ABSTRACT

BODKIN, CANDICE PIPPIN. Public Sector Mentoring: An Analysis of Mentor-Protégé Relationships and Their Effects on Outcomes. (Under the direction of Dr. James Swiss).

Public organizations at the federal, state, and local government level use mentoring as a tool to attract, develop, and retain qualified managers; however, the majority of the mentoring literature focuses solely on private sector contexts. This dissertation investigates formal and informal mentoring relationships in the public sector by surveying employees in six local governments across two southeastern states.

This dissertation examines four main areas of inquiry. First, what factors predict someone will enter into a mentoring relationship at work? Second, what do mentors and protégés view as the most important behaviors or supports for successful mentoring relationships? Third, how do differences in perceived efficacy of mentoring relationships affect measures of perceived mentoring success and organizational outcomes? Finally how mentoring differs between formal and informal contexts?

Results show that both mentors and protégés display multiple motives (both altruism and self advancement) to engage in mentoring relationships, but mentors are nonetheless significantly high in public service motivation than non-mentors. In addition, there is a substantial group of potential mentors and protégés that would like to be in a mentoring relationship but are not. Those who do not have a mentor but would like one report the lowest levels of affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. This suggests that organizations that provide opportunities for potential mentors and protégés to connect with one another may produce substantial gains, especially among their most disaffected workers.

Mentors and protégés generally agree on the importance of career mentoring behaviors and supports (e.g., sponsorship, coaching, exposure). However, mentors believe psychosocial supports (e.g., role modeling, friendship, and facilitating networking) are more important than do protégés. Protégés reported more positive individual outcomes (i.e., organizational rewards) from the relationship than did mentors. Protégés who reported higher perceived efficacy of career supports also reported they felt more confident they would achieve their career goals, and that they had received recognition from their organization.

Mentoring provides cascading benefits to organizations. Those who have had a previous mentoring relationship (as either a mentor or a protégé) are more likely to mentor others, producing a virtuous circle.

Finally, formal mentoring relationships, which are arranged by the organization, were compared to informal mentoring relationships, which arise organically. The two are more alike than previous research found. The major difference comes in the importance of psychosocial supports; protégés in informal relationships felt that the relationship's psychosocial supports were more important than did formal protégés. Because many formal relationships are initiated through a formal matching process and often lack the trust and friendship of informal relationships, this relationship was expected. Nonetheless the participants' positive evaluations of career supports in formal mentoring relationships suggest that formal programs can be useful tools for organizations.

This dissertation contributes to the mentoring literature by focusing on the public sector; by looking at both formal and informal mentoring relationships; by including measures of public service motivation; and by tying specific mentoring motivations and

behaviors to perceived outcomes. Finally, it provides suggestions for organizations seeking to promote mentoring, either formally or informally, within their organization.

Public Sector Mentoring: An Analysis of Mentor-Protégé Relationships and Their Effects on Outcomes

by
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family.

To my husband, Mark, you are a source of constant support and encouragement. Many times on this journey I questioned myself, but you were always there to cheer me on. Thank you for being my partner.

To my parents, Jack and Judy Pippin, you always supported me and challenged me to be better today than I was yesterday.

BIOGRAPHY

Candice Pippin Bodkin was born in Knoxville, Tennessee. She graduated from Stanton College Preparatory School in Jacksonville, Florida in 2001 and then attended college at the University of Florida in Gainesville, Florida. She graduated in 2005 with two Bachelors of Arts degrees in Anthropology and Political Science and a minor in Secondary Education. Candice then earned a Masters of Education degree in Secondary Social Studies Education in 2006 and began her teaching career, first at Williston High School in Williston, Florida. She then moved to Austin, Texas and taught 6th grade math to the "hardest working students in Austin" at KIPP Austin College Prep. After five years in the classroom, Candice returned to graduate school, earning her Master of Public Administration degree from NC State University in 2012. She completed her Ph.D. in Public Administration in 2016 and will join the faculty at Georgia Southern University as an Assistant Professor in the fall of 2016.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Although multiple definitions of mentoring exist, it is most often conceived of as a dyadic relationship between two people that involves the transmission of organizational and technical knowledge from the person deemed the most knowledgeable (the mentor) to the person with less knowledge (the protégé) over a sustained period of time (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). These relationships can result from informal interactions or be part of a program formally recognized and supported by the organization.

In one of the early works on mentoring, Kram (1988) distinguished two kinds of support, generally described as career development (e.g., coaching, protection, exposure) and psychosocial support (e.g., friendship, role modeling, counseling, acceptance). Mentoring can provide beneficial outcomes to protégés and mentors, including promotions, increased salaries, and career advancement opportunities (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992). It also provides advantages to their organizations, including reduced turnover, increased job involvement, and increased job satisfaction (Scandura & Viator, 1994; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider, & Armstrong, 2013). Mentoring can also provide organizations with a means of transferring institutional knowledge from more experienced employees to their less experienced counterparts, increasing organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

1.2 Benefits of Mentoring

Federal, state, and local governments institute formal mentoring programs to provide employees with mentoring experiences and the positive benefits associated with them. These

programs often rely on matching mentors and protégés together based on demographic characteristics or expressed goals. The Office of Personnel Management (OPM) outlines how organizations can use mentorships to preserve organizational knowledge and to attract more qualified candidates (OPM, 2008).

1.2.1 Transference of Institutional Knowledge

Many public employees eligible for retirement chose to delay due to poor economic conditions resulting from the recession. Improvements in the economic market means many who delayed retirement are now choosing to leave, creating a massive loss of institutional knowledge. A recent survey of state and local employees by TIAA-CREF and the Center for State and Local Government Excellence found that over half of respondents age fifty-five or older reported that they expected to stay with their current employer for a few more years or less (Yabonski & Franzel, 2014). Additionally, a survey of human resource professionals conducted by the International Public Management Association for Human Resources (IPMA-HR), found that forty-seven percent reported an increase in retirements over previous years (IPMA-HR, 2015). These findings suggest that state and local governments face a looming knowledge loss and need to take steps to prepare as a growing part of the workforce nears retirement.

1.2.2 Attracting Qualified Candidates

Combined with problems caused by increased retirements, government agencies struggle to attract highly qualified new college graduates to public service careers. A report from Partnership for Public Service analyzed data from the 2011 National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) Student Survey, and found that less than six percent of

college students surveyed intend to pursue careers in the public sector (PPS, 2012). Mentorship programs are one incentive that government can offer prospective employees. For example, the federal government has instituted a number of formal mentoring programs, most notably the Presidential Management Fellows Program that provides training in a range of topics related to management, leadership, and policy.

1.3 Past Mentoring Studies

While many public agencies implement mentoring programs or encourage mentoring in their organizations, the majority of mentoring studies focus almost exclusively on private sector organizations. These studies generally concentrate on specific career benefits for protégés, including increased salary and promotion.

A limited focus also plagues the analysis of mentoring. An analysis by (T. D. Allen, Eby, O'Brien, & Lentz, 2008) found that 80.2% of private sector mentoring studies focus exclusively on the protégé. By nature, mentoring involves a dyadic relationship between two people; neglecting the importance of the role and effect of the mentor prevents us from fully understanding the complexity of the relationship.

Also, these private sector studies may have only limited applicability to government. Scholars of public administration believe that certain legal, economic, and political differences mean public and private sector organizations operate in fundamentally different ways. Though research on the differences between public and private sector organizations has been mixed, Rainey & Bozeman (2000) found that public managers report higher levels of formalization related to personnel procedures, including hiring, promotion, and termination. This suggests that public sector mentoring may not provide the same personnel

benefits using the same mechanisms as in the private sector. Strict promotion rules and salary schedules may make it difficult to measure protégé success through traditional measures such as salary and promotion.

1.4 Potential Contributions of This Research

This dissertation will seek to advance the empirical mentoring research in three major ways.

1.4.1 Public Sector Context

First, previous studies focus almost exclusively on private sector contexts. A review of top management journals reveals that only a handful of mentoring studies examined public sector contexts (Hale, 1995; Hale, 1996; Scandura & Viator, 1994; Fox & Schuhmann, 2001; Feeney, 2006; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; Feeney & Bozeman, 2008; Bozeman & Feeney, 2008; Bozeman & Feeney, 2009a; Bozeman & Feeney, 2009b). This dissertation will examine both formal and informal mentoring in local government organizations.

1.4.2 The Role of the Mentor

Second, it will include the mentor as part of the research design. Despite the central role of the mentor in the mentoring relationship, few studies include the mentor as part of the research design, instead relying exclusively on reports from protégés (T. D. Allen et al., 2008).

1.4.3 Motivations to Enter a Mentoring Relationship

Perhaps most critical to the formation and subsequent success of an informal mentoring is the motivation to enter into a mentoring relationship with someone within their organization. This research seeks to fill this gap in the research by determining what

motivates mentors and protégés to engage into mentoring relationships. Additionally, do mentors and protégés differ in their motivations to enter into a mentoring relationship, or more simply, do they hope to achieve different ends?

1.5 Research Questions

This dissertation will address seven research questions:

1. What respondent characteristics, work attitudes, or mentoring motivations predict an individual will enter into a mentoring relationship as a mentor?
   1a) What respondent characteristics or work attitudes predict a mentor will choose to mentor someone struggling in their organization?

2. What respondent characteristics, work attitudes, or mentoring motivations predict an individual will enter into a mentoring relationship as a protégé?

3. What actions and behaviors do mentors and protégés view as the most important for a successful mentoring relationship?

4. What are the major divergences between:
   - mentor expectations and their actual experiences
   - protégé expectations and their actual experiences
   - mentor versus protégé expectations and actual experiences

5. How do these divergences in attitudes, expectations, and experiences affect measures of mentorship success, such as:
   - satisfaction with the mentoring relationship
   - tangible career benefits
   - receiving recognition from the organization

6. How do these divergences in attitudes, expectations, and experiences affect other organization outcomes, such as:
   - job satisfaction
   - organizational commitment
   - turnover intentions
   - willingness to mentor again

7. How are all of these earlier explored mentoring relationships different in formal mentoring arrangements?

Figure 1.1 shows the hypothesized logic model guiding this dissertation. The first two research questions will investigate who enters into a mentoring relationship and why, while the remainder of the dissertation will investigate the behaviors associated with successful mentoring relationships and the individual and organizational outcomes associated with mentoring.

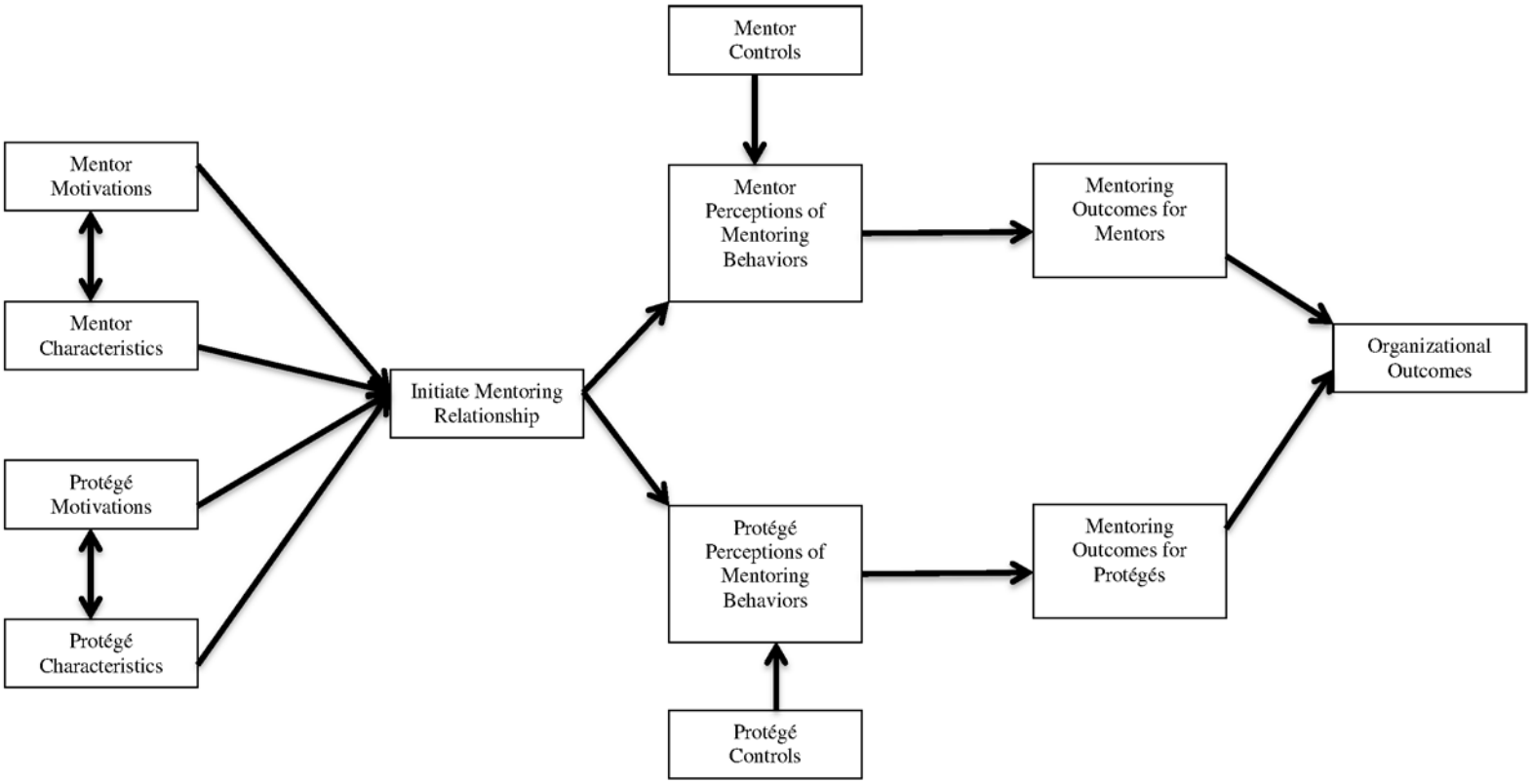

Figure 1.1: Full Logic Model of Mentoring

1.5.1 What respondent characteristics, work attitudes, or mentoring motivations predict an individual will enter into a mentoring relationship and choose to mentor someone struggling in the organization?

The first phase of this dissertation will examine what respondent characteristics, work attitudes, or mentoring motivations are associated with those who choose to mentor others. This research will examine the effects of job involvement, public sector motivation (PSM), affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, general work attitudes, and mentoring motivations on the decision to become a mentor to someone else in their organization. This relationship is shown in figure 1.

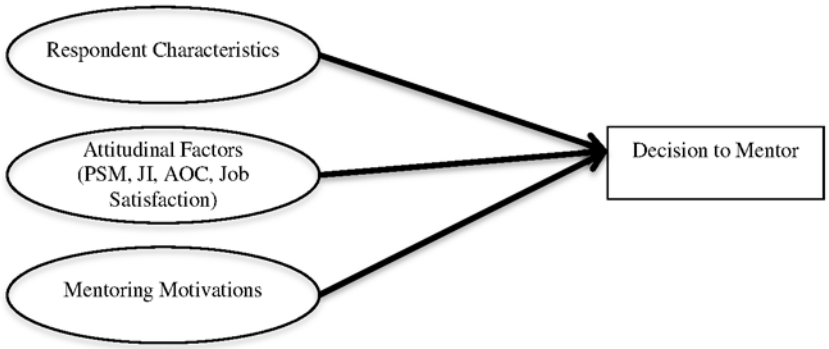

Figure 1.2: Factors Influencing Decision to Mentor

An additional and related question: of those who become mentors, what motivates them to enter into a mentoring relationship with someone who is struggling in their organization? Research suggests that mentors perform mental calculus when determining the costs and benefits of mentoring a particular individual (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). When perceived costs exceed the perceived benefits to the mentor, they will not engage in a mentoring relationship. Under what circumstances would a mentor choose to mentor someone struggling in the organization? This relationship is shown in figure 1.3.

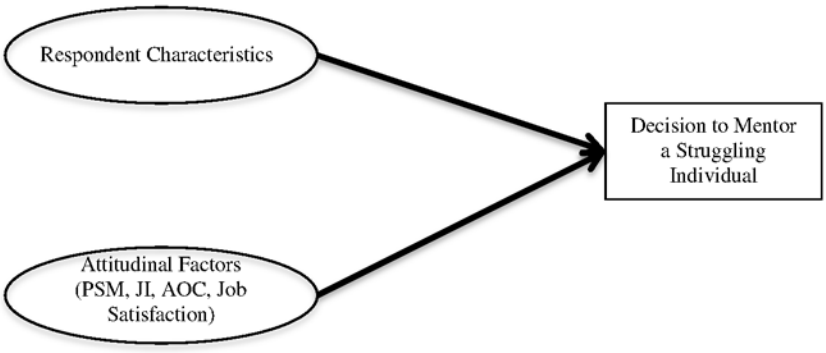

Figure 1.3: Factors Influencing Decision to Mentor Struggling Individual

1.5.2 What respondent characteristics, work attitudes, or mentoring motivations predict an individual will enter into a mentoring relationship as a protégé?

Additionally, research suggests that those who seek out a mentor may be fundamentally different from those who do not in terms of attitudinal factors and advancement motivations. Figure 1.4 hypothesizes the relationship between respondent characteristics, work attitudes, and mentoring motivations that may lead someone to obtain a mentor.

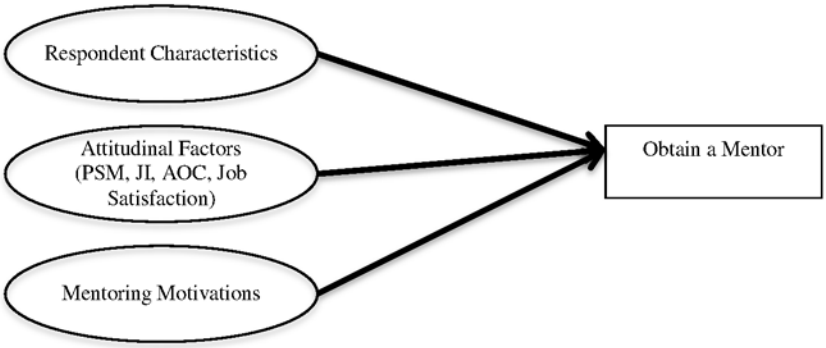

Figure 1.4: Factors Influencing Obtaining a Mentor

Currently, the literature assumes that protégés seek out mentors solely for advancement purposes, though protégés may seek out mentors for different developmental reasons at different points in their career with an organization. For example, an individual may seek out a mentor early in their tenure in an organization to provide transition support or later in their career for career advancement purposes.

1.5.3 What actions and behaviors do mentors and protégés view as the most important for a successful mentoring relationship?

Both mentors and protégés enter into a mentoring relationship with some expectation of what behaviors and activities will likely take place as well as their own ultimate goals for what they hope to achieve or accomplish; however, we know very little about how what these preferences are or how individuals may come to have different preferences. Previous research is silent on this issue, as it focuses more on the career outcomes for protégés without considering that protégés may have different goals for what they would like to achieve from the mentoring relationship. Likewise, the literature assumes that mentors in informal mentoring relationships choose to mentor because of an assumed altruism or a likely affinity for their protégé and not because they their own personal or professional goals.

1.5.4 What are the major divergences between mentors and protégés in their expectations and their actual experiences? How do these differences in expectations and actual experiences affect measures of mentoring success and other outcomes associated with mentoring relationships?

Mentoring is an inherently dyadic relationship between two individuals, each with their own specific goals and expectations. This dissertation seeks to determine if mentors and protégés differ in their expectations and actual experiences for the mentoring relationship and if these differences affect measures of mentoring success (satisfaction with the mentoring and

tangible career benefits) and associated organizational outcomes (organizational commitment, turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and willingness to mentor others) for both mentors and protégés. Figure 1.5 illustrates this proposed model.

