura's theory on its own does not explain why mentor prototypicality can act as a moderator in our model since SCT does not explicitly recognise the impact of sharing values and identities. Hogg's (2001) SITL clarifies this. Thus, by combining both theories, we were able to extend the notion of the role model's social power and status, and thus to suggest that mentor prototypicality acts as a boundary condition on the extent to which mentors provide ethics-related mentoring to their protégés.

Second, we make a methodological contribution by developing and validating a scale of perceived ethics-related mentoring (for scale items, see Section 6.3.1.3). Although the

[17] If future research wants to further investigate the influence of protégé moral motivation, we suggest to increase the sample size. For mediator analysis, 300-400 respondents are usually required (e.g., Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007).

replication study revealed not a three-factor but a two-factor solution, we constructed a reliable and valid measure. To date, prior research has tended to hint at an important role for mentors in the ethical development of their protégés, without explicitly exploring, defining, describing and measuring this role and its effects. We, therefore, encourage much more research using our new measure to refine and further develop it as a useful tool for investigating the emotional, attitudinal and behavioural consequences of (ethical) mentoring relationships.

Third, we make an empirical contribution for at least three kinds of literature. Firstly, it has important implications for the mentoring literature. We conducted new research on mentoring by examining the effects of ethics-related mentoring on various protégé outcomes. Our results show that this new mentor function can be important in predicting ethical outcomes, particularly in regard to protégé ethical leadership. From this, it follows that, from now on, mentoring researchers have the opportunity to conduct research that can improve the ethical performance of employees of all organisational levels. In addition, we provide the mentoring literature with new research exploring the boundary conditions of "effective" mentoring – namely the prototypicality of the mentor. To date, the influence of mentor characteristics as a boundary condition of protégé outcomes has rarely been examined (cf., Eby et al., 2013; Allen et al., 2008). Our research, therefore, provides new insights into the mechanisms through which (ethical) mentoring works (Wanberg et al., 2003).

Secondly, our findings provide important implications for the prototypicality literature. To our knowledge, this is the second study that investigated the role of prototypicality of the mentor (i.e., not the leader) in the literature. To the best of our knowledge, we could only find one other study that had explored the importance of mentor prototypicality, with Cai (2014) finding support for the moderating role of mentor prototypicality in the mentoring-socialisation link. Likewise, our results suggest that mentor prototypicality is an important factor in influencing the effectiveness of mentoring programmes. Interestingly to note is that protégés with an internal or external mentor (i.e., he or she worked inside or outside the organisation)

participated in this study. Accordingly, not all mentors were members of the group or organisation. This study therefore suggests a broader understanding of leader prototypicality.

Thirdly, our research has significant implications for the ethical leadership literature, as we examined new antecedents of ethical leadership. So far, only a handful of studies have examined the antecedents of ethical leadership and they have tended to focus on personality traits (e.g., Kalshoven et al., 2011a; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), and leader characteristics, such as moral identity (Mayer et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2016), moral attentiveness (Zhu et al., 2016), and cognitive moral development (Jordan et al., 2013). We extend this research by examining new mentoring behaviours and mentor attributes (prototypicality) as antecedents to employee (protégé) ethical leadership. Our study, therefore, represents an important step in examining how ethical leadership can be formally developed in organisations (Brown & Treviño, 2014).

7.2.2 Implications for practice

In addition to the theoretical advancements discussed above, we make a practical contribution by offering valuable insights to practitioners. First and foremost, mentoring is not only a valuable tool to support the career development and psychosocial development of an individual. Our findings suggest that mentoring, more specifically ethics-related mentoring, whether formal or informal, may be effective in developing ethical leaders. Investment in mentoring programmes, particularly for those private and public organisations keen on developing ethical leaders, may provide an ethical return on this investment.

Second, the findings suggest that – in order for a mentoring programme that promotes ethical conduct to be successful – several requirements should be met. Specifically, the selection and matching, as well as the training of mentors, are crucial. The findings of Study 1 and Study 2 have fed into recommendations which were discussed in detail in the previous chapter (see Section 6.5.3.4). In brief, our research shows that the characteristics of a

mentor are key to the effectiveness of ethics-related mentoring. In particular, only mentors that are prototypical of the group/organisation will effectively influence the altruistic behaviours and ethical leadership behaviours of their protégés. Thus, effective mentor selection is important if this intervention is to be useful. For this reason, we propose that protégés, as well as top management, should be involved in the selection of their mentor-to-be. Indeed, this aligns with research that suggests that informal mentoring relationships are often more valuable than formally allocated mentors (e.g., Ragins & Cotton, 1999). The drawback of not involving the protégé in this matching process is that the assigned mentor may or may not represent the organisation's identity in the eyes of the protégé, thus negating the potential benefits of the programme. Our findings also suggest that mentors should be trained to understand the importance of their role of providing ethics-related mentoring and how they can become ethical role models for their protégés. Training topics could include things like communicating the importance of ethics, serving as ethical role models and providing ethical guidance. Hence, we propose a pragmatic workshop approach, which first raises awareness regarding the importance of ethics-related mentoring and its potential to develop future ethical managers, and which then focuses on face-to-face discussions and experience exchanges with other mentors.

Third and finally, this research has put forward a novel ethics-related mentoring instrument. Since many organisations are seeking to enhance ethical conduct in the workplace, sensitising mentors to engage, e.g. in ethical role modelling behaviours can be considered a notable item on the organisation's agenda. To inform mentors about their additional role, practitioners can use the questions from the semi-structured interviews (see Section 5.2.1.1, and Appendix 1 for details), the coding frame for the interviews (see Section 5.2.1.3 for details) as well as the items of the new scale (see Section 6.3.1.3). Also, practitioners can use this scale for evaluation purposes. As a *one-off measure*, it can assist organisations in identifying ethical mentors, for instance, during selection (or recruitment) decisions. Similarly, the instrument can assist in examining protégés' perceptions of ethics-

related mentoring they receive, and in assessing the influence of ethics-related mentoring on important protégé outcomes. As a *repeated measure*, it can help track the progress of mentors developing their ethical role modelling and ethical guidance behaviour, for example, measuring protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring before and after participation in a mentor training programme.

On a final note, given that robust scale development and validation procedures were closely adhered to in developing the ethics-related mentoring scale, practitioners can rest assured that they are using a valid and reliable instrument. Although self-ratings were not used during scale and hypotheses testing, it may be useful for organisations to take a multi-faceted angle. In other words, they obtain protégé ratings as well as ask mentors to rate themselves. In this way, comparisons can be drawn, gaps can be identified and addressed, and it ensures a more accurate insight.

7.3 Limitations and directions for future research

The methodological limitations of our two studies – that is, among others, the relatively small sample sizes and the self-report nature of our studies – are highlighted in Chapters 5 and 6. If future research attempts to replicate the present findings, the studies should address these limitations. In addition, we propose new directions for research.

Firstly, the new ethics-related mentoring scale requires further testing and validation. We followed recommended procedures for the development of measures (De Vellis, 2012; Hinkin, 1998) and conducted a pilot study to examine the reliability and convergent, discriminant and criterion-related validity of the three-dimensional ethics-related mentoring scale. Against expectations, the factor analysis results of the replication study did not suggest a three-factor structure but a two-factor structure, consisting of ethical role modelling and ethical guidance. Due to reasons of simple structure and parsimony as well as an adequate sample size, we decided to proceed our research efforts with a two-dimensional

scale of ethics-related mentoring. Moreover, although the two independent studies were conducted among mentors and protégés from different industries, functions and organisational levels, generalisability should be further addressed. The present studies were conducted in Germany (Study 1) and the United States (Study 2). Replication of the findings and support for the validity of the ethics-related mentoring scale in different contexts and countries is therefore needed.

Further, given the burgeoning nature of study on ethics-related mentoring, the current research series provides a springboard for future research to extend awareness on ethics-related mentoring, by taking initial steps in investigating the antecedents, outcomes, and boundary conditions of ethics-related mentoring. Future research could, for example, investigate whether unethical behaviours (such as employee theft, sabotage, lying to one's supervisor) are reduced by ethics-related mentoring. Further, Wanberg et al. (2003) note that more research examining the mechanisms through which mentoring is related to protégé outcomes is required, as only a few studies were found looking at this issue (Day & Allen, 2004; Scandura & Lankau, 2002). To date, this is still an open question, which needs further investigation. Future studies can start by examining the mediators that have been proposed as an alternative for future research (i.e., protégé's moral awareness, moral reasoning, moral efficacy, and moral courage; see Section 6.5.2).

Moreover, in this doctorate research, the question "*how* can ethical leaders be developed more deliberately?" was answered by looking at mentoring relationships at work. Future research could expand on the present study by exploring *the extent to which* the development of ethical leadership and other ethics-related outcomes depends on the nature, tenure, and quality of relationships between mentor and protégé. High-quality relationships among mentors and protégés are likely to enhance the impact of positive mentor behaviours (Wanberg et al., 2006). It may, therefore, be useful to test these and other relationships by distinguishing between a) formal and informal mentoring, b) supervisory and non-supervisory mentoring, and c) internal and external mentors.

Further, this study focused on understanding ethics-related mentoring. The “dark” or unethical side of mentoring was not investigated in this research. However, as noted by Taylor and Curtis (2016, p13) “one who is overly trusting of and/or committed to an unethical mentor […] may be encouraged to act unethically”. To gain a good grasp of the mentoring and ethics phenomenon, research is needed to understand the implications of having an ethical and unethical mentor. Bushardt, Moore and Debnath (1982) who discuss important criteria in selecting a mentor suggest that protégés with high moral standards should make sure that their mentor shares these values in order for the relationship to be beneficial. At the same time, the authors note that “life is replete with examples of unethical mentors and protégés teaming together. These relationships often work because both participants share the same values” (p48). A good starting point for future research is Eby and Allen’s (2002) paper on protégé’s negative mentoring experiences. Their findings are consistent with research and theory on ethical leadership. They note that “leader behaviour has been characterized as unethical when an individual is driven by self-interest and relies on manipulation, deception, and dominance to meet one’s own goal” (ibid, p472), and proceed by saying that this orientation is consistent with protégés negative mentoring experiences of overt deceit, sabotage, credit taking, inappropriate delegation and general abuse of power.

Also, future research may benefit from studies that explore the differential main effects of ethics-related, career-related, psychosocial-related and role modelling-related mentoring simultaneously. Although ethics-related mentoring moderately correlates with the traditional mentoring functions, as shown in Study 1 (see Section 5.3.2.4), previous research on the traditional mentor roles suggests that the importance of each mentoring function varies. For example, Scandura and Viator (1994) used quantitative data collection techniques to identify the mentoring functions provided by public accounting mentors; to determine the relative importance of each function; and to examine their association with protégé turnover intentions and specific organisational variables (e.g., protégé gender). Interestingly, they found that the social support function explained the largest percentage of the mentorship

variance (i.e., psychosocial mentoring; 30%), followed by career development (i.e., career-related mentoring; 11%), and role modelling (9%), but of these three mentoring functions, only the career development function was associated with lower protégé turnover intentions. Further, the level of social support did not differ across protégé gender (i.e., female versus male protégés); however, female protégés with a female mentor did report a higher level of social support in comparison to female protégés with a male mentor. The level of career development support and role modelling did not differ by protégé gender (ibid.). This research example, by itself, shows that it will be worthwhile to examine all four mentoring functions (i.e., including ethics-related mentoring) at the same time.

Research on mentoring in general but also ethics-related mentoring in particular could also benefit from more qualitative work. As noted earlier, Allen et al. (2008) conducted a meta-analysis of 207 mentoring studies. With respect to the *research approach*, they found that from 178 empirical studies, only 10,1% were qualitative (or qualitative and quantitative) in nature. Because little was known about the ethical role played by mentors, we took a qualitative approach in the first instance. By conducting semi-structured interviews with key informants, we have advanced our present understanding of ethics-related mentoring, but many fundamental questions are unanswered. For example, what are potential individual and contextual influences on ethics-related mentoring? What are the boundary conditions for ethics-related mentoring? What are the benefits of ethics-related mentoring for the organisation, the mentor, as well as the protégé? The findings would provide research fodder for theory development and future quantitative research on ethics-related mentoring.

Moreover, in terms of the *research setting*, Allen et al. (ibid.) found that 96% of the studies (N = 178) examined mentoring in a field setting (thus, 4.0% of the studies were conducted under laboratory conditions), and in terms of the *research design*, 5.1% used an experimental design (N = 176). Although conducting experimental research in organisational settings is difficult and time-consuming, future research may want to carry out studies on ethics-related mentoring using field experiments. In general, the aim of an experiment is to

establish causality between the studied variables (Keppel, 1991). A classic experiment is characterised by the random allocation of participants to either an experimental group(s), which receives the intervention in which one is interested (i.e., the variable of interest is manipulated in some way), or a control group, which receives no treatment or a placebo intervention that should not have any effect on the dependent variable. By following this procedure, one tries to ensure that both groups are subject to exactly the same external influences and that the observed differences between the groups on the dependent variable can be attributed to the manipulation (Saunders et al., 2016). With respect to ethics-related mentoring, an interesting research question could be to find out how and under which conditions ethics-related mentoring can be trained. Future research can do this by designing and evaluating a mentor training and testing if and when it affects mentor and protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring[18].

Another possibility would be to conduct experiments on ethics-related mentoring in a laboratory rather than in a field setting. In this way, as noted by Saunders et al. (ibid), researchers have greater control over aspects of the research process, i.e., the sample selection and the context within which the experiment takes place. One example for future research would be to manipulate factors such as mentor gender and age, and provide controlled stimuli regarding ethics-related mentoring exchanged during the course of the mentoring relationship. This would permit an objective evaluation of whether (or not) the same ethics-related mentoring behaviours provided by a female/younger mentor are viewed similarly to those provided by a male/older mentor. However, it should be noted, while a laboratory setting improves the internal validity of the experiment (i.e., the extent to which observed results can be attributed to interventions rather than any flaws in the research design), external validity is likely to be more difficult to establish (ibid.). With reference to

[18] This field experiment can make a significant contribution to the training of mentors. Mentor training is a common practice recommendation for formal mentoring programmes (Allen et al., 2006), but empirical research on this topic is still limited (Finkelstein & Poteet, 2010). If conducting an experiment on mentor training and its effects on ethics-related mentoring, future research may want to incorporate the feedback from our interviews and the suggestions made in Section 6.5.3.4.

mentoring, Allen et al. (2008) reason that the near absence of laboratory research on mentoring may be a reflection of the concerns regarding whether or not “real mentoring” is being studied under highly controlled laboratory conditions. But they add to this discussion, that “experimental research is not intended to be generalizable across people, time, and settings. Rather, it is used to test the validity of specific theoretical propositions that may (or may not) have utility in understanding some comparable phenomena in the field” (ibid., p349). For this very reason and as research on ethics-related mentoring is still at an early stage of development, we encourage future research to conduct more experimental research – whether in field or laboratory settings – in this area.

Finally, we proposed social cognitive theory’s social learning (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1991) as the key theoretical process that explains how ethical mentors influence protégés through emulation and vicarious learning. Although not suggested, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) may also help to explain the influence of ethics-related mentoring on protégé outcomes such as altruistic behaviour. According to this theory, people develop trusting or transactional relationships based on their experiences with others. Social exchanges involve a shared identity, loyalty, and emotional connections. A key feature of this theory is that the quality of the relationship between two parties is the most proximal cause of behaviour. This means that people choose their actions, in large measure, on the basis of the type of attachment they have with the other person. Pertinent to this thesis, when protégés are treated fairly by a mentor they trust, they are likely to think about their relationship with the mentor in terms of social exchange (e.g., to engage in constructive voice behaviour). This doctorate research has certainly not exhausted the possible underlying process explanations that might explain these relationships (e.g., trust). Therefore, additional work will be needed to explain these underlying mechanisms and provide evidence of them and their effects.

7.4 Conclusion

As an increasing number of corporate scandals have been exposed over the past decade, there is a growing interest in the topic of ethical leadership. In particular, not only private and public organisations want to know how to develop ethical managers, but also business schools want to equip their students with the skills, attitudes, and vision to become future ethical leaders. This doctorate thesis attempted to address this gap in the research on ethical leadership, by answering the question of how mentoring relates to developing protégé ethical leadership (i.e., the focal outcome of this study) and other ethical outcomes.

