

Outcomes of Mentoring Relationships Among Sport Management Faculty: Application of a Theoretical Framework

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The importance of mentoring in the development of individual careers is noted in the business and higher education literature. However, prior research has given little attention to the development of mentoring relationships between junior and senior sport management faculty members. In addition to providing context-specific information, mentorship studies of sport management faculty provide insight on an emerging and gender-imbalanced discipline in the academy. This study reviews the literature on mentorship, and presents a hybrid framework on the mentor–protégé relationships established in the academic field of sport management. Specifically, the study identifies aspects of the relationships likely to yield positive perceptual outcomes, such as relationship effectiveness, trust, and job satisfaction. Data were collected from 161 sport management faculty members in the United States and Canada. The results provide support for the new hybrid framework and highlight mentoring as a valuable mechanism to support sport management faculty.

Keywords: career development, faculty development, networking, organizational communication

The importance of mentoring on the development of individual careers is often noted in various disciplines, particularly the business literature (Chao, 1997; Fagenson-Eland, Marks, & Amendola, 1997; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; Raymond & Kannan, 2014; Young & Perrewé, 2004). Although the literature on mentoring in higher education administration is not as extensive as in business, it supports the value of having a mentor for career development (Jones, Harris, & Miles, 2009; Sambunjak, Straus, & Marusic, 2010; Sands, Parson, & Duane, 1991). Several authors support ongoing mentoring between students and teachers or professors (Eliasson, Berggren, & Bondestam, 2000; Schrodt, Cawyer, & Sanders, 2003; van Eck Peluchette & Jeanquart, 2000). However, mentoring in an educational setting is not limited to these relationships. Just as in business, people in academic settings move up through the ranks. In the United States and Canada, faculty members begin their nontenure-track (e.g., lecturer, instructor, and clinical professor) or tenure-track academic careers as assistant professors. The academic career ladder then proceeds up through the associate, and ultimately, full professor ranks. Young academics need the assistance of seasoned academics to help guide them in learning to balance the rigors of research, teaching, and service as they move along the path to tenure and promotion. Although this is true across all academic disciplines, the current study examined one particular field of study: sport management.

As the sport industry continues to expand, the sport management academic field also has shown remarkable progress regarding the number of programs offered in the U.S. universities (Ferris & Perrewé, 2014). As such, colleges and universities need to empower and nurture the career development of new faculty members to enhance desired program outcomes. Researchers in sport management have acknowledged the benefits of mentoring to train and develop doctoral students (Beres & Dixon, 2014; Ferris & Perrewé, 2014), women as leaders in collegiate athletics (Smith, Taylor, & Hardin, 2016), the development of competent coaches (Lyons & Pastore, 2016), and understanding the needs of international students (Danylchuk, Baker, Pitts, & Zhang, 2015). However, prior research has given little attention to the development of mentoring relationships between junior and senior sport management faculty members. For instance, sport management is an emerging discipline in the academy (Chalip, 2006), as opposed to an established discipline; thus, it is an ideal setting to test mentoring models, as very rigid mentoring structures are less likely to be present in an emerging field. Furthermore, sport management faculty has a gender imbalance, with far more male faculty employed than female faculty, which contributes to the uniqueness of the context. Jones, Brooks, and Mak (2008) found that 66% of sport management programs had fewer than 40% female faculty members, and 30% of those programs had no female faculty at all. Although more recent studies indicate some progress in this area (Lebel, Danylchuk, & Millar, 2015; Taylor, Smith, Rode, & Hardin, 2017), the discipline still suffers from faculty gender imbalance.

The purpose of this study was to examine the mentoring process and relationships established in the academic field of sport management and to identify aspects of the relationships likely to yield positive perceptual outcomes, such as relationship effectiveness, trust, and job satisfaction. In this study, we

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contributed to the sport management literature through the development of a conceptual framework that describes mentorship between senior faculty mentors and junior faculty protégés. More importantly, we explored and evaluated the factors affecting mentoring relationship effectiveness, trust, and job satisfaction. In this study, first, we provide a background overview of the mentoring relationship. Second, we discuss the characteristics of mentors and protégés. Finally, we conclude by discussing the findings, identifying practical implications and limitations of the study, and presenting suggestions for future inquiries.

Literature Review

Mentoring is a developmental relationship encompassing the growth and advancement of an individual (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram, 1985), and the concept of mentoring is not new. For many centuries, older and wiser people have mentored younger people. In Greek mythology, Odysseus's son, Telemachus, was mentored by Odysseus's trusted friend, Mentor. Perhaps this is where the term *mentor* originated, because Mentor became a counselor, tutor, coach, and sponsor for the young protégé (Hamilton, 1942). The classic understanding of the term *mentorship* evolved from the relationship of these two characters. This myth embodied many of the positive attributes associated with the mentoring relationship (Wilson & Elman, 1990). For the purposes of this study, *mentor* was defined as "an experienced, productive manager who relates well to a less-experienced employee and facilitates his or her personal development for the benefit of the individual as well as that of the organization" (Kram, 1985, p. 1).

In a mentoring relationship, both mentors and protégés are presumed to develop expectations for their mentoring partners. In addition, exchange behaviors (i.e., exposure, visibility, role modeling, and counseling) are developed throughout the relationship (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001; Young & Perrewé, 2004). By understanding the definition and concept of mentoring, organizations and individuals benefit from a more effective exchange, leading to higher productivity and performance. Mentoring also provides a vehicle for more thorough training and socialization over longer periods of time (Kram, 1983, 1985). Mentoring relationships are becoming increasingly important to many organizations (Allen, Eby, Chao, & Bauer, 2017; Beres & Dixon, 2014; Ferris & Perrewé, 2014; Russell & Adams, 1997; Young & Perrewé, 2004).

The Mentoring Relationship

Mentoring relationships develop differently for different individuals. The relationship with a mentor may just emerge or develop spontaneously (Burke, 1984) because of shared interests, admiration, or task demands (Hardy, 1994). Many mentoring relationships develop in the natural hierarchies that exist in the workplace. By definition and description, mentoring begins with (a) the protégé choosing a mentor, (b) the mentor choosing a protégé, or (c) both the protégé and the mentor choosing each other. The relationship then moves through a series of four phases: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition (Chao, 1997). Furthermore, certain environmental factors (e.g., opportunities for mentoring, organizational climate) or barriers (e.g., access to mentors, fear of initiating a relationship) may inhibit or facilitate the process (Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002; Young & Perrewé, 2000).