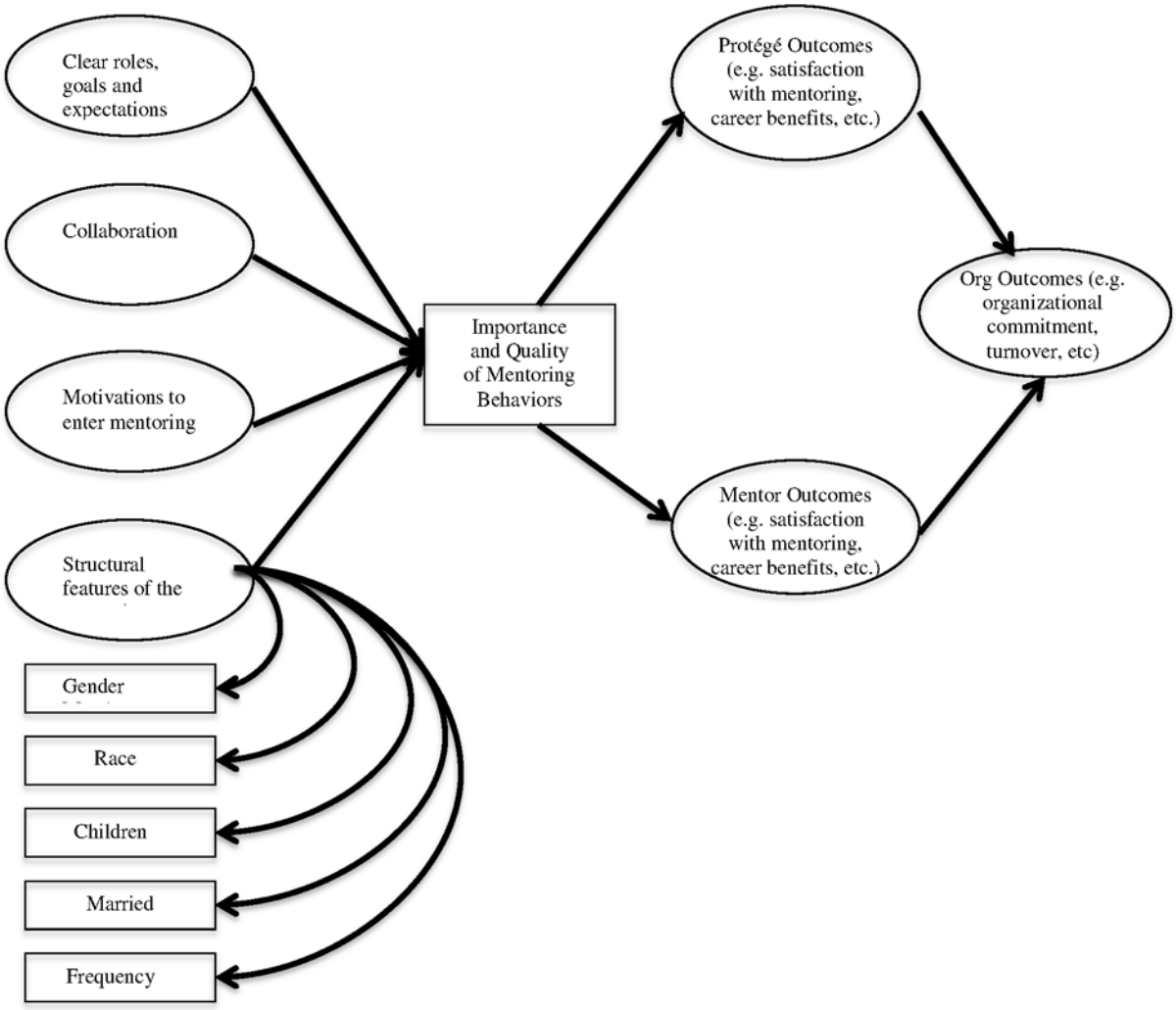

Figure 1.5: Factors Influencing Individual and Organizational Outcomes Associated with Mentoring

1.5.5 How are expectations and actual experiences different between formal and informal mentoring?

Previous research suggests that informal mentoring leads to more positive outcomes for individuals and organizations than formal designed mentoring relationships. Using data from two small mentoring programs I investigate the differences in perceived outcomes between those in the formal programs and those who engaged in informal mentoring in their workplace.

1.6 Outcomes of Interest

The outcomes of interest for this dissertation include a number of measures associated with successful mentoring and can benefit both the individual and their organization. Mentor and protégé outcomes include:

- satisfaction with the mentoring relationship; and
- tangible career benefits such as promotion or increased salary.

Outcomes for organizations include:

- job satisfaction;
- commitment to the organization;
- reduced turnover; and
- likelihood to mentor others in the organization.

1.7 Data Sources

Data for this dissertation come from survey data collected from employees of municipal governments in two southeastern states. The municipalities range in size from approximately 30,000 to 500,000 residents and employ between 50 and 1500 full-time

employees. Participants will be asked about their experiences with mentoring, including their motivations to enter into a mentoring relationship, what behaviors or supports they thought were important for a successful mentoring relationship, and the ultimate outcomes of the mentoring.

1.8 Terminology: Mentees and Protégés

The literature generally uses the word *protégé* to describe the individual in the mentoring relationship who has less knowledge or experience. In the practitioner world, these individuals are most often referred to as *mentees*. Therefore, this dissertation will use *mentee* when asking practitioners about their experiences, but protégé in all other contexts.

1.9 Preview of Chapter 2

Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature regarding the antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes associated with mentoring, and examines how the public sector context may lead to different mentoring behaviors and outcomes.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to connect previous mentoring literature to the current research questions. This chapter distinguishes between formal and informal mentoring. The first section discusses mentoring and the benefits for individuals and organizations, as well as how public managers can use mentoring as a tool to increase management capacity and promote organizational objectives.

Next, this chapter addresses informal mentoring relationships paying particular attention to the motivations of mentors and protégés to enter into informal mentoring relationships. It also investigates what actions and behaviors both mentors and protégés expect to take place as part of the mentoring relationship and what they view as the ultimate outcomes for the mentoring relationship.

Finally, this chapter examines formal mentoring programs and how formal mentoring differs from informal mentoring in antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes.

2.2 What is Mentoring?

Mentoring traditionally involves a relationship between two people involving the transmission of organizational and technical knowledge from the person deemed the most knowledgeable (the mentor) to the person with less knowledge (the protégé) that lasts for a sustained period of time (Eby, 1997). Mentors provide protégés with career development, such as coaching and networking opportunities, and psychosocial supports, like friendship, role modeling, and acceptance.

2.2.1 Differences in Formal and Informal Mentoring

The literature distinguishes between two types of mentoring: formal and informal. Early research on mentoring focused on informal mentoring, or mentoring relationships that formed naturally. These relationships often grow out of a mutual respect and admiration between the mentor (the more senior person) and the protégé (the more junior person). Mentors often choose protégés due to previous high performance or potential for advancement, and Singh et al. (2009b) found that individuals with higher potential and who appear on the "fast track" for advancement are more likely to obtain a mentor through informal means. Due to the sense of mutual affinity, informal mentors often invest more time and energy into the relationship than formal mentors because of a genuine desire to see their protégé succeed. Informal mentors also tend to provide greater levels of psychosocial support than formal mentors, as they often see their protégé as a younger version of themselves (Noe, 1988).

In an attempt to reap the positive benefits of mentoring, many organizations in the public and private sectors institute formal mentoring programs. Formal mentoring relationships are usually assigned by the organization and last for a predetermined period of time with specific defined roles, benchmarks, and goals. The quantity and content of the mentoring may be determined by the organization without consideration of protégé or mentor strengths, weaknesses, or preferences. At times, organizations make assignments with little to no input from the parties involved. As a result, these artificially assigned relationships often do not possess the mutual respect seen in informal pairings. This characteristic may inhibit mentors from providing the level of psychosocial supports deemed essential to a positive

mentoring relationship. Formal mentors may also invest less in the relationship because of the temporary nature of the association and the lack of investment or interest in the career outcomes of their protégés.

Formal and informal mentoring relationships differ in many aspects, including structure, phases of development, and outcomes (Chao et al., 1992). In one of the first studies to examine formal mentoring programs, Noe (1988) attempted to determine what demographic, social, and situational factors led to more effective utilization of the mentor and higher levels of career and psychosocial support with teachers in education settings. He found that protégés in formal mentoring programs reported lower levels of interaction with their mentor due to time limitations and scheduling conflicts. As a result, the level of psychosocial mentoring received was lower than in informal mentoring relationships.

2.3 Mentoring as a Management Tool

Mentoring can be used as a management tool to increase organizational capacity and support strategic management initiatives. Mentoring can be used as part of a formal succession plan to ensure continuance of leadership and provide a means of transferring organizational knowledge. Mentoring can also facilitate organizational learning objectives, promote diversity in management, and assist in onboarding new employees.

2.3.1 Succession Planning for Continuous Leadership

Government organizations at al levels participate in succession planning activities to ensure that the right people have the knowledge, skills, and abilities to advance into key leadership roles following turnover (Reeves, 2010). Mentoring provides a means for the transmission of organizational and technical knowledge from older or more experienced

employees to their less experienced coworkers. As part of a broader succession plan, mentoring programs can assist in identifying potential future organizational leaders and contribute to their professional and managerial development (Safi and Burrell, 2007). As Zey (2001) points out, "Mentoring facilitates smooth transfer of the managerial reins from one generation of executives to the next" (p. 93). Haynes and Ghosh (2008) argue that programs that develop and promote leadership from within may prove advantageous for organizations.

Succession planning has become increasingly important for two primary reasons. First, as the "silver tsunami," or anticipated wave of baby boomer retirements nears, many organizations face massive turnover in top management positions. To manage this transition, organizations are using mentoring as a means of passing along organizational knowledge before it is lost.

Second, research on employee training and development shows positive relationships with employee satisfaction and motivation, and a negative relationship with turnover intent (Shuck, Twyford, Reio, & Shuck, 2014). Mentoring can also benefit organizations by increasing overall work satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and reducing turnover (Scandura and Viator, 1994; Payne and Huffman, 2005; Donaldson et al., 2006; Craig et al., 2013). This suggests that training and development is an important part of succession plans as it helps ensure that the next generation of government managers has the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to perform in their roles while reducing their desire to exit the organization. Reduced turnover means succession plans remain intact and can successfully build up management capacity within the organization.

2.3.2 Facilitation of Organizational Learning

Fiscal constraints resulting from the Great Recession resulted in many organizations severely cutting their already underfunded training and development programs. Decreases in funding for formal programs means that employees must often seek additional development opportunities on their own, either through formal education (for example pursuing an MPA degree), membership in a professional organization, or through development of mentoring relationships. Informal mentoring has the potential to fulfill employee training and development needs in the absence of formal programs. Through mentoring, individuals can learn organization and job specific skills that support overall organizational goals.

2.3.3 Promotion of Diversity in Upper Management

Though progress has been made in integrating women and minorities into the public sector, there is evidence that these groups continue to encounter a "glass ceiling." The term glass ceiling refers to an invisible barrier to professional advancement based on gender roles and minority stereotypes that works to segregate women and minorities into lower level, lower-paying positions (A. M. Morrison & von Glinow, 1990; Guy, 1993; Bullard & Wright, 1993; Naff, 1994; Riccucci, 2009; Choi, 2013). Mentoring may mitigate some of the barriers faced by women and minorities by providing a path to higher management roles as part of a broader strategic plan.

Diversity in upper level management positions is important to effective governance as it ensures that the bureaucracy actually represents the people they serve. Representative bureaucracy contends "that a public workforce representative of the people in terms of race, ethnicity, and sex will help ensure that the interests of all groups are considered in

bureaucratic decision-making processes" (Bradbury & Kellough, 2011, 157). In order to promote representative bureaucracy some government organizations institute formal mentoring programs as part of a larger diversity initiative.

2.3.4 Onboarding and Socialization

Mentoring may be used as a tool for socialization during the onboarding process for new employees (Chao, 2007). Newcomers often seek information about job-related tasks, work roles, job processes, and organizational attributes through interactions with mentors, peers, and supervisors in an attempt to "learn the ropes" (Feldman, 1981). Those with a mentor learn more about organizational issues and accepted practices than those without a mentor (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). Ostroff and Kozlowski (1993) suggest that those without a mentor may face some career disadvantages as the information they receive from coworkers or through observation is inferior to the organizational information obtained through a mentor.

Successful onboarding and socialization processes have a number of positive outcomes for organizations including increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, and intentions to remain with the organization (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). These benefits may be amplified for those who have a mentor.

2.4 The Public Sector Context

The field of public administration research operates on the assumption that the public and private sectors operate in fundamentally different ways due to economic, social, and political factors. The idea that the government should and can operate like a business is, by now, deeply ingrained in our political culture; however, public sector organizations often

operate in constrained environments where they must balance the values of efficiency and effectiveness with equity and legality.

2.4.1 Red Tape

Numerous studies describe the "red tape" encountered by public managers and its negative consequences (Baldwin, 1990; Bozeman, Reed, & Scott, 1992; Scott & Pandey, 2000; DeHart-Davis & Pandey, 2005; Pandey, Coursey, & Moynihan, 2007). Others, however, suggest that traditional beliefs about red tape may overestimate the impact on the performance and decision-making of public managers. In a comparison of public and private managers, Rainey & Bozeman (2000) found both reported similar levels of rule formalization, goal complexity, and ambiguity; however, public managers reported higher levels of formalization related to personnel procedures. Because outcomes of interest in mentoring often involve salary, promotion, and overall career success measures, mentoring may not function in the same way in the public sector as in the private sector.

A mentor may help their protégé overcome burdensome "red tape" within their organization by providing strategies on how to successfully navigate administrative or procedural rules. Knowing and understanding rules and procedures can help protégés be more effective and efficient in their roles.

2.5 Previous Research on Mentoring in the Public Sector

Only a handful of studies examine mentoring in public sector contexts (Klauss, 1981; Kelly et al., 1991; Hale, 1995; Hale, 1996; Slack, Myers, Nelson, & Sirk, 1996; Fox & Schuhmann, 2001; Feeney, 2006; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; Feeney & Bozeman, 2008; Bozeman & Feeney, 2008; Bozeman & Feeney, 2009a; Bozeman & Feeney, 2009b; Craig et

al., 2013). Of these, only five empirically test the effects of mentoring on measurable outcomes. Despite the lack of empirical investigation into mentoring in the public sector, numerous government organizations at the federal, state, and local levels have adopted mentoring programs in an attempt to obtain the benefits seen in the private sector. This dissertation seeks to contribute to the literature by examining mentoring in public sector organizations.

2.5.1 Gender and Public Sector Mentoring Research

Some public sector organizations use formal mentoring programs as a mechanism to identify, develop, and promote women and minorities into management positions. As such, researchers who have studied mentoring in the public sector have investigated the role of mentoring as a tool for professional growth and advancement. Using a survey of individuals in managerial positions in six U.S. states, Kelly et al. (1991) examined the role of mentoring in the career advancement of men and women. They found that men were much more likely to report they had a male mentor and that the mentor was a male CEO or agency director. Power perspectives suggest that these differences in organizational level of mentor may disadvantage women. In a survey of 524 male and female city managers, Fox & Schuhmann (2001) found that female city managers report having female supervisors as mentors and are less likely to report that they had academic mentors. The authors suggest that women may be disadvantaged in gaining a mentor as women occupy fewer high-level management positions and make up a smaller percentage of public administration faculty members in MPA programs. As a result, there are fewer females in traditional advisory roles to act as mentors for other women, and women are disadvantaged in gaining a high-ranking mentor.

2.5.2 Mentoring and Public Organizations

Mentoring can benefit organizations by increasing overall work satisfaction, increasing organizational commitment, and reducing turnover (Scandura & Viator, 1994; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Craig et al., 2013). Two previous studies of mentoring in the public sector examine benefits for organizations. Hale (1996) argued that mentoring could provide a mechanism to create learning organizations and lead in the development of managers in the public sector. Using a sample of 109 IT employees in a state information services department, Craig et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between mentoring and affective organizational commitment (AOC), job involvement, and turnover. The study built upon previous research in the role of AOC in mentoring relationships by testing the mediating function of AOC between psychosocial mentoring and turnover intentions. The results support the mediation model and suggest that psychosocial mentoring plays a greater role in the development of AOC. While this study used a cross-sectional design and causality cannot be determined, it follows other studies that found evidence of a relationship between mentoring and AOC (Donaldson, Ensher, & Grant-Vallone, 2000).

2.6 Developing a Theory of Public Sector Mentoring

Certain characteristics of the public sector, like personnel rules, mean that mentoring may not function in the same way as in private sector organizations. Previous work by Bozeman & Feeney (2009a) attempted to create a conceptual model for public sector mentoring that included outcomes at three levels; individuals, organizations, and the overall public service. The addition of public service outcomes differentiates their model from

traditional models of mentoring, as it argues that unlike the private sector, public institutions are linked and interdependent (p.143). They argue:

> "The public manager, unlike managers in the private sector, who are subject to the employing organization's private authority, is not a free agent but is interconnected to a web of authority (political and fiscal), including not only the employing organization but other agencies with shared missions as well as controller organizations (e.g. Office of Management and Budget) and, of course, legislative bodies that provide broad purposes through enabling statues and provide resources through appropriations. There is no true private sector counterpart to these sorts of interdependencies, not even among parent firms and their subsidiaries (p.145)."

As such, public sector managers must learn to overcome rules and administrative procedures, or "red tape", and any model of mentoring should include the transference of knowledge concerning strategies to overcome procedural or administrative rules. Additionally, unlike the private sector, the field of public administration believes that public sector employees may be motivated differently than private sector employees (Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry, 1996). Perry and Wise (1990) explain public service motivation (PSM) as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations (p.368)." Bozeman and Feeney (2009a) argue that mentoring can act as a mechanism for mentors to express PSM behaviors (the act of mentoring) and can also work to increase the level of PSM in protégés through socialization.

In one of the few empirical studies investigating the outcomes of public sector mentoring Bozeman & Feeney (2009b) examined the relationship and outcomes for protégés, including satisfaction with the mentorship, the number of employees the protégé now supervises, whether or not their most recent job was a promotion, and if they now act as a mentor to others in their organization. Their results were mixed. Of interest to this

dissertation, protégés with high levels of advancement motivation were more likely to report acting as a mentor to someone else. Unlike previous studies that suggested that women may be disadvantaged by the inability to gain a mentor of the same gender (Fox & Schuhmann, 2001), there was no relationship between gender-match in the dyad and the protégé outcomes of interest.

2.7 Informal Mentoring Relationships

The literature examines mentoring relationships by breaking it into parts, namely the antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes associated with mentoring relationships. Antecedents include demographic factors and specific structural features of the mentoring relationship, and in the context of this research, the motivations and expectations of the mentor or protégé to enter into a mentoring relationship. Behavioral factors include specific career and psychosocial supports that mentors provide their protégés. Figure 2.1 illustrated the basic model demonstrating this relationship between antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes.

Figure 2.1: Logic Model of Antecedents, Behaviors, and Outcomes Associated with Mentoring

Most research on mentoring focuses on the protégés and the benefits they receive, with much less attention paid to the mentors despite the dyadic nature of the relationship (T. Allen et al., 2008). This research seeks to determine what motivates mentors and protégés to

enter into mentoring relationships in their workplace. As previously noted, informal mentoring relationships often occur between individuals who share a sense of mutual affinity or respect for one another and develop naturally over time. The question then becomes, why do individuals begin a mentoring relationship instead of maintaining a more traditional coworker or superior-subordinate relationship?

2.8 What Factors Cause an Individual to Enter a Mentoring Relationship?

Early research on mentors centered around who would likely act as a mentor to others in the future without considering *why* someone would choose to act as a mentor someone else. It is important to understand why individuals engage in informal mentoring because it often requires large time commitments and emotional investment on the part of the mentor.

Even less attention has been given to the reasons why an individual might choose to mentor someone struggling within their organization. Understanding why an individual engages in mentoring behaviors and what benefits they expect to receive as a result may help organizations to support informal mentoring without allocating additional resources for formal programs and to reap larger benefits from the informal mentoring that currently goes on in their organizations. Several theories from psychology and public administration provide lenses to examine the motives to mentor others.

2.8.1 Self-Focused Motivations

Previous studies of mentors show that they do receive some career or psychological benefits from mentoring others (Belle Rose Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Ragins and Scandura (1999) found that mentoring others may provide opportunities for mentors to learn new skills, increase their self-esteem and feelings of importance to the organization, and lead to

increased recognition from others within their organization. In a study of the differences between mentors and nonmentors in a healthcare organization, Allen, Lentz, and Day (2006) found that those who mentored others reported higher salaries, a greater number of promotions, and higher perceptions of career success than nonmentors, suggesting that mentors may receive some tangible benefits from mentoring others.