In so doing, two research questions were explored in two separate studies: *How do key informants (i.e., mentors, protégés, and experts for mentoring programmes) perceive and understand ethics-related mentoring, and what is the content domain of ethics-related mentoring from their perspectives? Is ethics-related mentoring important in developing ethical leaders, and if so, when and why?* We answered the first question in Study 1 by developing a psychometrically sound two-factor scale (mentor ethical role modelling, and ethical guidance) to measure protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring. We began to answer the second question in Study 2 by finding that mentor prototypicality moderates the relationship between protégé perceptions of ethics-related mentoring and protégé ethical leadership. We also learned that protégé moral motivation is not a strong mediator in our conceptual model. We, therefore, suggested alternative mediators for future research.

We hope this research contributes to a better understanding of the potential role of ethical mentors in building trust in business and governmental leaders. The development of a reliable and construct valid instrument of ethics-related mentoring means that mentoring researchers can very quickly begin to make ethics-related mentoring a part of their research agendas, whereas ethical leadership scholars have the possibility to conduct research that can improve the ethical performance of future leaders and managers. We also hope to spur further study of ethics-related mentoring, its antecedents and additional consequences.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Abassi, S. M. & Hollman, K. W. (2000). Turnover: The real bottom line. *Public Personnel Management*, *2*(3), 333-342.

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Allen, D. G., Bryant, P. C., & Vardaman, J. M. (2010). Retaining talent: Replacing misconceptions with evidence-based strategies. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 24*(2), 48-64.

Allen, T. D., Day, R., & Lentz, E. (2002). Interpersonal comfort in mentorship: A mediating mechanism. *Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Toronto, ON.*

Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., & Lentz, E. (2006). The relationship between formal mentoring program characteristics and perceived program effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, *59*(1), 125-153.

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*(3), 343-357.

Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Mentoring benefits: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(1), 137-149.

Allen, T. D., Finkelstein, L. M., & Poteet, M. L. (2009). *Monitoring and program evaluation. Designing workplace mentoring programs: An evidence-based approach*. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Allen, T. D., & O'Brien, K. E. (2006). Formal mentoring programs and organizational attraction. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *17*(1), 43-58.

Allen T. D., & Poteet, M. L. (1999). Developing effective mentoring relationships: Strategies from the mentor's viewpoint. *Career Development Quarterly*, *48*(1), 59-73.

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., Smith, M. A., Mael, F. A., O'Shea, P. G., & Eby, L. T. (2009). Organization-level mentoring and organizational performance within substance abuse centers. *Journal of Management*, *35*(5), 1113-1128.

Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (1999). Sex differences in business ethics: The importance of perceptions. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, *11*(4), 454-474.

Aquino, K., Freeman, D., Reed II, A., Lim, V. K. G., & Felps, W. (2009). Testing a social-cognitive model of moral behavior: The interactive influence of situations and moral identity centrality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *97*(1), 123-141.

Aquino, K., & Reed II, A. (2002). The self-importance of moral identity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*(6), 1423-1440.

Arbuckle, J. L. (2014). Amos (Version 23.0) [Computer Program]. Chicago: IBM SPSS.

Argote, L., Insko, C. A., Yovetich, N., & Romero, A. A. (1995). Group learning curves: The effects of turnover and task complexity on group performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 25*(6), 512-529.

Arnold, J. (2004). Editorial. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *77*, 1-10.

Aronson, E. (2001). Integrating leadership styles and ethical perspectives. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, *18*(4), 244-257.

Arthur, M. B. (1994). The boundaryless career: A new perspective for organizational inquiry. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *15*(4), 295-306.

Aryee, S., & Chay, Y. W. (1994). An examination of the impact of career-oriented mentoring on work commitment attitudes and career satisfaction among professional and managerial employees. *British Journal of Management*, *5*(4), 241-249.

Ashford, S. J. (1989). Self-assessments in organizations: A literature review and integrative model. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *11*, 233-174.

Atwater, L. E., Ostroff, C., Yammarino, F. J., & Fleenor, J. W. (1998). Self-other agreement: Does it really matter? *Personnel Psychology*, *51*(3), 577-98.

Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Palanski, M. E. (2012). Exploring the process of ethical leadership: The mediating role of employee voice and psychological ownership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *107*(1), 21-34.

Bachman, S. I., & Gregory, K. (1993). Mentor and protégé gender: Effects on mentoring roles and outcomes. *Paper presented at the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology Conference, San Francisco.*

Bagozzi , R. P., & Yi, Y. (1990). Assessing method variance in multitrait-multimethod matrices: The case of self-reported affect and perceptions at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(5), 547-560.

Bailey, S. F., Voyles, E. C., Finkelstein, L., & Matarazzo, K. (2016). Who is your ideal mentor? An exploratory study of mentor prototypes. *Career Development International*, *21*(2), 160-175.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of moral thought and action. In W. M. Kurtinez & J. L. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Handbook of moral behavior and development: Theory, research and applications* (pp. 45-103). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.

Bandura, A. (1999). Moral disengagement in the preparation of inhumanities. *Personal and Social Psychology Review*, *3*(3), 193-209.

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*, 1-26.

Bandura, A., & McDonald, F. J. (1963). Influence of social reinforcement and the behavior of models in shaping children's moral judgments. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67*(3), 274-281.

Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S. A. (1963). A comparative test of the status envy, social power, and secondary reinforcement theories of identificatory learning. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *67*(6), 527-534.

Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1963). *Social learning and personality development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Banks, G. C., Engemann, K. N., Williams, C. E., Gooty, J., McCauley, K. D., & Medaugh, M. R. (2017). A meta-analytic review and future research agenda of charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 28(4)*, 508-529.

Baranik, L. E., Roling, E. A., & Eby, L. T. (2010). Why does mentoring work? The role of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *76*(3), 366-373.

Barnett, B. G. (1990). The mentor-intern relationship: Making the most of learning from experience. *NASSP Bulletin*, *74*, 17-24.

Baron, J. N., Hannan, M. T., & Burton, M. D. (2001). Labor pains: Change in organizational models and employee turnover in young, high-tech firms. *American Journal of Sociology, 106*(4), 960-1012.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173-1182.

Bartlett, M. S. (1950). Tests of significance in factor analysis. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, *3*(2), 77-85.

Bartlett, M. S. (1951). A further note on tests of significance in factor analysis. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, *4*(1), 1-2.

Batson, C. D. (2008). Moral masquerades: Experimental exploration of the nature of moral motivation. *Phenomenology and the Cognitive Sciences*, *7*(1), 51-66.

Batson, C. D. (2014). Are the “principles in his nature, which interest him in the fortune of others” moral? In H. Putnam, S. Neiman, & J. P. Schloss (Eds.), *Understanding moral sentiments: Darwinian perspectives?* (pp. 43-57). Piscataway, NJ: Transaction Publishers.

Baugh, S. G., & Fagenson-Eland, E. A. (2007). Formal mentoring programs: A “poor cousin” to informal relationships? In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 249-272). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Baugh, S. G., Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. (1996). An investigation of the effects of protégé gender on responses to mentoring. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *49*(3), 309-323.

Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, *107* (2), 238-246.

Bentler, P. M. (2007). On tests and indices for evaluating structural models. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *42*(5), 825-829.

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significant tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, *88*(3), 588-606.

Bergin, A. E. (1962). The effect of dissonant persuasive communications upon changes in a self-referring attitude. *Journal of Personality*, *30*(3), 423-438.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley

Bonner, J. M., Greenbaum, R. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2014). My boss is morally disengaged: The role of ethical leadership in explaining the interactive effect of supervisor and employee moral disengagement on employee behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *6*(6), 1-12.

Boomsma, A. (1982). The robustness of LISREL against small sample sizes in factor analysis models. In K. G. Joreskog & H. Wold (Eds.), *Systems under indirect observation: Causality, structure, prediction* (Part 1, pp. 149-173). Amsterdam: North-Holland.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Brand, V. (2009). Empirical business ethics research and paradigm analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *86*(4), 429-449.

Brannick, M. T., Chan, D., Conway, J. M., Lance C. E., & Spector P. E. (2010). What is method variance and how can we cope with it? A panel discussion. *Organizational Research Methods*, *13*(3), 407-420.

Brodbeck, F. C., Frese, M., Akerblom, S., Audia, G., Bakacsi, G., Bendova, H., … Wunderer, R. (2000). Cultural variation of leadership prototypes across 22 European countries (GLOBE survey). *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *73*(1), 1-29.

Brown, M. E. (2007). Misconceptions of ethical leadership: How to avoid potential pitfalls. *Organizational Dynamics*, *36*(2), 140-155.

Brown, M. E., & Mitchell, M. S. (2010). Ethical and unethical leadership: Exploring new avenues for future research. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *20*(4), 583-616.

Brown, M. E., & Treviño, L. K. (2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *17*(6), 595-616.

Brown, M. E., & Treviño, L. K. (2014). Do role models matter? An investigation of role modeling as an antecedent of perceived ethical leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *122*(4), 587-598.

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97*(2), 117-134.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136-162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Bryman, A. (2003). *Quantity and quality in social research*. New York: Routledge.

Buhrmester, M. D., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6*(1), 3-5.

Burke, R. J. (1984). Mentors in organizations. *Group and Organizational Studies*, *9*, 353-372.

Burke, R. J., & McKeen, C. A. (1996). Gender effects in mentoring relationships. *Journal of Social Behavior & Personality*, *11*(5), 91-104.

Burke, R. J., & McKeen, C. A. (1997). Benefits of mentoring relationships among managerial and professional women: A cautionary tale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(1), 43-57.

Burke, R. J., McKeen, C. A., & McKenna, C. S. (1993). Correlates of mentoring in organizations: The mentor's perspective. *Psychological Reports*, *72*(3), 883-896.

Burke, R. J., McKenna, C. S., & McKeen, C. A. (1991). How do mentorships differ from typical supervisory relationships? *Psychological Reports*, *68*(2), 459-466.

Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Social paradigms and organizational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life.* London: Heinemann Educational.

Bushardt, S. C., Moore, R. N., & Debnath, S. C. (1982). Picking the right person for your mentor. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, *47*, 46-51.

Bussey, K., & Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory of gender development and differentiation. *Psychological Review*, *106*(4), 676-713.

Byrne, D. (1971). *The attraction paradigm*. New York: Academic Press.

Cabrera-Nguyen, P. (2010). Author guidelines for reporting scale development and validation results in the Journal of the Society for Social Work and Research. *Journal of the Society for Social Work and Research*, *1*(2), 99-103.

Cai, Z. (2014). The formal mentoring program and socialization outcomes: Testing the assimilation process. *Open Access Theses and Dissertations*. https://repository.hkbu.edu.hk/etd_oa/111

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, G. D., & Flesh, J. (1983). Michigan organizational assessment questionnaire. In S.E. Seashore, E. E. Lawyer, P. H. Mirvis, and C. Cammann (Eds.), *Assessing organizational change: A guide to methods, measures and practices* (pp. 71-138). New York: John Wiley.

Carmines, E. G., & McIver, J. (1981). *Analyzing models with unobserved variables: Analysis of covariance structures*. Berverly Hills: Sage.

Cascio, W. F. (1991). *Costing human resources: The financial impact of behavior in organizations* (3rd ed.). Boston: PWS-Kent Publishing Company.

Cascio, W. F. (2006). *Managing human resources: Productivity, quality of work life, profits* (7th ed.). Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Cattell, R. B. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *1*(2), 245-276.

Chao, G. T., Walz, P., & Gardner, P. D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology*, *45*(3), 619-636.

Chatman, J. A. (1989). Improving interactional organizational research: A model of person organization fit. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*(3), 333-349.

Chen, C., Liao, J., & Wen, P. (2014). Why does formal mentoring matter? The mediating role of psychological safety and the moderating role of power distance orientation in the Chinese context. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(8), 1112-1130.

Chun, J. U., Litzky, B. E., Sosik, J. J., Bechtold, D. C., & Godshalk, V. M. (2010). Emotional intelligence and trust in formal mentoring programs. *Group & Organization Management*, *35*(4), 421-455.

Chun, J. U., Sosik, J. J., & Yun, N. Y. (2012). A longitudinal study of mentor and protégé outcomes in formal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*, 1071-1094.

Churchill Jr., G. A., & Peter, J. P. (1984). Research design effects on the reliability of rating scales: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *21*(4), 360-375.

Ciulla, J. B. (2005). The state of leadership ethics and the work that lies before us. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, *14*(4), 323-335.

Clutterbuck, D. (2004). *Everyone needs a mentor: Fostering talent in your organisation*. London, England: Charted Institute of Personnel Development.

Collins, M. W., & Morris, S. B. (2008). Testing for adverse impact when sample size is small. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(2), 463-471.

Conway, J. M., & Huffcutt, A. I. (2003). A review and evaluation of exploratory factor analysis practices in organizational research. *Organizational Research Methods*, *6*(2), 147-168.

Cranwell-Ward, J., Bossons, P., & Grover, S. (2004). *Mentoring: A Henley review of best practice*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Crane, A, & Matten, D. (2016). *Business ethics: Managing corporate citizenship and sustainability in the age of globalization* (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Crotty, M., (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dalton, D., & Ortegren, M. (2011). Gender differences in ethics research: The importance of controlling. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *103*(1), 73-93.

Dalton, D. R., Todor, W. D., & Krackhardt, D. M. (1982). Turnover overstated: The functional taxonomy. *Academy of Management Review*, *7*(1), 117-123.

Day, D. V. (2011). Integrative perspectives on longitudinal investigations of leader development: From childhood through adulthood. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 561-571

Day, R., & Allen, T. D. (2004). The relationship between career motivation and self-efficacy with protégé career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *64*(1), 72-91.

De Cremer, D., van Dijke, M., & Mayer, D. M. (2010). Cooperating when “you” and “I” are treated fairly: The moderating role of leader prototypicality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(6), 1121-1133.

De George, R. T (1990). *Business ethics* (3rd ed.). New York: Macmillan.

De Hoogh, A. H. B., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness and subordinates' optimism: A multi-method study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(3), 297-311.

Delaney, J. T., & D. Sockell (1992). Do company ethics training programs make a difference? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *11*(9), 719-727.

Den Hartog, D. N. (2015). Ethical Leadership. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *2*(1), 409-434.

Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2009). Empowering behaviour and leader fairness and integrity: Studying perceptions of ethical leader behaviour from a levels-of-analysis perspective. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *18*(2), 199-230.

De Vellis, R. F. (2012). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dickson, M. W., Smith, D. B., Grojean, M. W., & Ehrhart, M. (2001). An organizational climate regarding ethics: The outcome of leader values and the practices that reflect them. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *12*(2), 197-217.

Dobson, J., & Armstrong, M. B. (1995). Application of virtue ethics theory: A lesson from architecture. *Research on Accounting Ethics*, *1*, 187-202.

Donaldson, S. I., Ensher, E. A., & Grant-Vallone, E. J. (2000). Longitudinal examination of mentoring relationships on organizational commitment and citizenship behavior. *Journal of Career Development*, *26*(4), 233-249.

Douglas, C. A., & McCauley, C. D. (1999). Formal developmental relationships: A survey of organizational practices. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *10*(3), 203-224.

Dreher, G. F., & Ash, R. A. (1990). A comparative study of mentoring among men and women in managerial, professional, and technical positions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(5), 539-546.

Dreher, G. F., & Cox Jr., T. H. (1996). Race, gender, and opportunity: A study of compensation attainment and the establishment of mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*(3), 297-308.

Dubinsky, A. J., & Ingram, T. N. (1984). Correlates of salespeople's ethical conflict: An exploratory investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *3*(4), 343-353

Easterby-Smith, M. P. V., Thorpe, R., & Jackson, P. R. (2008). *Management research. Theory and research*. London: Sage.

Eby, L. T. (1997). Alternative forms of mentoring in changing organizational environments: A conceptual extension of the mentoring literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(1), 125-144.

Eby, L. T., & Allen, T. D. (2002). Further investigation of proteges' negative mentoring experiences: Patterns and outcomes. *Group & Organization Management*, *27*(4), 456-479.

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*(2), 254-267.