Characteristics of Mentors and Protégés

Mentors are typically powerful and knowledgeable individuals holding highly placed jobs, who possess the willingness to share their expertise without a sense of threat from the protégé's potential to equal or surpass their own accomplishments (Hunt & Michael, 1983). An assumption about protégés in the mentoring process is that they have the potential to advance, needing only grooming by an experienced mentor. Protégés appreciate their mentors' experience, listening skills, and willingness to share information, advice, and empathy (Ransdell, Nguyen, Hums, Clark, & Williams, 2018). In addition, Eby (1997) suggested that peer mentoring can facilitate knowledge transfer and creation from an experienced worker and less-experienced worker.

Because the mentoring process involves developing, maintaining, and sometimes separating from a relationship, specific factors pertaining to relationships in general are relevant to mentoring. An effective mentor demonstrates a restrained sense of guidance, allowing the relationship to attain a level of interdependence, whereas the protégé seeks some belief in the utility of the relationship. The mentoring support behaviors identified in previous research have been the mainstay of the present mentoring research (Young & Perrewé, 2004).

Two main forms of mentoring support, career and psychosocial functions, emerged from Kram's (1983, 1985) work and have been examined extensively in relation to many types of career-related outcomes (Fagenson-Eland et al., 1997; Russell & Adams, 1997; Scandura, 1992; Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991). The mentoring career functions consist of sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging work assignments. These functions are most directly associated with the elements of career advancement, such as promotions, salary, status, recognition, and power (Kram, 1985). The psychosocial functions of mentoring consist of role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004). The psychosocial functions are tied less to organizational structure and are more dependent on the quality of the interpersonal relationship between the mentor and protégé (Kram, 1985).

From previous research, evidence indicates both the mentor and protégé seek something from the mentoring relationship (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1983, 1985; Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). From a more theoretical perspective, Homans (1958) suggested that mentoring relationships of any type are largely formed and maintained as an exchange, where the costs of maintaining the relationship are weighed against the benefits received from the relationship. The more valuable the support behaviors from the mentor and the reciprocal behaviors from the protégé, the more likely the relationship itself will be viewed as valuable (Young & Perrewé, 2004).

Mentoring Outcomes

The mentoring process includes several phases, and each phase of the relationship entails slightly different types of behaviors and expectations (Chao, 1997). As the mentoring relationship progresses, various outcomes are formed and realized for the protégé, the mentor, and the organization (Allen et al., 2004). For the protégés, the outcomes have been grouped into what has been termed *advancement outcomes* and *growth outcomes* (Levinson, 1978; Zey, 1985). Advancement outcomes are often associated with the career functions of mentoring and consist of promotion, salary, recognition, status, and power (Ragins, 1997). Growth

outcomes appear to be linked more with the psychosocial functions and consist of competency, identity, and effectiveness. These outcomes are sufficient justification for continuing mentoring relationships. For the mentors, becoming involved in a mentoring relationship brings about new responsibilities and provides an opportunity for a senior manager to redirect energies toward more creative and productive ventures compared with a future of reduced or nonexistent growth opportunities (Kram, 1983). For organizations, mentored protégés tend to be better educated, have less turnover, and be more satisfied with their career and the organization (Hunt & Michael, 1983). The accumulation of outcomes and experiences through the mentoring relationship influences feelings and attitudes about mentoring in general (Fagenson-Eland et al., 1997).

These mentoring outcomes are necessary components in the development of a framework to study mentoring relationships. A comprehensive framework is important because organizations are interested in developing mentoring programs, but often do not understand or foresee the challenges associated with formalized programs (Kram, 1985; Phillips-Jones, 1983; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). As such, this framework contributes to the existing body of mentoring literature by advancing the understanding of mentoring among faculty members in the field of sport management.

Theoretical Framework

Weaver and Chelladurai (1999) created a model combining various factors and outcomes associated with mentoring into a comprehensive framework. Similarly, Young and Perrewé (2000) developed a model that encompassed both the mentor and protégé and focused on the exchange behaviors exhibited by both partners in the mentoring relationship. The hybrid of these two models, identified by the strengths of each, became the theoretical model for this mentoring study.

The framework created by Weaver and Chelladurai (1999) exhibited how similar mentor and protégé characteristics lead to

mentor–protégé compatibility, subsequently leading to a mentoring relationship (see Figure 1). The characteristics of a mentor include age, experience, organizational position, organizational status, traits, and abilities. Likewise, the characteristics of a protégé include traits, ability, gender, and age. Although the protégé and mentor may be compatible, the compatibility may not blossom into an effective mentoring relationship due to barriers such as the availability of effective mentors, proximity of protégé–mentor work environments, lack of network opportunities, stereotypes, and fear of sexual connotations (Kram, 1985; Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999). These barriers may limit opportunities for either the prospective protégé or mentor.

According to Hardy (1994), the compatibility between a mentor and protégé predicts the success of a mentoring relationship. Examples of this compatibility include similar interests or goals, attitudes, personality factors, and behavior. Divergent interests or goals tend to inhibit the relationship. Successful mentoring is a transitional process (Hardy, 1994) and requires time to move along its different phases (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1983). This process begins with the initiation phase started by either the protégé or mentor and then moves into the cultivation phase to explore career and psychosocial functions; it is followed by a separation phase between each to allow for independence and autonomy, and then the two reconnect or redefine their relationship as the protégé progresses.

Career outcomes such as promotion, advancement, and increased salary are determined by the organization and potentially hinder the protégé from receiving the benefits of effective mentoring (Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999). However, growth outcomes are mediated by the mentor and protégé, not the organization. Successful mentoring results in positive outcomes for the protégé (advancement and growth), mentor (intrinsic satisfaction, status, respect, and power), and organization (reduced turnover and development of managerial potential). Although growth outcomes may not necessarily be tied to advancement outcomes, they provide sufficient justification for continuing a mentoring relationship