Some research suggests that mentors may perform a cost-benefit analysis when determining whether or not to engage in mentoring others (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Ragins and Scandura (1999) examined the perceived costs and benefits associated with mentoring for high-ranking female executives in private sector organizations. Respondents reported that time and energy constraints, worries about the relationship becoming dysfunctional, concerns that others might perceive the relationship as unfairly gaining favor for the protégé, or that an unsuccessful protégé may reflect negatively on themselves deterred the executives from entering into a mentoring relationship. They also found no difference between mentors and nonmentors on reported job satisfaction.

These findings suggest that mentors do not always act out of pure admiration or altruism towards a younger, less knowledgeable member of their organization, and decisions to mentor or not may result from a calculated decision that considers the costs and benefits associated with mentoring. In this case, potential mentors would chose not to mentor unless they believed they would receive some tangible benefits for their efforts.

2.8.2 Other-Focused Motivations

Research on public service motivation (PSM) has been a major theme in the public administration literature of the last twenty-five years. PSM argues that those who choose

careers in the public service hold different motivations than those who don't work in public service careers (Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry, 1996). In seeking a measurement tool for PSM, Perry (1996) investigates dimensions of attention to policy-making, commitment to the public interest, perceptions of social justice, civic duty, compassion for others, and self-sacrifice as dimensions of the PSM construct. While concerns about the measurement model and the causal direction of PSM and public sector employment exist, scholars have found evidence that public sector employees place greater value on service to others than their private sector peers (Rainey, 1982), and that the organizational context matters (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). Individuals high in PSM may be more likely than their peers to engage in mentoring relationships because it provides an opportunity to provide service to others.

In their development of a theoretical model of mentoring in the public sector, Bozeman & Feeney (2009a) asserted the need for PSM to be part any study investigating the role of motivation as a mediating factor in mentoring relationships (p.151). They also posit that mentoring may act as a useful tool for reinforcing PSM and intrinsic motivation in others, namely protégés. This study includes PSM as a motivating factor in engaging in mentoring relationships at work.

2.8.3 Organization-Focused Motivations

Not all individuals are motivated solely by self-seeking interests. Some individuals may take on extra job duties or go above and beyond the requirements of their job in order to promote the strategic interests of their organizations. These actions are generally referred to as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Generally OCB refers to some discretionary

behavior that promotes organizational goals that is not recognized formally as part of the reward system (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

Some researchers suggest that the act of mentoring others is a form of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (T. D. Allen, 2003). Numerous studies have linked OCB to positive performance and overall organizational effectiveness (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; P. M. Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2009). This suggests that mentoring, as an OCB, may support organization performance and effectiveness, and that individuals might chose to mentor others as a form of service to the organization.

Others suggest that mentoring also works to increase OCB in protégés (Donaldson, et al., 2000; Okurame, 2012). While many mentoring studies use cross-sectional designs, Doanldson et al. (2000) measured protégé self-reports of OCBs and organizational commitment at the beginning of the mentoring relationship and again six months later and found those in high quality mentoring relationships reported greater increases in both OCB and organizational commitment than protégés in low quality mentoring relationships. These findings suggest that mentoring, as a form of OCB, potentially benefits organizational objectives relating to employee performance, effectiveness, development, and commitment.

Previous research into motivations to mentor others assumes that mentors only engage in a mentoring relationship after performing a kind of cost benefit analysis in which they see a personal positive return on investment. This dissertation differs from previous research by attempting to show how mentors my also be motivated by organization-focused or other-focused motivations.

2.9 What Factors Predict a Mentor Will Choose to Mentor Someone Struggling in the Organization?

Previous mentoring studies sought to determine why some individuals gain mentors and others do not. In a longitudinal study of Australian public and private sector "white collar" workers, Singh et al. (2009) found that those who were already on the fast-track for career success were more likely to gain a mentor than those who were not. These findings give credibility to the "rising star" hypothesis, or the belief that those already deemed successful are more likely to attract a mentor.

What remains less clear is under what conditions or circumstances do individuals choose to mentor someone who is struggling in their organization? In a study of state government managers, Allen, Poteet, & Russell (2000) found that mentors who scored high on advancement aspirations were more likely to report they chose a protégé who needed help. They believe that a struggling protégé may be attractive to mentors with advancement aspirations as the success of the protégé can be attributed to the work of the mentor and not the personal characteristics of the protégé.

2.9.1 Demographic Factors in Protégé Selection

Aside from the previously discussed motivations to mentor others, mentors may be influenced by other factors to choose a particular protégé. The most common demographic variables are the gender and race of both the mentor and the protégé. Byrne & Griffitt's (1973) similarity-attraction paradigm suggests that human beings are naturally drawn to other people who share similar personal characteristics, as there is some psychological discomfort in confronting differences with others. Allen, Poteet, & Burrough's (1997) qualitative study

of mentors and their experiences found that mentors reported selecting a protégé because they had a lot in common and reminded them of themselves when they were younger. On the most basic level, race and gender may be important factors in determining protégé selection.

Pervious research suggests that male and female mentors may view mentoring differently. Allen et al. (2000) found that women reported picking protégés based on perceptions of ability and future potential more frequently than did men. Ragins (1989) suggests that women may be less likely than men to mentor others due to the perceived drawbacks and institutional barriers associated with mentoring others, or the possibility of the protégé reflecting badly on the mentor. This suggests that male and female mentors may perceive the risks and benefits of mentoring others differently.

2.9.2 Child and Family Responsibilities in Protégé Selection

Some research suggests that mentors may take marital status and children into account when selecting protégés. In an experimental study of forty five managers in banking, Olian, Carroll, & Giannantonio (1993) found that mentors were more likely to mentor others when they perceived greater personal benefits. When evaluating the potential protégés, mentors anticipated greater personal rewards for mentoring married men and single women. They were less likely to mentor and anticipated the least personal rewards for mentoring married women. This supports findings that women face a "motherhood penalty" in employment and career advancement (Correll, Benard, & Paik, 2007; McIntosh, McQuaid, Munro, & Dabir- Alai, 2012). Marriage and child responsibilities may influence the whether or not a mentor chooses to mentor a particular protégé.

This dissertation seeks to advance the literature by determining under what circumstances a mentor will seek out or mentor someone struggling in the organization. Previous research suggests that these decisions are primarily based on a perception of likeness or similarity to the protégé in terms of race or gender, but my not remain consistent between gender or when taking into account child or family responsibilities.

2.10 What Factors Cause a Protégé to Enter a Mentoring Relationship?

As documented heavily in the literature, mentoring in private sector contexts provides a number of benefits to protégés including career mobility, increased salary, increased satisfaction, and increased promotions (Scandura, 1992; T. D. Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006). Despite the number of tangible career benefits for protégés, individuals may seek mentors for a number of reasons. Evidence suggests that individuals may also seek out a mentor when first entering into an organization as a means of organizational socialization or later in their organizational tenure if they feel pressured by management to improve their performance (Chao, 2007).

2.10.1 Organizational Socialization

Socialization into new work contexts is critical to successful onboarding and integration into new organizations. Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner (1994) identified six areas critical to employee success when entering a new organization. New employees needed to learn how to successful operate in their organizational role, become accustomed to specialized vocabulary or workplace jargon, successfully identify the power/political structure, build relationships with others in the organization, and adopt the values and goals of the organization. Many organizations include formal programs as part of

their socialization process for new employees, and in some cases the assignment of a mentor may be part of the socialization process. Successful socialization into an organization can increase organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and role clarity (Klein, Fan, & Preacher, 2006) and reduce organizational turnover (D. Allen, 2006; Bauer et al., 2007).

In the absence of extensive formal socialization programs, new employees may seek out others in the organization to provide them with the information they seek. Morrison, (1993) found that newcomers sought information from different sources depending on the type of information they needed. For performance feedback and technical direction newcomers sought out supervisors, while they asked peers for information related to social norms. Through information seeking newcomers may seek out a mentor to help with a successful transition into the organization.

2.10.2 Technical Help-Seeking Behavior

Some studies suggest that individuals may seek out help from others in their organization when they experience challenges in their job roles. Ashford & Cummings (1983) explain three possible motives for help-seeking behavior: instrumental motivation to achieve a goal, ego-based motivation to defend or enhance ones' own ego, and image-based motivations to protect how others see you. They suggest that the greater the perceived self-esteem costs to seeking feedback from others the less likely to one will seek feedback through direct methods. Instead, as a means of saving face, individuals will attempt to gather feedback through informal means. Using employees at a chemical plant, Nadler, Ellis, & Bar (2003) found that employees sought help from those they thought more knowledgeable than themselves, most commonly supervisors or direct superiors. Additionally, the relationship

between seeking help from supervisors and performance ratings was quadratic, meaning that at a certain point information seeking turned from positive to negative in relationship with perceived performance.

In the context of mentoring, a struggling employee may seek out a mentor for help. Mentors provide career and psychosocial supports including acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and protection from criticism and blame. By seeking out a mentor, a struggling employee may be shielded from some of the negative self-esteem aspects of help-seeking behavior.

2.11 What Actions and Behaviors do Mentors and Protégés View as the Most Important for a Successful Mentoring Relationship?

This dissertation will seek to determine what behaviors mentors and protégés believe are important to engage in during the mentoring relationship and what they expect as the ultimate outcomes of the mentoring.

2.11.1 Mentoring Behaviors Provided by Mentors

In one of the first in-depth investigations of mentoring, Kram (1988) examined mentoring relationships through in-depth interviews with fifteen managers. Her analysis revealed two types of mentoring behaviors: career development and psychosocial support (see table 1). Career functions provide specific opportunities for training and development, such as challenging work assignments that allow the mentor to showcase the work of their protégé to those higher up in the organization. Psychosocial supports on the other hand are more subjective and provide protégés with role modeling, counseling, and friendship.

Subsequent studies also found evidence to support two similar dimensions of mentor behavior supports (Noe, 1988; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Scandura, 1992) . These behavior scales serve the basis for most studies of mentoring behavior (T. D. Allen et al., 2008). The measures of psychosocial and career supports in this study were adapted from Noe's (1998) and Ragins and McFarlin's (1990) scales. See Appendix A for full scale items.

Table 2.1 Mentoring Supports

Career Functions	Psychosocial Supports
Sponsorship	Role modeling
Exposure and visibility	Acceptance and confirmation
Coaching	Counseling
Protection	Friendship
Challenging assignments	

Mentors may view certain behaviors and outcomes as more or less important to a successful mentoring relationship. Mentors with more self-focused motivations, for example, may only engage in mentoring relationships when they believe the benefits for themselves outweigh the costs (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Likewise, they may only choose to focus on career mentoring because career mentoring should bring the results most important to advancement in the organization.

2.11.2 What do Mentors Expect from Protégés?

Mentoring is a relationship between two people. As such, mentors expect certain reciprocal behaviors from their protégés. Young & Perrewé (2000) surveyed management faculty and doctoral students in the dissertation phase or later to determine what sorts of expectations mentors and protégés had for their mentoring relationship. They asked mentors to what extent protégés actively participated in the career and psychosocial mentoring

opportunities provided by the mentor. For example, mentors were asked to what extent protégés attended events recommended by the mentor or the extent the protégé engaged in a personal relationship with the mentor. In short, when mentors provide development opportunities for protégés or invest time and energy into their development, mentors expect protégés to actively participate in their own development as well.

2.11.3 Outcomes Associated with Mentoring Others

Only recently have scholars begun to focus on the role of the mentor and their outcomes associated with mentoring. A meta-analysis by T. Allen et al. (2004) examined the career and personal benefits associated with mentoring others. They found that mentors may receive personal satisfaction, organizational recognition, increased promotions, and new knowledge from the protégé. Some authors hypothesize that increased salaries and promotions result from the organization rewarding mentors for their mentoring behaviors.

Some research suggests that mentoring others may buffer individuals from the negative effects of career plateauing (Lentz & Allen, 2009). Career plateauing can occur through hierarchical plateauing when an individual stalls in the hierarchy and fails to advance in the organization, or through job content plateauing when the challenge of the job declines and responsibilities decrease. Both forms of career plateauing are hypothesized to lead to negative job attitudes. Lentz and Allen (2009) found that those who mentored others reported higher levels of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions as compared to those who did not mentor others. Their findings suggest that mentoring others may insulate individuals from the negative consequences of job content plateauing. As a practical matter for organizations, these findings suggest that support and

encouragement for mentoring behaviors may provide benefits to organizations through more positive job attitudes of those acting as mentors.

While mentors may receive multiple benefits as a result of mentoring others, their expected outcomes may differ by motivation to mentor. For example, an individual who engages in mentoring as a form of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) may not expect the same personal rewards as someone who mentors in the hopes of gaining formal rewards from the organization. Mentors may also view the ultimate outcomes for their protégés differently.

This dissertation will seek to determine what behaviors protégés believe are important to engage in during the mentoring relationship, for both mentors and protégés, and what they expect as the ultimate outcomes of the mentoring.

2.11.4 Mentoring Behaviors Expected by Protégés

Like mentors, protégés enter into a mentoring relationship for different reasons and those motivations may influence what mentoring supports or behaviors they believe are important for their own professional development. For example, someone who seeks out a mentor as a form of help may have different developmental needs, and thus expectations, than someone who seeks out a mentor as a tool for career advancement. They may also have differing expectations about how frequently mentoring interactions should occur, what format those interactions will take (face-to-face meetings, emails, telephone conversations, etc.), and the purpose and content of interactions.

2.11.5 Outcomes for Protégés

Most mentoring literature focuses on the benefits for protégés. Benefits include promotion, increased salary, increased job and career satisfaction, and greater perceived career success (Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Chao et al., 1992; Aryee, Wyatt, & Stone, 1996). These studies often focus on the private sector where organizational rules allow for more discretion around hiring, promotion, and salary than the public sector. For this reason studies in the public sector generally focus on benefits to the organization or attitudinal measures, such as satisfaction with the mentoring.

2.12 What Are the Major Divergences Between Mentors and Protégés in their Expectations and Their Actual Experiences? How do These Differences in Expectations and Actual Experiences Affect Measures of Mentoring Success and Other Outcomes Associated with Mentoring Relationships?

Differences between what mentors and protégés expect from the mentoring relationships may lead to disappointment for both parties.

2.12.1 The Dark Side of Mentoring

Mentoring relationships can become dysfunctional and lead to negative outcomes. In order to gain benefits from mentoring, researchers must also examine where these relationships go wrong. Scandura (1998) describes some aspects that may lead to dysfunctional mentoring relationships: negative relations, sabotage, difficulty, spoiling, submissiveness, deception, and harassment. These behaviors can end the relationship or lead to lowered self-esteem, reduced job satisfaction, increased stress and anxiety, and increased absenteeism and eventual turnover.

Eby, McManus, Simon, and Russell (2000) interviewed protégés about their mentoring relationships to determine what led to negative experiences. They identified problems with the dyad match, including differences in values and work-styles, as well as personality conflicts as the most prevalent problems leading to dysfunction. Other symptoms of dysfunction included distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, politicking, and the lack of expertise on the part of the mentor.

Eby and Allen (2002) found further evidence that poor dyadic fit led to dysfunctional mentoring. They examined protégés in both formal and informal mentoring relationships to determine the effect of dysfunctional relationships on reported intent to leave, stress, and job satisfaction and found that those in formally assigned mentoring reported greater turnover intentions and higher levels of stress than their peers in informal mentoring relationships. They also found support for two factors leading to dysfunction: distancing/manipulative behavior and poor dyadic fit. Protégés reporting distancing behaviors described how they met with mentors infrequently and the mentor intentionally excluded them from important meetings or kept them "out of the loop" on important topics related to their work.

2.13 How are Expectations and Actual Experiences Different Between Formal and Informal Mentoring?

Formal and informal mentoring relationships differ in important ways. This section will address the major ways formal mentoring programs differ from informal mentoring relationships and how those differences matter for overall outcomes. Often formal mentoring programs are set up for specific purposes, such as leadership development, and may result in

very different expectations and experiences that those mentoring relationships that happen organically.

2.13.1 Formal Mentoring Programs

Though research has examined the differences between formal and informal mentoring relationships, few investigate the particular program characteristics of formal programs that lead them to have more or less successful outcomes for mentors and protégés. In his study of employees at public accounting firms, Viator (1999) found that some structural characteristics of the mentoring were associated with lowered perceived barriers to gaining a mentor and reduced turnover intentions. For example, employees responded more favorably about their mentoring when they had input into the matching, and when both parties mutually agreed on goals and objectives. Likewise, in their study investigating formal and informal mentoring, Ragins, Cotton, & Miller (2000) found that certain program characteristics, such as program purpose (i.e. programs that provide career development vs. provide orientation and initiation into the organization) were positively related to work attitudes.

When matching mentors and protégés, formal mentoring programs often take into consideration a number of factors in determining optimal matches. These include the race, gender, family circumstances, and structure of the mentoring program. Specific features of the mentoring relationship itself can also influence mentor and protégé perceptions of the quality of the mentoring. Such factors include the type of mentoring (formal vs. informal), the length of the relationship, and the frequency of interactions. The structure may also refer

to any specific goals the organization would like to achieve as a result of the mentoring relationship.

2.13.2 Mentoring Behaviors in Formal Mentoring Programs

As previously noted, the literature recognizes two types of mentoring behaviors or supports: career and psychosocial supports (Kram, 1985). Formal programs can differ in the level of formality of mentoring processes, influencing the perceived importance of mentoring supports provided. Some programs match mentors and protégés through formal processes, but leave decisions about the structure, content, and frequency of mentoring interactions to the discretion of the mentoring pair. These programs allow mentors and protégés to determine their goals based on perceived needs. Others programs provide more explicit direction or formal events and tasks for mentors and protégés to participate in as part of the mentoring program. These more formal structures generally focus on more specific narrow organizational goals.

The final part of this dissertation will look at the differences in mentoring behaviors and outcomes reported by mentors and protégés in two formal programs and those in informal mentoring relationships.

2.14 Preview of Chapter 3

Chapter 3 will discuss the hypotheses of this dissertation including discussion of the specific variables and methodology used to measure relationships between variables. It will also discuss the research design, describe the anticipated participants of this study, the methodology to be used, and any validity concerns.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

As described in Chapter 1, the present study advances previous mentoring studies in four important ways by:

- examining mentoring in public sector contexts,
- including the mentor in the research design,
- examining motivations to enter into a mentoring relationship, and

This chapter will proceed by addressing the proposed research design, hypothesized relationships between independent and dependent variables, and statistical procedures used to analyze the data for each research question.

3.2 Method for Informal Mentoring Survey

The participants in this study are employees in seven local government organizations. Participant cities were initially solicited from a list of municipalities in two large southeastern states that agreed to be a part of this research. Participation was solicited through telephone calls and email follow-ups to human resource directors, city managers, and mayors. This survey was administered in late August 2015 and serves as the primary data for this dissertation. An additional source of data comes from a previous survey of participants in a formal mentoring program that was conducted in August of 2014. This survey will be discussed in greater depth later in the chapter.

3.2.1 Survey Population

The individual participants for this study include anyone who currently works in a professional department or division. While most interested in those in management positions,

this study also wants to understand mentoring for front line workers. The population of employees for each city is expected to fall between 50 and 1500 employees.

Employees were sent an email letter of sponsorship from their organizational representative who was supporting the survey efforts within their city in late August 2015. They received an invitation to participate in the survey on September 8th and follow-up reminders approximately weekly until the survey closed. Upon completion of the survey, participants were thanked for their participation and removed from further email lists.

3.2.2 Survey Piloting

This survey was piloted using North Carolina State University alumni who graduated from the MPA program and currently work in public sector organizations as well as individuals without a college degree who work in professional settings as frontline staff. They were asked to reflect on their experiences either as a mentor or as a protégé in their career. After completing the survey, both protégés and mentors were asked to provide feedback regarding survey length, item clarity, possible missing items, and any problems accessing or completing the survey. All information gained from the pilot is confidential.

The pilot revealed that the survey took between 12-18 minutes to complete. Suggestions were reviewed and incorporated where appropriate. Where two or more participants identified a similar concern, changes were made to address those issues. For example, two participants suggested changing the wording related marital status to include domestic partnerships as well as marriages.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

3.3 Research Question 1: What respondent characteristics, work attitudes, or mentoring motivations predict a mentor will enter into a mentoring relationship?

