**Scientific Background**

Mentoring is an essential part of professional development for many people across different professions and organizations (e. g., Eby et al., 2008; Wright & Wright, 1987). In some professions (e.g., academia, education), intensive mentoring is an inherent part of professional training. A good mentor can have a career-building impact on the mentee (Dougherty & Dreher, 2007). What constitutes a good mentor and good mentoring relationship, however, is still not entirely clear. We aim to address this by empirically testing a theoretical model of the role that personal values may play in shaping mentoring relationships and their outcomes.

In the proposed research, we integrate mainstream mentoring literature, which discusses the different kinds of support that mentors provide to the their mentees (e.g., Kram, 1983, 1985; Eby et al., 2012), as well as an emerging body of research that focuses on mentoring styles and the behavior of mentors (e.g., Gravells, 2006; Richter et al., 2013; St-Jean & Audet, 2013). We adopt Schwartz’s theory of personal values (Schwartz, 1992, 2012) as a bridging theoretical framework to explore the relation between mentoring behavior and mentoring quality and outcomes.

Existing literature on mentoring mainly focuses on comparisons between mentees and non-mentees (Eby, Allen et al., 2013), showing the various advantages of having a mentor. However, there is a lack of research that examines different aspects of the mentoring relationship and how they influence mentoring quality and its outcomes. In a recent meta-analysis, Eby and colleagues (2013) took an important step toward looking at the mentoring relationship by focusing on demographics (e.g., gender, race) and perceived mentor-mentee similarity, as well as their influence on mentoring quality. We take this approach a step further by examining individual differences in the personal values of mentors, the effect of these values on mentor and mentee behavior, and how they moderate the relation between mentor behavior and mentoring outcomes.

Specifically, we posit that the personal values of mentors influence their mentoring style, and that the personal values of mentees moderate the associations between mentoring style and mentoring quality and outcomes.

More knowledge on the dynamics of mentoring relationships would not only enhance our understanding of how these relationships develop and their various outcomes, but could also potentially extend our understanding of other professional relationships that share similar characteristics (e.g., managers-employees, teacher-students, supervisor-intern).

**Mentoring**

Mentoring is a one-to-one, dyadic, and hierarchical relationship between an experienced person (a mentor) and a less experienced person (a mentee or a protégé). The relationship provides various developmental functions through advice, skill development, and support of personal growth (e.g., Byrne & Keefe, 2002; Kram, 1985; Leidenfrost, Strassnig, Schütz, Carbon, & Schabmann, 2014; Mullen, 1998; Rhodes, 2005). Mentoring has been linked with career success (e.g., Allen et al., 2004; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994), career satisfaction and higher performance (Eby et al., 2008; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008), lower turnover (Eby et al., 2008) and turnover intentions (Richard, Ismail, Bhuian, & Taylor, 2009), and more favorable work attitudes (e.g., Allen et al., 2004; Aryee, Wyatt, & Stone, 1996; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). However, meta-analytic estimates reveal that the effects are generally small to moderate, with considerable heterogeneity (Allen et al., 2004; Eby et al., 2008, 2013; Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008; Underhill, 2006). Such findings suggest that there are variables that influence mentoring outcomes, which are yet to be revealed. Some evidence suggests that individual differences among mentees, such as interpersonal skills (Kelbfleisch & Davis, 1993) or achievement orientation (Hirschfeld et al., 2006), and individual differences among mentors, such as transformational leadership style (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000, 2004), may relate to mentoring outcomes. These findings point to the importance of considering other types of individual differences when studying mentoring relationships.

The overall support that mentors provide to their mentees can be divided into two main functions (Kram, 1983): *psychosocial support*, including emotional support, acceptance, confirmation, role-modeling, and counseling; and *instrumental* support (or *career-related functions*), which involves the development of job-related skills and knowledge, assigning tasks, providing feedback and direction, coaching, exposure, and visibility (e.g., Eby et al., 2013; Noe, 1988). These two functions are often used as indicators of the relationship quality, in addition to mentee satisfaction with the mentor and with the mentoring relationship (Allen & Eby, 2003; Eby et al., 2013; Kram, 1985; Nakkula & Harris, 2005; Rhodes, 2005).