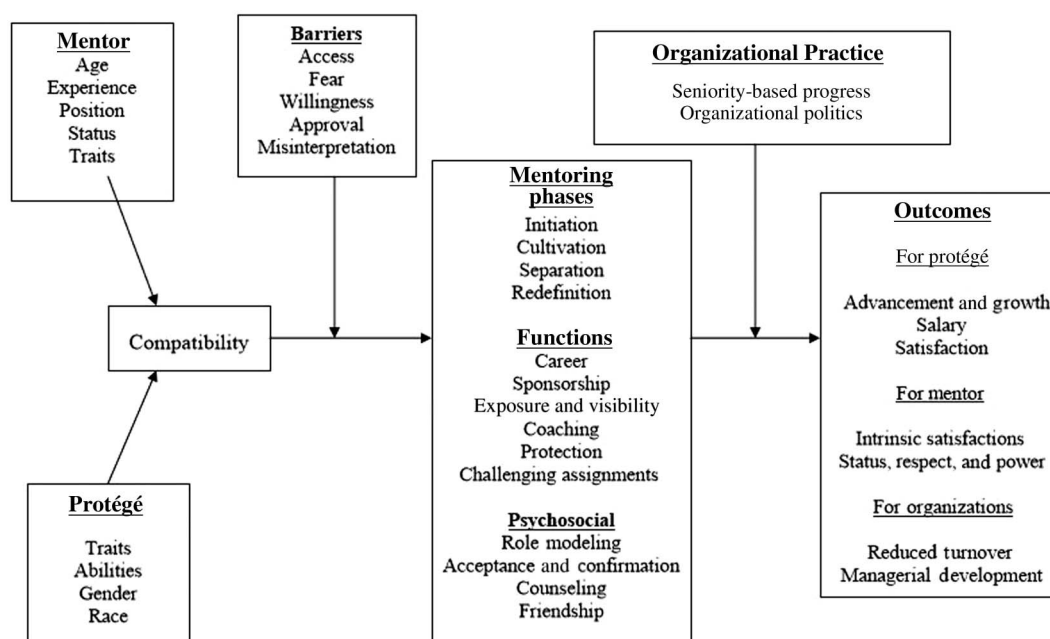


Figure 1 — Model of mentoring (Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999).

(Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999). All three entities—the protégé, mentor, and organization—profit from a successful mentoring relationship.

Weaver and Chelladurai's (1999) model included the critical variables influencing the emergence of a mentoring relationship and its effectiveness in producing the desired outcomes for the protégé, mentor, and organization. In addition, the researchers proposed the model as applicable to everyone, including minority candidates aspiring to higher managerial levels in physical education and sport. However, this model illustrated the relationship with incomplete antecedents (e.g., environmental factors or relationship factors) and did not address the potential disparity between expected and received role behavior.

Another mentoring model, created by Young and Perrewé (2000), illustrated the exchange between the mentor and protégé (see Figure 2). The researchers wanted to (a) identify why some relationships become true mentoring relationships, whereas others do not, (b) develop training and counseling programs to evaluate and assist individuals in mentoring relationships, and (c) develop a process to provide guidance to corporations wishing to incorporate mentoring programs. This framework was used to depict the important factors in the mentoring process from both a mentor and protégé perspective (Young & Perrewé, 2000).

A synopsis of the model created by Young and Perrewé (2000) focused on the antecedent factors leading to a mentoring

relationship, the exchange of behaviors by both partners throughout their mentoring relationship, levels of met expectations of each partner, and perceptual and tangible outcomes on the individual, dyadic, and organizational levels. Two important components were also included to help with the understanding of this model. First, two variables, relationship type and phase, framed the mentoring exchange. Second, the model posited cyclical relationships based on the impact of mentoring outcomes on antecedent factors (i.e., individual characteristics, career factors, and relationship type) to present a broad and comprehensive conceptual model of the mentoring process (Young & Perrewé, 2000).

The researchers suggested that individual characteristics (i.e., disposition, demographics), relationship factors (i.e., attraction, power/performance potential, general affect for mentoring, mentoring experience, perceived commitment), career factors (i.e., career goals, career progression, position level, job experience), environmental factors (i.e., opportunities for mentoring, reward structure, organizational climate), and the type of relationship (i.e., formal, informal) were influential in forming and maintaining mentoring relationships. According to Young and Perrewé (2000), a dyadic relationship existed when both the mentor and protégé engaged a mentoring relationship. The decision to participate in this relationship is at the discretion of each potential participant.

The models set forth by Weaver and Chelladurai (1999) and Young and Perrewé (2000) shared a section related to the four