Unlike traditional mentoring studies that focus solely on the protégé, this study allows us to examine the mentoring from the perspective of both mentors and the protégés. This research question seeks to determine what factors are associated with entering into a mentoring relationship at work. Those who indicate they acted as a mentor are compared to those who indicated that they have never had a mentoring relationship at work. Figure 3.1 illustrates the hypothesized relationship for factors influencing the decision to mentor.

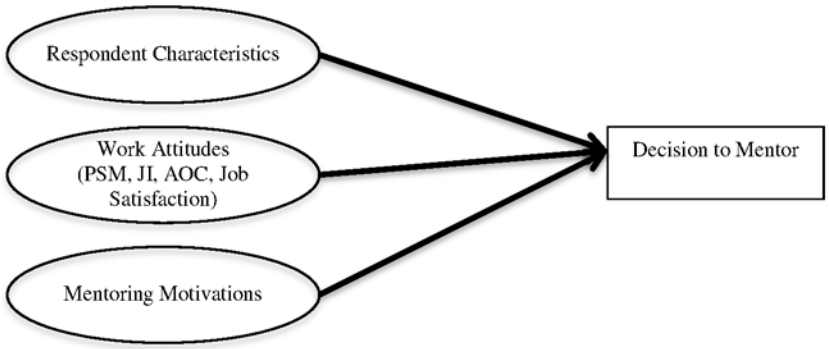

Figure 3.1. Factors Influencing Decision to Mentor
(Note: Work attitudes include public service motivation (PSM), job involvement (JI), affective organizational commitment (AOC), and job satisfaction)

Hypothesis 1:Mentors will have greater levels of public service motivation, job involvement, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction than non-mentors.

Hypothesis 2: Mentors will not be motivated solely by self-focused motivations to mentor others.

3.3.1 Dependent Variable: Decision to Mentor Others

This dissertation asks survey respondents if they have acted as a mentor in their current organization. To ensure that respondents have a shared understanding of what mentoring means, they were provided with the following definition:

For the purposes of this study, mentoring is…

> A professional work relationship between a person perceived to have greater knowledge, wisdom, and experience (the mentor) and one perceived to have less (the mentee), where the mentor provides formal or informal communication and feedback pertaining to the work and career development of the mentee. The relationship is usually face-to-face, and lasts for a sustained period of time.
>
> You are also in a mentoring relationship if you participate in a mentoring program that is formally recognized by your organization.

Respondents were asked:

- Based on the above definition, are you currently (or were you previously) in a mentoring relationship in your organization?
  - 1- Yes
  - 0- No
- If so, for your most recent mentoring experience were/are you a mentor or a mentee?
  - 1- Mentor
  - 2- Mentee

3.3.2 Independent Variables

Respondent characteristics. All survey respondents were asked to report:

- race/ethnicity - "How would you describe your race/ethnic background?"
- age - "In what month and year were you born?"
- gender – "Please indicate your gender"
- education – "What is highest degree you have received?"
- marital status – "Do you currently live with a spouse or domestic partner?"
- children – "Do you currently have any dependent children under the age of 18?"
- organizational tenure – "How long have you worked for the City of _____?"
- management – "Are you currently in a management or supervisory position?"

Work attitudes. All survey respondents were asked to report:

- Public Service Motivation – 5 items from Merit System Protection Board 5 PSM scale
    - "Meaningful public service is very important to me"
    - "I'm not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if that means I will be ridiculed"
    - "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievement"
    - "I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society"
    - "I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another"
- Job Involvement – a modified 6 item scale from Lodahl and Kejner (1964)
    - "I'll work overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it"
    - "I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities at my work" (R)
    - "You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he or she does"
    - "The most important things that happen to me involve my work"
    - "I usually show up to work a little early to get things done"
    - "To me, my work is only a small part of who I am" (R)
- Affective Organizational Commitment – a six item scale from Meyer & Allen (1997).
    - "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization"
    - "I feel personally attached to my work organization"
    - "I feel proud to tell others I work at my organization"
    - "Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me"
    - "I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire"
    - I really feel that the problems faced by my organization are also my problems"
- Job Satisfaction – "All in all, I am satisfied with my job"

Mentoring Motivations. Mentors were asked about their motivations to mentor:

- Motivation to Mentor Others
    - Self-focused
        - "I want others to see me as a leader in my organization"
        - "I hope to improve my own management and technical skills"
        - "It makes me feel good about myself"
        - "I hope it leads to a promotion for myself"
        - "I previously mentored others and I enjoyed it"
        - "I hoped to learn new things from my protégé"
    - Other-focused
        - "I previously had a mentor who helped me advance in my career and I want to do the same for someone else"
        - "I enjoy helping others succeed"
        - "I want to help others move up in my organization"

        - "I wanted to help someone who was struggling in my organization"
    - Organization-focused
        - "I wanted to promote management diversity initiatives within my organization"
        - "I think it helps my organization train and retain qualified managers"
        - "I want to promote the strategic goals of my organization"

3.3.3 Statistical Approach

This section presents the statistical procedures used to analyze the data. Procedures for missing values, correlation, and factor analysis will be used across each research question.

Missing Values. The data for this dissertation was analyzed using missing value analysis. Any patterns in missing data could signal a problem with the survey instrument and skew the data, and therefore missing value analysis must be conducted to determine if patterns exist. If require, data will be analyzed using missing value analysis. Data imputation will be used if appropriate.

Multicollinearity. Additionally I will check for multicollinearity between the variables to determine if any strong linear relationships exist between two or more predictor variables. Multicollinearity could cause problems in the analysis as it could provide imprecise estimates of the correlated variables on the outcomes of interest.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Factor analysis is frequently used to "uncover the latent structure (dimensions) of a set of variables (Garson, 2013 p. 8). This dissertation will use factor analysis to reduce a large number of variables into smaller constructs for modeling purposes. As previously discussed, factor analysis will be used in constructs for public

service motivation (PSM), affective organizational commitment (AOC), job involvement (JI), and the psychosocial and career supports provided by mentors. These measures are existing scales and are expected to load accordingly.

Additionally, as part of this dissertation I seek to determine if motivations to enter into mentoring have particular underlying factors, such as self-focused, other-focused, and organizational-focused motivations for mentors.

Public Service Motivation. Participants were asked to respond to 5 items from Merit System Protection Board 5 PSM scale:

- "Meaningful public service is very important to me"
- "I'm not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if that means I will be ridiculed"
- "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievement"
- "I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society"
- "I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another"

Job Involvement. Participants were asked to respond to a 6 item scale that includes the following statements:

- "I'll work overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it"
- "I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities at my work" (R)
- "You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he or she does"
- "The most important things that happen to me involve my work"
- "I usually show up to work a little early to get things done"
- "To me, my work is only a small part of who I am" (R)

Affective Organizational Commitment. Participants were asked to respond to a six item scale from Meyer & Allen (1997).

- "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization"
- "I feel personally attached to my work organization"
- "I feel proud to tell others I work at my organization"
- "Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me"
- "I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire"
- I really feel that the problems faced by my organization are also my problems"

3.3.4 Logistic Regression

The first research question seeks to determine what factors are associated with an individual becoming a mentor. The outcome of interest here is dichotomous or binary (acted as a mentor or not), suggesting the use of the logistic model. In logistic regression the impact of the predictor variables, or independent variables, on the dependent variables (here entering into a mentoring relationship as a mentor) is explained in terms of odds ratios. This part of the analysis assesses the relative importance of respondent characteristics (e.g. age, gender, race, etc.), work attitudes (PSM, job involvement, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction), and mentoring motivations in predicting who acts as a mentor.

3.4 Research Question 1a: What factors predict a mentor will choose to mentor someone struggling in the organization?

Previous mentoring research suggests that mentors enter into mentoring relationships after conducting a cost benefit analysis in which they perceive benefits for themselves (Belle Rose Ragins & Scandura, 1999). The "rising star" hypothesis suggests that mentors will seek out those in their organization who seem to be the most promising in an attempt to gain recognition for themselves (Singh et al., 2009). Under what circumstances do mentors take on someone struggling within their organization? This question will examine only those respondents who report that they have mentored others at work. Figure 3.2 illustrates the hypothesized relationship predicting mentoring a struggling individual.

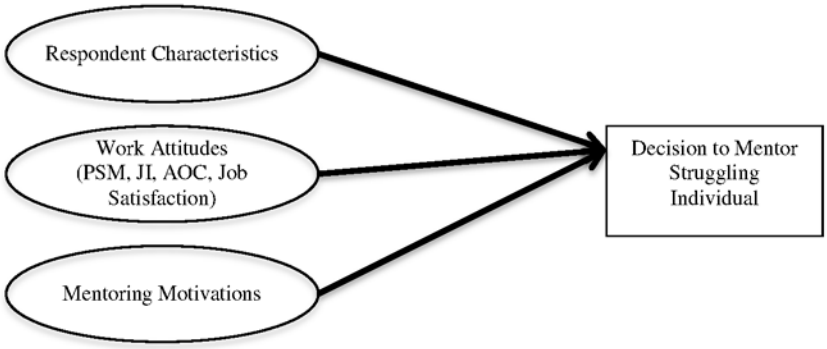

Figure 3.2: Factors Predicting Mentoring a Struggling Individual
(Note: Work attitudes include public service motivation (PSM), job involvement (JI), affective organizational commitment (AOC), and job satisfaction)

Hypothesis 3: Mentors who choose to mentor a struggling individual will report higher PSM, job involvement, and affective organizational commitment than those who do not.

Hypothesis 4: Mentors higher in self-focused motivations will be more likely to mentor someone struggling in their organization.

3.4.1 Dependent Variable: Mentor a Struggling Individual

This dissertation asks mentors how important certain factors were in selecting a protégé in an attempt to understand under what circumstances an individual would choose to mentor someone struggling within their organization instead of the "rising star".

Mentors will be asked: When selecting a mentee/protégé how important were each of the following factors in your selection decision?

- He/She seemed to be struggling in my organization and needed help
    1- Not important at all
    2- Low importance
    3- Slightly important
    4- Neither important or unimportant
    5- Moderately important
    6- Very important
    7- Extremely important

The dependent variable for this analysis is a recoding of the question above. Those who report that a mentoring someone who was struggling and needed help was very important or extremely important in selecting their protégé will be recoded as 1. Those who indicate that it was not important at all, of low importance, slightly important, or neither important or unimportant will be recoded as 0.

3.4.2 Independent Variables

Independent variables used to predict protégé selection will include the same respondent characteristics and work attitudes used in predicting who becomes a mentor, as listed on page 47-48.

3.4.3 Statistical Approach

Logistic Regression. This research questions asks respondents to determine how important it was for them to mentor someone who was struggling at work. The binary nature of the constructed response variable suggests the use of logistic regression.

3.5 Research Question 2: What respondent characteristics, work attitudes, and mentoring motivations predict a protégé will enter a mentoring relationship?

Research question 1 looks at mentors; this research question seeks to determine what motivates protégés to enter into a mentoring relationship. Previous research suggests that those who obtain a mentor may differ in substantial ways from those who do not. As discussed in Chapter 2, some demographic factors, such as gender and race, may affect the formation of informal mentoring relationships. Likewise, differences in job involvement, affective organizational commitment, public service motivation, job satisfaction, and other

general work related attitudes may also play a role in who obtains a mentor and who does not. This relationship is illustrated in figure 3.3.

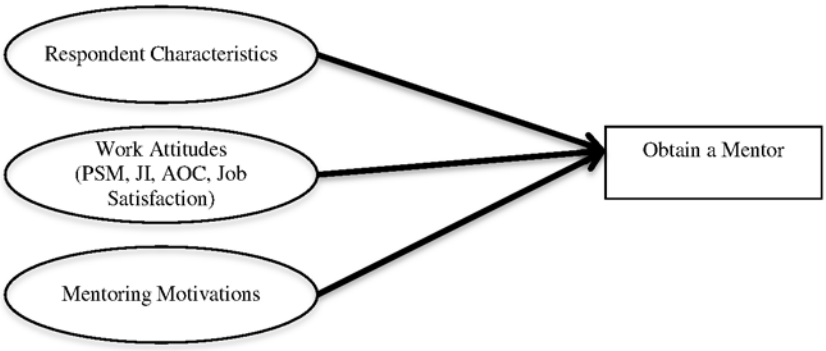

Figure 3.3: Factors Influencing Obtaining a Mentor
(Note: Work attitudes include public service motivation (PSM), job involvement (JI), affective organizational commitment (AOC), and job satisfaction)

> *Hypothesis 5: Those who obtain a mentor will be higher in career development and advancement motives than those who do not obtain a mentor.*

3.5.1 Dependent Variable: Obtain a Mentor

This dissertation asked survey respondents if they were a mentor or had a mentor at work. To ensure that respondents have a shared understanding of mentoring they were provided with the same definition as given to mentors:

For the purposes of this study, mentoring is…

> A professional work relationship between a person perceived to have greater knowledge, wisdom, and experience (the mentor) and one perceived to have less (the mentee), where the mentor provides formal or informal communication and feedback pertaining to the work and career development of the mentee. The relationship is usually face-to-face, and lasts for a sustained period of time.
>
> You are also in a mentoring relationship if you participate in a mentoring program that is formally recognized by your organization.

Respondents were asked:

- Based on the above definition, are you currently in a mentoring relationship at work?
    1- Yes
    0- No

- If so, for your most recent mentoring experience were/are you a mentor or a mentee?
    1- Mentor
    2- Mentee

3.5.2 Independent Variables

The independent variables used in this research question will include the same respondent characteristics and work attitudes used in determining who acts as a mentor listed on pages 47-48. The motivations for protégés to enter into a mentoring relationship differ, and are discussed below.

Motivations to obtain a mentor. As discussed in Chapter 2, while the majority of mentoring studies focus on career advancement motives for seeking a mentor (T. D. Allen et al., 2004), others suggest that mentoring may play a role in socialization or act as a form of help-seeking (D. G. Allen, 2006; Klein et al., 2006; Bauer et al., 2007).

1) ***Organization socialization motivations***

Protégés were asked: Please indicate how important each factor was in motivating you to seek a mentor in your current organization.

- "I hoped to learn more about my organization"
- "I thought a mentor would introduce me to influential people in their network"
    1- Not important at all
    2- Low importance
    3- Slightly important
    4- Neither important or unimportant
    5- Moderately important
    6- Very important
    7- Extremely important

2) ***Help-seeking motivations***

Protégés were asked: Please indicate how important each factor was in motivating you to seek a mentor in your current organization.

- "I wanted to be more confident at work"
- "I hoped to improve my own management skills"
- "I hoped to learn new technical skills related to my current position"

1- Not important at all
2- Low importance
3- Slightly important
4- Neither important or unimportant
5- Moderately important
6- Very important
7- Extremely important

3) ***Career development and advancement motives.***

Protégés will be asked: Please indicate how important each factor was in motivating you to seek a mentor in your current organization.

- "I wanted to receive a promotion and move ahead in my organization"
- "I thought it would help me achieve my long-term career goals"
- "I hoped to receive a salary increase"
- "I wanted others to see me as a leader in my organization"

1- Not important at all
2- Low importance
3- Slightly important
4- Neither important or unimportant
5- Moderately important
6- Very important
7- Extremely important

3.5.3 Statistical Approach

Logistic Regression. This research question seeks to determine what factors are associated with an individual obtaining a mentor. The outcome of interest here is dichotomous or binary (had a mentor or not), suggesting the use of logistic regression. This part of the analysis assesses the relative importance of respondent characteristics (age,

gender, race), work attitudes (PSM, job involvement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction) and mentoring motivations in predicting who gets a mentor.

3.6 Research Question 3: What actions and behaviors do protégés and mentors see as the most important for a successful mentoring relationship?

A mentoring relationship includes a variety of career and psychosocial supports that the mentor provides to for their protégé. This research question seeks to determine what behaviors both mentors and protégés view as the most important in a mentoring relationship. As noted in Chapter 2, mentors and protégés my have different motivations to enter into a mentoring relationship which could influence what they see as the most important behaviors and supports necessary for a successful mentoring relationship.

> *Hypothesis 6: Protégés will report career supports are more important for mentoring success than mentors.*
>
> *Hypothesis 7: Mentors will report psychosocial supports are more important for mentoring success than protégés.*

3.6.1 Mentoring Behaviors and Supports

I adapted these measures from Noe's (1998) and Ragins and McFarlin's (1990) scales (see appendix A). Their measures only asked protégés about perceptions of mentoring supports, and thus needed adjustment for mentors. These items also described feelings instead of specific behaviors. For example, "My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual" fails to describe actionable behaviors on the part of the mentor as to how to provide that support. The items used to measure mentoring supports for this dissertation focuses on specific behaviors. While some of these measures differ from those

used by Noe (1998) or Ragins and McFarlin (1990), I still expect the career and psychosocial supports to load similarly in a factor analysis.

Protégés were asked to rate the importance of **career supports**. How important did you think the following supports and behaviors are for your professional development?

My mentor… :

1) Provide advice for achieving long-term career aspirations
2) Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"
3) Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills
4) Provide opportunities to learn new management skills
5) Provide feedback regarding performance
6) Bring your accomplishments to the attention of those higher up in the organization
7) Introduce you to influential people in their network
8) Share experiences of moving up in the organization
9) Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules

Protégés were asked to rate the importance of **psychosocial supports**. How important do you think the following supports and behaviors are for your professional development?

My mentor…:

1) Socialize with you outside of working hours
2) Act as a sounding board for frustrations
3) Protect you from unnecessary criticism or blame
4) Provide support and encouragement
5) Act as a role model for you

Mentors were asked to rate the importance of **career supports**. How important do you think the following supports and behaviors are for the professional development of your mentee?

As a mentor, I… :

1) Provide advice for achieving long-term career aspirations
2) Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"
3) Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills
4) Provide opportunities to learn new management skills
5) Provide feedback regarding performance

6) Bring accomplishments of my mentee to the attention of those higher up in the organization
7) Introduce my mentee to influential people in my network
8) Share my experiences of moving up in the organization
9) Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules

Mentors were asked to rate the importance of **psychosocial supports**. How important did you think the following supports and behaviors are for the professional development of your mentee?

As a mentor, I… :

1) Socialize with my mentee outside of working hours
2) Act as a sounding board for frustrations
3) Protect my mentee from unnecessary criticism
4) Provide support and encouragement
5) Act as a role model for my protégé

Level of Importance
1- Not important at all
2- Low importance
3- Slightly important
4- Neither important or unimportant
5- Moderately important
6- Very important
7- Extremely important

3.6.2 Statistical Approach

Factor Analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis will be used to determine if the indicator variables load on the expected hypothesized factors (career and psychosocial) used by previous mentoring studies. The career and psychosocial support scales developed by Noe (1988) have been used in and validated through numerous mentoring studies and continue to be used in mentoring studies today. I expect the variables will load cleanly onto two factors with alpha reliability greater than .7 needed for confirmatory factor analysis.

These two scales will be used in calculating agreement about the importance and quality of the delivered career and psychosocial supports provided during the mentoring relationship. Each item in the scale will be weighted the same, with no one item of greater importance than any other. For modeling purposes, these scales will reduce the number of items into two constructs.

Career Supports provided by the mentor:

1) Provide advice for achieving long-term career aspirations
2) Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"
3) Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills
4) Provide opportunities to learn new management skills
5) Provide feedback regarding performance
6) Bring accomplishments of my mentee to the attention of those higher up in the organization
7) Introduce my mentee to influential people in my network
8) Share my experiences of moving up in the organization
9) Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules

Psychosocial Supports provided by the mentor:

1) Socialize outside of working hours
2) Act as a sounding board for frustrations
3) Protect mentee from unnecessary criticism
4) Provided support and encouragement
5) Acted as a role model for mentee

Difference in Means. This research question seeks to determine what differences may exist between protégés and mentors regarding the importance of specific mentoring behaviors. A t-test will be used to compare the group means of mentors and protégés on each item of interest. Additionally, mentors and protégés will be compared on the *overall* means for the career and psychosocial support scales to determine what, if any, differences exist between the two groups.

3.7 Research Question 4: What are the major divergences between mentor and protégé expectations and actual experiences?

In the previous research question I asked about perceived importance of mentoring supports. This research question investigates the major divergences between mentors and protégés in the importance of mentoring supports and actual experiences in the quality of supports provided. These differences in expectations and actual experiences may lead to differences in outcomes for the mentoring relationship and for the organization.