**Mentoring Styles**

There are a few difference conceptualizations of mentoring behavior and style that are employed during the mentoring process (e.g., Leidenfrost et al., 2014; St-Jean & Audit, 2013). Here we focus on two variables recurring in the literature: the mentors’ level of authoritarianism and their involvement in the mentoring relationship (Hennisen et al., 2008). Mentors with an authoritarian style use mentoringy On the opposite end are mentors who use maieutic (Gravells, 2006), constructivist-oriented (Richter et al., 2013), or reflective (Harrison et al., 2005) mentoring, in which they act as a facilitator guiding the mentee through self-reflection and encouraging independent decision-making and idea formation. Though these contrasting styles seem to be mutually exclusive, they are independent of each other (e.g., Richter et al., 2013). The second variable refers to the mentors’ level of involvement or engagement in the mentoring relationship (Casprisin et al., 2008; St-Jean & Audit, 2013), as expressed by their availability and how up-to-date they are with the mentee’s progress.

While some scholars argue that maieutic and involved mentoring is generally more effective (St-Jean & Audet, 2013; Richter et al., 2013), we suggest that mentees may respond to mentoring styles differently depending on their personal values. The relation between mentoring style and outcome may also be influenced by the mentee’s prior experience or proficiency with mentoring and by the mentoring context. For example, mentees with little experience may benefit more from directive mentoring than those with more experience, and mentoring style may have a different impact in an academic setting as opposed to an entrepreneurial setting. Thus, we will control for both of these variables.

**Personal Values**

Values can be defined as broad goals with varying importance that serve as the guiding principles in people’s lives (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). They transcend specific situations and times and serve as the motivation for one’s behavior (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002). Most values are socially desirable, and the tradeoff between different values ultimately guides behavior (Schwartz, 1992). Schwartz’s theory of personal values includes ten interrelated values, which are graphically represented by a circumplex outlining each of their motivational compatibilities and incompatibilities (See Figure 1).

The ten value types are arranged along two dichotomies: Self-enhancement vs. self-transcendence and openness-to-change vs. conservation. Self-enhancement values emphasize the pursuit of self-interest (i.e., power, achievement), as opposed to self-transcendence values that emphasize concern for the welfare of others (i.e., benevolence, universalism). Openness-to-change values emphasize the desire for independence and autonomy as well as a readiness for new experiences (self-direction, stimulation), as opposed to conservation values that emphasize preservation of the status quo, respect for authority, adherence to social norms and expectations, and resistance to change (i.e., security, conformity, tradition). A tenth value, hedonism, shares elements with both self-enhancement values and openness-to-change values and thus is usually not included in the higher-order taxonomy (e.g., Sverdlik & Rechter, 2020). This theory has been validated in over 200 samples from many cultural groups (Schwartz, 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012), and their predictive power in explaining behavior (e.g., Roccas & Sagiv, 2010, 2017) and attitudes (e.g., Boer & Fischer, 2013) is well established. We hypothesize that the personal values of mentors affect their mentoring style and that the personal values of mentees moderate their preference for different mentoring styles.

**Development of Hypotheses**

**Mentors’ personal values and mentoring style:**

As values typically shape behavior (e.g., Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Rechter & Sverdlik, 2016), we hypothesize that mentors’ values will influence their mentoring style. In considering the relation between the values of mentors and their mentoring style, we focus specifically on the dichotomy of *self-enhancement* vs. *self-transcendence*. Since mentors are the ones with power in a hierarchical mentoring relationship, we expect these values to influence their behavior by shifting their focus between promoting the mentee (self-transcendence) and promoting their own self-interest (self-enhancement). As self-enhancement values emphasize the pursuit of control (power values) and recognition of others (achievement values), mentors who espouse these values are more likely to perceive the mentoring relationship as a means to exert control over the mentee and to receive recognition by demonstrating their abilities. We thus hypothesize that self-enhancement values among mentors will predict a more authoritarian mentoring style (i.e., more directive/transmissive and less maieutic/constructive; see Figure 2, arrows 1 and 2). Also, as self-enhancement values are focused on self-interest, mentors who emphasize these values are less likely to be involved in the mentoring relationship (see Figure 2, arrow 3). Contrastingly, as self-transcendence values focus on promoting the well-being of others, we expect them to predict a less authoritarian mentoring style (arrow 4), a more maieutic style in which the mentor guides the mentees to self-reflect and make their own decisions (arrow 5), and higher mentor involvement in the relationship (arrow 6).