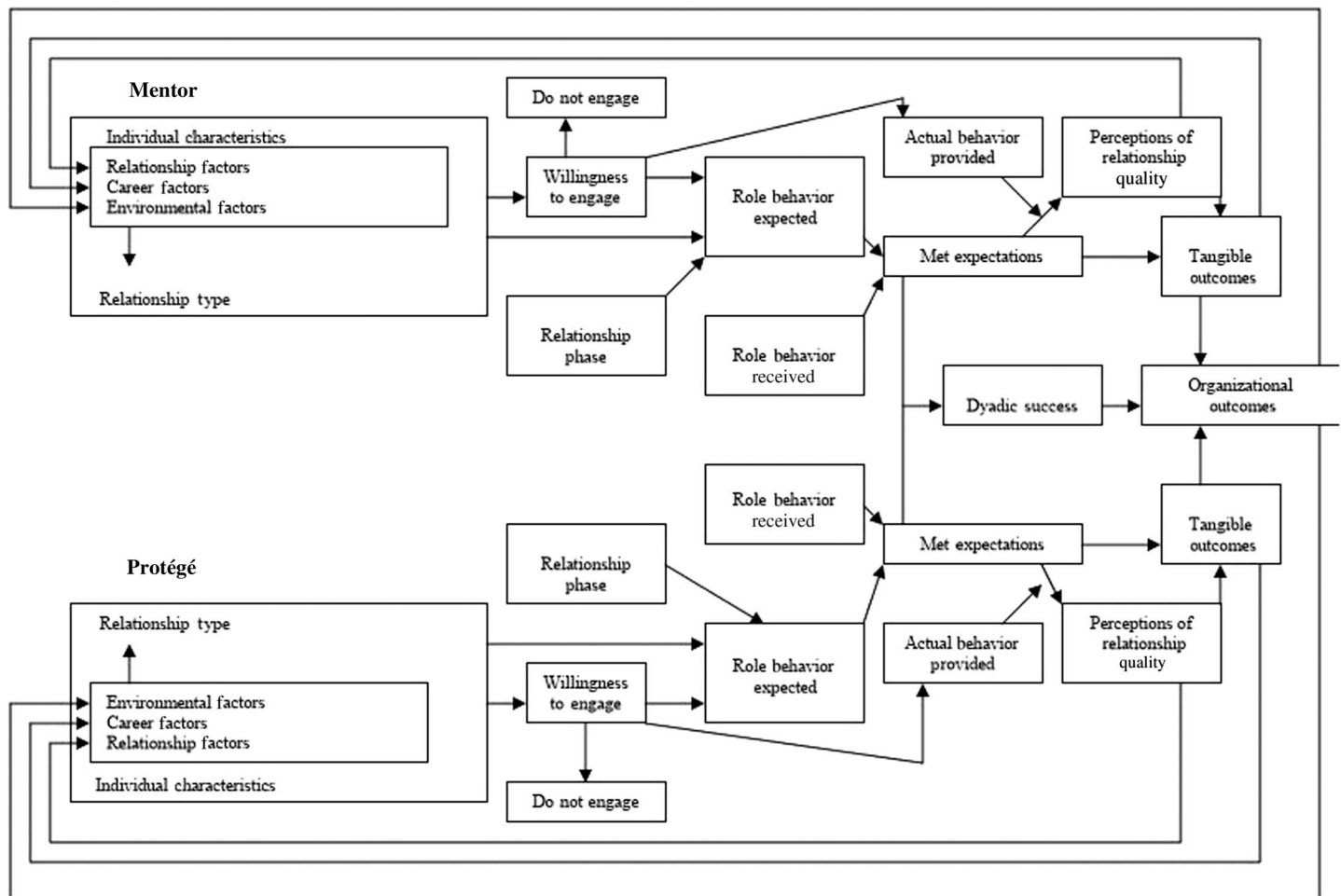


Figure 2 — The mentoring exchange (Young & Perrewé, 2000).

phases identified by Kram (1983). These four phases were initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. Existing mentoring research clearly emphasizes the importance of considering the relationship phase when studying mentors and protégés (Chao, 1997; Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Kram, 1983).

The core of the mentoring exchange includes expected role behavior, received role behavior, and met expectations (Young & Perrewé, 2000). Although antecedent factors play an important role in setting the stage for the interaction or exchange to take place, the accumulated exchange of behaviors between a mentor and protégé comprise the relationship (Holmes, 1991). The core of the mentoring exchange framework for the present study developed from (a) recognizing the importance of examining the specific interactions or exchanges between mentors and protégés, (b) integrating knowledge from social exchange theory (Foa & Foa, 1974; Homans, 1958), and (c) incorporating relationship theory (Berscheid, 1994; Fiske, 1992).

The exchange of behaviors holds the key to realizing positive individual, dyadic, and organizational outcomes. Young and Perrewé's (2000) model presents three different levels of related outcomes. The first, dyadic success, incorporates the mentor and protégé perceptions of met expectations (Young & Perrewé, 2000). Other outcomes presented at the individual level in the form of perceptual outcomes (e.g., trust, liking, a feeling of identification) are related to relationship-exchange quality. In addition,

organizational outcomes (e.g., higher productivity, great job satisfaction, and lower turnover) are more likely realized by the careful consideration of the process of mentoring, including antecedent factors and the exchange process.

Although studying mentoring at the organizational and individual levels is important, a particularly useful aspect of Young and Perrewé's (2000) model is the focus on the mentoring exchange and dyadic success. Specifically, Young and Perrewé (2000) addressed the mentoring process at organizational, dyadic, and individual levels and incorporated variables relevant to mentors, protégés, and the dyad. However, this model does not include many barriers that are major considerations in the mentoring process. The only barrier included is one's willingness to engage.

Based on the strengths and limitations of the Weaver and Chelladurai (1999) and Young and Perrewé (2000) models, the design for the present study is a hybrid model to further explore the mentoring relationship and exchange process. As shown in Figure 3, similar mentor and protégé antecedent factors (i.e., individual characteristics, relationship factors, career factors, environmental factors, and relationship type) lead directly to barriers and/or to the actual behavior provided. In addition, the relationship phase (i.e., initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition) directly impacts expected role behavior.

The exchange of expected and received role behaviors performed by both partners throughout their mentoring relationship