> *Hypothesis 8: Mentors will report higher levels of quality for career and psychosocial supports provided than protégés.*

3.7.1 Statistical Approach

Calculating difference/ mentoring efficacy measures. Using the measures of career and psychosocial support (as listed on page 56-58), I will calculate a score for the difference between expectations and actual experiences (absolute value) for each mentoring behavior for each individual. This score represents the overall distance between what was expected and what was provided for each individual.

Differences Within Groups. Using the difference measures, I will determine, on average, which behavior/s produced the greatest difference between expectations and actual experiences for both protégés and mentors.

Differences Between Groups. Using the difference measures, I will determine, on average, which behavior/s produced the greatest difference between expectations and actual experiences between the mentors and the protégés.

3.8 Research Question 5: How do these divergences in attitudes, expectations, and experiences affect measures of perceived mentorship success?

Mentoring relationships can be complex, as each individual comes into the relationship with specific attitudes, goals, and expectations for what hope to accomplish or achieve through mentoring. This differences in attitudes, goals, and expectations can affect the overall assessment of mentoring outcomes. I will use two models to examine outcomes for mentors and protégés as separate, distinguishable groups.

Figure 3.4 represents the hypothesized model of the relationship between structural features of the mentoring, degree of collaboration, presence of clear goals and expectations, and motivations to enter into a mentoring relationship influence mentoring behaviors and perceived quality of the supports provided, and the outcomes associated with mentoring for individuals and organizations. Here I will examine the outcomes of the mentoring relationship. Later, research question 6 will examine the outcomes for organizations.

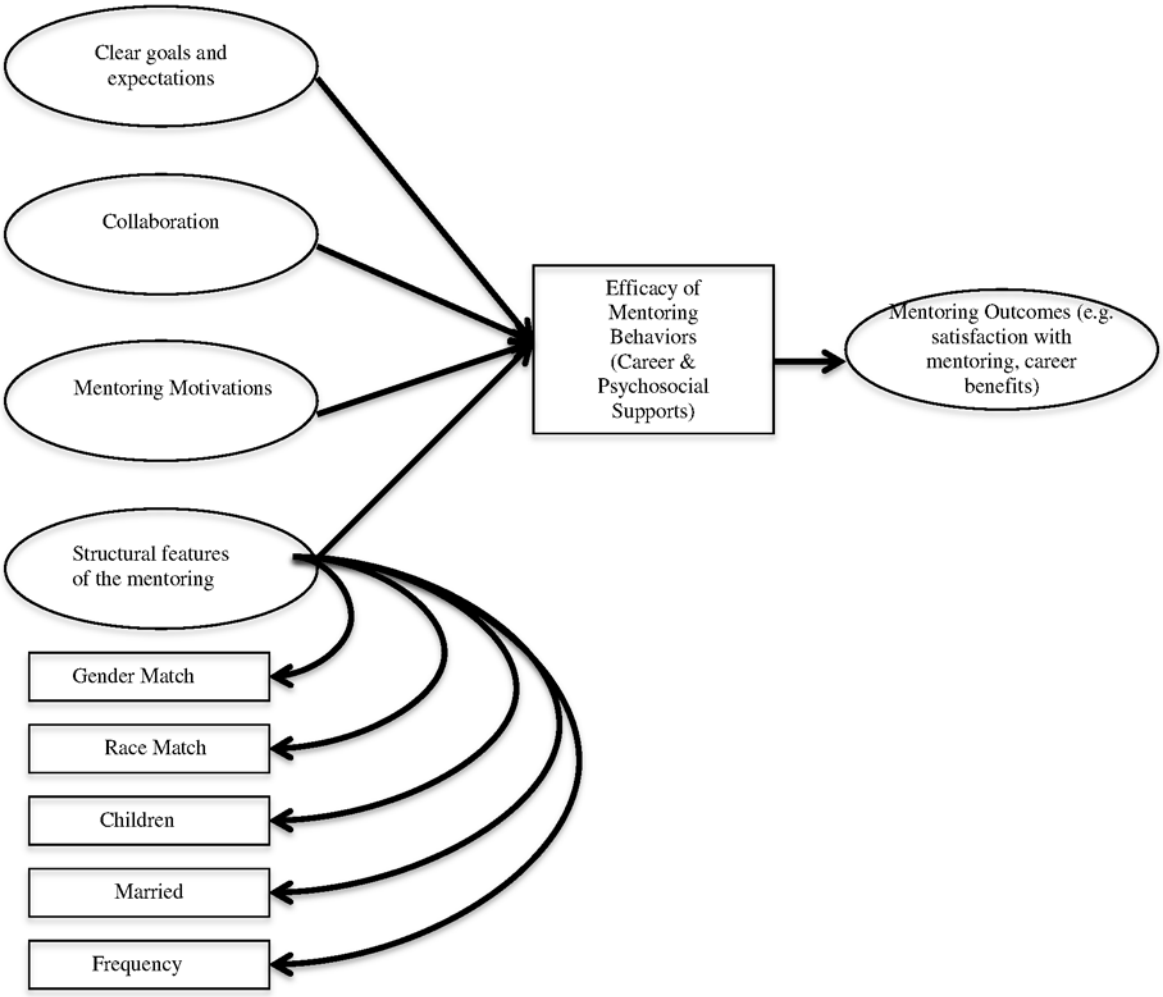

Figure 3.4: Factors Associated with Individual Outcomes of Mentoring

Hypotheses for individual mentor and protégé models:

Hypothesis 9: Mentors and protégés who report establishing clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of satisfaction with the mentoring b) receiving tangible career benefits than those who do not establish clear goals and expectations.

Hypothesis 10: Mentors and protégés who report collaborating to establish clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of satisfaction with the mentoring b) receiving tangible career benefits than those who do not report collaborating.

3.8.1 Dependent Variables: Individual Outcomes of Mentoring

The dependent variables for this research question measure the overall satisfaction with the mentoring relationship and the perceived career benefits or organizational recognition received as a result of mentoring. Separate models will be run for protégés and mentors.

Satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. Satisfaction with the mentoring relationship is perhaps one of the most common dependent variables in mentoring research (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Brad, Lall, Holmes, Huwe, & Nordlund, 2001; Finkelstein, Allen, & Rhoton, 2003). Most studies, however, only measure *protégé* satisfaction with the mentoring they received. This dissertation asks both the mentor and protégé about their satisfaction with the mentoring relationship.

> Mentors and Protégés will be asked: "Thinking about your overall experience, how satisfied are you with your most recent mentoring experience?"
>
> 1- Very dissatisfied
> 2- Dissatisfied
> 3- Somewhat dissatisfied
> 4- Neither satisfied or dissatisfied
> 5- Somewhat satisfied
> 6- Satisfied
> 7- Very satisfied

Tangible career benefits and recognition. Mentoring is traditionally seen as a means of career advancement. Most mentoring literature focuses on the career benefits for protégés, which include promotion, increased salary, increased job and career satisfaction, and greater perceived career success (Cox and Nkomo, 1991; Chao, Walz, and Gardner, 1992; Aryee, Wyatt, and Stone, 1996).

A meta-analysis by Allen et al. (2004) examined the career and personal benefits associated with mentoring others. They found that mentors receive personal satisfaction, organizational recognition, increased promotions, and new knowledge from the protégé. Some authors hypothesize that increased salaries and promotions result from the organization rewarding mentors for their mentoring behaviors due to the hypothesized organizational benefits.

Mentors and protégés were both asked their agreement with the following statements:

- "Because of my mentoring relationship I received some tangible career benefits like a bonus, promotion, raise, etc."
- "Because of my mentoring relationship I received recognition or other forms of formal acknowledgement from my organization."

1- Strongly disagree
2- Disagree
3- Somewhat disagree
4- Neither agree or disagree
5- Somewhat agree
6- Agree
7- Strongly agree

3.8.2 Independent Variables

Perceived efficacy of mentoring behaviors. As previously discussed, mentoring research divides mentoring supports provided by mentors into two categories: career and psychosocial supports. Both mentors and protégés were asked to assess how important they thought specific career and psychosocial supports were to professional development, and how they rate the perceived quality of supports provided.

Protégés were asked to rate the importance and quality of **career supports**.

- How important do you think the following supports and behaviors are for your professional development?
- How would you rate the quality of supports provided by your mentor?

My mentor… :

1) Provide advice for achieving long-term career aspirations
2) Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"
3) Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills
4) Provide opportunities to learn new management skills
5) Provide feedback regarding performance
6) Bring your accomplishments to the attention of those higher up in the organization
7) Introduce you to influential people in their network
8) Share experiences of moving up in the organization
9) Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules

Protégés were asked to rate the importance and quality of **psychosocial supports**.

- How important do you think the following supports and behaviors are for your professional development?
- How would you rate the quality of supports provided by your mentor?

My mentor…:

1) Socialize with you outside of working hours
2) Act as a sounding board for frustrations
3) Protect you from unnecessary criticism
4) Provide support and encouragement
5) Act as a role model for you

Mentors will be asked to rate the importance and quality of **career supports**.

- How important do you think the following supports and behaviors were for the professional development of your mentee?
- How would you rate the quality of supports you provided your mentee?

As a mentor, I… :

1) Provided advice for achieving long-term career aspirations even outside of my own organization
2) Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"
3) Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills
4) Provide opportunities to learn new management skills
5) Provide feedback regarding performance
6) Bring accomplishments of my protégé to the attention of those higher up in the organization
7) Introduce my mentee to influential people in my network
8) Share my experiences of moving up in the organization
9) Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules

Mentors were asked to rate the importance and quality of **psychosocial supports**.

- How important do you think the following supports and behaviors are for the professional development of your mentee?
- How would you rate the quality of supports you provided your mentee?

As a mentor, I… :

1) Socialize with my mentee outside of working hours
2) Act as a sounding board for frustrations
3) Protect my mentee from unnecessary criticism
4) Provide support and encouragement
5) Act as a role model for my mentee

Level of Importance	Rating of Quality
1- Not at all important	1- Poor
2- Low importance	2- Fair
3- Slightly important	3- Good
4- Neither important or unimportant	4- Very good
5- Moderately important	5- Excellent
6- Very Important	
7- Extremely important	

As discussed in research question 4, I will calculate a score for the efficacy of each mentoring behavior for each individual. This multiplicative score represents the perceived importance times the perceived quality of the support provided. This measure will be used to determine the perceived efficacy of the mentoring for each individual.

***Assessment of collaboration in the mentoring relationship*.** Protégés with more input into the mentoring relationship generally report more positive outcomes. Protégés and mentors will be asked about the extent that roles, goals, and expectations are 1) clear, and 2) the result of collaboration with input by both parties.

Both mentors and protégés were asked:

- "To what extent did your mentoring relationship have clear goals and expectations?"

- "To what extent were these decided on collaboratively with input from both mentor and menteé?
    0- Not at all
    1- A little bit
    2- Somewhat
    3- Quite a bit
    4- To a great extent

Frequency of mentoring interactions. Both mentors and protégés were asked about the frequency of their interactions, both face-to-face and through more informal means of communication (e.g. email, telephone, instant messaging, etc.).

Mentors and protégés were asked: How frequently did you interact with your mentor/mentee using the following forms of communication? (This does not include normal interactions that are part of your day-to-day job.)

1- Face-to-face
2- Instant message
3- Text message
4- Email
5- Telephone
6- Other forms of social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, etc.)

Length of the mentoring relationship. Mentoring relationship usually last for a sustained period of time, typically six months to several years. Respondents were asked approximately how long the relationship lasted, and if the relationship ended (or still ongoing).

Mentors were asked: "Approximately how long did you mentor this individual?"

Protégés were asked: "Approximately how long were you mentored by this individual?

Mentors and protégés were asked: "Did this mentoring relationship end or is it ongoing?"

***Family characteristics*.** Mentors who identify with the work-family balance of their protégés may provide greater levels of career and psychosocial support. Respondents will be

asked about their current marital status and the presence of dependent children living at home. Reponses to these items will be used to determine if both mentor and protégé match in their current family situation.

> Mentors and protégés were asked: "Do you currently live with a spouse or domestic partner?"
>
> Mentors and protégés were asked: "Do you have any dependent children under the age of 18 living with you?"

Race and gender match. As previously discussed, numerous mentoring studies investigated the role of race and gender on mentoring outcomes (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Blake-Beard, Murrell, & Thomas, 2007; Ingram, Bruning, & Mikawoz, 2009; O'Brien, Biga, Kessler, & Allen, 2010; Blake-Beard, Bayne, Crosby, & Muller, 2011). Mentors and protégés were asked to report their own race and gender and that of their mentoring partner.

3.8.3 Control Variables

Other variables act as controls and include the following: tenure within city government, respondent's age, and the highest level of education. These variables may or may not influence the ways in which mentors and protégés perceive the quality of mentoring relationships and its outcomes.

3.8.4 Statistical Approach

Structural equation modeling (SEM). This research question seeks to determine how differences in expectations and actual experiences affect measures of mentoring success. These measures include satisfaction with the mentoring relationship and tangible career benefits. SEM is used in cases where multiple latent indicators are measured by multiple

indicator variables and when attempting to show mediating or moderating relationships (Garson, 2013). As such, SEM represents the most appropriate statistical approach for this question. For this analysis, we will run two models: one for mentors and one for protégés.

3.9 Research Question 6: How do these divergences in expectations and experiences affect organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover, and willingness to mentor?

The previous model looks at the outcomes of the mentoring relationship. Further down the logic model, this question assesses organizational outcomes associated with mentoring relationships. These outcomes include greater levels of job satisfaction, greater levels of organizational commitment, reduced turnover, and willingness to mentor others. Figure 3.5 illustrates the hypothesized relationship for factors associated with organizational outcomes.

Like research question five, the analysis of this research question will look at mentors and protégés individually to determine if differences in expectations and experiences affect organizational outcomes.

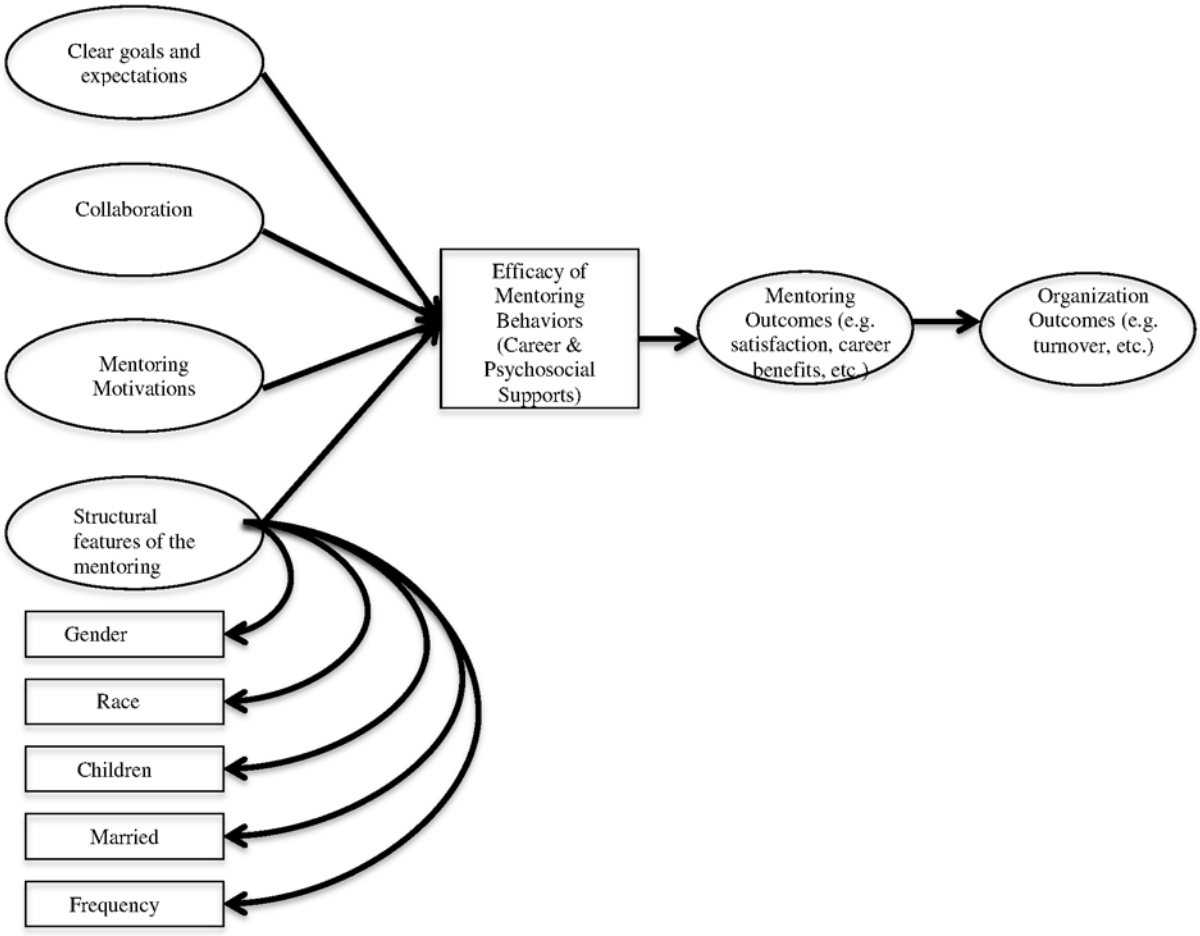

Figure 3.5: Factors Influencing Organizational Outcomes Associated with Mentoring

Hypotheses for individual mentor and protégé models:

Hypothesis 11: Mentors and protégés who report establishing clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of job satisfaction b) greater levels of organizational commitment c) reduced turnover d) willingness to mentor others.

Hypothesis 12: Mentors and protégés who report collaborating to establish clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of job satisfaction b) greater levels of organizational commitment c) reduced turnover intentions d) willingness to mentor others.

3.9.1 Dependent Variables: Organizational Outcomes

The dependent variables for this research question represent a range of organizational outcomes associated with mentoring. Research concerning the role and outcomes for organizations relies heavily on the logic that improvements in employee human capital brings benefits to the organization as a whole. Mentoring can contribute to increased employee motivation, reduced turnover intentions, increased affective organizational commitment, increased job involvement, and overall performance (Wilson & Elman, 1990). Wilson and Elman also contend that mentoring provides a "structured system for strengthening and assuring the continuity of the organizational culture" by providing members with "a common value base, and with implicit knowledge of what is expected of them and what they in turn can expect for the organization" (p.89).

Job Satisfaction. Researchers have long hypothesized the connection between job satisfaction and a range of positive organizational outcomes, including increased performance, reduced turnover intentions, and increase organizational commitment (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Mentors and protégés were asked their level of agreement with the following statement:

- "All in all, I am satisfied with my job."
    1- Strongly disagree
    2- Disagree
    3- Somewhat disagree
    4- Neither agree or disagree
    5- Somewhat agree
    6- Agree
    7- Strongly agree

Organizational commitment. Like job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment is hypothesized to lead reduced turnover and increased job performance (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Weng & McElroy, 2012).

Mentors and protégés will be asked their level of agreement with the following statement:

- "Because of my mentoring relationship I feel more committed to my organization"
    1- Strongly disagree
    2- Disagree
    3- Somewhat disagree
    4- Neither agree or disagree
    5- Agree
    6- Somewhat agree
    7- Strongly agree

Turnover intentions. Numerous mentoring studies show positive mentoring relationships can reduce intentions to turnover in an organization (Payne & Huffman, 2005b; Craig et al., 2013).

Mentors and protégés were asked:

- "Over the past few years, have you considered leaving your organization for reasons other than retirement?"
    0 – No
    1 – Yes

***Willingness to mentor others/again*.** Some researcher suggests that mentoring can be seen as a form of organizational citizenship behavior (Donaldson et al., 2000). Organ (1998) originally defined organizational citizenship behavior as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal rewards system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). In a meta-analysis of the individual and organizational outcomes of OCBs Podsakoff et al. (2009)

found that OCBs were related to a employee performance ratings, turnover intentions, and actual turnover.

> Mentors and protégés were asked: Thinking through your most recent mentoring experience, do you think you would like to serve as a mentor to someone in your organization (again)?
> 0- No
> 1- Yes

3.9.2 Independent Variables

Independent variables for this research question mirror those in the previous section as described on pages 61-66. An abbreviated description is given below.