*H1: Mentors’ self-enhancement values will relate (H1a) positively with a directive mentoring style, (H1b) negatively with a maieutic mentoring style, and (H1c) negatively with their involvement in the relationship.*

*H2: Mentors’ self-transcendence values will relate (H2a) negatively with a directive mentoring style, (H2b) positively with a maieutic mentoring style, and (H2c) positively with their involvement in the relationship.*

**The moderating role of mentees’ personal values:**

We propose that maieutic and directive mentoring styles may have a different impact on mentees depending on their personal values. In a mentoring relationship, the mentee is on the receiving end of learning, support, and professional development, and positioned on the less powerful side of the hierarchical dyad. Because of this, we argue that their response to different mentoring styles will vary based on the other value dimension: *openness-to-change* vs. *conservation*. From the perspective of the mentee, gaining dominance and promoting others’ well-being is less likely to be relevant. Instead, acting under someone else’s guidance may relate more closely with their desire for independence (openness-to-change values) and their respect for authority and social expectations (conservation values).

As openness-to-change values tend to emphasize personal autonomy and independent thoughts and actions (particularly self-direction values), we hypothesize that mentees who espouse these values will be more likely to benefit from a maieutic mentoring style (Figure 2, arrow 7), which allows more freedom and promotes the development of independent decision-making. We also also predict that mentees with these values will benefit less from directive mentoring (arrow 8), which opposes the motivations underlying these values. In contrast, conservation values emphasize a respect for authority and adherence to social norms and expectations. As such, we hypothesize that mentees with strong conservation values will be motivated to do what is expected of them and what they are told is the right thing to do in a given situation (Sagiv, 1999). We predict that they will thus benefit more from authoritarian mentoring (arrow 9) that provides clear instructions regarding correct behaviors and choices, and they will benefit less from a maieutic style (arrow 10) that drives them to find their own path.

*H3: For mentees with strong openness-to-change values, (H3a) a directive mentoring style will be negatively associated with mentoring outcomes, and (H3b) a maieutic mentoring style will be positively associated with mentoring outcomes.*

*H4: For mentees with strong conservation values, (H4a) a directive mentoring style will be positively associated with mentoring outcomes, and (H4b) a maieutic mentoring style will be negatively associated with mentoring outcomes.*

Regarding the personal values of mentees and the involvement of their mentor, we predict that mentors’ involvement will be positively related to mentoring outcomes. We do not, however, have specific predictions for the directions of the moderation, as arguments can be made in favor of both directions. For mentees with strong openness-to-change values, their emphasis on autonomy could potentially decrease the dependence on their mentor, thus providing some immunity to low mentor involvement or less sensitivity to it. On the other hand, it is also possible that high levels of mentor involvement could help support their autonomy. For mentees with strong conservation values, their respect for authority could potentially increase their tolerance for low mentor involvement, but their need for clarity and instruction could make the lack of involvement difficult. Therefore, we will examine the moderating role of mentees’ openness-to-change and conservation values on the outcomes of their mentors’ involvement, but we do not predict specific directions for these effects.

**C. Detailed Description of the Proposed Research**

**C1. Working Hypotheses**

 We formalized our working hypotheses in the previous section (in *italics*).

**C2. Research Design and Methods**

Studies 1-5 are lab studies designed to examine our hypotheses regarding mentees’ personal values and their response to different mentoring styles (Studies 1-3), as well as the associations between mentors’ personal values and their mentoring style (Studies 4-5). Studies 6-8 are field studies that will allow us to test the model in a relatively controlled academic environment where mentoring goals are straightforward (Study 6) and in less structured environments that have broader, open-ended mentoring goals (Studies 7 and 8).