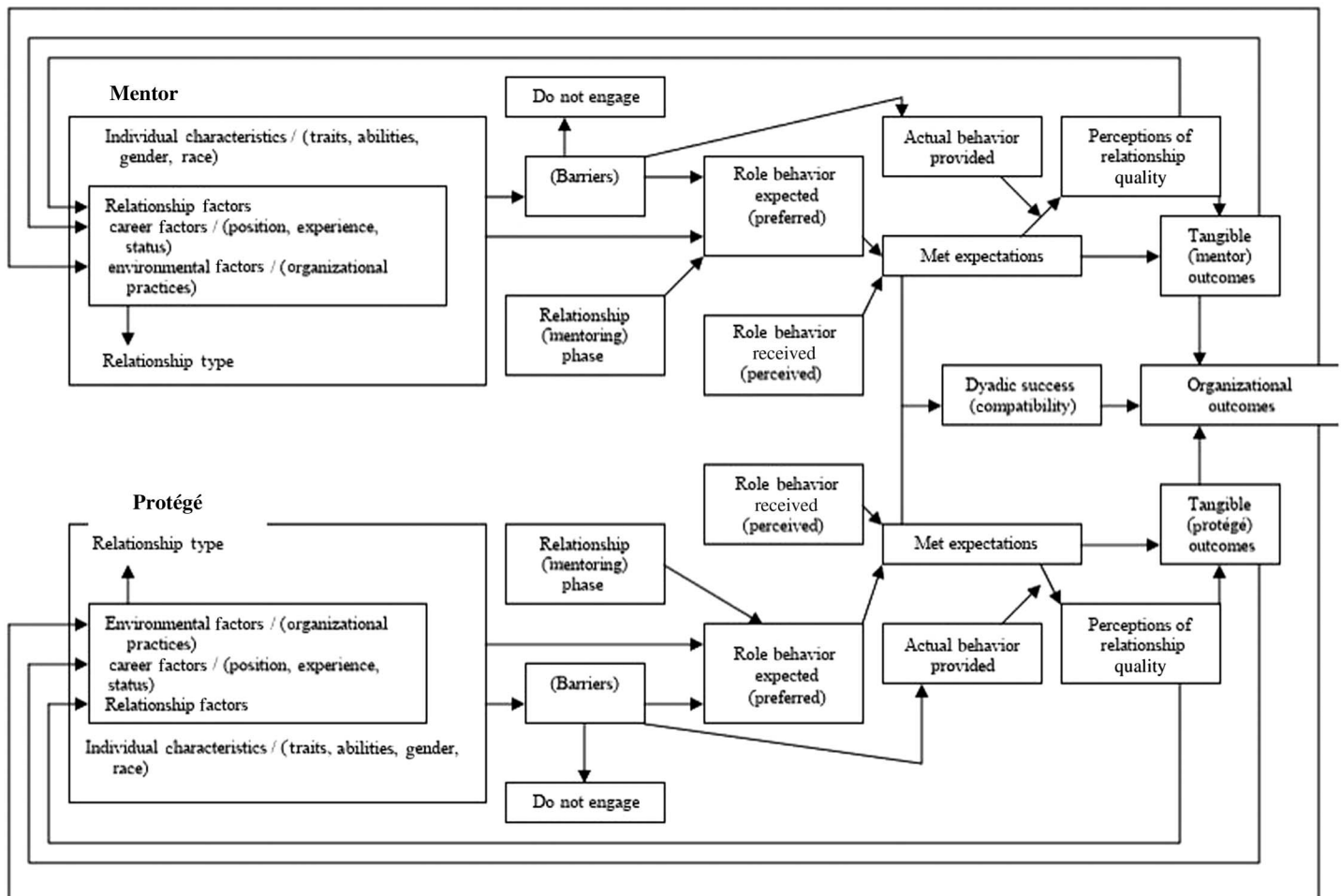


Figure 3 — Theoretical framework.

predicts the perceptual or tangible outcomes for the individual (mentor or protégé), the dyad, and the organization. Given these relationships, we proffered the following hypotheses to test the proposed model empirically within the context of sport management faculty:

H1: The positive relationship between a protégé's assessment of a mentor's career and social support behaviors and a protégé's perceptions of relationship effectiveness will be mediated by a protégé's level of met expectations.

H2: The positive relationship between a protégé's assessment of a mentor's career and social support behaviors and a protégé's trust in the mentor will be mediated by a protégé's level of met expectations.

H3: The higher the perception of met expectations from the perspective of the protégé, the higher the reported levels of job satisfaction will be for the protégé.

Method

Participants

The population selected for this study included all identified faculty members in the United States and Canada currently teaching in sport management academic programs ($n = 520$) at the time of the data collection. The primary source list for the sample was the academic program list on the North American Society for Sport Management website. However, as an added measure, the most recently published edition of the *Directory of Graduate Programs in Sport Management* (Comfort, 2005), along with the Google search engine, was utilized to identify additional programs not listed on the North American Society for Sport Management website. The final sample ($n = 471$) was reduced due to incorrect e-mail addresses and feedback from some respondents stating the survey was not applicable to them. The response rate was 34% (161 usable responses were received). Only 90 of the 161 respondents reported participation in a mentoring relationship; therefore, the hypotheses in the present study only evaluated the responses of the 90 participants with a mentor.

Sample Characteristics

Among the respondents, 6.2% ($n = 10$) were African American, 1.9% ($n = 3$) were Asian, 0.6% ($n = 1$) were Asian American, 88.8% ($n = 143$) were White, 1.9% ($n = 3$) were Hispanic/Latino, and 0.6% ($n = 1$) reported their ethnicity as "other." The average age of the respondents was 44 years old, and, on average, the respondents had 10 years of experience as a sport management faculty member. In regard to gender, 64% ($n = 103$) were male, and 36% ($n = 58$) were female.

The number of years of experience as a sport management faculty member ranged from 0 to 40 years, with a mean of 9.92 ± 7.25 years. In addition, the number of years at the current institution ranged from 0 to 36 years, with a mean of 7.93 ± 7.36 years. The sport management faculty members in this study reported their current academic rank as lecturer ($n = 9$; 5.6%), assistant professor ($n = 61$; 37.9%), associate professor ($n = 64$; 39.8%), and full professor ($n = 26$; 16.1%). The number of years at the current academic rank ranged from 0 to 28 years, with a mean of 4.95 ± 4.54 years. About 29% of the mentors were in the same institution as the protégé. In addition, respondents reported that they were

currently working at associate institutions ($n = 3$; 1.9%), baccalaureate institutions ($n = 19$; 11.8%), master's-level institutions ($n = 48$; 29.8%), doctoral-research intensive universities ($n = 36$; 22.4%), and doctoral-research extensive universities ($n = 55$; 34.2%).

Procedures

The survey was e-mailed directly to a large number of sport management faculties over a broad geographical area. To increase response rates for web-based surveys, Dillman (2000) recommended that a prenotification e-mail message be sent 2–3 days prior to the survey administration date. Next, the subjects received an invitation to participate in this study. In addition, follow-up reminders were sent via e-mail. Such multiple contacts have been shown to progressively increase response rates for e-mail surveys (Smith, 1997).

Measures

The selection of the measures used in this study involved a two-step process. First, items measuring focal constructs were selected from the prior literature. Next, a panel of sport management experts, consisting of three sport management faculty members, reviewed the items for content validity. After the selection process, a total of 48 items were retained to measure the intended constructs. The survey contained eight sections, including (a) phases of the mentor relationship, (b) environmental factors, (c) role behavior received, (d) role behavior expected, (e) met expectations, (f) perceived outcomes, (g) barriers, and (h) demographics. As the main objective of this study was to examine the mentoring process and relationships established and to identify aspects of the relationships likely to yield positive perceptual outcomes, we only included the responses from (c) role behavior received, (e) met expectations, and (f) perceived outcomes.

Role behavior received. Young and Perrewé (2000) developed the Mentoring Support Received–Protégé's Perspective questionnaire to determine the support behavior from the protégé's perspective. This scale measures the extent to which the protégé feels the mentor engages in career or social support behaviors. Career-related support behavior was measured with seven items, and social support behavior was measured with six items. The items represented each of the unique aspects of support, such as career-related support, including sponsorship, exposure to advantageous projects, visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. A sample item measuring career-related support is *To what extent does your mentor nominate you for promotions, awards, or professional opportunities?* Social support included items related to acceptance, confirmation, counseling, friendship, and role modeling. A sample social support item is *To what extent does your mentor discuss with you any personal concerns and problems which may hinder your progress?* Both measures were based on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*frequently*).

Met expectations. Young and Perrewé (2000) developed two questions that were utilized to determine the extent to which an individual receives what is expected. These were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*frequently*). A sample item is *I'm not getting what I expected from the relationship*. A third question, designed specifically for this study, was utilized to determine if the expectations in a mentoring

relationship were met. The addition of a third item reduced the potential for random error.