Independent Variables:

- **Perceived efficacy of career and psychosocial supports** (e.g., provided specific advice for how to succeed in the organization, provided advice for achieving long-term career goals, etc.)
- **Assessment of collaboration in the mentoring relationship** (e.g., clear roles, goals, and expectations)
- **Frequency of mentoring interactions**
- **Length of mentoring relationship**
- **Family characteristics** (e.g., married, children under 18)
- **Race and gender match**

3.9.3 Control Variables

Other variables act as controls and include the following: tenure within city government, respondent's age, and the highest level of education. These variables may or may not influence the ways in which mentors and protégés perceive the quality of mentoring relationships and its outcomes.

3.9.4 Statistical Approach

This analysis will follow the same approach as stated in research question five as described on pages 67-68.

3.10 Research Question 7: How are all of these earlier explored mentoring relationships different in formal mentoring arrangements?

This research question seeks to determine how formal and informal mentoring arrangements differ in importance of mentoring behaviors and subsequent outcomes. The data for this question comes from a study of two small formal mentoring programs in two large southeastern cities, referred to as North City and South City.

> *Hypothesis 13: Those in informal mentoring relationships will report more positive individual and organizational outcomes than those in formal mentoring relationships.*

Two Formal Mentoring Programs

This question used data collected from two formal mentoring programs. The program goals, specific program characteristics, description of participants, and discussion of outcomes will be discussed in greater detail in chapter 6.

3.10.1 South City Formal Mentoring Program Survey

The source of data for this question comes from the participants in a formal mentoring program in a large southeastern city. The sample includes five cohorts over a time period of six years (the program did not operate in one year), with each cohort consisting of approximately 20 pairs of mentors and protégés. All participants in the program who were still employed by the city were invited to participate in the survey. In total, 19 mentors (68% response rate) and 60 protégés (57% response rate) completed the survey. Despite the small number of participants in the formal mentoring program, this survey provides important information on the similarities and differences between mentoring relationships in formal and informal contexts.

Procedure for Administering the Survey

Participants for this study were recruited via email and asked to participate in a short survey regarding their participation in the formal mentoring program. In late July 2014, participants received an email inviting them to complete the survey. The survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete. The closing date for the survey was August 27, 2014. Upon completion of the survey, participants were thanked for their participation and removed from further reminder email lists.

3.11 Summary of Chapter 3

Chapter 3 has summarized the methodology to be used to investigate the research questions outlined in the first three chapters.

3.12 Preview of Remaining Chapters

Chapter 4 will discuss the analysis and findings for research questions concerning who engages in mentoring relationships at work. Chapter 5 will discuss what behaviors and supports mentors and protégé believe are the most important for mentoring success and the perceived outcomes associated with their mentoring relationships. Chapter 6 will examine the differences between those in informal mentoring relationships and those in two formal programs in terms of the behavioral supports provided and ultimate outcomes for individuals and organizations. Finally, chapter 7 will review key findings of this dissertation, discuss implications for mentoring theory and practice, examine limitations of this study, and explore directions for future research.

CHAPTER 4: REVIEW OF INFORMAL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

4.1 Introduction

The previous three chapters provided background for examining mentoring relationships at work. This chapter will examine factors associated with informal mentoring relationships, including the antecedents of entering into a mentoring relationship, the career and psychosocial behaviors associated with mentoring, and expected outcomes associated with positive mentoring relationships. This chapter will address the following:

4.1 Introduction
4.2 - 4.4 Analysis of Survey Response Rate
4.5 - 4.8 Descriptive Statistics for Informal Mentoring Relationships (mentors, protégés, and nonmentored individulas)
4.9 Comparison of mentors, protégés, and nonmentored individuals
4.10 Factor Analysis of Work Attitudes and Mentoring Motivations
4.11 Review of the Mentoring Logic Model
4.12 What Factors Predict Who Becomes a Mentor?
4.13 What Factors Predict Who Becomes a Protégé?
4.14 Review of Major Findings for Who Enters into Mentoring Relationships
4.15 Preview of Chapter 5

4.2 Analysis of Survey Response Rate

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the target populations for this study were individuals employed by six local governments in two southeastern states. Participant lists were solicited from human resource directors and/or city managers. Three cities submitted email lists for their organizations that included all active full-time employees, one city forwarded the email request to their active full-time employees, and two cities chose to

forward the request to department heads individually to determine if they would participate. Those chosen for participation include individuals from all levels of the organization and across all departments. Respondents were contacted by email to solicit participation in the survey beginning in September 2015. 444 email addresses were undeliverable and removed from the distribution list and not included in the response rate. Additionally, some potential respondents (47) were on leave during the entirety of the data collection and also removed from the sample. A total of 779 of the 2,206 people contacted to participate returned completed surveys, resulting in an overall response rate of 33.8%. Response rates by participant city are found in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Survey Response Rates

Participant City	Mentoring In the Public Sector Surveys			
	Number of Surveys Emailed	Number of Deliverable Surveys	Number of Completed Surveys	Total Response Rate
1	759*	563	174	30.9%
2	501^	493	248	50.3%
3	317[O]	317	110	34.7%
4	197*	194	49	25.3%
5	133^	133	96	72.1%
6	875^	602	102	16.0%
TOTAL	2,782	2,302	779	33.8%

* City forwarded email to department heads
^ City submitted list of email addresses for active full-time employees
[O] City forwarded email to all active full-time employees

As illustrated in the table, response rates for cities varied greatly, with a high of 72.2% and a low of 16%. Some differences in response rate can be attributed to differences in institutional support between participant cities. Low response rates can increase sampling bias and diminish the overall validity of the findings (Dillman, Christian, & Smyth, 2014).

Due to increases in the prevalence of internet surveys, their response rate is often lower than other survey methods, such as face-to-face questionnaires or mail surveys (Pedersen & Nielsen, 2014). The 35% response rate for this study is in line with comparable online surveys and within the realm of acceptability (Dillman et al., 2014).

4.3 Respondents and Non-Respondents

In survey research, the goal is for all eligible participants to complete the survey; however, almost all surveys have non-respondents. For researchers, nonresponse becomes an issue when those who participated and those who did not differ in some measurable way. For examination of nonresponse bias, the only data available for respondents and the rest of the population were the overall gender and racial make-up of the municipalities. Three cities matched the gender and racial make-up of the overall population within 5%. In one city, white males were over represented (47%) and white females under represented (26%), while nonwhites were in line with the population. In two cities nonwhites were slightly over represented in the sample by approximately 10% above the population of nonwhite city employees.

4.4 Missing Values Analysis

As is often the case in surveys, not all respondents answered all questions. Respondents can leave questions blank for a number of reasons, including intentional or accidental omission, survey fatigue, or not knowing the answer to a particular question. Missing Values Analysis ensures that there are no patterns in the missing data that might bias the results. Ideally, data should be missing completely at random (MCAR) and show no identifiable patterns, meaning that missing values on one variable does not relate to missing

values in any other variables. MCAR is determined by comparing respondents and nonrespondents on each item to see if a difference in means exists between the two groups on key independent and dependent variables (Garson, 2015). For this survey, no variable had more than 5% missing, which is the threshold for conducting missing values analysis. Following social science convention, listwise deletion of cases was used and cases with any missing data for any model was dropped from the analysis (Garson, 2015).

4.5 Descriptive Statistics for Informal Mentoring Relationships (Full Sample)

As previously discussed, the literature distinguishes between two types of mentoring: formal and informal. This chapter will focus exclusively on informal mentoring relationships. Informal relationships often form out of mutual affinity or admiration between mentor and protégé, develop over time, and lead to more positive outcomes for mentors, protégés, and organizations (Chao et al., 1992). Organizations can attempt to increase mentoring behaviors by providing encouragement and support for informal mentoring or through adoption of a formal mentoring program.

The respondents to this survey included mentors, protégés, and those who were not in a mentoring relationship at work. Table 4.2 displays the breakdown for participants in informal relationships, as well as individuals who have not been in a mentoring relationship at their current organization.

Table 4.2 Informal Mentoring Respondents

Group	N	Percent of Informal	
Mentors	179	34.23%	
Protégés	108	20.65%	
No Mentoring Relationship	232	45.12%	
Want to Obtain a Mentor	62		*26.72%*
Want to Mentor Others	62		*26.72%*
Don't want Mentoring Relationship	108		*46.55%*
Total	**519**		

4.5.1 Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Characteristics

Respondents were asked to report a number of demographic characteristics. These include gender, race, age, highest level of education, marital status, status of children under 18 living at home (if any), organizational tenure, and whether or not they were in a supervisory position at work. Table 4.3 presents the demographic characteristics for all respondents.

Table 4.3 Demographic Characteristics for Respondents

Demographic Characteristics	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	494	.45	-	-	-
Male	494	.55	-	-	-
Nonwhite	492	.32	-	-	-
Age	436	46.17	11.11	17	81
Masters Degree	461	.27	-	-	-
Married	494	..75	-	-	-
Children Under 18	494	.40	-	-	-
Organizational Tenure (years)	453	11.60	9.53	0	40
Supervisory Role	499	.45	-	-	-

Of the respondents to the survey 45% were female, 32% were nonwhite, 27% hold a masters degree or higher, 75% are married or living with a domestic partner, 40% currently have a child under 18 living at home, and 45% are currently in a supervisory role. Respondents have an average age of 46 years and have an average organizational tenure of

11.6 years. Table 4.5 shows the racial identification and table 4.6 show the highest level of education for participants in the sample

Table 4.5 Race of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Race	**White, non-Hispanic**	333	67.68	67.68
	Black or African American	106	21.54	89.23
	Hispanic or Latino	14	2.85	92.07
	American Indian	2	0.41	92.48
	Asian or Pacific Islander	8	1.63	94.11
	Two or more races	15	3.05	97.15
	Other	14	2.85	100
Total		492	100	

Table 4.6 Highest Level of Education of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highest Level of Education	**Less than High School**	1	.20	.20
	High School Diploma or GED	79	15.96	16.16
	Associates Degree	54	10.91	27.07
	Bachelors Degree	203	41.01	68.08
	Masters Degree	110	22.22	90.30
	Ph.D., MD, or JD	14	2.83	93.13
	Other	34	6.87	100
Total		495	100	

4.6 Descriptive Statistics for Informal Mentors

A total of 179 individuals indicated that they currently or previously mentored someone in their current organization. Table 4.7 presents the descriptive statistics for the demographic characteristics of the informal mentors in this study. Of those indicating they were a mentor, 34.9% were female, 28.6% were nonwhite, 29.6% held a masters degree or higher, 76.5% were married or in a domestic partnership, 36.8% had a child 18 or under living at home, and 65.1% indicated they currently served in a supervisory position. The

average age of respondents was 49.58 years and the average tenure was 14.76 years in their current organization. Compared to the entire sample, mentors tend to be a higher percentage of males, older (~3 years), have a longer organizational tenure, and are more likely to currently serve in a supervisory position. These characteristics are in line with expectations for mentors.

Table 4.7 Informal Mentor Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	N	N Obs.	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	59	169	.35	-	-	-
Male	110	169	.65			
Nonwhite	49	171	.29	-	-	-
Age	155	155	49.58	9.71	23	71
Masters Degree	47	159	.30	-	-	-
Married	130	170	.77	-	-	-
Children Under 18	63	171	.37	-	-	-
Organizational Tenure (years)	168	168	14.79	10.32	1	40
Supervisory Role	112	172	.65	-	-	-

4.6.1 Descriptive Statistics for Mentor Demographic Characteristics

The majority of mentors were male (65%). For the participant cities, women made up more than half of the employee population, suggesting that women may not serve as mentors as frequently as males. Previous research on mentoring has argued that women perceive greater risks to mentoring others than their male counterparts (Ragins, 1989; Ragins & Cotton, 1993) Namely, women worry that a poor performing protégé will reflect poorly on their own performance or their ability to lead others (Parker & Kram, 1993). As a result, women may be less likely to mentor others, especially before they have reached the highest levels of the organization.

Table 4.8 shows the racial self-identification of mentors. The mentors are mostly white (71%), with black or African-Americans as the second largest group represented (21%). All other respondents self-identified as another race and accounted for just 8.6% of the sample; as a result, racial identification was collapsed down into white (71.35%) and nonwhite (28.65%) for the purposes of analysis in this study.

Table 4.8: Race of Informal Mentors

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Race	**White, non-Hispanic**	122	71.35	71.35
	Black or African American	36	21.05	92.40
	Hispanic or Latino	4	2.34	94.74
	American Indian	1	0.58	95.32
	Asian or Pacific Islander	2	1.17	96.49
	Two or more races	4	2.34	98.83
	Other	2	1.17	100
Total		171	100	

In general, mentors tend to be older and more experienced than their protégés. By definition, mentors are generally higher up in the organizational structure and have knowledge and skills acquired through many years of experience. They pass on their knowledge and skills to younger and less experienced colleagues. The average age for mentors is 49.58% and the average organizational tenure is 14.70 years. It is important to note that the age of the respondent is at the time of the survey and not when they last acted as a mentor. Table 4.9 shows the highest level of education for mentors. 27.49% of mentors have earned a masters, doctorate, or professional degree (MD, JD.).

Table 4.9 Highest Level of Education of Informal Mentors

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Highest Level of Education	**Less than High School**	0	0	0
	High School Diploma or GED	25	14.62	14.62
	Associates Degree	22	12.67	27.49
	Bachelors Degree	65	38.01	65.50
	Masters Degree	43	25.15	90.64
	Ph.D., MD, or JD	4	2.34	92.98
	Other	12	7.02	100
Total		171	100	

As shown in table 4.10, the majority of mentors are Generation X-ers (61.9%). As expected, Millenials account for only 16 (10.3%) of the mentors who participated in this study. Of the 151 mentors who provided their age, 27.7% were in the Baby Boomer generation. These results suggest that organizations may be best served to target those in the 35-55 age range to promote mentoring others.

Table 4.10 Generational Group of Informal Mentors

	N	Percent
Millenials (1980-present)	16	10.3%
Gen X-ers (1960-1980)	96	61.9%
Baby Boomers (pre-1960)	43	27.7%

Finally, 65.12% of mentors reported that they are currently in a supervisory position at work. Some indicated that they viewed mentoring as an essential part of their position as a supervisor.

4.6.1.1. Subgroup Analysis of Mentor Demographic Characteristics

When looking at differences between whites and nonwhites as shown in table 4.11, we see that white women represent only 29% of white mentors, meaning white men are more likely to report they acted as a mentor; however, nonwhite respondents are almost equally split between males and females. This suggests that nonwhite women may not perceive the

same barriers to mentoring that white women do, or that they experience the barriers differently.

Table 4.11 Race and Gender of Informal Mentors

		Male	Female
White	N	85	34
	%	77.2%	58.6%
Nonwhite	N	25	24
	%	22.7%	41.2%
Total	N	110	58
	%	100%	29.2%

Race, Gender, and Supervisory Status of Mentors

Mentors (*M* = .65, *SD* = .04) are also more likely to hold supervisory positions than protégés (*M* = .28, *SD* = .05), often due to their age and work experience. Table 4.12 shows the relationship between race, gender, and whether the mentor held a supervisory position.

Table 4.12 Race, Gender, and Supervisory Status of Informal Mentors

		White		Nonwhite		Total
		Supervisory Position	**Non-Supervisory Position**	**Supervisory Position**	**Non-Supervisory Position**	
Male	**N**	60	25	22	3	110
	%	54.5%	22.7%	20.0%	2.7%	100%
Female	**N**	14	20	13	11	58
	%	24.1%	34.5%	22.4%	19.0%	100%
Total	**N**	74	45	35	14	168
	%	44.0%	26.8%	20.8%	8.3%	100%

*Note: Row Percentage

Of mentors, 65.1% (N= 109) indicated that they were currently in a supervisory position. Of those in a supervisory position, 75.2% (N= 82) were male and 25.5% (N= 27) were female. Additionally, 67.9% (N= 74) of those in supervisory positions were white and 32.1% (N= 35) were nonwhite. Women in supervisory positions (N= 27) were split almost evenly between white (52%) and nonwhite (48%) women; however, white men (73%) make

up the majority of men in supervisory positions (N= 82). Interestingly, of the nonwhite male mentors that responded to the survey, 22 of 25 (88%) indicated that they were in a supervisory position. This suggests that perhaps nonwhite males in supervisory positions are more likely to mentor others than other demographic groups, though the over sampling of nonwhites in two participant cities may also explain the large percentage of nonwhite male mentors.

Race, Gender, and Education of Mentors

29% of mentors report they currently hold a masters degree. Female mentors were more likely to hold as Masters degree or higher (M = .38, SD = .48) than their male counterparts (M = .26, SD = .44), and nonwhite mentors were more likely to hold a Masters degree or higher (M = .33, SD = .47) than their white counterparts (M = .27, SD = .45).

Gender, Marital Status, Children, and Supervisory Status

Previous research shows that women may face a penalty for marriage and children as some may assume that women with family obligations will not be as committed to work as they would be otherwise (Kahn, García-Manglano, & Bianchi, 2014; McIntosh et al., 2012; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). In total, 116 mentors reported that they are currently in supervisory positions. Males hold the majority of supervisory positions (52.5%) and 71% of those were married. For women in supervisory positions, 46.4% were married and 53.6% were not married, suggesting that women who are married are less likely to occupy a supervisory role than their married male counterparts. Of supervisors, 29.3% were men with children at home, while only 9.5% were females with children. Women without children make up 20.7% of supervisors and 69% of female supervisors, a rate higher than their peers

with children. There appears to be no difference in supervisory status for men, but women with children do seem to be disadvantaged. The effects of marriage and children on mentoring relationships will be examined more fully later in chapters 4 and 5.

4.5.2 Descriptive Statistics for Mentor Work Attitudes

All respondents were asked to think about their current job and organizations overall. Questions included items measuring public service motivation, affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. The descriptive statistics for mentors are presented in table 4.13. The table represents the mean of items designed to measure each work attitude.

Table 4.13 Informal Mentor Work Attitudes

	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Public Service Motivation (5 items)	174	6.09	.80	2.4	7
Affective Organizational Commitment (6 items)	174	5.65	.97	2	7
Job Involvement (6 items)	171	5.10	.51	3.83	6.33
Job Satisfaction (1 item)	172	5.94	1.18	1	7

Public Service Motivation

As previously discussed, public Service Motivation (PSM) suggests that public sector employees may be motivated differently than their private sector counterparts (Perry & Wise, 1990). Mentors were asked about their general feelings about the public sector using the MSPB5. As expected, public service motivation is higher for mentors (M= 6.09, $S.D.$= .79) than for the sample as a whole (M =5.94, $S.D.$= .81).

Affective Organizational Commitment

Affective organizational commitment measures how positively an employee feels about his or her organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). High levels of organizational commitment are associated with reduced turnover, increased job performance, and increased extra role work behavior (Payne & Huffman, 2005b). Mentoring is often described as a form of organizational citizenship behavior where an employee takes on additional roles or responsibilities outside of their required work assignments (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). As expected, on average mentors report higher affective organizational commitment (M = 5.65, $S.D.$ = .97) than the full sample (M= 5.44, $S.D.$ = 1.17).

Job Involvement

Table 4.36 presents the means for each item of the job involvement scale, as well as the mean of all items. As expected the mean of job involvement items is higher for mentors (M= 5.10, $S.D.$= .51) than for the entire sample (M= 4.99, $S.D.$= .58). As will be discussed later, the job involvement items loaded on three factors and failed to converge on a single construct.

Job Satisfaction

Overall mentors indicated that they were satisfied with their job. Only 9.88% indicated that they were not satisfied with their job. 76.16% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they are satisfied with their job. Mentors had higher job satisfaction (M = 5.94, $S.D.$ = 1.18) than the sample as a whole (M= 5.68, $S.D.$= 1.36). Table 4.14 displays mentors reported job satisfaction.