Eby, L. T., Allen, T. D., Hoffman, B. J., Baranik, L. E., Sauer, J. B., Baldwin, S., . . . Curtis, S. (2013). An interdisciplinary meta-analysis of the potential antecedents, correlates, and consequences of protégé perceptions of mentoring. *Psychological Bulletin*, *139*(2), 441-476.

Eby, L. T., Butts, M. M., Hoffman, B. J., & Sauer, J. B. (2015). Cross-lagged relations between mentoring received from supervisors and employee OCBs: Disentangling causal direction and identifying boundary conditions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(4), 1275-1285.

Eby, L. T., Butts, M., Lockwood, A., & Simon, S. A. (2004). Protégés' negative mentoring experiences: Construct development and nomological validation. *Personnel Psychology*, *57*(2), 411-447.

Eby, L. T., Durley, J. R., Evans, S. C., & Ragins, B. R. (2008). Mentors' perceptions of negative mentoring experiences: Scale development and nomological validation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(2), 358-373.

Eby, L. T., & Lockwood, A. (2005). Protégés' and mentors' reactions to participating in formal mentoring programs: A qualitative investigation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67*(3), 441-458.

Eby, L. T., Lockwood, A., & Butts, M. (2006). Organizational support for mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *68*, 267-291.

Eby, L. T., McManus, S. E., Simon, S. A., & Russell, J. E. (2000). The protégé's perspective regarding negative mentoring experiences: The development of a taxonomy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *57*(1), 1-21.

Edmondson, A. C., & McManus, S. E. (2007). Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(4), 1246-1264.

Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *12*(1), 1-22.

Eisenbeiss, S. A., & Giessner, S. (2012). The emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership in organizations: A question of embeddedness? *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, *11*(1), 7-19.

Eisenberg, N. (1986). *Altruistic emotion, cognition, and behavior*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

EThOS (2018). *About EThOS*. Retrieved 28th June 2018 from: http://ethos.bl.uk/About.do

Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluating the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, *4*(3), 272-299.

Fagenson, E. A. (1988). The power of a mentor: Protégés and non-protégés perceptions of their own power in organizations. *Group & Organization Studies*, *13*(2), 182-194.

Fagenson, E. A. (1989). The mentor advantage: Perceived career/job experiences of protégés versus non-protégés. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *10*(4), 309-320.

Fagenson, E. A. (1994). Perceptions of protégés' vs. non-protégés' relationships with their peers, superiors, and departments. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *45*(1), 55-78.

Fagenson-Eland, E. A., Marks, M. A., & Amendola, K. L. (1997). Perceptions of mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*, 29-42.

Fairchild, A. J., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2009). A general model for testing mediation and moderation effects. *Prevention Science*, *10*(2), 87-99.

Feldman, D. C. (1999). Toxic mentors or toxic protégés? A critical examination of dysfunctional mentoring. *Human Resource Management Review*, *9*(3), 247-278.

Festinger, L. A. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Filstead, W. J. (1979). Qualitative methods: A needed perspective in evaluation research. In T. D. Cook & C. S. Reichardt (Eds.), *Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research* (pp. 33-48). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Finkelstein, L. M., Allen, T. D., & Rhoton, L. (2003). Examining the role of age in mentoring relationships. *Group & Organization Management*, *28*(2), 249-281.

Finkelstein, L. M., & Poteet, M. L. (2010). Best practices in workplace formal mentoring programs. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach* (pp. 345-368). Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fisher, B. (1988). Wandering in the wilderness: The search for women role models*. Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, *13*(2), 211-233.

Fleig-Palmer, M. M., & Schoorman, F. D. (2011). Trust as a moderator of the relationship between mentoring and knowledge transfer. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *18*(3), 334-343.

Ford, J. B. (2017). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A comment. *Journal of Advertising, 46*(1), 156-158.

Ford, J. K., MacCallum, R. C., Tait, M., (1986). The application of exploratory factor analysis in applied psychology: A critical review and analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *39*(2), 291-314.

Frazier, P. A., Tix, A. D., & Barron, K. E. (2004). Testing moderator and mediator effects in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *51*(1), 115-134.

Fritz, M. S., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2007). Required sample size to detect the mediated effect. *Psychological Science*, *18*(3), 233-239.

Fry, E. 1977. Fry's readability graph: Clarifications, validity, and extension to level 17. *Journal of Reading*, *21*(3), 242-252.

Gaertner, K. N., & Nollen, S. D. (1992). Turnover intentions and desire among executives. *Human Relations*, *45*(5), 447-465.

Garrison, G., Wakefield, R. L., Harvey, M., & Kim, S. H. (2010). Exploring perceptions of "foreignness" in virtual teams: Its impact on team member satisfaction and turnover intention. *Asia Pacific Journal of Information Systems*, *20*(1), 101-125.

Garvey, R., Stokes, P., & Megginson, D. (2009). *Coaching and mentoring: Theory and practice*. Sage: London.

Gaskill, L. R., & Sibley, L. R. (1990). Mentoring relationships for women in retailing: Prevalence, perceived importance, and characteristics. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, *9*(1), 1-10.

Gelade, G. A. (2006). But what does it mean in practice? The Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology from a practitioner perspective. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *79*(2), 153-160.

Gephart, R. P. (2004). From the editors: Qualitative research and the Academy of Management Journal. *Academy of Management Journal*, *47*(4), 454-462.

Gerpott, F. H., Van Quaquebeke, N., Schlamp, S., & Voelpel, S. C. (2017). An identity perspective on ethical leadership to explain organizational citizenship behavior: The interplay of follower moral identity and leader group prototypicality. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-16.

Ghosh, R., Reio, T. G., Jr., & Haynes, R. K. (2012). Mentoring and organizational citizenship behavior: Estimating the mediating effects of organization-based self-esteem and affective commitment. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *23*(1), 41-63.

Gibson, D. E. (2003). Developing the professional self-concept: Role model construals in early, middle, and late career stages. *Organization Science*, *14*(5), 591-610.

Gibson, D. E. (2004a). Role models in career development: New directions for theory and research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *65*(1), 134-156.

Gibson, S. K. (2004b). Social learning (cognitive) theory and implications for human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *6*(2), 193-210.

Giessner, S. R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2008). "License to fail'': Goal definition, leader group prototypicality, and perceptions of leadership effectiveness after leader failure, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *105*(1), 14-35.

Giessner, S. R., van Knippenberg, D., & Sleebos, E. (2009). License to fail? How leader group prototypicality moderates the effects of leader performance on perceptions of leadership effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(3), 434-451.

Godshalk, V. M., & Sosik, J. J. (2000). Does mentor-protégé agreement on mentor leadership behavior influence the quality of a mentoring relationship? *Group & Organization Management*, *25*(3), 291-317.

Goffin, R. D. (2007). Assessing the adequacy of structural equation models: Golden rules and editorial policies. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *42*(5), 831-839.

Gonzáles-Figueroa, E., & Young, A. M. (2005). Ethnic identity and mentoring among Latinas in professional roles. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *11*(3), 213-226.

Goosen, X. & Van Vuuren, L. J. (2005). Institutionalising ethics in organisations: The role of mentoring. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *3*(3), 61-71.

Gorsuch, R. L. (1983). *Factor Analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gorsuch, R. L. (1997). Exploratory factor analysis: Its role in item analysis. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *68*(3), 532-560.

Gottlieb, M. C. (2006). A template for peer ethics consultation. *Ethics & Behavior*, *16*(2), 151-162.

Grant, A. M. (2003). The impact of life coaching on goal attainment, meta cognition, and mental health. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *31*(3), 253-264.

Griffeth, R. W., & Hom, P. W. (2001). *Retaining valued employees*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., Gaertner, S., (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 463-488.

Grille, A., Schulte, E.-M., & Kauffeld, S. (2015). Promoting shared leadership: A multilevel analysis investigating the role of prototypical team leader behavior, psychological empowerment, and fair rewards. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 22*(3), 324-339.

Grojean, M. W., Resick, C. J., Dickson, M. W., & Smith, D. B. (2004). Leaders, values, and organizational climate: Examining leadership strategies for establishing an organizational climate regarding ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *55*(3), 223-241.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Haggard, D. L., Doughterty, T. W., Turban, D. B., & Wilbanks, J. E. (2010). Who is a mentor? A review of evolving definitions and implications for research. *Journal of Management*, *37*(1), 280-304.

Hall, D. T., & Mirvis, P. H. (1995). The new protean career: Psychological success and the path with a heart. In D. T. Hall (Ed.), *The career is dead – long live the career* (pp. 15-45). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hannah, S. T, & Avolio, B. J. (2010). Moral potency: Building the capacity for character- based leadership. *Consulting Psychology Journal, 62*(4), 291-310.

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., & May, D. R. (2011a). Moral maturation and moral conation: A capacity approach to explaining moral thought and action. *Academy of Management Review*, *36*(4), 663-685.

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2011b). Relationships between authentic leadership, moral courage, and ethical and pro-social behaviors. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *21*(4), 555-578.

Hansen, S. D., Alge, B. J., Brown, M. E., Jackson, C. L., & Dunford, B. B. (2013). Ethical leadership: Assessing the value of a multifoci social exchange perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *115*(3), 435-449.

Harms, P. D., & DeSimone, J. A. (2015). Caution! MTurk workers ahead – Fines doubled. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 8*(2), 183-190.

Harris, M. M., & Schaubroeck, J. (1988). A meta-analysis of self-supervisor, self-peer, and peer-supervisor ratings. *Personnel Psychology, 41*(1), 43-62.

Harrison, D. A., & McLaughlin, M. E. (1991). Exploring the cognitive processes underlying responses to self-report instruments: Effects of item content on work attitude measures. *Proceedings of the 1991 Academy of Management Annual Meetings*, 310-314.

Hatch, N. W., & Dyer, J. H. (2004). Human capital and learning as a source of sustainable competitive advantage. *Strategic Management Journal*, *25*(12), 1155-1178.

Hausknecht, J. P., Trevor, C. O., & Howard, M. J. (2009). Unit-level voluntary turnover rates and customer service quality: Implications of group cohesiveness, newcomer concentration, and size. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(4), 1068-1075.

Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication Monographs*, *76*(4), 408-420.

Hayes, A. F. (2012). *PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling* (white paper). Retrieved from: http:// www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf.

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach.* Chicago: Guilford Press.

Hayes, A. F. (2015). An index and test of linear moderated mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *50*, 1-22.

Hayes, A. F. (2017). Partial, conditional, and moderated mediation: Quantification, inference, and interpretation. *Communication Monographs*, 1-37.

Hayes, A. F., & Matthes, J. (2009). Computational procedures for probing interactions in OLS and logistic regression: SPSS and SAS implementations. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*(3), 924-936.

Henson, R. K., & Roberts, J. K. (2006). Use of exploratory factor analysis in published research: Common errors and some comment on improved practice. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *66*(3), 393-416.

Hezlett, S. A. (2005). Protégés' learning in mentoring relationships: A review of the literature and an exploratory case study. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *7*(4), 505-526.

Hezlett, S. A., & Gibson. S. K. (2005). Mentoring and human resources development: Where we are and where we need to go. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *4*(4), 446-469.

Higgins, M. C., & Kram, K. E. (2001). Reconceptualizing mentoring at work: A developmental network perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(2), 264-288.

Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development in the study of behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management*, *21*(5), 967-988.

Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, *1*(1), 104-121.

Hinkin, T. R., & Tracey, J. B. (2000). The cost of turnover: Putting a price on the learning curve. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *41*(3), 14-21.

Hirst, G., van Dick, R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2009). A social identity perspective on leadership and employee creativity. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, *30*(7), 963-982.

Hogan, R., Curphy, G. J., & Hogan, J. (1994). What we know about leadership: Effectiveness and personality. *American Psychologist, 49*(6), 493-504.

Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *5*(3), 184-200.

Hogg, M. A., Abrams, D., Otten, S., & Hinkle, S. (2004). The social identity perspective intergroup relations, self-conception, and small groups. *Small Group Research*, *35*(3), 246-276.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity processes in organizational contexts. *The Academy of Management Review*, *25*(1), 121-140.

Hogg, M. A., & van Knippenberg, D. (2003). Social identity and leadership processes in groups. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *35*, 1-52.

Hogg, M. A., van Knippenberg, D., & Rast, D. E., III (2012). The social identity theory of leadership: Theoretical origins, research findings, and conceptual developments. *European Review of Social Psychology, 23*(1), 258-304.

Holtom, B. C., Mitchell, T. R., Lee, T. W. & Eberly, M. B. (2008). Turnover and retention research: A glance at the past, a closer review of the present, and a venture into the future. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *2*(1), 231-274.

Horvath, M., Wasko, L. E., & Bradley, J. L. (2008). The effect of formal mentoring program characteristics on organizational attraction. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *19*(4), 323-349.

Howard, G. S. (1994). Why do people say nasty things about self-reports? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *15*(5), 399-404.

Howe, R. K. (1988). Against the quantitative-qualitative incompatibility thesis or dogmas die hard. *Educational Researcher*, *17*(8), 10-16.

Hu, C., Pellegrini, E. K., & Scandura, T. A. (2011). Measurement invariance in mentoring research: A cross-cultural examination across Taiwan and the U.S. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *78*(2), 274-282.

Hu, C., Wang, S., Wang, Y. H., Chen, C., & Jiang, D-Y. (2016). Understanding attraction in formal mentoring relationship from an affective perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *94*, 104-113.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling: Sensitivity to underparameterized model specification. *Psychological Methods*, *3*(4), 424-453.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *6*(1), 1-55.

Ibarra, H. (2000). Making partner: A mentor's guide to the psychological journey. *Harvard Business Review*, *78*(2), 147-152.

IBM Corp. (2015). IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 23.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.

Jackson, T. (2001). Cultural values and management ethics: A 10-nation study. *Human Relations*, *54*(10), 1267-1302.

James, L. R., & Brett, J. M. (1984). Mediators, moderators, and tests for mediation. Journal of Applied Psychology, *69*(2), 307-312.

James, W., & McManus, L. (2011). An empirical study of the influence of mentors and organizational climate on the ethical attitudes and decision-making of national female business graduates in the United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Business Ethics Education*, *8*(1), 31-54.

Jaros, S. J., Jermier, J. M., Koehler, J. W., & Sincich, T. (1993). Effects of continuance, affective, and moral commitment on the withdrawal process: An evaluation of eight structural equation models. *Academy of Management Journal*, *36*(5), 951-995.

Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *24*(4), 602-611.

Johnson, W. B. (2002). The intentional mentor: Strategies and guidelines for the practice of mentoring. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, *33*(1), 88-96.

Jones, T. M. (1991). Ethical decision making by individuals in organizations: An issue-contingent model. *Academy of Management Review*, *16*(2), 366-395.

Jordan, J., Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Finkelstein, S. (2013). Someone to look up to: Executive-follower ethical reasoning and perceptions of ethical leadership. *Journal of Management*, *39*(3), 660-683.

Kacmar, K. M., Andrews, M. C., van Rooy, D. L., Steilberg, R. C., & Cerrone, S. (2006). Sure everyone can be replaced ... but at what cost? Turnover as a predictor of unit-level performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *49*(1), 133-144.

Kacmar, K. M., Bachrach, D. G., Harris, K. J., & Zivnuska, S. (2011). Fostering good citizenship through ethical leadership: Exploring the moderating role of gender and organizational politics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(3), 633-642.

Kahn, J. H. (2006). Factor analysis in counseling psychology research, training, and practice: Principles, advances, and applications. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *34*(5), 684-718.

Kaiser, H. F. (1956). *The varimax method of factor analysis*. University of California, Berkeley.

Kaiser, H. F. (1970). A second generation little jiffy. *Psychometrika*, *35*(4), 401-415.

Kalbfleisch, P. J. (1997). Appeasing the mentor. *Aggressive Behavior*, *23*(5), 389-403.

Kalshoven, K., & Boon, C. T. (2012). Ethical leadership, employee well-being, and helping. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, *11*(1), 60-68.

Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2011a.) Ethical leader behavior and big five factors of personality*. Journal of Business Ethics*, *100*(2), 349-366.

Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2011b). Ethical leadership at work questionnaire (ELW): Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(1), 51-69.

Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2013a). Ethical leadership and followers' helping and initiative: The role of demonstrated responsibility and job autonomy. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *22*(2), 165-181.

Kalshoven K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2013b). Ethical leadership and follower helping and courtesy: Moral awareness and empathic concern as moderators. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *62*(2), 211-235.