Perceived outcomes. Weaver and Chelladurai's (1999) facets of job satisfaction, based on Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Diagnostic Survey, were utilized to assess whether the respondents were satisfied or dissatisfied with each aspect of their current job. These eight items were contained in three subscales: extrinsic rewards, intrinsic rewards, and work group. These subscales were measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 7 (*very satisfied*). A sample item for job satisfaction is *How satisfied are you with the respect you receive in the institution?*

In addition, relationship effectiveness and trust were assessed as perceived outcomes. Perceived satisfaction and success of the relationship were measured by six items that assessed the construct of relationship effectiveness. A sample item of the success scale is *I believe that the mentoring relationship has benefited me*. Trust was measured with a scale developed by Butler (1991). The measure contained four items pertaining to the extent to which a work-partner is trusted. A sample item from this scale is *I feel that my mentor can be trusted*. These perceived outcomes of the mentoring relationship were measured with a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strong disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using R (version 3.3.2). Before assessing the evidence of reliability, data screening and assumption tests were conducted. To assess the measurement models (i.e., role behavior received, met expectation, and perceived outcomes), we ran three separate confirmatory factor analyses on each dimension. The fit of the data to the proposed model was evaluated using the comparative fit index, Tucker–Lewis index, and root mean square error of approximation. Comparative fit index and Tucker–Lewis index values of .92 or higher and root mean square error of approximation values of $\leq .08$ indicate a good fit (Weston & Gore, 2006). Internal consistency of the constructs was measured through composite reliability (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010). Values greater than .70 are considered to be adequate. Convergent validity was evaluated through the average variance extracted, and discriminant validity was established when the average variance extracted for each construct exceeded the squared correlations between it and any other construct. Average variance extracted values above .50 indicate that the subscales have good construct reliability (Hair et al., 2010).

Univariate outliers in the endogenous variables and exogenous variables were sought using the extreme values output from the explore analysis. Following Hair et al.'s (2010) protocol, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity assumptions were simultaneously assessed by analyzing residual scatter plots. In addition, the multivariate normal distribution was evaluated using a histogram and an assessment of skewness and kurtosis.

Results

The goodness of fit indices for the confirmatory factor analyses on each measurement model indicated good fit for all the confirmatory factor analyses (see Table 1). No highest or lowest standardized score for dependent variables or independent variables was above 3.00 or below -3.00 , which are the suggested cutoff values for potential outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Similarly, the

skewness values for the items used in this study ranged from -1.796 to -0.636 , and the kurtosis values ranged from 3.383 to -0.271 . Following Kline's (2005) suggestions that only variables with skewness index absolute values greater than 3 and kurtosis index absolute values greater than 10 are of concern, these values were considered normal and would not limit the use of factor analysis. Based on the assessment of skewness and kurtosis scores, we concluded the assumption of normality was not violated (Kline, 2005).

As shown in Table 2, all factor loadings ranged from .51 to .94 and were significant ($p < .001$) and greater than the recommended cutoff point of .50 (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, all of the composite reliability values ranged from .83 to .94, indicating acceptable levels of reliability for the constructs, according to the recommended .70 thresholds (Hair et al., 2010). Finally, none of the correlations between constructs was greater than .85, providing evidence of discriminant validity (Kline, 2005). As these scales and subscales had good internal consistency and adequately represented the intended constructs, we used them in the following analyses.

The Influence of Role Behavior Received on Relationship Effectiveness

The first research hypothesis concerned the relationship between role behavior received, met expectations, and relationship effectiveness. To analyze this, two regression equations were calculated. The first equation required a regression of the dependent variable (relationship effectiveness) on the independent variable (role behavior received). The relationship was significant, and the independent variables accounted for 48.3% of the variance in relationship effectiveness, $R^2 = .489$, adjusted $R^2 = .483$, $F(1, 89) = 85.216$, $p < .001$. Second, regressing the mediating variable (met expectations) on the independent variable (role behavior received) resulted in a significant finding that accounted for 37.8% of the variance in customer satisfaction, $R^2 = .378$, adjusted $R^2 = .371$, $F(1, 89) = 53.994$, $p < .001$. Therefore, the role behavior received by the protégé significantly explained met expectations. Finally, we regressed the dependent variable (relationship effectiveness) on both the independent variable (role behavior received) and the mediating variable (met expectations).

The results of the full regression model were significant, and the independent variables accounted for 67% of the variance in behavioral intentions, $R^2 = .696$, adjusted $R^2 = .689$, $F(2, 88) = 100.552$, $p < .001$. Entered first, role behavior received predicted 48.3% of the variance in relationship effectiveness. When met expectations was entered into the equation, the change in R^2 was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .206$), indicating that met expectations mediates the relationship between role behavior received and relationship effectiveness. The results of this regression are presented in Table 3. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported, providing evidence that met expectations has a mediating effect on the relationship between role behavior received and relationship effectiveness. As a result, when mentors engaged in sufficient levels of career and social support behaviors, the protégé's met expectations were affected, leading to the formation of higher perceptions of relationship effectiveness.

The Influence of Role Behavior Received on Trust

Hypothesis 2 stated that the positive relationship between a protégé's assessment of a mentor's career and social support behaviors

Table 1 Factor Loading, CR, and AVE

Constructs and Items	λ	CR	AVE
Role behavior received			
career support		0.90	0.57
nominate you for promotions, awards, or professional opportunities	0.88		
assign you to or nominate you for prestigious or professional useful projects valued by the organization	0.90		
make you visible to influential others through verbal or written communication, or personal introduction	0.70		
provide specific strategies and information about how to enhance your ability to achieve your objectives, recognition, or career aspirations	0.69		
reduce risks or threats to your advancement by supporting you or speaking on your behalf	0.72		
suggest projects which enhance your technical knowledge	0.69		
discuss with you any personal concerns and problems which may hinder your progress	0.67		
social support		0.90	0.60
show a personal interest in you and your values, goals, and aspirations	0.70		
tolerate differences between the two of you	0.71		
to what extent does your mentor like you for who you are	0.89		
to what extent does your mentor interact with you as a friend	0.76		
to what extent does your mentor professionally conduct himself/herself in a desirable manner (meeting deadlines, arriving to meetings on time, etc.)	0.73		
to what extent does your mentor personally conduct himself/herself in a desirable manner	0.84		
Met expectation		0.84	0.65
so far, I have received what I expected to receive from the relationship	0.95		
I'm not getting what I expected from the relationship	0.50		
my expectations for the mentoring relationship have been fulfilled	0.89		
Perceived outcomes			.
success		0.95	0.75
overall, I feel satisfied with the mentoring relationship	0.94		
overall, I feel the mentoring relationship was successful	0.96		
I believe that the mentoring relationship has benefited me.	0.94		
I feel that working with my mentor has positively affected my academic progress	0.85		
I feel that working with my mentor has positively affected my academic values	0.74		
I feel that working with my mentor has enhanced my personal sense of competence	0.72		
trust		0.82	0.54
I count on my mentor to be trustworthy	0.60		
I feel that my mentor can be trusted	0.81		
I trust my mentor	0.74		
sometimes I cannot trust my mentor	0.76		
Satisfaction			
extrinsic rewards		0.82	0.60
the rate of advancement in your institution	0.82		
the degree of status you have in the institution	0.87		
the salary you receive	0.61		
intrinsic rewards		0.95	0.91
the degree of self-fulfillment you receive from your work	0.99		
the sense of accomplishment you get from work	0.92		
work group		0.75	0.51
the supervision you receive	0.61		
the respect you receive in the institution	0.89		
the people you work with in your institution	0.61		

Note. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted.