**The moderating role of mentees’ personal values (Studies 1-4)**

Study 1 will be a correlational study in which we will assess the moderating role of mentees’ personal values on the associations between mentoring style and expected outcomes (Figure 2, arrows 7-10). This study will include participants from the online survey company Prolific (*N* = 320) who are currently employed and aged 25 and under (to increase the likelihood that they will perceive themselves as possible mentees). They will report on their personal values using the 46-item Schwartz values questionnaire (SVS, Schwartz, 1992; see Appendix). Participants will then be asked to imagine a mentoring program in which they would receive mentorship from a prominent professional in their field. They will read through a list of mentor characteristics (item order will be randomized) that we developed from existing measures of mentoring styles (St-Jean & Audet, 2013; Richter et al., 2013). This list will include items such as “*a mentor that guides me to reach my own conclusions,*” which represents the maieutic mentoring style (see Appendix). Each item will be rated on a Likert scale from 1-7 based on the extent to which they believe such a mentor would support their professional development. We argue that the participants’ evaluation of these mentor qualities serves as a proxy for their ultimate satisfaction from such a mentor. As noted in H3 and H4, we expect that participants’ openness-to-change values will positively correlate with high ratings of maieutic mentoring and negatively correlate with high ratings of directive mentoring, and we expect the opposite pattern for conservation values. We will control for work experience, willingness to receive mentoring, prior experience with mentoring, and the perceived relevance of mentoring to their current work.

Study 2 – In study 2, we aim to replicate and extend the findings of Study 1. Instead of a correlational study, we will use an experimental design in which value preferences are manipulated using a values accessibility manipulation (Roccas, Swartz, & Amit, 2010; see Appendix). Participants will be Prolific workers aged 25 and under who are currently employed (*N* = 102, which gives 80% probability of detecting a medium effect size). They will be randomly assigned to either an openness-to-change condition or a conservation condition. Following the manipulation, they will be asked to imagine themselves participating in a mentoring program and to rate their perception of different mentor characteristics – as in Study 1. In accordance with H3 and H4, we expect that participants in the openness-to-change condition will assign higher ratings to maieutic mentoring and lower ratings to directive mentoring, compared to those in the conservation condition. We will use the same controls as in Study 1.

 In Studies 3a and 3b, we will extend our findings from Studies 1 and 2 by assessing the effects of mentoring style on mentoring outcomes using a multi-item rating scale that corresponds with the different measures of mentoring quality. Rather than asking online participants to evaluate a hypothetical mentor on various behavioral styles, participants will be undergraduate students randomly assigned to either a values accessibility manipulation or a control group. Afterwards, they will watch an introductory video with a potential mentor who is a prominent graduate of their department and self-identifies as either maieutic or directive. Following the presentation video, participants will rate their level of agreement with items corresponding to psychosocial support (e.g., *I could share personal problems with this mentor*), instrumental support (*e.g., this mentor would take a personal interest in my career*), and satisfaction with the mentorand the mentoring relationship (items adapted from Allen & Eby, 2003 and Scandura & Ragins, 1993; see Appendix). This questionnaire will allow for a broader assessment of mentee responses to various mentoring styles. (H3 and H4). We will control for participants’ age, their interest in connecting with a mentor, and their general assessment of the ways in which these mentors could support their careers.

Study 3a. This will be an experimental study using a 2 x 2 between-subjects design. Participants will be undergraduate students in Israel (*N* = 400, which gives an 80% probability of detecting a medium effect size) and assigned to either an openness-to-change values accessibility manipulation or a control condition. They will then watch a 5-minute introductory video of a potential mentor in a graduate mentoring program who will present themselves as either a directive or a maieutic mentor. In accordance with H3, we expect that the maieutic mentor will receive higher ratings in the openness-to-change condition than in the control condition, and the directive mentor will receive lower ratings.

Study 3b. Study 3b will be similar to Study 3a except that the experimental manipulation will increase the accessibility of conservation values. We expect the pattern of results to be the opposite of those obtained in Study 3a. Following from H4, we expect the directive mentor to receive higher ratings in the conservation condition than in the control condition, and the maieutic mentor to receive lower ratings.