Kanareff, V. T., & Lanzetta, J. T. (1958). The acquisition of imitative and opposition responses under two conditions of instruction-induced set. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *56*(6), 516-528.

Kanungo, R. N. (2001). Ethical values of transactional and transformational leaders. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, *18*(4), 257-265.

Kanungo, R. N. & Mendonca, M. (1996). *Ethical dimensions of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kees, J., Berry, C., Burton, S., & Sheehan, K. (2017). An analysis of data quality: Professional panels, student subject pools, and Amazon's Mechanical Turk. *Journal of Advertising, 46*(1), 141-55.

Keppel, G. (1991). *Design and analysis: A researcher's handbook* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.

Ko, C., Ma, J., Bartnik, R., Haney, M. H., & Kang, M. (2018) Ethical Leadership: An integrative review and future research agenda. *Ethics & Behavior*, *28*(2), 104-132.

Koberg, C. S., Boss, R. W., Chappell, D., & Ringer, R. C. (1994). Correlates and consequences of protégé mentoring in a large hospital. *Group and Organization Management*, *19*(2), 219-239.

Kohlberg, L. (1969). State and sequence: The cognitive-development approach to socialization. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of socialization theory and research* (pp. 347-480). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Kohlberg, L. (1984). *Essays on moral development. Volume II: The psychology of development.* San Francisco: Harper and Row.

Koivisto, S., Lipponen, J., & Platow, M. J. (2013). Organizational and supervisory justice effects on experienced threat during change: The moderating role of leader in-group representativeness. *Leadership Quarterly*, *24*(4), 595-607.

Koivisto, S., & Rice, R. E. (2016). Leader prototypicality moderates the relation between access to flexible work options and employee feelings of respect and leader endorsement. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 27*(22), 2771-2789.

Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life.* Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman.

Kwan, H. K., Liu, J., & Yim, F. H. K. (2011). Effects of mentoring functions on receivers' organizational citizenship behavior in a Chinese context: A two-study investigation. *Journal of Business Research*, *64*(4), 363-370.

Kwan, H. K., Mao, Y., & Zhang, H. (2010). The impact of role modeling on protégés' personal learning and work-to-family enrichment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *77*(2), 313-322.

Landers, R. N., & Behrend, T. S. (2015). An inconvenient truth: Arbitrary distinctions between organizational, Mechanical Turk, and other convenience samples. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 8*(2), 142-64.

Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. (2002). An investigation of personal learning in mentoring relationships: Content, antecedents, and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*(4), 779-790.

Lee, D., Choi, Y., Youn, S., & Chun, J. U. (2017). Ethical leadership and employee moral voice: The mediating role of moral efficacy and the moderating role of leader-follower value congruence. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *141*(1), 47-57.

Lee, N., & Lings, I. (2008). *Doing business research: A guide to theory and practice*. London: Sage.

Lemmon, G., & Wayne, S. J. (2015). Underlying motives of organizational citizenship behavior comparing egoistic and altruistic motivations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *22*(2), 129-148.

Leonard, D., & Swap, W. (2005). *Deep smarts: How to cultivate and transfer enduring business wisdom.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(1), 52-65.

Lester, P. B., Hannah, S. T., Harms, P. D., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avolio, B. J. (2011). Mentoring impact on leader efficacy development: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *10*(3), 409-429.

Lester, P. B., Vogelgesang, G., Hannah, S. T., & Kimmey, T. (2010). Developing courage in followers: Theoretical and applied perspectives. In C. Pury & S. Lopez (Eds.), *The psychology of courage: Modern research on an ancient virtue* (pp. 210-245). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., & McKee, B. (1978). *The seasons of a man's life*. New York: Knopf.

Liang, B., Tracy, A. J., Taylor, C. A., & Williams, L. M. (2002). Mentoring college-age women: A relational approach. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *30*(2), 271-89.

Lipponen, J., Koivisto, S., & Olkkonen, M. E. (2005). Procedural justice and status judgments: The moderating role of leader ingroup prototypicality. *Leadership Quarterly*, *16*, 517-528.

Lissitz, R. W., & Green, S. B. (1975). Effect of the number of scale points on reliability: A Monte Carlo approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *60*(1), 10-13.

Liu, D., & Fu, P.-P. (2011). Motivating protégés' personal learning in teams: A multilevel investigation of autonomy support and autonomy orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(6), 1195-1208.

Lockwood, P., Jordan, C. H., & Kunda, Z. (2002). Motivation by positive and negative role models: Regulatory focus determines who will best inspire us. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, *83*(4), 854-864.

Lopez, S. J., Rasmussen, H. N., Skorupski, W. P., Koetting, K., Petersen, S. E., & Yang, Y.-T. (2010). Folk conceptualizations of courage. In Pury, C. L. S., & Lopez, S. J. (Eds.), *The Psychology of Courage* (pp. 23-46). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

MacCallum, J. A. (1993). Teachers' reasoning and moral judgment in the context of student discipline situations. *Journal of Moral Education*, *22*(1), 3-17.

MacCallum, R. C., Widaman, K. F., Zhang, S., & Hong, S. (1999). Sample size in factor analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *4*(1), 84-99.

MacKinnon, D. P., & Fairchild, A. J. (2009). Current directions in mediation analysis. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *18*(1), 16-20.

Maertz, C. P., Jr., & Boyar, S. L. (2012). Theory-driven development of a comprehensive turnover-attachment motive survey. *Human Resource Management*, *51*(1), 71-98.

Maertz, C. P. Jr., & Griffeth, R. W. (2004). Eight motivational forces and voluntary turnover: A theoretical synthesis with implications for research. *Journal of Management*, *30*(5), 667-683.

Mainiero, L. A. (1994). Getting anointed for advancement: The case of executive women. Academy of Management Executive, *8*(2), 53-64.

March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations*. New York: John Wiley.

Marsh, H. W., Hau, K.-T., & Wen, Z. (2004). In search of golden rules: Comment on hypothesis-testing approaches to setting cutoff values for fit indexes and dangers in overgeneralizing Hu and Bentler's (1999) findings. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *11*(3), 320-341.

May, D. R., Chan, A. Y. L., Hodges, T. D., & Avolio, B. J. (2003). Developing the moral component of authentic leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, *32*(3), 247-260.

May, D. R., Chang, Y. K., & Shao, R. (2015). Does ethical membership matter? Moral identification and its organizational implications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(3), 681-694.

May, D. R., Luth, M. T., & Schwoerer, C. E. (2014). The influence of business ethics education on moral efficacy, moral meaningfulness, and moral courage: A quasi-experimental study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *124*(1), 67-80.

Mayer, D. M., Aquino, K., Greenbaum, R. L., & Kuenzi, M. (2012). Who displays ethical leadership, and why does it matter? An examination of antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(1), 151-171.

Mayer, D. M., Kuenzi, M., & Greenbaum, R. L. (2010). Examining the link between ethical leadership and employee misconduct: The mediating role of ethical climate. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *95*(1), 7-16.

Mayer, D. M., Kuenzi, M., Greenbaum, R., Bardes, M., & Salvador, R. (2009). How low does ethical leadership now? Test of a trickle-down model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *108*(1), 1-13.

McDowall-Long, K. (2004). Mentoring relationships: Implications for practitioners and suggestions for future research. *Human Resource Development International*, *7*(4), 519-534.

McElroy, J. C., Morrow, P. C., & Rude, S. N. (2001). Turnover and organizational performance: A comparative analysis of the effects of voluntary, involuntary, and reduction-in-force turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(6), 1294-1299.

McEvoy, P., & Richards, D. (2006). A critical realist rationale for using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. *Journal of Research in Nursing*, *11*(1), 66-78.

McGuire, W. J. (1985). Attitudes and attitude change. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (3rd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 233-346). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

McManus, S. E., & Russell, J. E. A. (1997). New directions for mentoring research: An examination of related constructs. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(1), 145-161.

McManus, L., & Subramaniam, N. (2009). Ethical evaluations and behavioural intentions of early career accountants: The impact of mentors, peers and individual attributes. *Accounting & Finance*, *49*(3), 619-643.

Melé, D. (2005). Ethical education in accounting: Integrating rules, values and virtues, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *57*(1), 97-109.

Mendonca, M., & Kanungo, R. N. (2007). *Ethical leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Miller, C. C., Cardinal, L. B., & Glick, W. H. (1997). Retrospective reports in organizational research: A reexamination of recent evidence. *Academy of Management Journal*, *40*(1), 189-204.

Mitchell, M. S., & Palmer, N. F. (2010). Understanding the managerial relevance of ethical efficacy. In M. Schminke (Ed.), *Managerial ethics: Managing the psychology of morality* (Vol. 2, pp. 89-108). New York: Routledge.

Mitchell, M. S., Palmer, N. F., & Schminke, M. (2008). Understanding the influence of ethical efficacy. *Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Conference, Anaheim, CA.*

Mitchell, T. R., & James, L. R. (2001). Building better theory: Time and the specification of when things happen. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(4), 530-547.

Moberg, D. J., (2007). Practical wisdom and business ethics. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *17*(3), 535-561.

Moberg, D. J. (2008a). Mentoring and practical wisdom: Are mentors wiser or just more politically skilled? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *83*(4), 835-843.

Moberg, D. J. (2008b). Mentoring for protégé character development. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *16*(1), 91-103.

Moberg, D.J., & Velasquez, M. (2004). The ethics of mentoring. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *14*(1), 95-122.

Molina-Azorin, J. F. (2012). Mixed methods research in strategic management: Impact and applications. *Organizational Research Methods, 15*(1), 33-56.

Moynihan, D. P., & Pandey, S. K. (2008). The ties that bind: Social networks, person-organization value fit, and turnover intention. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, *18*(2), 205-227.

Morgan-Lopez, A. A., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2006). Demonstration and evaluation of a method for assessing mediated moderation. *Behavior Research Methods*, *38*(1), 77-87.

Muller, D., Judd, C. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2005). When moderation is mediated and mediation is moderated. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *89*(6), 852-863.

Murray M. (1991). *Beyond the myths and magic of mentoring*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Myers, M. D., & Newman, M. (2007). The qualitative interview in IS research: Examining the craft. *Information and Organization*, *17*(1), 2-26.

Neubert, M. J., Carlson, D, S., Kacmar, K. M., Roberts, J. A., & Chonko, L. B. (2009). The virtuous influence of ethical leadership behavior: Evidence from the field. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *90*(2), 157-70.

Noe, R. A. (1988). An investigation of the determinants of successful assigned mentoring relationships. *Personnel Psychology*, *41*(3), 457-479.

Nunnally, J. C. (1976). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

O'Fallon, M. J., & Butterfield, K. D. (2005). A review of the empirical ethical decision-making literature: 1996-2003. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *59*(4), 375-413.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behaviour: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behaviour: It's construct cleanup time. *Human Performance*, *10*(2), 85-97.

Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, *48*(4), 775-802.

Orpen C. (1997). The effects of formal mentoring on employee work motivation, organizational commitment, and job performance. *The Learning Organization*, *4*(2), 53-60.

Osborne, J. W. & Fitzpatrick, D. C. (2012). Replication analysis in exploratory factor analysis: What it is and why it makes your analysis better. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, *17*(15), 1-8.

Ostroff, C., Kinicki, A. J., & Clark, M. A. (2002). Substantive and operational issues of response bias across levels of analysis: An example of climate-satisfaction relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(2), 355-368.

Ostroff, C., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. (1993). The role of mentoring in the information gathering processes of newcomers during early organizational socialization. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *42*(2), 170-183.

Palmer, B. (2003). Maximizing value from executive coaching. *Strategic HR Review*, *2*(6), 26-29.

Pan, W., Sun, L., & Chow, I. (2011). The impact of supervisory mentoring on personal learning and career outcomes: The dual moderating effect of self-efficacy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *78*(2), 264-273.

Parnell, J. A. (1998). Improving the fit between organizations and employees. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, *63*(1), 35-43.

Payne, S. C., & Huffman, A. H. (2005). A longitudinal examination of the influence of mentoring on organizational commitment and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(1), 158-168.

Paulhus, D. L. (1991). Measurement and control of response bias. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes* (pp. 17-59). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Peterson, S. J., & Luthans, F. (2006). The impact of financial and nonfinancial incentives on business-unit outcomes over time. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(1), 156-165.

Piaget, J. (1932). *The moral judgment of the child*. London: Kegan Paul.

Piccolo, R. F., Greenbaum, R., den Hartog, D. N., & Folger, R. (2010). The relationship between ethical leadership and core job characteristics. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*(2-3), 259-278.

Pierro, A., Cicero, L., Bonaiuto, M., van Knippenberg, D., & Kruglanski, A. W. (2005). Leader group prototypicality and leadership effectiveness: The moderating role of need for cognitive closure. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *16*(4), 503-516.

Podsakoff, N. P., Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Maynes, T. D., & Spoelma, T. M. (2014). Consequences of unit-level organizational citizenship behaviors: A review and recommendations for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(1), 87-119.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(1), 122-141.

Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*(2), 262-270.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879-903.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. B., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, *1*(2), 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 513-563.

Podsakoff, P. M., & Todor, W. (1985). Relationships between leader reward and punishment behavior and group processes and productivity. *Journal of Management*, *11*(1), 55-73.

Ponemon, L. (1992). Ethical reasoning and selection-socialization in accounting. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *17*(3-4), 239-258.

Ponteretto, J. G. (2005). Qualitative research in counseling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *52*(2), 126-136.

Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). *Handbook of organizational measurement*. Marshfield, MA.: Pitman.

Punch, K. F. (2005). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: Sage.

Ragins, B. R. (1989). Barriers to mentoring: The female manager's dilemma. *Human Relations*, *42*(1), 1-22.

Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified mentoring relationships in organizations: A power perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *22*(2), 482-521.

Ragins, B. R. (2005). Towards a theory of relational mentoring*. Unpublished manuscript*.

Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: a comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(4), 529-550.

Ragins, B. R., Cotton, J. L., & Miller, J. S. (2000). Marginal mentoring: The effects of type of mentor, quality of relationship, and program design on work and career attitudes. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*(6), 1177-1194.

Ragins, B. R., & McFarlin, D. B. (1990). Perceptions of mentor roles in cross-gender mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *37*(3), 321-339.

Randall, D. M., & Fernandes, M. F. (1991). The social desirability response bias in ethics research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *10*(11), 805-817.

Raven, B. H. (1965). Social influence and power. In I. D. Steiner & M. Fishbein (Eds.), *Current studies in social psychology* (pp. 371-382). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Reidenbach, R. E., & Robin, D. P. (1990). Toward the development of a multidimensional scale for improving evaluations of business ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *9*(8), 639-653.

Reidenbach, R. E., Robin, D. P., & Dawson, L. (1991). An application and extension of a multidimensional ethics scale to selected marketing practices and marketing groups. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *19*(2), 83-92.

Resick, C. J., Hanges, P. J., Dickson, M. W., & Mitchelson, J. K. (2006). A cross-cultural examination of the endorsement of ethical leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *63*(4), 345-359.

Rest, J. (1979). *Development In judging moral issues*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.

Rest, J. R. (1986). *Moral development: Advances in research and theory.* New York: Praeger.

Rest, J., Narvaez, D., Bebeau, M. J., & Thoma, S. (1999). *Postconventional moral thinking: A neo-Kohlbergian approach*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Rindskopf, D., & Rose, T. (1988). Some theory and applications of confirmatory second-order factor analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *23*(1), 51-67.

Rock, A. D., & Garavan, T. N. (2011). Understanding the relational characteristics of effective mentoring and developmental relationships at work. In R. F. Poell, & M. van Woerkom (Eds.), *Supporting workplace learning: Towards evidence-based practice* (pp. 107-127). Heidelberg: Springer.

Rodopman, O. B., Allen, T. D., Xu, X., & Biga, A. M. (2007). Mentoring and OCB: Those who have been helped help others. *Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychologists, New York*.

Rubio, D. M., Berg-Weger, M., Tebb, S. S., Lee, E. S., & Rauch, S. (2003). Objectifying content validity: Conducting a content validity study in social work research. *Social Work Research*, *27*(2), 94-104.

Rucker, D. D., Preacher, K. J., Tormala, Z. L., & Petty, R. E. (2011). Mediation analysis in social psychology: Current practices and new recommendations. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *5*(6), 359-371.