Table 2 Fit Indices for the Measurement Models

Model	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Role behavior	1.817	.92	.938	.07
Perceived outcomes	2.15	.93	.954	.07
Satisfaction	2.223	.92	.965	.08

Note. *df* = degrees of freedom; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

Table 3 Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Relationship Effectiveness

	R^2	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Step 1	.465*					
role behavior received		0.702	0.042	0.682*	16.705	<.001*
Step 2	.557*					
role behavior received		0.470	0.054	0.457*	8.668	<.001*
met expectations		0.016	0.073	0.013	0.222	.824

* $p < .01$. $\Delta R^2 = .206$.

and a protégé's trust in the mentor would be mediated by a protégé's level of met expectations. First, a regression equation used to test the influence of role behavior received (independent variable) on trust (dependent variable) resulted in significance, $R^2 = .230$, adjusted $R^2 = .221$, $F(1, 89) = 26.530$, $p < .001$. Second, regressing role behavior received (independent variable) on met expectations (mediating variable) was significant, $R^2 = .378$, adjusted $R^2 = .371$, $F(1, 89) = 53.994$, $p < .001$. Finally, we regressed the dependent variable (trust) on both the independent variable (role behavior received) and the mediating variable (met expectations).

The results of the full regression model were significant, and the independent variables accounted for 37.4% of the variance in behavioral intentions, $R^2 = .388$, adjusted $R^2 = .374$, $F(2, 88) = 27.909$, $p < .001$. Entered first, role behavior received predicted 22.1% of the variance in trust. When met expectations was entered into the equation, the change in R^2 was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .158$), indicating that met expectations mediates the relationship between role behavior received and trust. The results of this regression are presented in Table 4. As shown in Table 3, the significant effects of the independent variable (role behavior received) were minimal on the dependent variable (trust) when the mediating variable (met expectations) was entered, and thus, partial mediation effects were established. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. When the mentor engaged in sufficient levels of career and social

Table 4 Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Trust

	R^2	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Step 1	.465*					
role behavior received		0.702	0.042	0.682*	16.705	<.001*
Step 2	.557*					
role behavior received		0.470	0.054	0.457*	8.668	<.001*
met expectation		0.016	0.073	0.013	0.222	.824

* $p < .01$. $\Delta R^2 = .158$.

support behaviors, the protégé was more likely to trust the mentor, due, in part, to the met expectations.

The Influence of Met Expectation on Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 3 stated that the higher the perception of met expectations from the perspective of the protégé, the higher the reported levels of job satisfaction will be for the protégé. To test this hypothesis, a simple linear regression equation was run. The regression equation required a regression of the dependent variable (satisfaction) on the independent variable (met expectations). The relationship was significant, and the independent variables accounted for 12.1% of the variance in relationship effectiveness, $R^2 = .131$, adjusted $R^2 = .121$, $F(1, 93) = 13.966$, $p < .001$. Based on this result, the protégé's perception of met expectations for job satisfaction emerged as positively related, and Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the mentoring process and the relationships established in the academic field of sport management and to identify aspects of the relationships likely to yield positive perceptual outcomes, such as relationship effectiveness, trust, and job satisfaction. The results provide evidence that met expectations mediates the perceptions of role behavior received (career and social support behaviors) on perceptual outcomes (relationship effectiveness, trust, and job satisfaction) exhibited by mentors and protégés and perceptions of relationship effectiveness in the mentoring relationship.

The Influence of Role Behavior Received on Relationship Effectiveness

As anticipated, met expectations were found to mediate the mentoring relationship (Young & Perrewé, 2000). A positive relationship exists between the career and social support behaviors exhibited by the mentor and the protégé's perceptions of relationship effectiveness. In other words, when the mentor's actions were in line with the protégé's expectations, the protégé felt the mentoring relationship was effective. Consistent with previous research, when protégés are open to sponsorship and coaching, accomplishing assigned tasks, and working hard on projects given by the mentor, the perceptions of exchange quality between the protégé and mentor are positively influenced (Young & Perrewé, 2000). For example, the time senior faculty members spend working with junior faculty helps develop the research skills junior faculty members need to be productive. In addition, working with a mentor allows the protégé to gain the knowledge and experience needed to be successful and achieve his or her desired goals (Whitely et al., 1991). If the protégé wants to advance his or her knowledge and skills, this opportunity provides guidance and insight for the successful career path of a sport management faculty member. This opportunity also benefits new faculty members as they begin progressing up the career ladder.

The Influence of Role Behavior Received on Trust

A positive relationship exists between career and social support behaviors exhibited by a mentor and the protégé's perceptions of trust. This finding is in line with the work by Sheppard and

Tuchinsky (1996), who found that trust is likely to be an influential determinant of the quality of future interactions across all stages of the mentoring relationship. When the mentor's actions were in line with the protégé's expectations, the protégé trusted his/her mentor. In terms of career development, if a protégé trusts a mentor, he or she may see the mentor as someone who will help him or her with career development (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1983). In academia, a protégé could see the mentor as someone who could help him or her to advance in an academic career, and the protégé may be more willing to continue to collaborate with the mentor on research projects. For example, the new faculty trusts the faculty mentor when "good character" and the concern for others to succeed as sport management faculty are evident. Characteristics displayed by the mentor, including wise decision-making, knowledge, and experience, help engender confidence in the new faculty member to succeed. Trusting a respected professional in the field of sport management is essential in developing future faculty members.