Table 4.37 Job Satisfaction for Informal Mentors

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
All in all, I am satisfied with my job	**Strongly Disagree**	2	1.16	1.16
	Disagree	2	1.16	2.33
	Somewhat Disagree	4	2.33	4.65
	Neither	9	5.23	9.88
	Somewhat Agree	24	13.95	23.84
	Agree	70	40.70	64.53
	Strongly Agree	61	35.47	100
Total		172	100	

4.7 Descriptive Statistics for Informal Protégés

A total of 108 individuals indicated that someone within their organization currently, or previously, mentored them. Table 4.15 provides the descriptive statistics for the demographic characteristics of protégés. Of those indicating that they were a protégé in their most recent mentoring relationship in their current organization, 50.5% were female, 26.3% were nonwhite, 23.3% held a masters degree of higher, 71.1% indicted that they were married or in a domestic partnership, 46.9% have a child under the age of 18 living at home, and 28% are currently in a supervisory position. The average age of protégés is 39.62 years and the average organizational tenure is 7.02 years.

Table 4.15 Informal Protégé Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	N	N Obs.	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	50	99	.51	-	-	-
Male	49	99	.49	-	-	-
Nonwhite	26	99	.26	-	-	-
Age	90	90	39.62	12.61	17	81
Masters Degree	21	90	.23	-	-	-
Married	71	99	.72	-	-	-
Children Under 18	46	98	.47	-	-	-
Organizational Tenure (years)	85	85	7.02	7.41	0	36
Supervisory Role	28	100	.28	-	-	-

4.6.1 Descriptive Statistics for Protégé Demographic Characteristics

Protégés were split almost evenly between male (49.5%) and female (50.5%). Unlike mentors, gender doesn't seem to play a role in who becomes a protégé as the sample of protégés more closely mirrors the demographics of the city workforce.

The protégés are mostly white (73.7%), with African Americans as the second largest group represented (20.2%). All other respondents self-identified as another race accounted for just 6.06% of the sample; as a result, racial identification was collapsed down into white (73.7%) and nonwhite (26.3%) for the purposes of analysis in this study. The racial identification of protégés is similar to what was observed with the mentor group.

As previously discussed, in general, protégés tend to be younger and less experienced than their mentors. The average age for protégés is 39.6 years and the average organizational tenure is about 7 years. Finally, 28% of protégés reported that they are currently in a supervisory position at work.

Subgroup Analysis for Protégés Demographic Characteristics

When looking at the differences between whites and nonwhites as shown in table 4.16 we see that white women account for 52% of white protégés and nonwhite women account for 46% of nonwhite protégés. Previously, when examining the gender composition of mentors, white males were over represented in the sample in comparison to their makeup of the city workforce. We do not see the same disparity between genders for protégés. Women make up about half of the sample and more accurately reflect the makeup of their organizations.

Table 4.16 Race and Gender of Informal Protégés

		White	Nonwhite
Male	N	35	14
	%	47.9%	53.8%
Female	N	38	12
	%	52.1%	46.2%
Total	N	73	26
	%	100%	100%

Race, Gender, and Generational Group of Protégés

In practice, protégés tend to be younger and less experienced than mentors. Table 4.17 shows the relationship between gender and generational group for protégés. As expected, protégés tend to be younger, with only 11.2% indicating that they were born before 1960. About half of protégés indicated that they are "millenials" and born after 1980. Mentoring relationships can help millenials connect to the organization and also offer career advancement opportunities.

Table 4.17 Gender and Generational Group of Informal Protégés

		Millenials (1980-present)	Gen-Xers (1960-1980)	Baby Boomers (pre-1960)	Total
Male	**N**	21	19	3	43
	%	48.8%	44.2%	7.0%	100%
Female	**N**	23	16	8	47
	%	48.9%	34.0%	17.0%	100%
Total	**N**	44	35	11	90
	%	48.9%	38.9%	12.2%	100%

Gender and Supervisory Status

Protégés are less likely to hold supervisory positions; however, supervisory positions are found at all levels of an organization. Respondents were not asked to determine their position in the hierarchy of the organization. Of protégés, 28.3% (N=28) indicated that they were currently in a supervisory position, while 71.8% (N=71) indicated that they were not in

a supervisory position. Of those in a supervisory position, 60.7% (N=17) were male and 39.3% (N= 11) were female.

Race, Gender, and Education of Protégés

Of protégés, 23.3% indicated that they held a masters degree or higher. White men (N=6) and women (N=6) had an equal percentage of masters degrees (18%); however, nonwhite women (70%) were more likely than nonwhite men (15.4%) to report they held a masters degree or higher.

Gender, Marital Status, Children, and Supervisory Status

Previous mentoring research has suggested that women may face a "motherhood penalty" for being married and having children that may prevent them from moving up in their organizations (McIntosh et al., 2012). While men are seen as more competent and responsible if they are married with children, women are seen as less competent and reliable, meaning they may be less desirable as protégés (Correll et al., 2007; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). 71.72% of protégés report they live with a spouse or domestic partner and 63.16% report that they have children under the age or 18 living at home.

34.7% of male protégés (N=17) indicated that they are currently in a supervisory position. As expected, married men with children seem to be advantaged over married women with children in achieving supervisory statues. The effects of marriage and family will be examined more closely later in chapter 5.

4.6.2 Descriptive Statistics for Informal Protégé Work Attitudes

Like mentors, protégés were asked to think about their current job and their organization overall. Questions included items measuring public service motivation, affective

organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. On all work attitudes, mentor means were higher than those of protégés.

Table 4.18 Informal Protégé Work Attitudes

	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Public Service Motivation (5 items)	106	5.90	.85	2.4	7
Affective Organizational Commitment (6 items)	106	5.48	1.27	2	7
Job Involvement (6 items)	103	4.95	.60	3.33	6.17
Job Satisfaction (1 item)	172	5.94	1.18	1	7

Public Service Motivation

The descriptive statistics for protégé public service motivation is presented in table 4.18. The mean of the five PSM items is higher for mentors (*M*= 6.09, *S.D.*=.80) than protégés (*M*= 5.90, *S.D.*=.85) and that difference is statistically significant, t(278)= 1.89, *p* = 0.05. Because mentoring is seen as a form of organizational citizenship behavior, we would expect for mentors to have higher levels of PSM as compared to protégés.

Affective Organizational Commitment

The mean of the 5 AOC items is higher for mentors (*M*= 5.65, *S.D.*=.97) than for protégés (*M*= 5.48, *S.D.*=1.27) but this difference is not statistically significant, t(278)= 1.27, *p* = 0.20.

Job Involvement

The mean of the protégé job involvement items (*M*= 4.95, *S.D.*=.60) is less than the mean for mentors *M*= 5.10, *S.D.*=.51) and that difference is statistically significant, t(278)=

2.12, $p = 0.03$. As will be discussed later, the job involvement items loaded on three factors, suggesting this is not a single construct.

Job Satisfaction

Table 4.19 presents the frequency data for job satisfaction of protégés. The mean for protégé job satisfaction (*M*= 5.69, *S.D.*= 1.51) is lower than the mean for mentors ((*M*= 5.94, *S.D.*=1.18). The relationship between satisfaction and mentoring behavior may differ by mentoring role, as those who are more satisfied may be more inclined to mentor others, while protégés may seek a mentor to increase job satisfaction.

Table 4.19 Job Satisfaction of Protégés

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
All in all, I am satisfied with my job	**Strongly Disagree**	1	0.94	0.94
	Disagree	9	8.49	9.43
	Somewhat Disagree	2	1.89	11.32
	Neither	2	1.89	13.21
	Somewhat Agree	19	17.92	31.13
	Agree	36	33.96	65.09
	Strongly Agree	37	34.91	100
Total		106	100	

4.7 Descriptive Statistics for Individuals Without Mentoring Relationships

Nearly half of the respondents indicated that they were not currently, nor were they in the past, in a mentoring relationship at their current workplace. These individuals were asked to think about where they are in their career and future goals, and determine if they would like to have a mentor or if they would like to mentor others. Of those that indicated that they were not in a mentoring relationship, 25.9% (N = 62) indicated that they would like to obtain a mentor, 25.9% (N = 62) indicated that they would be interested in mentoring someone else, and 48.2% (N = 108) indicated that they had no desire to enter into a mentoring relationship.

Table 4.20 provides the descriptive statistics for those who have not engaged in a mentoring relationship at work.

Table 4.20 Demographic Characteristics of Individuals Without Mentoring Relationships

Demographic Characteristics	N	N Obs.	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	113	226	.50	-	-	-
Male	113	226	.50			
Nonwhite	84	222	.378	-	-	-
Age	191	191	46.487	10.09	25	69
Masters Degree	56	212	.264	-	-	-
Married	166	225	.738	-	-	-
Children Under 18	88	225	.391	-	-	-
Organizational Tenure (years)	210	210	10.890	8.75	0	34
Supervisory Role	86	227	.379	-	-	-

The group of individuals not in mentoring relationships allow for comparison between those who would like to in mentoring relationships and those that actually engage in mentoring. We would expect that those that want to be protégés are more like actual protégés than they are to those who want to be mentors or those who don't want to be involved in a mentoring relationship at all. The same would be true of those who want to be mentors. They are more like actual mentors than those who are potential protégés. This group of individuals not in mentoring relationships allows for comparisons between those who engage in mentoring and those that would like to in terms of demographic characteristics, motivations to engage in mentoring, and work attitudes.

This non-mentoring group is also important for organizations as they represent a potential untapped resource that has not been activated. Half of those who don't have a mentoring relationship at work want one. As will be discussed later, organizations can take

steps to encourage and support mentoring behaviors without expending resources to support formal mentoring programs.

4.7.1 Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Characteristics of Individuals Without Mentoring Relationships

Of those who reported that they have not been in a mentoring relationship at work, 50% were female, 37.8% were nonwhite, 26.4% held a masters degree or higher, 73.8 % were married, 39.1% had a child under age 18 living at home, and 37.9% were in a supervisory position. The average age of individuals without a mentoring relationship was 46.69 years and their average organizational tenure was 10.89 years.

Those who were not in a mentoring relationship were asked to think about their current position and career experience, and consider if they would be more interested in obtaining a mentor, acting as a mentor to someone else, or not be involved in a mentoring relationship at this time. Table 4.21 shows the descriptive statistics for the three subgroups of non-mentoring individuals.

As with the mentors and protégés, those who want to be a mentor are older than those who want to be a protégé and have greater tenure in the organization. Those who want to mentor others are also more likely to report they are in a supervisory position than those who want to be protégés. Additionally, only 20.4% of those who indicated they would like to be a mentor were female, compared to the 35% of mentors who indicated they were female. Again, women seem less likely to mentor others when compared to their male counterparts.

Table 4.21 Demographic Characteristics of Nonmentoring Individuals by Potential Role

Demographic Characteristics N=226	Potential Mentoring Role	N	% Obs.	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	**Mentor**	23	20.4%	.38	-	-	-
	Protégé	37	32.7%	.62	-	-	-
	None	53	46.9%	.50	-	-	-
	Total	113	100%	.50	-	-	-
Nonwhite	**Mentor**	30	35.7%	.49	-	-	-
	Protégé	26	31.0%	.49	-	-	-
	None	28	33.3%	.27	-	-	-
	Total	84	100%	.38	-	-	-
Age	**Mentor**	-	-	48.9	10.5	25	69
	Protégé	-	-	41.3	8.5	27	58
	None	-	-	47.8	9.4	27	68
	Total	-	-	46.5	10.1	25	69
Masters Degree	**Mentor**	12	21.4%	.22	-	-	-
	Protégé	26	46.4%	.46	-	-	-
	None	18	32.2%	.17	-	-	-
	Total	56	100%	.26	-	-	-
Married	**Mentor**	45	27.1%	.74	-	-	-
	Protégé	42	25.3%	.74	-	-	-
	None	79	47.5%	.74	-	-	-
	Total	166	100%	.73	-	-	-
Children <18	**Mentor**	24	27.3%	.39	-	-	-
	Protégé	28	31.8%	.49	-	-	-
	None	36	40.9%	.34	-	-	-
	Total	88	100%	.39	-	-	-
Organizational Tenure years)	**Mentor**	-	-	12.7	8.0	0	31
	Protégé	-	-	7.8	9.4	0	27
	None	-	-	11.4	8.4	0	34
	Total	-	-	10.9	8.7	0	34
Supervisory Role	**Mentor**	29	33.7%	.48	-	-	-
	Protégé	19	22.1%	.31	-	-	-
	None	38	44.2%	.36	-	-	-
	Total	86	100%	.37	-	-	-

4.7.1.1 Subgroup Analysis of Demographic Characteristics for Non-mentoring Individuals

When looking at differences between whites and nonwhites as shown in table 4.22, we see that the female respondents are split relatively evenly between white (55%) and nonwhite (45%), while the males are more heavily white (70%). When looking at race and gender by potential mentoring role, nonwhites are more likely to report they would like to be

a mentor or protégé (66%) as compared to whites (46%). This group more closely resembles protégés in terms of gender and race.

Table 4.22 Race and Gender of Non-mentoring Individuals

		White	Nonwhite	Total
Male	N	76	33	109
	%	69.7%	30.3%	100%
Female	N	61	50	111
	%	55.0%	45.0%	100%
Total	N	137	83	220
	%	62.3%	37.7%	100%

Gender and Generational Group of Non-mentoring Individuals

Table 4.23 shows the generational group for non-mentoring individuals. Like with mentors and protégés, the majority of respondents were born after 1960. Only 18.1% of respondents indicated that they were in the Baby Boomer generation (born before 1960), and of those 60% indicated that they did not want to be involved in a mentoring relationship. 58.9% of Gen-X respondents indicated they would like to be in a mentoring relationship.

Table 4.23 Gender and Generational Group of Nonmentoring Individuals

		Millenials (1980-present)	Gen-Xers (1960-1980)	Baby Boomers (pre-1960)
Male	**N**	18	56	24
	%	46.2%	48.3%	68.6%
Female	**N**	21	60	11
	%	53.8%	51.7%	31.4%
Total	**N**	39	116	35
	%	100%	100%	100%

Education of Individuals Without Mentoring Relationships

Overall, 27.3% (N=56) of those not in a mentoring relationship report they have a masters degree or higher, which is roughly comparable to those in mentoring relationships.

Like mentors and protégés, women are more likely to report they hold a masters degree or higher (33.3%).

4.7.2 Descriptive Statistics for Nonmentoring Work Attitudes

Like mentors and protégés, those individuals not in a mentoring relationship were asked to think about their current position and organization. They were asked to respond to items related to public service motivation, affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Table 4.24 shows the descriptive statistics for items measuring work attitudes of the non-mentoring group.

Table 4.24 Work Attitudes Item Means for Individuals Without Mentoring Relationships

	Potential Mentoring Role	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Public Service Motivation (5 items)	**Mentor**	62	6.09	.62	4	7
	Protégé	61	5.91	.80	2.2	7
	None	107	5.66	.84	2	7
	Total	231	5.84	.79	2	7
Affective Organizational Commitment (6 items)	**Mentor**	62	5.60	.91	3	7
	Protégé	61	5.13	1.41	1.5	7
	None	107	5.16	1.27	1	7
	Total	230	5.26	1.24	1	7
Job Involvement (6 items)	**Mentor**	60	5.14	.48	4.16	6.16
	Protégé	60	4.83	.65	2	6.16
	None	107	4.87	.63	3	6.33
	Total	227	4.93	.61	2	6.33
Job Satisfaction (1 item)	**Mentor**	62	5.79	.91	3	7
	Protégé	61	5.16	1.72	1	7
	None	107	5.49	1.37	1	7
	Total	230	5.49	1.38	1	7

Public Service Motivation

The five items used to measure PSM were added to create a mean of the five items. Those who indicated that they wanted to be a mentor reported the highest level of public service motivation (*M*= 6.09, *S.D.*= 0.62), followed by those who wanted to be a protégé (*M*=

5.91, *S.D.*= 0.80), and those who didn't want to be involved in a mentoring relationship (*M*= 5.66, *S.D.*= 0.84). The analysis of variance revealed significant differences between groups, $F(2, 227) = 6.43$, $p = .001$. Those who are not in mentoring relationships, but would like to be, report levels of PSM near to or at the levels of mentors and protégés suggesting an untapped resource for organizations.

Affective Organizational Commitment

As previously discussed, affective organizational commitment measures how positively an individual feels about their organization. As expected, those who indicated they would like to mentor others had the highest levels of affective organizational commitment (*M*= 5.60, *S.D.*= 0.91) when looking at the means of the six AOC items. Surprisingly, those that indicated they did not want to be in a mentoring relationship (*M*= 5.16, *S.D.*= 1.27) reported slightly higher levels of AOC than those who indicated they would like to be a protégé (*M*= 5.13, *S.D.*= 1.27). Those who want to be protégés but are not may report lower levels of organizational commitment because they would like to be in a developmental relationship and are not. Those potential protégés may be open to looking outside of the organization, if necessary, to gain greater career development support. Despite the differences in means, the analysis of variance did not find significant differences in means in AOC, $F(2, 227) = 2.67$, $p = .07$.

Job Involvement

Next, respondents were asked questions related to their job involvement. As expected, those who want to be mentors had the highest mean across job involvement items (*M*= 5.14, *S.D.*= .48); however, those who do not want to be involved with a mentoring relationship had

the second highest mean (*M*= 4.87, *S.D.*= .63), followed by those who want to be protégés (*M*= 4.83, *S.D.*= .65). The analysis of variance revealed significant differences between group means $F(2, 224) = 5.11$, $p = .007$.

Job Satisfaction

Finally, respondents were asked about satisfaction with their current job. Respondents rated their level of agreement from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) with the statement "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." Descriptive statistics for groups are presented in table 4.25. Unsurprisingly, those who want to act as a mentor to others have the highest mean for job satisfaction. Those who would like to be protégés have the lowest reported job satisfaction, again suggesting that potential protégés may be dissatisfied with the development opportunities available to them in their current position.

Table 4.25 Job Satisfaction for Individuals Without Mentoring Relationships

Job Satisfaction	Potential Mentoring Role	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	**Mentor**	62	5.79	.91	3	7
	Protégé	61	5.16	1.72	1	7
	None	107	5.49	1.37	1	7
	Total	230	5.49	1.38	1	7

Summary of Work Attitudes for Individuals Not in Mentoring Relationships

Potential mentors and potential protégés have the highest levels of PSM; however, potential protégés have the lowest level of affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Some potential protégés expressed frustration about the lack of mentoring and career development opportunities for those not in upper management or in career management tracks. This may explain why potential protégés have lower

reported work attitudes than those who do not wish to be in a mentoring relationship. Their dissatisfaction with their current career opportunities within their own organization may also be why they are the group most likely to report that they have thought about leaving their current job.

4.8 How do Mentors, Protégés, and Individuals Without a Mentoring Relationship Differ in Demographic Characteristics and Work Attitudes

This section seeks to determine the differences between those who are mentors, those who are protégés, and those who are not involved in mentoring relationships at work in terms of demographic characteristics and work attitudes. As expected, mentors are more male (65%), older, more likely to serve in a supervisory position, and have a longer organizational tenure than protégés or non-mentored individuals. Table 4.26 presents the descriptive statistics for demographic characteristics for each of the three groups.

The average age for mentors is 49.6 years (*S.D.*=9.71) and is higher than the average age for both protégés (*M*= 39.6, *S.D.*= 12.6) and the non-mentoring group (*M*= 46.5, *S.D.*= 10.1). The average organizational tenure for mentors is 14.8 years and higher than the mean for both protégés (*M*= 7.02, *S.D.*= 7.4) and non-mentoring individuals (*M* = 10.9, *S.D* .= 8.7) and this difference is statistically significant, $F(2,460) = 21.51$, $p < .000$. Another interesting finding, the percentage of nonwhite individuals was highest in the non-mentoring group (38%) as compared to the mentor (29%) or protégé (26%) groups, and this difference is statistically significant, $F(2,489) = 2.92$, $p < .05$. Additionally, the majority of nonwhites who were not in a mentoring relationship wanted to be (67%) and they account for nearly half of respondents who said they would like to be a mentor or protégé at work (47%). These

findings suggest that nonwhites may encounter some of the institutional barriers of mentoring suggested by Blake-Beard et al. (2011).