Study 4. In Study 4, we will make the scenario more realistic and more relevant for the participants. The design will be similar to that of Study 3, but rather than undergraduate students, the participants will be novice entrepreneurs (*N* = 200) who applied for an accelerator program to receive mentorship from experienced entrepreneurs (see Study 9 below for more details on the program). They will be randomly assigned to either an openness-to-change or a conservation accessibility manipulation that has been adapted for entrepreneurs. Afterwards, they will watch a 15-minute simulation video depicting an actual mentorship meeting in which the mentor uses either a maieutic or a directive style with the mentee. They will then rate the mentor using the same scale as in Study 3. As described in H3 and H4, we expect the ratings of the maieutic mentor to be higher in the openness-to-change condition than in the conservation condition, and we expect the ratings of the directive mentor to be higher in the conservation condition than in the openness-to-change condition. We will control for age, level of education, professional and entrepreneurial experience, and prior mentoring experience.

**Mentors’ personal values and mentoring styles (Studies 5 and 6)**

In Studies 5 and 6, we will begin assessing the predictive power of personal values in determining one’s mentoring style (Figure 2, arrows 1-6). We will do so by asking participants to report on their anticipated behavior as mentors.

Study 5. Participants will be second- and third-year undergraduate students from Israel (*N* = 320, which gives a 90% probability of detecting a medium effect size). They will complete the Schwarz values questionnaire (SVS) and be asked to imagine participating in a mentoring program in which they would provide mentoring to first-year students. They will then fill out a mentoring behavior scale, which indicates how they would behave as mentors for the younger students. Following H1 and H2, we expect self-enhancement values to positively correlate with directive mentoring and to negatively correlate with both maieutic mentoring and involvement in the relationship. We expect these correlations to be reversed for self-transcendence values. The study will control for age, willingness to serve as a mentor for young students, and prior experience with mentoring.

Study 6a. Participants will be Prolific workers (*N* = 160) aged 30 and above, with at least 5 years of work experience (to increase the validity of them acting as mentors). They will be randomly assigned to either a self-enhancement values accessibility manipulation or a control group and then complete a mentoring behavior questionnaire describing how they should behave as mentors. Following from H1, we expect participants in the experimental condition to rate themselves as more directive, less maieutic, and less involved mentors, relative to participants in the control condition. We will control for age, work experience, willingness to serve as a mentor, and prior experience with mentoring.

 Study 6b. Study 6b will be similar to Study 6a, except that participants in the experimental condition will undergo a self-transcendence values accessibility manipulation. Following from H2, we expect participants in the experimental condition to rate themselves as less directive, more maieutic, and more involved mentors, relative to participants in the control condition.

**Field Studies**

Studies 7-9 will be field studies that allow us to test the model by examining actual, ongoing mentoring relationships. The first examines mentoring in a relatively controlled, academic environment that has specific mentoring goals (e.g., assistance with coursework). The second will take place in a context of broader career mentoring, which is still relatively stable insofar as mentees stay at the same position in their organizations. The last will take place in a dynamic environment of startup entrepreneurship.

 Study 7 – Academic mentoring program. Study 7 will be a longitudinal study in an academic mentoring program where top second- and third-year undergraduates (*n* = 100) provide mentoring to first-year students (*n* = 100) to assist them in difficult (typically quantitative) courses. This context allows us to test the model in a relatively controlled environment where the mentoring is structured, its goals are straightforward, and, consequently, directive mentoring may be preferable regardless of personal preferences (Gravells, 2006). We can also expect that in such a context, there would be less variability in the different modes of support (psychosocial and instrumental). At the beginning of the year (time 1), participants will complete the SVS questionnaire. Halfway through the semester (time 2), mentors will report their mentoring style. Mentees will also report their mentor’s mentoring style along with the level and type of support they receive from their mentor (psychosocial and instrumental) and their satisfaction with the mentor and the mentoring relationship (see Appendix). At the end of the semester (time 3), mentees will report their overall satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, their self-efficacy, and their expected performance in the course for which they received mentoring and in their studies in general (see Appendix). Following the course, mentees will be asked to report their grades as an additional, objective outcome indicator.