Sale, J. E. M., Lohfeld, L. H., & Brazil, K. (2002). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative debate: Implications for mixed-methods research. *Quality and Quantity*, *36*(1), 45-53.

Salgado, J. F. (1998). Sample size in validity studies of personnel selection. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, *71*(2), 161-164.

Saunders, M. Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A., (2016). *Research methods for business students*. London: Prentice Hall.

Scandura, T. A. (1992). Mentorship and career mobility: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *13*(2), 169-174.

Scandura, T. A. (1997). Mentoring and organizational justice: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(1), 58-69.

Scandura, T. A. (1998). Dysfunctional mentoring relationships and outcomes. *Journal of Management*, *24*(3), 449-467.

Scandura, T. A., & Ragins, B. R. (1993). The effects of sex and gender role orientation on mentorship in male-dominated occupations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *43*(3), 251-265.

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*(6), 1588-1602.

Scandura, T. A., & Viator, R. E. (1994). Mentoring in public accounting firms: An analysis of mentor-protégé relationships, mentorship functions and protégé turnover intentions. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *19*(8), 717-734.

Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (2001). An investigation of the moderating effects of gender on the relationships between mentorship initiation and protégé perceptions of mentoring functions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *59*(3), 342-363.

Scandura, T. A, & Williams, E. A. (2004). Mentoring and transformational leadership: The role of supervisory career mentoring. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *65*(3), 448-468.

Schaubroeck, J. M., Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Kozlowski, S. W. J., Lord, R. G., Treviño, L. K., Dimotakis, N., & Peng, A. C. (2012). Embedding ethical leadership within and across organization levels. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(5), 1053-1078.

Scheufele, D. A. (2002). Examining differential gains from mass media and their implications for participatory behavior. *Communication Research*, *29*(1), 46-65.

Schmitt, T. A. (2011). Current methodological considerations in exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *29*(4), 304-321.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(3), 437-453.

Schneider, B., Goldstein, H. W., & Smith, D. B. (1995). The ASA framework: An update. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(4), 747-773.

Schriesheim, C. A., Powers, K. J., Scandura, T. A., Gardiner, C. C., & Lankau, M. J. (1993). Improving construct measurement in management research: Comments and a quantitative approach for assessing the theoretical content adequacy of paper-and-pencil survey-type instruments. *Journal of Management*, *19*(2), 385-417.

Schunk, D. H., & Usher, E. L. (2012). Social cognitive theory and motivation. In R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of human motivation* (pp. 13-27). New York: Oxford University Press.

Schwepker, C. H. (1999). The relationship between ethical conflict, organizational commitment and turnover intentions in the salesforce. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, *19*(1), 43-49.

Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(9), 9-16.

Seppälä, T., Lipponen, J., & Pirttilä-Backman, A.-M. (2012). Leader fairness and employees' trust in coworkers: The moderating role of leader group prototypicality. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *16*(1), 35-49.

Shao, R., Aquino, K., & Freeman, D. (2008). Beyond moral reasoning: A review of moral identity research and its implications for business ethics. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *18*(4), 513-540.

Sharif, M. M., & Scandura, T. A. (2014). Do perceptions of ethical conduct matter during organizational change? Ethical leadership and employee involvement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *124*(2), 185-196.

Shaw, J. D., Gupta, N., & Delery, J. E. (2005). Alternative conceptualizations of the relationship between voluntary turnover and organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(1), 50-68.

Shell, D. F., Murphy, C. C., & Bruning, R. H. (1989). Self-efficacy and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 81*(1), 91-100.

Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and non-experimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, *7*(4), 422-445.

Siebert, W. S., & Zubanov, N. (2009). Searching for the optimal level of turnover: A study of a large U.K. retail organization. *Academy of Management Journal*, *52*(2), 294-313.

Singer, J. D., & Willett, J. B., (2003). *Applied longitudinal data analysis: Modeling change and event occurrence*. Oxford University Press, London.

Simola, S. (2016). Mentoring the morally courageous: A relational cultural perspective. *Career Development International*, *21*(4), 340-354.

Sims, R. L., & Keon, T. L. (1997). Ethical work climate as a factor in the development of person-organization fit. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *16*(11), 1095-1105.

Smith, J. W., Smith, W. J., & Markham, S. E. (2000). Diversity issues in mentoring academic faculty. *Journal of Career Development*, *26*(4), 251-262.

Smith, S. M., Roster, C. A., Golden, L. L., & Albaum, G. S. (2016). A multi-group analysis of online survey respondent data quality: Comparing a regular USA consumer panel to MTurk samples. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(8), 3139-3148.

Sosik, J. J., & Godshalk, V. M. (2000a). Leadership styles, mentoring functions received, and job- related stress: A conceptual model and preliminary study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*(4), 365-390.

Sosik, J. J., & Godshalk, V. M. (2000b). The role of gender in mentoring: Implications for diversified and homogenous mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *57*(1), 102-122.

Spector, P. E. (1994). Using self-report questionnaires in OB research: A comment on the use of a controversial method. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *15*(5), 385-392.

Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Methods*, *9*(2), 221-232.

Staw, B. M. (1980). The consequences of turnover. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, *1*(4), 253-273.

Steel, R. P., & Ovalle, N. K., (1984). A review and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between behavioral intentions and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *69*(4), 673-686.

Steiger, J. H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *25*(2), 173-180.

Steinberg, A. G., & Foley, D. M. (1999). Mentoring in the army: From buzzword to practice. *Military Psychology*, *11*(4), 365-379.

Sun, L. Y., Pan, W., & Chow, I. H. S. (2014). The role of supervisor political skill in mentoring: Dual motivational perspectives. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(2), 213-233.

Swap, W., Leonard, D., Shields, M., & Abrams, L. (2001). Using mentoring and story telling to transfer knowledge in the workplace. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *18*(1), 95-114.

Taylor, E. Z., & Curtis, M. B. (2016). Mentoring: A path to prosocial behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-16.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *The foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative techniques in the social and behavioral sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tepper, B. J. (1995). Upward maintenance tactics in supervisory mentoring and nonmentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(4), 1191-1205.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P., (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analysis based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, *46*(2), 342-346.

Tett, R. P., Pieper, J. R. (Fitzke), Wadlington, P. L., Davies, S. A., Anderson, M. G., & Foster, J. (2009). The use of personality test norms in work settings: Effects of sample size and relevance. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *82*(3), 639-659.

Thacker, J. W., Fields, M. W., & Tetrick, L. E. (1989). The factor structure of union commitment: An application of confirmatory factor analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(2), 228-232.

Thomas, C. H., & Lankau, M. J. (2009). Preventing burnout: The effects of LMX and mentoring on socialization, role stress, and burnout. *Human Resource Management*, *48*(3), 417-432.

Thurstone, L. L. (1947). *Multiple-factor analysis: A development and expansion of the vectors of mind*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Tomarken, A. J., & Waller, N. G. (2003). Potential problems with well fitting models. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, *112*(4), 578-598.

Ton, Z., & Huckman, R. S. (2008). Managing the impact of employee turnover on performance: The role of process conformance. *Organization Science*, *19*(1), 56-68.

Toor, S., & Ofori, G. (2009). Ethical leadership: Examining the relationships with full range leadership model, employee outcomes, and organizational culture. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *90*, 533-547.

Treviño, L. K. (1986). Ethical decision making in organizations: A person–situation interactionist model. *Academy of Management Review*, *11*(3), 601-617.

Treviño, L. K. (1992). Moral reasoning and business ethics: Implications for research, education, and management. *Journal of Business Ethics, 11*, 445-459.

Treviño, L. K., & Brown, M. (2007). Ethical leadership: A developing construct. In D. L. Nelson & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Positive organizational behaviour. Accentuating the positive at work* (pp. 101-116). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Treviño, L. K., Brown, M., & Hartman, L. P. (2003). A qualitative investigation of perceived executive ethical leadership: Perceptions from inside and outside the executive suite. *Human Relations*, *56*(1), 5-37.

Treviño, L. K., Hartman, L. P., & Brown, M. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California Management Review*, *42*(4), 128-142.

Treviño, L. K., den Nieuwenboer, N. A., & Kish-Gephart, J. J. (2014). (Un)ethical behavior in organizations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *65*, 635-660.

Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., & Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Behavioral ethics in organizations: A review. *Journal of Management*, *32*(6), 951-990.

Treviño, L. K., & Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision-making behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(4), 378-385.

Triandis, H. C. (1975). Culture training, cognitive complexity, and interpersonal attitudes. In R. Brislin, S. Bochner, & W. Lonner (Eds.), *Cross-cultural perspectives on learning* (pp. 39-77). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Tsui, A. S., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1989). Beyond simple demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal*, *32*(2), 402-423.

Tupes, E. C., & Christal, R. E. (1961). *Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings* (USAF ASD Tech. Rep. No. 61-97). Lackland Air Force Base, Texas: U.S. Air Force.

Turban, D. B., & Dougherty, T. W. (1994). Role of protégé personality in the receipt of mentoring and career success. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*(3), 688-702.

Turban, D. B., & Jones, A. P. (1988). Supervisor-subordinate similarity: Types, effects, and mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(2), 228-234.

Ullrich, J., & Christ, O., & van Dick, R. (2009). Substitutes for procedural fairness: Prototypical leaders are endorsed whether they are fair or not. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(1), 235-244.

van Dijke, M., & De Cremer, D. (2008). How leader prototypicality affects followers' status: The role of procedural fairness. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *17*(2), 226-250.

van Gilsa, S., van Quaquebeke, N., van Knippenberg, D., van Dijke, M., & De Cremer, D. (2015). Ethical leadership and follower organizational deviance: The moderating role of follower moral attentiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *26*(2), 190-203.

van Knippenberg, B., & van Knippenberg, D. (2005). Leader self-sacrifice and leadership effectiveness: The moderating role of leader prototypicality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(1), 25-37.

van Knippenberg, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2003). A social identity model of leadership effectiveness in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *25*, 243-295.

Viator, R. E. (1999). An analysis of formal mentoring programs and perceived barriers to obtaining a mentor at large public accounting firms. *Accounting Horizons*, *13*(1), 37-53.

Viator, R. E., & Scandura, T. A. (1991). A study of mentor-protégé relationships in large public accounting firms. *Accounting Horizons*, *5*(3), 20-30.

Victor, B., & Cullen, J. B. (1988). The organizational bases of ethical work climates. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *33*(1), 101-125.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wallace, J. E. (2001). The benefits of mentoring for female lawyers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *58*(3), 366-391.

Walumbwa, F. O., & Schaubroeck, J. (2009). Leader personality traits and employee voice behavior: Mediating roles of ethical leadership and work group psychological safety. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(5), 1275-86.

Wanberg, C. R., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., & Marchese, M. (2006). Mentor and protégé predictors and outcomes of mentoring in a formal mentoring program. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *69*(3), 410-423.

Wanberg C. R., Welsh E. T., & Hezlett S. A. (2003). Mentoring research: A review and dynamic process model. In Ferris G.R., & Martocchio J. J. (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 22, pp. 39-124). Greenwich, CT: Elsevier Science/JAI Press.

Weaver G. R., Treviño L. K., & Agle B. (2005). Somebody I look up to: Ethical role models in organizations. *Organizational Dynamics*, *34*(4), 313-330.

Weinberg, F. J., & Lankau, M. J. (2010). Formal mentoring programs: A mentor-centric and longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Management*, *37*(6), 1527-1557.

West, S. G., Finch, J. F., & Curran, P. J. (1995). Structural equation models with nonnormal variables: Problems and remedies. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications* (pp. 56-75). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

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.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17*(3)*, 601-617.

Winterich, K. P., Aquino, K., Mittal, V., & Swartz, P. (2013). When moral identity symbolization motivates prosocial behavior: The role of recognition and moral identity internalization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(5), 759-770.

Witherspoon, R., & White, R. P. (1996). Executive coaching: A continuum of roles. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *48*(2), 124-133.

Wu, Y.-C. (2017). Mechanisms linking ethical leadership to ethical sales behavior. *Psychological Reports*, *120*(3), 537-560.

Yukl, G., & Falbe, C. M. (1991). The importance of different power sources in downward and lateral relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*(3), 416-423.

Yukl, G., Mahsud, R., Hassan, S., & Prussia, G. E. (2013). An improved measure of ethical leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *20*(1), 38-48.

Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2005). A positive organizational behavior approach to ethical performance. In R. A. Giacalone, C. L. Jurkiewicz, C. L., & C. Dunn (Eds.), *Positive psychology in business ethics and corporate responsibility* (pp. 1-22). Greenwich, CN: Information Age Publishing.

Zagumny, M. J. (1993). Mentoring as a tool for change: A social learning perspective. *Organization Development Journal*, *11*(4), 43-48.

Zey, M. G. (1984). *The mentor connection*. Homewood, IL: Dow Jones-Irwin.

Zey, M. G. (1985). Mentor programs: Making the right moves. *Personnel Journal*, *64*(2), 53-57.

Zhu, W., He, H., Treviño, L. K., Chao, M. M., & Wang, W. (2015). Ethical leadership and follower voice and performance: The role of follower identifications and entity morality beliefs. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *26*(5), 702-718.

Zhu, W., Treviño, L. K., & Zheng, X. (2016). Ethical leaders and their followers: The transmission of moral identity and moral attentiveness. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *26*(1), 95-115.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview question guide (study 1, part 1)

Think about a specific mentor from your experience (it can be yourself or another mentor) whom you could use as a reference point when answering the questions.

General questions:

1. How would you define ethics-related mentoring?
2. What skills and competencies are important to demonstrate ethics-related mentoring?
3. What qualities and characteristics are important to demonstrate ethics-related mentoring?
4. What visible actions and behaviours are important to demonstrate ethics-related mentoring?
5. What other attributes are important to the effectiveness as an ethical mentor?
6. What is the importance of an underlying value or belief system?
7. Name the most ethical mentor that you have interacted with in the past 5 years. What distinguishes himself / herself?
8. What are potential individual and contextual influences on ethics-related mentoring?
9. What are the boundary conditions for ethics-related mentoring?
10. What is the difference between mentoring in general and ethics-related mentoring in particular?
11. What does an ethical mentor do differently from a mentor?
12. Why is ethics-related mentoring important?
13. What is the impact of ethics-related mentoring?
14. What would you do as a mentor if it were your role to develop ethical leaders and followers?
15. In training programs designed for ethical mentorship development, what are the key factors or topics that should be included?
16. Any other ideas or comments for my study?

Specific questions for mentors:

1. Think of a time recently in your role as a mentor when you demonstrated ethics-related mentoring as defined above.
2. How do you develop ethical behaviour in your protégés?
3. Do you have a metaphor for your own ethical mentorship?
4. How did you learn to be the mentor you are now?
5. What is your motivation to be an ethical mentor?

Specific questions for protégés:

1. Think of a time recently when your mentor has demonstrated ethics-related mentoring as defined above.
2. What questions, issues, or problems did you bring to your mentor for advice that had salient ethical implications?
3. Think of a time when you observed ethical mentoring. What impact did that have on your ethical development?
4. Think of a time when you observed unethical mentoring. What impact did that have on your ethical development?

Appendix 2: Interview schedule (study 1, part 1)

Interview partner	Date	Length	Method
1. Protégé (male)	25/10/2015	50 min	In person
2. Mentor (male)	26/10/2015	40 min	In person
3. Mentor (male)	26/10/2015	45 min	In person
4. Mentor (male)	28/10/2015	45 min	In person
5. Mentor (male)	29/10/2015	60 min	In person
6. Expert (male)	30/10/2015	60 min	In person
7. Expert (female)	04/11/2015	45 min	In person
8. Protégé (female)	05/11/2015	45 min	In person
9. Expert (male)	06/11/2015	45 min	In person
10. Mentor (male)	10/11/2015	40 min	In person
11. Mentor (male)	10/11/2015	50 min	In person
12. Protégé (male)	12/11/2015	45 min	In person
13. Protégé (male)	17/11/2015	45 min	By phone
14. Mentor (male)	18/11/2015	45 min	In person
15. Mentor (male)	18/11/2015	50 min	In person
16. Expert (female)	19/11/2015	40 min	In person
17. Protégé (female)	21/11/2015	40 min	In person
18. Mentor (male)	23/11/2015	40 min	In person
19. Mentor (male)	24/11/2015	45 min	In person
20. Mentor (male)	24/11/2015	45 min	In person
21. Protégé (male)	25/11/2015	40 min	In person
22. Mentor (male)	30/11/2015	40 min	By phone
23. Protégé (female)	01/12/2015	40 min	By phone
24. Protégé (female)	02/12/2015	40 min	In person
25. Protégé (male)	04/12/2015	45 min	In person

Appendix 3: Participant briefing sheet – interviews (study 1, part 1)

[redacted]
Doctoral Researcher
Work and Organisational Psychology Group
Aston Business School
Aston University
B4 7ET Birmingham

E-Mail: xxx
Mobile: xxx

PARTICIPANT BRIEFING SHEET
INTERVIEWS

Study title
How can ethical managers be developed?
Development and validation of an ethical mentoring scale

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?
The primary purpose of this research is to develop a measure of ethical mentoring. To achieve this, I will:

1) Conduct interviews to generate survey items which are designed to tap the full domain of ethical mentoring;
2) Administer a survey to protégés to develop and validate the scale;
3) Examine how and when ethical mentoring affects what type of outcomes.