The Influence of Met Expectation on Job Satisfaction

This study examined the perception of met expectations and reported levels of job satisfaction for the protégé. Similar to Whitely and Coetsier (1993), the results indicate that met expectations predicts job satisfaction. In other words, if the mentor meets and exceeds the protégé's expectations in the mentoring relationship, the protégé may gain confidence in research and teaching, helping him or her to become an effective and productive faculty member in sport management. In addition, the positive influence and encouragement given by the senior faculty member provides a new faculty member with more confidence to achieve the goal of becoming a successful sport management faculty member. Due to the high level of job satisfaction and the positive outcome of the mentoring relationship, the mentor encourages the protégé to become a positive role model for future protégés (Bower, Hums, & Keedy, 2005). Mentoring results in higher productivity, greater information exchange and socialization, and higher levels of perceived job satisfaction. Several researchers have suggested that career satisfaction is another vital factor to relationship exchange quality (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1994; Young & Perrewé, 2004).

Theoretical Contributions

This posited theoretical framework offers important implications for theory and research in mentoring relationships. Although Young and Perrewé's (2000) framework previously identified environmental and relationship factors (individual characteristics, relationship factors, career factors, environment factors, and relationship type) that can influence mentoring relationships, our study advances that framework through the identification of barriers as a central catalyst for the perceived outcomes of mentoring relationships. Our framework also sheds light on the exchange of expected and received role behaviors performed by both partners throughout their mentoring relationship and notes these exchanges can be influenced by mentor access, fear of initiating a relationship, willingness of the mentor, approval of others, and misinterpretation of the approach. The role of barriers as an influencing factor in the process of implementing high-quality mentoring relationships has not received the attention it deserves, and this updated framework offers a platform for further empirical work.

Next, mentoring research in sport management has primarily focused on the outcomes associated with mentoring (Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999) rather than mentoring exchange and its components of met expectations, expected role behavior, and received role behavior. Our framework underscores that mentorship outcomes are influenced by expected role behavior and the actual behavior provided, and that perceptions of relationship quality mediate the relationship between met expectations and tangible outcomes. Although this framework was developed and tested in the context of sport management faculty and is intended to advance research about the nature of mentorship in sport management, it shows the potential for application in other contexts.

Practical Implications

The findings of this study have numerous implications for sport management faculty members, doctoral students, programs, institutions interested in developing mentoring programs, scholarly associations, and sport management research centers. Experiences in a mentoring relationship affect future interactions, expectations, and general attitudes toward mentoring (Fagenson-Eland et al., 1997). Bower et al. (2005) examined mentoring in campus recreation and found that the experience of the mentor as a protégé may provide an understanding of why the mentor initiates mentoring relationships. In addition, the authors found mentoring style influences the mentor's decision to engage in a more supportive and encouraging mentoring style rather than an authoritative style. Collaborating and gaining experiences from faculty mentors helps prepare new faculty for the research, teaching, and service components required in academia.

Junior faculty benefits from relationship effectiveness, trust, and increased job satisfaction within a mentoring relationship due to the positive impact on their professional life and opportunities for increased productivity. Establishing a successful mentoring relationship allows the junior faculty to be better prepared and have broader career options. These types of mentoring relationships within sport management programs provide the opportunities needed to meet the teaching and research expectations in academia.

Colleges and universities wanting to start mentoring programs should encourage the establishment of relationships where mentors and protégés hold each other in high regard, trust one another, and believe the relationship is satisfying and successful. Although the goal is a positive experience for both parties, the possibility of negative outcomes exists in the development of mentoring programs (Kram, 1983; Scandura, 1998). These possibilities could be reduced by exploring the realistic expectations of both the mentor and protégé for a successful mentoring relationship. Realistic and attainable expectations can establish a strong foundation for the mentoring experience (Young & Perrewé, 2000). Sport management faculty need to understand how to build effective and trusting mentoring relationships that increase the likelihood of a positive experience for the protégé. "Approaching a mentoring program from an exchange perspective and emphasizing the importance of met expectations provides a foundation of understanding where each person's expectations of the relationship are recognized" (Young & Perrewé, 2000, pp. 626–627).

Recently, sport management scholarly associations have highlighted the practical importance of mentoring by establishing programs to support mentorship activity. For example, the North American Society for Sport Management has established a mentorship initiative that connects graduate students (mostly doctoral) with faculty members from various institutions. Given the results of

the present study, perhaps sessions on mentoring opportunities can be extended to continue to strengthen the mentoring relationships among sport management senior faculty and junior faculty. These sessions would support the growth and professional development of senior and junior faculty members while strengthening connections in the sport management field. In addition, in a more formalized setting, conference organizers and institutions could facilitate a concerted effort to create a platform to promote mentorship in sport management academia. Such a session may enlighten future pathways for mentoring research in the field.

Limitations and Directions to Future Research

The current study suggests a number of areas for future research. First, a follow-up study could be undertaken utilizing a qualitative paradigm. For example, interviewing current faculty members who reported having no mentor could potentially shed light on any barriers that inhibited mentoring relationships from developing. A qualitative approach might provide insight into the perceptions of previous mentoring relationships and the effect on future mentoring relationships.

Second, more research is needed to determine if formal or informal mentoring relationships for sport management faculty produce different outcomes. Do expectations or outcomes differ for people in a formal mentoring relationship as opposed to an informal mentoring relationship? Studies by Russell and Adams (1997) and Phillips-Jones (1983) found that differences do exist and variations are present between formal mentoring relationships and informal mentoring relationships, and it would be interesting to see if the same holds true for sport management academics. Third, another area for future research is to examine the mentoring relationship from the perspective of the mentor. For example, the mentor may have other reasons as to why potential barriers get in the way of establishing mentoring relationships. Research interests may be similar, and the ability to collaborate with a protégé may seem ideal. However, if the work ethic for both participants is dissimilar, establishing a mentoring relationship would be neither beneficial nor productive. In addition, the protégé may not understand all that is involved with being a faculty member. Potential barriers may include time constraints and lack of willingness to meet on a regular basis. This may be particularly true for doctoral students who have yet to experience faculty life. Sport management programs with doctoral education would be well served to make sure the discussion of the importance of mentoring takes place, explaining the responsibilities of both faculty and students. Finally, the role of peer mentoring among faculty members could also be examined. Some programs may lack senior faculty leadership, so young faculty need to be able to work together and help each other grow as best they can.

Conclusion

The current study expanded the understanding of outcomes associated with mentoring relationships among sport management faculty. The results revealed that mentoring is a valuable mechanism to create a positive relationship and provide the support needed to empower new faculty. We believe that the findings from this research provide important insights into mentoring relationships among sport management faculty, so junior faculty can achieve success in their academic careers and increase productivity. This framework was tested, and a positive relationship between mentoring and job satisfaction, trust, and relationship effectiveness was demonstrated.

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