Study 8 – Professional mentoring for students. Study 8 will examine mentoring relationships between top business graduates and current students. In this mentorship program, successful former graduates who hold management positions and successful careers can volunteer to provide career mentoring to students or young graduates from their institutions. This type of program is worthy of exploration for a number of reasons. First, each mentor in the program is assigned to several mentees, which allows us to assess their mentoring style from the mentees’ perspective rather than relying on mentor self-report. Second, as the mentoring is conducted in groups, we can also assess aggregated, group-level values, which may be conceptually different from individual-level values (see Bliese, 2000). It is possible, for example, that maieutic mentoring may benefit team members with low openness-to-change when the overall group climate is characterized by high openness-to-change. In contrast, directive mentoring may benefit team members with low conservation values when the overall group climate is characterized by strong conservation values. Third, since these programs tend to be loosely managed and supervised, mentors have more control over the structure and intensity of the mentoring relationship. We can expect, then, that their personal preferences (guided by their personal values) may be expressed more strongly than in a structured, academic mentoring program. As in study 7, all participants will fill out the Schwarz values questionnaire (SVS) prior to beginning the program (time 1). In the middle of the year (time 2), mentees will report on the mentoring style of their mentor. By the end of the year (time 3), participants will indicate the quality of the mentoring relationship (i.e., satisfaction with the mentor/mentee, satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, psychosocial and instrumental support they gave/received). Mentees will also indicate their current organizational commitment, self-efficacy, turnover intentions, and expected career success (see Appendix).

 Study 9 – Entrepreneurial mentoring. Study 9 will be a longitudinal study of startup founders participating in Israeli accelerator programs. Accelerators are an emerging support infrastructure in the entrepreneurial ecosystem that developed during the last decade. There are currently more than 3,000 accelerators worldwide and tens of thousands of graduates (Cohen & Hochberg, 2014; Hochberg, 2016). These programs act as short-term (three to nine months) “boot camps” for novice entrepreneurs, offering a structured developmental process that includes educational components and mentoring services (Cohen et al., 2019). It is a professional environment where mentors play a central role (Yitshaki & Drori 2018). Since this is the most dynamic environment we will explore, we plan to assess mentoring styles and their impact three times during the program. This will help us examine whether different mentoring styles are more effective at certain stages of the program than others. It is possible, for example, that a directive style is more beneficial early in the program, while a maieutic style is more advantageous as participants progress through the program and develop their skills. Previous research on entrepreneurial mentoring suggests that a maieutic mentoring style with high involvement is more beneficial (St-Jean & Audit, 2013). Our goal of demonstrating that the impact of a mentor’s preferred mentoring style depends partly on the mentee’s personal values would provide an important contribution to the literature. The design of Study 9 allows us to examine the full theoretical model and to expand the outcome measures to include objective measures of career success.

Participants will be startup founders (*n* = 100) taking part in Israeli accelerator programs and their mentors. At the beginning of the program (time 1), all participants will fill out the 21-item Schwartz Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ; Schwartz, Melech et al., 2001) and their demographic information. Halfway through the program (time 2), trained research assistants will use a structured interview to ask participants about their mentoring experience and the mentor’s mentoring style. Upon conclusion of the program (time 3), participants will be interviewed again and indicate the quality of the mentoring relationship (satisfaction with mentor/mentee, satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, psychosocial and instrumental support they gave/received). Mentees will also report on their entrepreneurial self-efficacy and expected career success, and mentors will evaluate their mentees’ entrepreneurial skills and likelihood to succeed as entrepreneurs. The program manager will rate the progress made by the entrepreneur and their startup during the program according to 19 different criteria (see Avnimelech & Rechter, in progress). Finally, we will follow the startups created by the participating founders to assess their entrepreneurial success. This will allow us to assess long-term outcomes of the mentoring relationship, the association between these outcomes and the different mentoring styles, and the moderating role of personal values.