Why have I been invited to participate in the interview?
You have been approached to participate in this research because of your practical experience in the topic of mentoring and/or business ethics. I will conduct 20-25 interviews.

Do I have to take part?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw from the study at any point, prior to submission of the dissertation, and without giving a reason. You can contact the researcher to request this.

What will happen to me if I take part?
I will ask you questions about your views about a mentor that provides ethical mentoring. The interview will take about 45-60 minutes of your time. The interview can be conducted in person or over the telephone or Skype. The interview will be recorded, with your permission, using a digital voice recorder to help with looking at the results.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?
Although you may not directly benefit from the research, the sharing of your views will help develop and test a new instrument to measure ethical mentoring. Your contribution may help us find a new way to develop ethical leaders, and to provide practitioners with valuable information for designing effective mentoring programmes, and important mentor training initiatives.

Will what I say in this study be kept confidential?
All information collected from you will be kept strictly confidential and accessible only to the researcher and her supervisors only (except for illegal activities which have to be reported by the researcher). All information collected as part of the study (audio recording / interview notes) will be stored on an external hard disk drive that will be password protected and that will be stored in a locked room. Your comments will not be linked directly to you. All physical data (audio recordings / interview notes) will be destroyed after two years.

What should I do if I want to take part?
Please read and sign the attached consent form and return to me. I will then contact you to schedule an appointment for the interview or we start the interview right away. Once the interview is conducted you will be debriefed orally and in writing.

What will happen to the results of the research study?
The results from this study will be used in the PhD thesis, and will be presented at university level and at national and international conferences. The findings will also be submitted for publication in peer-reviewed journals. The aim is to publish journal articles in professional and/or academic journals. If you are interested in obtaining a copy of the summarised results, please contact the researcher to request this.

Who is organising and funding the research?
I am conducting the research as a doctoral student at Aston Business School, Aston University. I am funding myself and I am carrying out the study independently.

Who has reviewed the study?
The research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee, Aston University.

Contact for Further Information
If you have any questions or need for further information, feel free to contact:

[redacted]
Email: xxx
Mobile: xxx

If you have any concerns about the way in which the study has been conducted, you can contact xxx, the Secretary of the Aston Business School Research Ethics Committee on xxx@aston.ac.uk.

Thank you for your time to read the information sheet and I hope that you will accept my invitation to be involved.

Hamburg, dd/mm/2015

Appendix 4: Consent form – interviews (study 1, part 1)

[redacted]
Doctoral Researcher
Work and Organisational Psychology Group
Aston Business School
Aston University
B4 7ET Birmingham

E-Mail: xxx
Mobile: xxx

CONSENT FORM
INTERVIEWS

Study title
How can ethical managers be developed?
Development and validation of an ethical mentoring scale

	Please initial box
I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.	☐
I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.	☐
I agree to take part in the above study.	☐
I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored (after it has been anonymised) by the researcher.	☐

	Please tick box	
	Yes	No
I agree to the interview being audio recorded.	☐	☐
I agree to the publication of research results in journal articles.	☐	☐
I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications.	☐	☐

Name of Participant	Date	Signature

Appendix 5: Face validity exercise (study 1, part 1)

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research.

Your data will be used as part of the PhD thesis, and will be presented at university level and at national and international conferences. The findings will also be submitted for publication in peer-reviewed journals, but your responses are completely anonymous and no identifying information will be included.

This survey asks you to rate the extent to which you think the questionnaire items reflect ethics-related mentoring. The concept will be explained in greater detail on the next page. The survey should take no longer than 15-20 minutes of your time.

Your task

The project is about ethics-related mentoring. There is no developed scale yet. I therefore like to measure ethics-related mentoring.

I conducted 25 interviews with mentors, protégés, and experts on mentoring programs to generate survey items that reflect ethics-related mentoring.

Please rate the extent to which you believe the items presented on the next pages represent ethics-related mentoring. There are 99 items in total. Each item has been assigned to 1 of 12 categories of ethics-related mentoring. Please read the definition of each category and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents the category at hand.

Each scale ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Concern for protégé

Please read the definition:

Concern for protégé: The mentor cares about the protégé and treats him/her with respect. *Example item:* My mentor cares about me.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor cares about me.
2. My mentor is empathetic.
3. My mentor asks me how I am doing.
4. My mentor has a great appreciation of people.
5. My mentor takes care of my work-life-balance.
6. My mentor values me as a person.
7. My mentor sympathises with me.
8. My mentor likes to work with people.

Being open

Please read the definition:

Being open: The mentor is a approachable and a good listener, and he/she encourages openness.
Example item: My mentor listens to my concerns and problems I face.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor listens to my concerns and problems I face.
2. My mentor stands available when I need some advice.
3. My mentor takes time when I need his/her help.
4. My mentor takes time when I like to discuss ethics and morality.
5. My mentor listens to what I have to say.

Hold to values

Please read the definition:

Hold to values: When making decisions and actions, the mentor holds to a solid set of ethical values and principles.
Example item: My mentor insists of doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor insists of doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy.
2. My mentor makes considerate decisions according to his/her personal value system.
3. My mentor practices his/her moral values every day.
4. My mentor always takes a clear position on topics.
5. My mentor makes his/her own decisions and encourages me to do likewise.
6. When making decisions, my mentor asks “What is the right thing to do?”.
7. My mentor has a stable opinion.

Concern for business ethics

Please read the definition:

Concern for business ethics: The mentor shows concern for business ethics, and promotes long-term growth rather than profit maximization.
Example item: My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.
2. My mentor shows concern for sustainability issues.
3. My mentor cares about business success and ethics likewise.
4. My mentor promotes long-run interests of the company even if damaging its short-term profits.
5. My mentor promotes environmental and social benefit rather than profit maximization.
6. My mentor promotes long-run customer relationships.
7. My mentor insists of doing what is right regardless of the costs.

Ethical role modelling

Please read the definition:

Ethical role modelling: The mentor sets an example of ethical behaviour in his/her decisions and actions.
Example item: My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.
2. My mentor “walks the talk” in terms of ethical behaviour.
3. My mentor “leads by example”.
4. My mentor sets an example of ethical behaviour in his/her actions.
5. My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics.
6. My mentor conducts his/her professional life in an ethical manner.
7. My mentor “leads by example” in terms of ethical behaviour.
8. My mentor stands by his/her personal values – even upon request.
9. My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour.
10. My mentor practices ethics – wittingly and unwittingly.
11. My mentor radiates a sense of calm.

Ethical guidance

Please read the definition:

Ethical guidance: The mentor gives ethical advice and guidance.
Example item: My mentor provides ethical guidance.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor provides ethical guidance.
2. My mentor gives me advice in dilemma situations.
3. My mentor gives me advice on how to solve an ethical issue.
4. My mentor provides clear guidance about right and wrong behaviour.
5. My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications.
6. My mentor tells me how he would solve the question at hand.
7. My mentor can be asked for advice on legal and ethical issues.
8. My mentor provides advice on volatile topics (such as theft, corruption, bribe, mobbing, burnout).
9. My mentor gives me advice on ethical issues and questions.
10. My mentor is on hand with help and advice for ethical issues in the workplace.

Communication about ethics and values

Please read the definition:

Communication about ethics and values: The mentor communicates about ethics and values, and promotes ethical conduct.
Example item: My mentor communicates ethical standards.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor communicates ethical standards.
2. My mentor shares his/her view on ethics and morality with me.
3. My mentor sets standards in performance and ethics.
4. My mentor signals me when he/she does not agree with my behaviour.
5. My mentor sets boundaries of behaviour.
6. My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards.
7. My mentor talks about what is right and wrong behaviour.
8. My mentor signals me when my behaviour is not acceptable or unsatisfactory in his/her view.

Ethical education

Please read the definition:

Ethical education: The mentor talks about ethics and explains ethical rules.
Example item: My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me.
2. My mentor stimulates the discussion of ethics and morality if I ask him/her about it.
3. My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me.
4. My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me if I ask him/her about it.
5. My mentor challenges me with questions if I overstep “gray areas”.
6. My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself.
7. My mentor discusses the pros and cons of my likely ethical or unethical behaviour.
8. My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem.
9. My mentor lets me do what I want as long as I do not break the law.
10. My mentor discusses dangers and risks arising from certain actions and decisions.
11. My mentor allows himself/herself and me to make mistakes.

Experience exchange

Please read the definition:

Experience exchange: The mentor shares his/her experience with ethical issues with the protégé.
Example item: My mentor shares his/her experience with ethical dilemmas with me.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor shares his/her experience with ethical dilemmas with me.
2. My mentor shares his/her knowledge and experience with me.
3. My mentor shares valuable information and knowledge with me.
4. My mentor talks about bad decisions and defeats that he/she made.
5. My mentor talks about his professional experiences.
6. My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner.

Ethical decision-making (protégé)

Please read the definition:

Ethical decision-making (Protégé): The mentor helps the protégé to make principled and fair decisions.
Example item: My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.
2. My mentor helps me to make stable decisions.
3. My mentor backs me up to take my own decisions.
4. My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner.
5. My mentor encourages me to take uncomfortable decisions.
6. My mentor asks me questions to help me think about my problem at hand.
7. My mentor develops a list of possible solutions or options with me to make balanced decisions.
8. When I have to make decisions, my mentor asks me “What is the right thing to do”?
9. When making decisions, my mentor is someone of whom I like to know his/her opinion.
10. My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions.

Ethical stimulation (protégé)

Please read the definition:

Ethical stimulation (Protégé): The mentor inspires and influences the protégé to reflect on his/her own personal value and moral system.
Example item: My mentor inspires me to reflect on my personal value and moral system.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor inspires me to reflect on my personal value and moral system.
2. My mentor impresses me through the exchange of experience with him.
3. My mentor impresses me by the decisions he/she makes. Neither Agree Nor
4. My mentor inspires me to think about my own values and moral principles.
5. My mentor influences my decisions due to his/her wisdom and experiences.
6. By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles.
7. My mentor's wisdom and experience influences my personal value system.
8. My mentor serves as a sounding board for me to develop and strengthen my value system.
9. My mentor encourages me to reflect on my behaviour and decisions.
10. My mentor gives me space to actively deal with my personal values.
11. My mentor is someone that I value in my professional life.

Similar value system

Please read the definition:

Similar value system: The mentor and protégé have a similar value system in place.
Example item: My mentor is someone I identify with in terms of personal and moral values.

Please look at the items below and rate the extent to which you feel each item represents this category.

1. My mentor is someone I identify with in terms of personal and moral values.
2. My mentor and I have similar value systems.
3. My mentor is on the same wavelength with me.
4. My mentor and me share similar values.
5. My mentor speaks at eye level with me.

Thank you for answering all the questions. Your participation is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Appendix 6: Results of the face validity exercise (study 1, part 1)

Items	Agreement	Disagreement/ Uncertain
1.) Concern for protégé		
1. My mentor cares about me.	100 %	0 %
2. My mentor is empathetic.	80 %	20 %
3. My mentor asks me how I am doing.	80 %	20 %
4. My mentor has a great appreciation of people.	60 %	40 %
5. My mentor takes care of my work-life-balance.*	100 %	0 %
6. My mentor values me as a person.	100 %	0 %
7. My mentor sympathises with me.	100 %	0 %
8. My mentor likes to work with people.	40 %	60 %
2.) Being open		
9. My mentor listens to my concerns and problems I face.	100 %	0 %
10. My mentor stands available when I need some advice.*	100 %	0 %
11. My mentor takes time when I need his/her help.	100 %	0 %
12. My mentor takes time when I like to discuss ethics and morality.	80 %	20 %
13. My mentor listens to what I have to say.*	100 %	0 %
3.) Hold to values		
14. My mentor insists of doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy.	100 %	0 %
15. My mentor makes considerate decisions according to his/her personal value system.	100 %	0 %
16. My mentor practices his/her moral values every day.	100 %	0 %
17. My mentor always takes a clear position on topics.	40 %	60 %
18. My mentor makes his/her own decisions and encourages me to do likewise.	20 %	80 %
19. When making decisions, my mentor asks “What is the right thing to do?”.	40 %	60 %
20. My mentor has a stable opinion.	40 %	60 %
4.) Concern of business ethics		
21. My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.	100 %	0 %
22. My mentor shows concern for sustainability issues.	100 %	0 %
23. My mentor cares about business success and ethics likewise.	60 %	40 %
24. My mentor promotes long-run interests of the company even if damaging its short-term profits.	60 %	40 %
25. My mentor promotes environmental and social benefit rather than profit maximization.**	80 %	20 %
26. My mentor promotes long-run customer relationships.	40 %	60 %
27. My mentor insists of doing what is right regardless of the costs.	60 %	40 %

Items	Agreement	Disagreement/ Uncertain
5.) Ethical role-modeling		
28. My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.	100 %	0 %
29. My mentor “walks the talk” in terms of ethical behaviour.*	100 %	0 %
30. My mentor “leads by example”.	80 %	20 %
31. My mentor sets an example of ethical behaviour in his/her actions.*	100 %	0 %
32. My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics.	100 %	0 %
33. My mentor conducts his/her professional life in an ethical manner.	100 %	0 %
34. My mentor “leads by example” in terms of ethical behaviour.	100 %	0 %
35. My mentor stands by his/her personal values – even upon request.	40 %	60 %
36. My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour.	100 %	0 %
37. My mentor practices ethics – wittingly and unwittingly.	40 %	60 %
38. My mentor radiates a sense of calm.	40 %	60 %
6.) Ethical guidance		
39. My mentor provides ethical guidance.**	80 %	20%
40. My mentor gives me advice in dilemma situations.	60 %	40 %
41. My mentor gives me advice on how to solve an ethical issue.	100 %	0 %
42. My mentor provides clear guidance about right and wrong behaviour.	60 %	40 %
43. My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications.	100 %	0 %
44. My mentor tells me how he would solve the question at hand.	40 %	60 %
45. My mentor can be asked for advice on legal and ethical issues.	100 %	0 %
46. My mentor provides advice on volatile topics (such as theft, corruption, bribe, mobbing, burnout).	40 %	60 %
47. My mentor gives me advice on ethical issues and questions.	80 %	20 %
48. My mentor is on hand with help and advice for ethical issues in the workplace.	80 %	20 %
7.) Communication about ethics and values		
49. My mentor communicates ethical standards.	100 %	0 %
50. My mentor shares his/her view on ethics and morality with me.**	80 %	20 %
51. My mentor sets standards in performance and ethics.	40 %	60 %
52. My mentor signals me when he/she does not agree with my behaviour.	100 %	0 %
53. My mentor sets boundaries of behaviour.	40 %	60 %
54. My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards.**	80 %	20 %
55. My mentor talks about what is right and wrong behaviour.	80 %	20 %
56. My mentor signals me when my behaviour is not acceptable or unsatisfactory in his/her view.	40 %	60 %