**C3. Preliminary Results**

For studies 1-3, the measure of mentoring styles was adjusted to describe hypothetical style preferences. In order to examine the reliability and validity of the scale, we collected preliminary data (*N* = 62) using the mentoring preferences questionnaire. In particular, we wanted to know if participants who are not interested in a mentoring program found it difficult to indicate the importance of each mentoring characteristic. Cronbach’s alpha scores for maieutic style, directive style, and mentor’s involvement were all above .80, and 64% of the participants indicated that they would be at least somewhat interested in participating in a mentoring program. Only 14% indicated that they would not like to participate. Correlations with personal values, though not significant, were all in the hypothesized directions. Openness-to-change values positively correlated with a preference for maieutic mentoring and negatively correlated with a preference for directive mentoring. Conservation values showed the reverse pattern.

In another study, as part of a larger research project on accelerators, mentors (*n* = 67) and startup founders who received mentoring (*n* = 120) reported their personal values and completed a constructed interview describing the mentoring relationship they experienced along with other measures. Unlike our proposed research, participants in this study reported their experiences in retrospect, sometimes a few years after the program ended, and not all measures were collected due to practical limitations. Mentors indicated their style on a single bipolar item (directive-maieutic). It showed a positive (though not significant) correlation with self-enhancement values (*r =* .18), as expected, and a smaller – albeit also positive – correlation with self-transcendence values (*r =* .09). Involvement was measured using a 2-item scale and correlated negatively with self-enhancement values (*r =* .22, marginal) and positively with self-transcendence values (*r =* .28, *p* < .05).

Mentees reported their mentor’s style using the same bipolar measure and their satisfaction with the progress they made during the program. Personal values moderated the relation between mentoring style and program outcomes as hypothesized. For mentees with high openness-to-change values, there was a significant negative association between directive-over-maieutic mentoring and satisfaction with their progress. For mentees with low openness-to-change values, the association was positive and significant. The opposite pattern was found for conservation values. For mentees with high conservation, there was a positive and significant association between directive mentoring and satisfaction. For mentees with low conservation, the association was a negative and marginally significant.

**C4-5. Resources Available for the Research and Potential Pitfalls**

To conduct the lab experiments, there is a behavioral lab in our department that is co-directed by Dr. Rechter. As with any experiment, one potential pitfall is that the manipulations will not work. For this reason, we are using a manipulation that was already tested by Roccas et al. (xx) and complementing it with correlational designs.

During the last 4 years we built strong relationships with most active accelerators in Israel (evidence of this relationship includes 762 interviews with startup founders, 432 interviews with mentors, and 60 interviews with accelerator managers that have already been conducted). In addition, we have an ongoing evaluation project with the Israeli government’s technological accelerators network (maof-tech). These relationships will enable us to access and recruit participants for Studies 4 and 9. For Study 4, we have an advanced simulation center at our college where we can prepare the materials and conduct the study.

One potential pitfall for Study 9 is that the timespan of the study may be too short to accurately assess all the long-term outcomes of mentor support. Another pitfall is that there may be some moderating variables between mentorship style and the mentee's startup output that are overlooked. However, our experience in evaluating accelerator programs should help us minimize this concern.

For Studies 7 and 8, we are currently collaborating with directors of the mentorship programs that we propose to study, and we have their permission to gain access to participants of the programs and conduct the research (see attached cooperation letters).

Figure 1 – Schwartz values circumplex



Figure 2 – The Role of Personal Values in Mentoring



Appendix 1 – Sample of measure items

**Schwarz’s Values Scale (SVS; Schwartz, 1992):**

This scale includes 46 value items, each followed by a brief definition in parentheses. The following Likert scale is used to rate the importance of each value. (A small sample of the items is provided below).

AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Opposedto my principles | Notimportant |  |  | Important |  |  | Veryimportant | Ofsupremeimportance |
| -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

1. \_\_\_ EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)

2. \_\_\_ SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)

3. \_\_\_ PLEASURE (gratification of desires)

4. \_\_\_ FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)

**Mentoring Styles (sample items)**

My mentor helps me improve independently [*constructivist*, Richter et. al., 2013]

My mentor helps me find answers on my own [*maieutic*, St-Jean & Audet, 2013]

My mentor tells me what I need to improve [*transmission*, Richter et. al., 2013]

My mentor is available when I need him/her [*involvement*, St-Jean & Audet, 2013]

References