Items	Agreement	Disagreement/ Uncertain
8.) Ethical education		
57. My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me.**	80 %	20 %
58. My mentor stimulates the discussion of ethics and morality if I ask him/her about it.	40 %	60 %
59. My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me.**	80 %	20 %
60. My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me if I ask him/her about it.	80 %	20 %
61. My mentor challenges me with questions if I overstep “gray areas”.	40 %	60 %
62. My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself.	100 %	0 %
63. My mentor discusses the pros and cons of my likely ethical or unethical behaviour.	80 %	20 %
64. My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem.	100 %	0 %
65. My mentor lets me do what I want as long as I do not break the law.	20 %	80 %
66. My mentor discusses dangers and risks arising from certain actions and decisions.	40 %	60 %
67. My mentor allows himself/herself and me to make mistakes.	40 %	60 %
9.) Experience exchange		
68. My mentor shares his/her experience with ethical dilemmas with me.**	80 %	20 %
69. My mentor shares his/her knowledge and experience with me.	60 %	40 %
70. My mentor shares valuable information and knowledge with me.	60 %	40 %
71. My mentor talks about bad decisions and defeats that he/she made.**	40 %	60 %
72. My mentor talks about his professional experiences.	40 %	60 %
73. My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner.**	80 %	20 %
10.) Ethical decision-making (protégé)		
74. My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.	100 %	0 %
75. My mentor helps me to make stable decisions.	40 %	60 %
76. My mentor backs me up to take my own decisions.	40 %	60 %
77. My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner.	100 %	0 %
78. My mentor encourages me to take uncomfortable decisions.	60 %	40 %
79. My mentor asks me questions to help me think about my problem at hand.**	60 %	40 %
80. My mentor develops a list of possible solutions or options with me to make balanced decisions.	20 %	80 %
81. When I have to make decisions, my mentor asks me “What is the right thing to do”?	60 %	40 %
82. When making decisions, my mentor is someone of whom I like to know his/her opinion.	40 %	60 %

Items	Agreement	Disagreement/ Uncertain
83. My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions.**	60 %	40 %
11.) Ethical stimulation (protégé)		
84. My mentor inspires me to reflect on my personal value and moral system.	80 %	20 %
85. My mentor impresses me through the exchange of experience with him.	40 %	60 %
86. My mentor impresses me by the decisions he/she makes.	40 %	60 %
87. My mentor inspires me to think about my own values and moral principles.	100 %	0 %
88. My mentor influences my decisions due to his/her wisdom and experiences.	60 %	40 %
89. By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles.	100 %	0 %
90. My mentor's wisdom and experience influences my personal value system.	100 %	0 %
91. My mentor serves as a sounding board for me to develop and strengthen my value system.**	80 %	20 %
92. My mentor encourages me to reflect on my behaviour and decisions.	20 %	80 %
93. My mentor gives me space to actively deal with my personal values.	40 %	60 %
94. My mentor is someone that I value in my professional life.	60 %	40 %
12.) Similar value system		
95. My mentor is someone I identify with in terms of personal and moral values.	100 %	0 %
96. My mentor and I have similar value systems.	100 %	0 %
97. My mentor is on the same wavelength with me.	40 %	60 %
98. My mentor and me share similar values.	100 %	0 %
99. My mentor speaks at eye level with me.	40%	60 %

* The item was deleted from the item pool.

** The item was kept in the item pool.

Appendix 7: Letter from the researcher – example (study 1, part 2)[19]

Sehr verehrte Damen und Herren,

ich bin externe Doktorandin an der Aston Business School in Birmingham, UK, und promoviere zum Thema „Mentoring aus einer ethischen Perspektive“. Hierzu führe ich eine Befragung mit aktuellen und ehemaligen Mentees durch.

In diesem Zusammenhang bitte ich Sie um Ihre Mithilfe:

Sie würden mir sehr helfen, wenn Sie den folgenden Link anklicken und den 20-minütigen Fragebogen ausfüllen:

https://de.surveymonkey.com/r/mentoring-at-[Firmenname]

Ihre Antworten werden selbstverständlich anonym und streng vertraulich behandelt. Das betrifft die Studie wie natürlich auch gegenüber Ihrem Arbeitgeber.

Die Ergebnisse der Studie werden in meiner Dissertation und auch für Veröffentlichungen in Fachzeitschriften verwendet. Natürlich werden die Ergebnisse auch [Firmenname] zur Verfügung gestellt.

Um Sie für die Teilnahme zu motivieren werde ich, anstatt der sonst üblichen Verlosung von Amazon-Gutscheinen, für jede vollständige Umfrage 1 Euro (bis zu einem Limit von 300 Euro) an die Mentor Stiftung Deutschland*** überweisen. So helfen Sie mit dem Ausfüllen des Online-Fragebogens im doppelten Sinne.

Bei Fragen können Sie mich gerne direkt kontaktieren.

Für Ihre Unterstützung danke ich Ihnen herzlich!

[redacted]
Work and Organisational Psychology Group
Aston Business School
Aston University
B4 7ET Birmingham

E-Mail: xxx
Mobil: xxx

*** http://mentorstiftung.de

[19] We can translate this letter, if required.

Appendix 8: Scale development survey (study 1, part 2)

Introduction

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.

This survey is anonymous and confidential. You are free to withdraw consent to participation at any time. Please take a moment to read these instructions before you begin:

Answer all questions. Simply click the box that best fits your views, or write in the text box if one is provided. There are no right or wrong answers. Just give your own personal views on the issue raised. Do not spend too long on any question. First reactions are usually the best answers. It will take approximately minutes to complete the survey. There are 9 screens to complete.

Your data will be used as part of the PhD thesis. The findings will also be submitted for publication in peer-reviewed journals but your responses are completely anonymous and no identifying information will be included.

Note: If you are currently not in a mentoring relationship, but you have been in a mentoring relationship during the past, please respond to the questions with reference to your most recent mentoring relationship.

Corinna Busch

Doctoral Student
Aston Business School

You can navigate between pages using the "Previous" and "Next" buttons at the bottom of the screen. When you have answered all of the questions click "Done" on the final screen to submit your responses. Please click "Next" to start.

1. Your mentor

The following questions refer to your current or most recent mentor.

1. My mentor “leads by example” in terms of ethical behaviour.

- ❍ Strongly disagree (1)
- ❍ Disagree (2)
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ❍ Agree (4)
- ❍ Strongly agree (5)

2. My mentor shares his/her view on ethics and morality with me.
3. My mentor values me as a person.
4. My mentor insists on doing what is right even if the underlying conditions are not so easy.
5. My mentor practices his/her moral values every day.
6. My mentor listens to my concerns and problems I face.
7. My mentor makes considerate decisions according to his/her personal value system.
8. My mentor cares about me.
9. My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics.
10. My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.

11. My mentor promotes environmental and social benefit rather than profit maximization.
12. My mentor takes time when I need his/her help.
13. My mentor gives me advice on how to solve an ethical issue.
14. My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour.
15. My mentor provides ethical guidance.
16. My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me.
17. My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications.
18. My mentor shows concern for sustainability issues.
19. My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.
20. My mentor signals me when he/she does not agree with my behaviour.
21. My mentor discusses consequences of unethical behaviour in business with me.
22. My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.
23. My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards.
24. My mentor's wisdom and experience influences my personal value system.
25. My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself.
26. My mentor communicates ethical standards.
27. My mentor can be asked for advice on legal and ethical issues.
28. My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions.
29. My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem.
30. My mentor and me share similar values.
31. My mentor shares his/her experience on ethical dilemmas with me.
32. My mentor is someone I identify with in terms of personal and moral values.
33. My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner.
34. My mentor inspires me to reflect on my personal value and moral system.
35. My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner.
36. By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles.
37. My mentor and I have similar value systems.
38. My mentor talks about bad decisions and defeats that he/she made.
39. My mentor asks me questions to help me think about my problem at hand.
40. My mentor serves as a sounding board for me to develop and strengthen my value system.
41. My mentor takes a personal interest in my career.
42. My mentor has placed me in important assignments.
43. My mentor gives me special coaching on the job.
44. My mentor advised me of promotional opportunities.
45. My mentor helps me coordinate professional goals.
46. My mentor has devoted special time and consideration to my career.
47. I share personal problems with my mentor.
48. I socialize with my mentor after work.
49. I exchange confidences with my mentor.
50. I consider my mentor to be a friend.
51. I often go to lunch with my mentor.
52. I try to model my behavior after my mentor.
53. I admire my mentor‘s ability to motivate others.
54. I respect my mentor‘s knowledge of the profession.
55. I respect my mentor‘s ability to teach others.
56. My mentor is someone that I am satisfied with.
57. My mentor has been effective in his / her role.
58. My mentor fails to meet my needs.
59. My mentor disappoints me.

2. You

The following questions refer to your own attitudes and values at work.

Using the scale below as a guide, write a number below each statement to indicate how much you agree with it.

60. I sometimes tell lies if I have to.

- ❍ Not true (1)
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ Somewhat true (4)
- ❍
- ❍
- ❍ True (7)

61. I never cover up my mistakes.
62. There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.
63. I never swear.
64. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
65. I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.
66. I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.
67. When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.
68. I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her.
69. I always declare everything at customs.
70. When I was young I sometimes stole things.
71. I have never dropped litter on the street.
72. I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit.
73. I have done things that I don't tell other people about.
74. I never take things that don't belong to me.
75. I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really.
76. I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it.
77. I have some pretty awful habits.
78. I don't gossip about other people's business.

3. You

The following questions refer to your own attitudes and values at work.

Please imagine that you are the marketing manager for a breakfast cereal company. Recently, you were approached by the German Cancer Society (DKG) to initiate a cause-related marketing program. Specifically, DKG would like you to donate 25 cents to a special fund for cancer prevention each time one of your products is purchased. According to your research department, adoption of the program is likely to cost more than it earns through an incremental sales increase. Consequently, IF YOU CHOOSE TO INITIATE THE PROGRAM, YOU WOULD BE LESS LIKELY TO EARN A YEAR-END BONUS.

79. What is the percentage chance that you would choose to initiate the cause-related marketing program? (0 to 100%)
80. How likely are you to initiate the cause-related marketing program?

- ❍ Extremely Unlikely (1)
- ❍ Very unlikely (2)
- ❍ Unlikely (3)
- ❍ Somewhat unlikely (4)
- ❍ Neutral (5)
- ❍ Somewhat likely (6)
- ❍ Likely (7)
- ❍ Very likely (8)
- ❍ Extremely likely (9)

4. Your supervisor

The following questions refer to your direct supervisor/line manager and NOT your mentor.

81. My direct supervisor conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner.

- ❍ Strongly disagree (1)
- ❍ Disagree (2)
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ❍ Agree (4)
- ❍ Strongly agree (5)

82. My direct supervisor defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.
83. My direct supervisor listens to what employees have to say.
84. My direct supervisor disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.
85. My direct supervisor makes fair and balanced decisions.
86. My direct supervisor can be trusted.
87. My direct supervisor discusses business ethics or values with employees.
88. My direct supervisor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.
89. My direct supervisor has the best interests of employees in mind.
90. My direct supervisor when making decisions, asks “what is the right thing to do?”.

5. Your background

91. What gender are you?

- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

92. What age are you?

- ❍ 21-25
- ❍ 26-30
- ❍ 31-35
- ❍ 36-40
- ❍ 41-45
- ❍ 46-50
- ❍ 51-55
- ❍ 56-60
- ❍ 61-65

93. How many years have you been in your current company?

94. Which business sector do you work in?

- ❍ Consultancy (1)
- ❍ Manufacturing (2)
- ❍ Information Technology (3)
- ❍ Finance, Real Estate and Insurance (4)
- ❍ Healthcare and Social Services (5)
- ❍ Transport and Logistics (6)
- ❍ Construction (7)
- ❍ Trade (8)
- ❍ Media (9)
- ❍ Other (Please specify): (10) _____

95. What gender is your mentor?

- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

96. What age is your mentor approximately?

- ❍ 21-25
- ❍ 26-30
- ❍ 31-35
- ❍ 36-40
- ❍ 41-45
- ❍ 46-50
- ❍ 51-55
- ❍ 56-60
- ❍ 61-65

97. Does your mentor work at the same company as you do?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

98. What is the organisational rank of your mentor in comparison to your organisational rank?

- ❍ Same rank (1)
- ❍ 1 rank higher than me (2)
- ❍ 2 ranks higher than me (3)
- ❍ Other, (Please specify): (4) _____

99. Please indicate how similar to you is your mentor according to the following characteristics:

Age, education, lifestyle, ethnic background, religion:

- ❍ Not at all similar (1)
- ❍ Somewhat similar (2)
- ❍ Similar (3)
- ❍ Very similar (4)

100. What is the status of your mentoring relationship?

- ❍ I am currently in a mentoring relationship (1)
- ❍ I have been in a mentoring relationship 12 months ago (2)
- ❍ I have been in a mentoring relationship 1-2 years ago (3)
- ❍ I have been in a mentoring relationship 2-3 years ago (4)

101. What is the nature of your mentoring relationship?

- ❍ Formal (developed with organisational assistance) (1)
- ❍ Informal (developed spontaneously, without organisational assistance) (2)

102. What is the type of your mentoring relationship?

- ❍ Supervisory (your mentor is your supervisor) (1)
- ❍ Non-supervisory (your mentor is not your supervisor) (2)

103. What is the average number of completed hours per month spent in your mentoring relationship?

- ❍ 1 (1)
- ❍ 2 (2)
- ❍ 3 (3)
- ❍ 4 (4)
- ❍ 5 (5)
- ❍ 6 (6)
- ❍ Other (Please specify): (7) _____

Thank you for answering all the questions. Your participation is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

Appendix 9: Reliabilities statistics for all measures and items (study 1, part 2)

Reliability statistics for the mentoring scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Career-related support			
My mentor takes a personal interest in my career.	.711	.916	.923
My mentor has placed me in important assignments.	.518	.922	
My mentor gives me special coaching on the job.	.575	.920	
My mentor advised me of promotional opportunities.	.642	.918	
My mentor helps me coordinate professional goals.	.708	.916	
My mentor has devoted special time and consideration to my career.	.655	.917	
Psychosocial support			
I share personal problems with my mentor.	.604	.919	
I socialize with my mentor after work.	.624	.919	
I exchange confidences with my mentor.	.684	.917	
I consider my mentor to be a friend.	.721	.915	
I often go to lunch with my mentor.	.627	.918	
Role modelling			
I try to model my behavior after my mentor.	.710	.916	
I admire my mentor‘s ability to motivate others.	.690	.916	
I respect my mentor‘s knowledge of the profession.	.577	.920	
I respect my mentor‘s ability to teach others.	.649	.918	

Reliability statistics for the career-related mentoring subscale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
My mentor takes a personal interest in my career.	.720	.836	.867
My mentor has placed me in important assignments.	.549	.868	
My mentor gives me special coaching on the job.	.666	.845	
My mentor advised me of promotional opportunities.	.727	.834	
My mentor helps me coordinate professional goals.	.687	.842	
My mentor has devoted special time and consideration to my career.	.666	.845	

Reliability statistics for the psychosocial mentoring subscale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
I share personal problems with my mentor.	.609	.868	.873
I socialize with my mentor after work.	.738	.837	
I exchange confidences with my mentor.	.678	.852	
I consider my mentor to be a friend.	.838	.810	
I often go to lunch with my mentor.	.647	.859	

Reliability statistics for the role modelling subscale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
I try to model my behavior after my mentor.	.590	.823	.832
I admire my mentor‘s ability to motivate others.	.743	.751	
I respect my mentor‘s knowledge of the profession.	.622	.809	
I respect my mentor‘s ability to teach others.	.729	.762	

Reliability statistics for the satisfaction w/ mentor scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
My mentor is someone that I am satisfied with.	.728	.794	.851
My mentor has been effective in his / her role.	.685	.813	
My mentor fails to meet my needs.	.575	.858	
My mentor disappoints me.	.782	.772	

Reliability statistics for the moral motivation scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
What is the percentage chance that you would choose to initiate the cause-related marketing program?	.756	N/A	.861
How likely are you to initiate the cause-related program?	.756	N/A	

Reliability statistics for the social desirability scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
I sometimes tell lies if I have to.	.371	.711	.728
I never cover up my mistakes.	.283	.718	
There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.	.383	.710	
I never swear.	.069	.738	
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	.083	.733	
I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.	.376	.710	
I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.	.344	.713	
When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.	.392	.708	
I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her.	.264	.720	
I always declare everything at customs.	.289	.717	
When I was young I sometimes stole things.	.414	.707	
I have never dropped litter on the street.	.359	.711	
I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit.	.263	.720	
I have done things that I don't tell other people about.	.439	.702	
I never take things that don't belong to me.	.324	.715	
I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick.	.212	.724	
I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it.	.166	.731	
I have some pretty awful habits.	.315	.715	
I don't gossip about other people's business.	.377	.711	

Reliability statistics for the supervisor's ethical leadership scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Conducts h/h personal life in an ethical manner.	.690	.919	.926
Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.	.767	.915	
Listens to what employees have to say.	.762	.915	
Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.	.508	.929	
Makes fair and balanced decisions.	.764	.919	
Can be trusted.	.756	.916	
Discusses business ethics or values with employees.	.720	.918	
Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.	.803	.913	
Has the best interests of employees in mind.	.728	.917	
When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?".	.671	.920	

Appendix 10: Mentoring survey – time 1 (study 2)

Introduction

Thank you for considering to participate in this study!

The purpose of this study is to better understand **how mentoring relates to developing ethical leadership**. In order to be able to answer all questions, you must have a mentor and work in a leadership position or management role.

A mentor is generally defined as a higher ranking, influential individual in your work environment who has advanced experience and knowledge and is committed to providing upward mobility and support to your career. **Your mentor may or may not be in your organization and s/he may or may not be your immediate supervisor**.

In order to assist individuals in their development and advancement, some organizations have established formal mentoring programs, where protégés and mentors are linked in some way. This may be accomplished by assigning mentors or by just providing formal opportunities aimed at developing the relationship. To recap: **Formal mentoring relationships** are developed with organizational assistance. **Informal mentoring relationships** are developed spontaneously, without organizational assistance. **You may be in a formal or informal mentoring relationship**.

The study consists of two surveys. **This survey** will ask questions about your mentoring experience, your own values and attitudes at work, your relationships with other people and your organizational climate. It will take approximately 20 minutes to complete the survey.

The second survey, which will be send to you **in 2 weeks**, will ask questions about the outcomes of your mentoring relationship, and will take **approximately 8 minutes** of your time. It is important that you respond to both surveys so that I can draw conclusions about mentoring and its benefits.

This survey is **anonymous and confidential**. You are **free to withdraw consent to participation at any time.**

1. Your background

The following questions are aimed at finding out more about you, your mentor, and your mentoring relationship.

1.1. What gender are you?

- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

1.2. What age are you?

1.3. Do you currently work in a leadership position or management level role?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

1.4. Which business sector do you work in?

- ❍ Consultancy (1)
- ❍ Manufacturing (2)
- ❍ Information Technology (3)
- ❍ Finance, Real Estate and Insurance (4)
- ❍ Healthcare and Social Services (5)
- ❍ Transport and Logistics (6)
- ❍ Construction (7)
- ❍ Trade (8)
- ❍ Media (9)
- ❍ Other (Please specify): (10) _____

1.5. How many completed years have you been in your current company?

1.6. Are you currently in a formal or informal mentoring relationship?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

1.7. What is the nature of your mentoring relationship?

- ❍ Formal (developed with organisational assistance) (1)
- ❍ Informal (developed spontaneously, without organisational assistance) (2)

1.8. What is the type of your mentoring relationship?

- ❍ Supervisory (your mentor is your supervisor) (1)
- ❍ Non-supervisory (your mentor is not your supervisor) (2)

1.9. What age is your mentor approximately?

- ❍ 20-29 (1)
- ❍ 30-39 (2)
- ❍ 40-49 (3)
- ❍ 50-59 (4)
- ❍ 60-69 (5)

1.10. Does your mentor work at the same company as you do?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

1.11. What is the organisational rank of your mentor in comparison to your organisational rank?

- ❍ Same rank (1)
- ❍ 1 rank higher than me (2)
- ❍ 2 ranks higher than me (3)
- ❍ 3 ranks higher than me (4)

1.12. What is the average number of completed hours per month spent in your mentoring relationship?

2. Your mentor

The following questions refer to your mentor. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

2.1. My mentor helps me make thoughtful decisions and actions.

- ❍ Strongly disagree (1)
- ❍ Disagree (2)
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ❍ Agree (4)
- ❍ Strongly agree (5)

2.2. My mentor “leads by example” in terms of ethical behaviour.
2.3. My mentor helps me to make decisions with ethical and moral implications.
2.4. My mentor is a positive role model in terms of ethical behaviour.
2.5. My mentor is my moral and ethical sparring partner.
2.6. My mentor clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behaviour by myself.
2.7. My mentor takes time when I need his/her help.
2.8. By working with my mentor, I am able to reflect on my personal and moral principles.
2.9. My mentor provides ethical guidance.
2.10. My mentor discusses business ethics or moral values with me.
2.11. My mentor gives me ideas and advice when making decisions with ethical or moral implications.
2.12. My mentor guides me to act in a self-responsible manner.
2.13. My mentor shows a strong concern for business ethics or moral values.
2.14. My mentor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.
2.15. My mentor discusses the likely consequences of possible solutions to the ethical problem.
2.16. My mentor is my role model in terms of ethics.
2.17. My mentor sets clear ethical and moral standards.

3. Your mentor

The following questions refer to your mentor. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

3.1. My mentor is a good example of the kind of people in my organization.

- ❍ Strongly disagree (1)
- ❍ Disagree (2)
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ❍ Agree (4)
- ❍ Strongly agree (5)

3.2. My mentor has a lot in common with the members of my organization.
3.3. My mentor represents what is characteristic about my organization.
3.4. My mentor is very similar to what the members of my organization value.
3.5. My mentor represents what this organization stands for.

4. Your values and attitudes

The following questions refer to your own attitudes and values at work. Please read the following scenario carefully, and then answer the two questions that follow.

Please imagine that you are the marketing manager for a breakfast cereal company. Recently, you were approached by the American Cancer Society (ACS) to initiate a cause-related marketing program. Specifically, ACS would like you to donate 25 cents to a special fund for cancer prevention each time one of your products is purchased. According to your research department, adoption of the program is likely to cost more than it earns through an incremental sales increase. Consequently, IF YOU CHOOSE TO INITIATE THE PROGRAM, YOU WOULD BE LESS LIKELY TO EARN A YEAR-END BONUS.

4.1. What is the percentage chance that you would choose to initiate the cause-related marketing program (0 to 100%)?

4.2. How likely are you to initiate the cause-related marketing program?

- ❍ Extremely Unlikely (1)
- ❍ Very unlikely (2)
- ❍ Unlikely (3)
- ❍ Somewhat unlikely (4)
- ❍ Neutral (5)
- ❍ Somewhat likely (6)
- ❍ Likely (7)
- ❍ Very likely (8)
- ❍ Extremely likely (9)

5. Your organization

The following questions refer to the organization you work for. Please indicate how accurately each of the statements describes the general work climate in your organization. Please answer the following in terms of how it *really* is in your company, *not* how you would prefer it to be.

5.1. What is best for everyone in the organization is the major consideration here.

- ❍ Completely false (1)
- ❍ Mostly false (2)
- ❍ Somewhat false (3)
- ❍ Somewhat true (4)
- ❍ Mostly true (5)
- ❍ Completely true (6)

5.2. People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations.
5.3. It is very important to follow the organization's rules and procedures here.
5.4. In this organization, people protect their own interests above all else.
5.5. In this organization, people are expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs.
5.6. The most important concern is the good of all the people in the organization as a whole.
5.7. In this organization, the law or ethical code of their profession is the major consideration.
5.8. Everyone is expected to stick by company rules and procedures.
5.9. In this organization, people are mostly out for themselves.
5.10. Each person in this organization decides for themselves what is right and wrong.
5.11. Our major concern is always what is best for the other person.
5.12. In this organization, people are expected to strictly follow legal or professional standards.
5.13. Successful people in this organization go by the book.
5.14. There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this organization.
5.15. The most important concern in this organization is each person's own sense of right and wrong.
5.16. In this organization, people look out for each other's good.
5.17. In this organization, the first consideration is whether a decision violates any law.
5.18. People in this organization strictly obey the company policies.
5.19. People are expected to do anything to further the organization's interests, regardless of the consequences.
5.20. In this organization, people are guided by their own personal ethics.
5.21. In this organization, it is expected that you will always do what is right for the customers and public.
5.22. The most efficient way is always the right way in this organization.
5.23. Work is considered substandard only when it hurts the organization's interests.
5.24. In this organization, each person is expected above all to work efficiently.
5.25. The major responsibility of people in this organization is to control costs.
5.26. People here are concerned with the organization's interests – to the exclusion of all else.

6. Your supervisor

The following questions refer to your direct supervisor / line manager. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

6.1. My direct supervisor conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner.

- ❍ Strongly disagree (1)
- ❍ Disagree (2)
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ❍ Agree (4)
- ❍ Strongly agree (5)

6.2. My direct supervisor defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.
6.3. My direct supervisor listens to what employees have to say.
6.4. My direct supervisor disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.
6.5. My direct supervisor makes fair and balanced decisions.
6.6. My direct supervisor can be trusted.
6.7. My direct supervisor discusses business ethics or values with employees.
6.8. My direct supervisor sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.
6.9. My direct supervisor has the best interests of employees in mind.
6.10. My direct supervisor when making decisions, asks “what is the right thing to do?”.

Appendix 11: Mentoring survey – time 2 (study 2)

Introduction

Thank you for taking the time to complete the second survey as well!

As you already know, the purpose of this study is to better understand **how mentoring relates to developing ethical leadership**. This time, the survey will ask questions about the outcomes of your mentoring relationship. It will take approximately 8 minutes of your time.

This survey is **anonymous and confidential**. You are **free to withdraw consent to participation** at any time.

1. You

The following questions refer to your behavior at work.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1.1. I conduct my personal life in an ethical manner.

- ❍ Strongly disagree (1)
- ❍ Disagree (2)
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ❍ Agree (4)
- ❍ Strongly Agree (5)

1.2. I define success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.
1.3. I listen to what employees have to say.
1.4. I discipline employees who violate ethical standards.
1.5. I make fair and balanced decisions.
1.6. I can be trusted.
1.7. I discuss business ethics or values with employees.
1.8. I set an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.
1.9. I have the best interests of employees in mind.
1.10. When making decisions, I ask “what is the right thing to do?”.

2. You

The following questions refer to your behavior at work.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

2.1. I help others who have heavy workloads.

- ❍ Strongly disagree (1)
- ❍ Disagree (2)
- ❍ Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- ❍ Agree (4)
- ❍ Strongly agree (5)

2.2. I am one of the most conscientious employees.
2.3. I am the classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing.
2.4. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.

2.5. I keep abreast of changes in the organization.
2.6. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.
2.7. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.
2.8. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.
2.9. I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.
2.10. I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.
2.11. I help others who have been absent.
2.12. My attendance at work is above the norm.
2.13. I tend to make "mountains out of the molehills".
2.14. I do not abuse the right of others.
2.15. I am willing to help others who have work-related problems.
2.16. I do not take extra breaks.
2.17. I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.
2.18. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.
2.19. I help orient new people even though it is not required.
2.20. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.
2.21. I always find fault with what the organization is doing.
2.22. I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.
2.23. I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.

3. You

The following questions refer to your intention to leave the present organization.

Please tick as appropriate.

3.1. How frequently have you thought about leaving your current employer?

- ❍ Not at all (1)
- ❍ Low (2)
- ❍ Slightly (3)
- ❍ Neutral (4)
- ❍ Moderately (5)
- ❍ Very (6)
- ❍ Extremely (7)

3.2. How likely is it that you will actually leave your current employer?
3.3. How likely is it that you will look for a job in another organisation within the next year?

Appendix 12: Reliabilities statistics for all measures and items (study 2)

Reliability statistics for the mentor prototypicality scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
My mentor is a good example of the kind of people in my organization	.709	.848	.876
My mentor has a lot in common with the members of my organization	.722	.845	
My mentor represents what is characteristic about my organization	.674	.478	
My mentor is very similar to what the members of my organization value	.695	.501	
My mentor represents what this organization stands for	.725	.540	

Reliability statistics for the moral motivation scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
What is the percentage chance that you would choose to initiate the cause-related marketing program?	.580	N/A	.734
How likely are you to initiate the cause-related program?	.580	N/A	

Reliability statistics for the protégé's ethical leadership scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
I conduct my personal life in an ethical manner.	.624	.797	.825
I define success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.	.528	.807	
I listen to what employees have to say.	.658	.797	
I discipline employees who violate ethical standards.	.451	.817	
I make fair and balanced decisions.	.463	.814	
I can be trusted.	.347	.824	
I discuss business ethics or values with employees.	.486	.812	
I set an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.	.625	.798	
I have the best interests of employees in mind.	.566	.804	
When making decisions, I ask "what is the right thing to do?".	.429	.820	

Reliability statistics for the organizational citizenship behaviour scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Altruism			
I help others who have heavy workloads	.542	.699	.752
I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her	.505	.714	
I help others who have been absent	.540	.699	
I willingly help others who have work-related problems	.557	.696	
I help orient new people even though it is not required	.460	.732	
Conscientiousness			
I am one of the most conscientious employees	.404	.677	.702
I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay	.592	.606	
My attendance at work is above the norm	.376	.693	
I do not take extra breaks	.397	.693	
I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching	.601	.596	
Sportsmanship			
I am the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing	.631	.863	.873
I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters	.747	.835	
I tend to make "mountains out of the molehills"	.727	.840	
I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side	.741	.836	
I always find fault with what the organization is doing	.663	.855	
Courtesy			
I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers	.326	.690	.687
I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers	.423	.644	
I do not abuse the right of others	.448	.634	
I take steps to try to prevent problems with other employees	.539	.600	
I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's jobs	.495	.612	
Civic Virtue			
I keep abreast of changes in the organization	.367	.440	.551
I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important	.296	.581	
I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on	.451	.344	

Reliability statistics for the turnover intentions scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
How frequently have you thought about leaving your current employer?	.837	.928	.935
How likely is it that you will actually leave your current employer?	.900	.878	
How likely is it that you will look for a job in another organisation within the next year?	.860	.909	

Reliability statistics for the supervisor's ethical leadership scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Conducts h/h personal life in an ethical manner.	.769	.895	.910
Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.	.642	.903	
Listens to what employees have to say.	.709	.899	
Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.	.358	.920	
Makes fair and balanced decisions.	.753	.896	
Can be trusted.	.748	.896	
Discusses business ethics or values with employees.	.711	.898	
Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.	.790	.894	
Has the best interests of employees in mind.	.691	.900	
When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?".	.617	.905	

Reliability statistics for the ethical climate scale

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Caring			
What is best for everyone in the organization is the major consideration here.	.522	.799	.817
The most important concern is the good of all the people in the organization as a whole.	.694	.768	
Our major concern is always what is best for the other person.	.523	.801	
In this organization, people look out for each other's good.	.594	.787	
In this organization, it is expected that you will always do what is right for the customers and public.	.572	.791	
The most efficient way is always the right way in this organization.	.526	.798	
In this organization, each person is expected above all to work efficiently.	.482	.805	

Items	Corrected item correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Total alpha score
Law and code			
People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations.	.493	.696	.736
In this organization, the law or ethical code of their profession is the major consideration.	.633	.615	
In this organization, people are expected to strictly follow legal or professional standards.	.600	.641	
In this organization, the first consideration is whether a decision violates any taw.	.419	.751	
Rules			
It is very important to follow the organization's rules and procedures here.	.540	.684	.744
Everyone is expected to stick by organization rules and procedures.	.598	.649	
Successful people in this organization go by the book.	.437	.739	
People in this company strictly obey the organization policies.	.579	.662	
Instrumental			
In this organization, people protect their own interests above all else.	.617	.819	.844
In this organization, people are mostly out for themselves.	.624	.818	
There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this organization.	.522	.834	
People are expected to do anything to further the organization's interests, regardless of the consequences.	.664	.812	
People here are concerned with the organization's interests – to the exclusion of all else.	.558	.828	
Work is considered substandard only when it hurts the organization's interests.	.662	.813	
The major responsibility of people in this organization is to control costs.	.549	.829	
Independence			
In this organization, people are expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs.	.556	.743	.781
Each person in this organization decides for themselves what is right and wrong.	.583	.734	
The most important concern in this organization is each person's own sense of right and wrong.	.594	.725	
In this organization, people are guided by their own personal ethics.	.624	.712	