Table 4.26 Differences in Group Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics N=	Mentoring Role	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	**Mentor**	169	.35	-	-	-
	Protégé	99	.51	-	-	-
	Non	226	.50	-	-	-
Nonwhite	**Mentor**	171	.29	-	-	-
	Protégé	99	.26	-	-	-
	Non	222	.38	-	-	-
Age	**Mentor**	155	49.6	9.7	23	71
	Protégé	90	39.6	12.6	17	81
	Non	191	46.5	10.1	25	69
Masters Degree	**Mentor**	159	.29	-	-	-
	Protégé	90	.23	-	-	-
	Non	212	.26	-	-	-
Married	**Mentor**	170	.76	-	-	-
	Protégé	99	.72	-	-	-
	Non	225	.74	-	-	-
Children Under 18	**Mentor**	171	.37	-	-	-
	Protégé	98	.47	-	-	-
	Non	225	.39	-	-	-
Organizational Tenure	**Mentor**	168	14.8	10.32	1	40
	Protégé	85	7.0	7.4	0	36
	Non	210	10.9	8.7	0	34
Supervisory Role	**Mentor**	172	.65	-	-	-
	Protégé	100	.28	-	-	-
	Non	227	.38	-	-	-

In analyzing means for public service motivation, affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction there are also differences between groups. Table 4.27 presents the descriptive statistics for each of the three groups (mentors, protégés, and those not in a mentoring relationship at work).

As the table 4.27 shows, mentors have the highest level of public service motivation (*M*= 6.09, *S.D.*= .80), followed by protégés (*M*= 5.90, *S.D.*= .85), and then the non-mentoring

group (*M*= 5.84, *S.D.*= .79). The difference in average PSM scores between the three group is statistically significant, *F*(2, 508)=4.87, p = .008. One important note, when we look the means of members of the non-mentoring group who want to be a mentor (*M* = 6.09, *S.D.* = .62) or protégé (*M* = 5.91, *S.D.* = .80), we see that on average their public service motivation is the same or higher than those who did report that they were in mentoring relationships at work.

Table 4.27 Comparison of Work Attitudes for Mentors, Protégés, and Non-mentored

Demographic Characteristics	Mentoring Role	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Public Service Motivation	**Mentor**	174	6.09	.80	2.4	7
	Protégé	106	5.90	.85	2.4	7
	Non	231	5.84	.79	2	7
Affective Organizational Commitment	**Mentor**	174	5.65	.97	2	7
	Protégé	106	5.48	1.27	2	7
	Non	230	5.26	1.23	1	7
Job Involvement	**Mentor**	171	5.10	.51	3.83	6.33
	Protégé	103	4.95	.60	3.33	6.16
	Non	227	4.93	.61	2	6.33
Job Satisfaction	**Mentor**	172	5.93	1.18	1	7
	Protégé	106	5.69	1.51	1	7
	Non	230	5.49	1.39	1	7

Mentors also lead both protégés and non-mentored individuals in terms of affective organizational commitment. Mentors' average affective organizational commitment (*M*= 5.65, *S.D.*= .79) was higher than both protégés (*M*= 5.48, *S.D.*= 1.27) and non-mentored individuals (*M*= 5.26, *S.D.*= 1.23). The difference in AOC between the three groups is statistically significant, *F*(2, 507)=5.58, p = .004. In addition, when we look at the non-mentoring group, potential mentors (*M* = 5.60, *S.D.* = .91) have levels of affective organizational commitment on par for mentors, while potential protégés (*M* = 5.13, *S.D.* = 1.41) and those who are not interested in mentoring relationships (*M* = 5.16, *S.D.* = 1.27)

report the lowest levels of organizational commitment. These findings again suggest that mentors, as well as those who would like to act as a mentor, have greater commitment to their organizations and will perform more service to their organizations.

In addition to public service motivation and affective organizational commitment, mentors, on average, rate higher in job involvement (M= 5.10, $S.D.$= .51) than both protégés (M= 4.95, $S.D.$= .60) and non-mentoring individuals (M= 4.93, $S.D.$= .61). Again, this difference is statistically significant between the three groups, $F(2, 498)= 4.36$, $p = .014$.

When we look at job satisfaction, mentors rank the highest (M= 5.93, $S.D.$= 1.18), followed by protégés (M= 5.69, $S.D.$= 1.51), and then the non-mentored group (M= 5.49, $S.D.$= 1.39), and this difference is statistically significant $F(2, 505)= 5.46$, $p = .004$. On all measures of work attitudes, mentors report greater levels than both protégés and non-mentoring individuals. This finding suggests that those that mentor others are fundamentally different in terms of their work attitudes than those that do not engage in mentoring relationships. It also suggests that potential mentors are very similar to those who do act as a mentor. These individuals represent an untapped resource for organizations that would like to promote and support informal mentoring relationships.

4.9 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Work Attitudes

All respondents, including mentors, protégés, and those not in a mentoring relationship, were asked to report on their general attitudes about their work, specifically public service motivation, job involvement, and affective organizational commitment. These items come from validated scales (Lodahl & Kejnar, 1965; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Perry & Wise, 1990); however, responses were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

using structural equation modeling (SEM) to confirm the measurement model and ensure that the latent constructs in the model are accurately measured. General rules for good fitting models suggest a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) ≤ .08, a comparative fit index (CFI) ≥ .90, and a non-normed fit index (NNFI) ≥ .90.

4.9.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Public Service Motivation

Public service motivation was measured using five items from Merit System Protection Board 5 PSM scale. The items include:

- "Meaningful public service is very important to me"
- "I'm not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if that means I will be ridiculed"
- "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievement"
- "I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society"
- "I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another"

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is shown in figure 4.1 (See appendix B). The results from the initial CFA model exceed model fit recommendations (RMSEA= .08, CFI= 0.984, NNFI= 0.961), which indicate the current model fit the data well.

4.9.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Affective Organizational Commitment

Affective Organizational Commitment was measured using six items from Meyer & Allen (1991). These items include:

- "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization"
- "I feel personally attached to my work organization"
- "I feel proud to tell others I work at my organization"
- "Working for my organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me"
- "I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire"
- "I really feel that the problems faced by my organization are also my problems"

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for affective organizational commitment is shown in figure 4.2 (see appendix B). The results from the initial CFA model exceed model fit recommendations (RMSEA= .023, CFI= 0.999, NNFI= 0.998), which indicate the current model fit the data well.

4.9.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Involvement

Job Involvement was measured using six items from Lodahl & Kenjer (1964). These items include:

- "I'll work overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it"
- "I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities at my work" (R)
- "You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he or she does"
- "The most important things that happen to me involve my work"
- "I usually show up for work a little early to get things done"
- "To me, my work is only a small part of who I am" (R)

Despite the extensive use of Lodhal & Kenjer's job involvement scale items, the confirmatory factor analysis of these six items failed to converge, suggesting that these items are not, in fact, measuring a single underlying construct. To investigate if the items hold up as an underlying latent, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation. The results show evidence for a three-factor solution instead of a single construct. The factor loadings are found in table 4.28.

Table 4.28 Factor Analysis for Job Involvement

Survey Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Achievement Motive			
I'll work overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it	.206	**.715**	-.004
I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities at my work (R)	-.159	**.809**	.133
You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he or she does	**.782**	-.027	.031
The most important things that happen to me involve my work	-.678	.030	-.532
I usually show up for work a little early to get things done	.595	.411	-.303
To me, my work is only a small part of who I am (R)	.003	.109	**.912**
Chronbach's alpha	-	-	-
Eigenvalue	**1.724**	**1.228**	**1.16**
Percent of variance explained	**28.74**	**20.47**	**18.59**
Cumulative variance explained	**28.74**	**49.21**	**67.80**

The results of the factor analysis do not support a single construct. Despite the extensive use of Lodhal and Kenjer's scale for over 50 years, the findings in this study echo previous criticism of the multi-construct nature of job involvement (Reeve & Smith, 2001). Job involvement is designed to measure the centrality of work to one's conception of self. Due to the age of the scale, it is quite possible that attitudes towards work have changed over time, making the scale ineffective in capturing underlying job centrality construct.

As a result, the job involvement measure is a mean of the six job involvement items was used in initial analyses. Table 4.29 shows the mean job involvement scores for mentors, protégés, and the non-mentoring group.

Table 4.29 Job Involvement Group Means

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Job Involvement	Mentors	171	5.10	.51	3.83	6.33
	Protégés	103	4.95	.60	3.33	6.16
	Non-mentoring	227	4.93	.61	2	6.33

4.10 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Mentoring Motivations

Mentors and protégés in the public sector may be motivated differently than their private sector counterparts, specifically they my not be solely self-motivated or participating in a mentoring relationship solely for personal gains. This study proposed multiple motivations for individuals to engage in mentoring relationships at work.

For this dissertation, motivations were analyzed using exploratory factor analysis. Factor analysis is used to uncover the underlying structure of a set of variables can be used to reduce a large number of variables into latent constructs (Garson, 2013). Exploratory factor analysis allows for scale validation to determine if a set of items actually measure the underlying proposed construct.

4.10.1 Descriptive Statistics and Factor Analysis for Motivations to Mentor Others

Mentors may engage in mentoring for a variety of reasons. First, and most commonly cited in the literature, mentors may expect to personally benefit from the mentoring relationship, through positive acknowledgement from their organization, personal satisfaction, or tangible career benefits (a raise or promotion). Public service motivation (PSM) argues that public sector employees may be motivated differently and may act for reasons other than personal benefit. For example, an individual may choose to mentor others due to a desire to help others or to advance the strategic objectives of their organizations. The hypothesized factors are shown in table 4.30.

Table 4.30 Motivations to Mentor Others

Factor 1: Self-focused	Factor 2: Other Focused	Factor 3: Organization Focused
• I wanted others to see me as a leader • I hoped to improve my own management and technical skills • It makes me feel good about myself • I hope it leads to a promotion for myself • It makes me feel knowledgeable and important • I previously mentored others and enjoyed it • I hoped to learn new things from my protégé	• I wanted to help others move up • I previously had a mentor who helped me advance in my career and I wanted to do the same for someone else • I enjoy watching other succeed • I wanted to help someone who was struggling in my organization	• I think it helps my organization train and retain qualified managers • I wanted to promote management diversity initiatives within my organization • I want to promote the strategic goals of my organization.

As discussed in chapter 3, mentors were asked to rate how important a range of factors were in their decision to mentor others on a seven-point scale from not at all important (1) to extremely important (7).

Self- focused Motivations

The literature largely ignores what motivates a mentor to mentor others. When mentor motivations are considered, literature assumes almost exclusively that those motives are solely focused on gaining some reward for oneself. The rewards may come in through formal recognition, tangible benefits (e.g a raise or promotion), or positive feelings about oneself. Table 4.31 shows means for self-focused items.

Table 4.31 Self-Focused Motivations to Mentor Others

Self- Focused Motivations	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Self1: I wanted others to see me as a leader	172	4.34	1.88	1	7
Self2: I hoped to improve my own management and technical skills	171	5.39	1.51	1	7
Self3: It makes me feel good about myself	171	5.11	1.48	1	7
Self4: I hoped it would lead to a promotion for myself	171	3.19	1.84	1	7
Self5: It makes me feel knowledgeable and important	171	3.95	1.71	1	7
Self6: I previously mentored others and enjoyed it	171	5.33	1.36	1	7
Self7: I hoped to learn new things from my protégé	171	5.08	1.44	1	7

Other-focused Motivations

This study seeks to determine if mentors may be motivated by more than individual self-interest in their own advancement. Informal mentoring relationships often develop over time and out of mutual affinity between mentor and protégé. The mentor may see the protégé as a younger version of them and want to see their protégé achieve career success. Mentors may have had an influential mentor in their own life that helped them advance and want to provide that support and mentoring for someone else. Table 4.32 presents the means for items measuring other-focused motivations.

Table 4.32 Other-Focused Motivations to Mentor Others

Other- Focused Motivations	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Other1: I wanted to help others move up in my organization	171	5.56	1.40	1	7
Other2: I previously had a mentor who helped me advance in my career and I wanted to do the same for someone else	172	5.18	1.65	1	7
Other3: I enjoy watching others succeed	173	6.30	.86	1	7
Other4: I wanted to help someone who was struggling in my organization	172	5	1.68	1	7

Organization-focused Motivations

Finally, mentors may engage in mentoring relationships at work in order to promote the strategic interests of their organizations. Mentoring has long been a means of socializing newcomers in an organization, passing on organizational knowledge to prepare individuals for new roles, or as a leadership development tool. Mentors may see the organizational benefits of mentoring as a important part of their decision to mentor others. Table 4.33 shows the means for organizational focused items.

Table 4.33 Organization-Focused Motivations to Mentor Others

Organization- Focused Motivations	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Org1: I wanted to promote diversity in management in my organization	172	4.43	1.75	1	7
Org2: I think it helps my organization train and retain qualified managers	171	5.85	1.32	1	7
Org3: I wanted to promote the strategic goals of my organization	171	5.12	1.53	1	7

Responses were examined using exploratory factor analysis (EFA), specifically principle components factor analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation, to determine if the items load on three separate constructs; self-focused, other-focus, organization-focused. In PCA,

factors are expected to load above 0.7 to confirm that a variable represents the given factor (Garson, 2013). Other researchers have suggested for exploratory purposes, factor loadings of .6 are considered "high" and .4 are "low" (Hair et al., 1998). The factor loadings for motivations to mentor are shown in table 4.34. As shown, not all items loaded as expected, though there was still support for a three-factor solution.

Table 4.34 Factor Analysis for Mentoring Motivations

Survey Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Self-Motive			
I wanted others to see me as a leader	.254	**.719**	.179
I hoped to improve my own management and technical skills	.583	.421	.145
It makes me feel good about myself	.376	.561	.268
I hoped for a promotion for myself	.029	**.815**	.036
It makes me feel knowledgeable and important	.016	**.814**	.184
I previously mentored others and enjoyed it	-.042	.173	**.802**
I hoped to learn new things from my mentee	.280	.230	**.647**
Other-Motive			
I had a previous mentor who helped me advance in my career and wanted to do the same	.262	.077	**.662**
I enjoy helping others succeed	.577	-.119	.495
I wanted to help someone who was struggling and needed help	.187	.132	.457
I wanted to help others move up	**.704**	.127	.198
Organization-motive			
I wanted to promote diversity in management	**.603**	.249	.141
I think it helps my organization train and retain qualified managers	**.831**	-.033	.098
I wanted to promote the strategic goals of my organization	.425	.271	.270
Chronbach's alpha	**.67**	**.77**	**.62**
Eigenvalue	**4.821**	**1.701**	**1.136**
Percent of variance explained	**34.44**	**12.15**	**8.11**
Cumulative variance explained	**34.44**	**46.59**	**54.70**

The first factor represents items from both organization and other-focused motivations. These items represent the desire to help others move ahead and support the strategic goals of the organization. The items in this scale included (alpha = .67):

- "I wanted to help others move up"
- "I wanted to promote diversity in management"
- "I think it helps my organization train and retain qualified managers"

The second factor, self- focused motivations, did not all load as expected. The items "I hoped to improve my own management and technical skills" and "It makes me feel good about myself" cross-loaded on two factors and were dropped from the analysis. Additionally, the items "I previously mentored others and enjoyed it" and "I hoped to learn new things from my mentee" loaded on another factor and were moved. The remaining three items were retained to represent self-focused motivations (alpha =.77):

- "I wanted others to see me as a leader"
- "I hoped for a promotion for myself"
- "It makes me feel knowledgeable and important"

The third factor represents items related to previous positive mentoring relationships. The items in this scale included (alpha = .62):

- "I previously mentored others and enjoyed it"
- "I had a previous mentor who helped me advance in my career and wanted to do the same for someone else"
- "I hoped to learn new things from my mentee"

These items all relate to expectations of positive future mentoring relationships. Table 4.35 represents the revised factors for motivations to mentor others.

Table 4.35 Revised Factors Motivating Mentors

Factor 1: Other and Org-focused	Factor 2: Self-focused	Factor 3: Positive Mentoring Expectations
• I wanted to help others move up • I wanted to promote diversity in management • I think it helps my organization train and retain qualified managers	• I wanted others to see me as a leader • I hoped for a promotion for myself • It makes me feel knowledgeable and important	• I previously mentored others and enjoyed it • I hoped to learn new things from my mentee • I had a previous mentor who helped me advance in my career and I wanted to do the same for someone else

4.11 How Do Motivations to Mentor Differ Between Potential and Actual Mentors?

Those who are not in a mentoring relationship at work were asked if they would want to be in a mentoring relationship, and if so if they would chose to have a mentor or to mentor someone else. Those who indicated they would like to mentor someone else were asked about what motivated them to want to mentor someone else. Table 4.36 compares mentors with those who would like to be a mentor in their motivations to mentor others. As shown, the means for potential mentors were higher than the means for mentors. Interestingly, potential mentors have a much higher mean on self-focused motivations (M= 5.12) than mentors do (M= 3.83). This suggests that those who actually mentor are different in motivation than those who indicate they would like to mentor others. There are two possible explanations. First, those who mentor others may just be more selfless than the potential mentors and that selflessness is what compels their mentoring behaviors. Second, perhaps mentors are more likely to have mentored previously and do not believe that their mentoring relationship will lead to any tangible benefits or recognition.

Table 4.36 Comparison of Motivations to Mentor Others

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Self-Focused Motivations	Mentors	172	3.83	1.49	1	7
	Potential Mentors	61	5.12	1.32	1.33	7
Other-Focused Motivations	Mentors	172	5.19	1.21	1	7
	Potential Mentors	61	5.27	1.07	1.67	7
Organization-Focused Motivations	Mentors	172	5.28	1.16	1	7
	Potential Mentors	61	5.82	.92	3.33	7

4.11 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Motivations to Seek a Mentor

Individuals may seek out a mentor at work for different reasons at different points in their career. The literature mostly focuses on advancement motivations to seek a mentor, though protégés may also seek out a mentor when they are new to an organization or position (newcomer socialization) or when they need help (Allen et al., 2004). This study seeks to determine if protégés' motivation plays a role in the outcomes of the mentoring behavior. Table 4.37 shows the hypothesized factors motivating protégé to seek out a mentor.

Table 4.37 Motivations to Seek a Mentor

Factor 1: Advancement Motive	Factor 2: Help-seeking Motive	Factor 3: Newcomer Socialization Motive
• I wanted others to see me as a leader in my organization • I wanted to receive a promotion and move ahead in my organization • I thought it would help me achieve my long term career goals • I hoped to receive a salary increase • I thought a mentor would introduce me to influential people in their network	• I wanted to be more confident at work • I hoped it would improve my own management skills • I hoped to learn new technical skills related to me current position	• I hoped to learn more about my organization • I wanted to promote the strategic goals of my organization

As discussed in chapter 3, protégés were asked to rate how important a range of factors were in their decision to seek a mentor at work on a seven-point scale from not at all important (1) to extremely important (7).

Advancement Motives to Seek a Mentor

As previously discussed, the literature most commonly assumes that protégés seek out a mentor for advancement purposes (Allen et al., 2004). Table 4.38 presents the means for

protégé advancement motive items. Protégés rated the desire for others to see them as a leader the highest on average.

Table 4.38 Advancement Motives to Seek a Mentor

Advancement Motivations	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Advancement1: I wanted others to see me as a leader in my organization	108	6.07	1.21	1	7
Advancement2: I wanted to receive a promotion and move ahead in my organization	108	5.45	1.53	1	7
Advancement3: I thought it would help me achieve my long term career goals	108	5.98	1.19	1	7
Advancement4: I hoped to receive a salary increase	108	4.87	1.85	1	7
Advancement5: I thought a mentor would introduce me to influential people within their network	107	4.64	1.61	1	7

Help-Seeking Motives to Seek a Mentor

This study seeks to determine if protégés may seek out a mentor for reasons other than their own advancement. An individual may seek out a mentor if they are struggling and need help or for the specific purposes of gaining new knowledge, skills, and abilities for their current position. Table 4.39 presents the descriptive data for help-seeking motivations.

Table 4.39 Help-Seeking Motives to Seek a Mentor

Help-Seeking Motivations	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Help1: I wanted to be more confident at work	106	6.14	.90	3	7
Help2: I hoped it would improve my own management skills	106	6.10	.99	1	7
Help 3: I hoped to learn new technical skills related to my current position	106	6.08	1.04	2	7

Organization Socialization Motives

Finally, protégés may seek a mentor in order to learn more about their organizations. Mentoring has long been a means of socializing newcomers into the organization by passing on organizational knowledge. Table 4.40 shows the descriptive statistics for items related to organization socialization motives.

4.40 Organization Socialization Motive

Organization Socialization Motivations	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
OrgSocial1: I wanted to learn more about my organization	108	6.07	1.21	1	7
OrgSocial2: I wanted to promote the strategic goals of my organization	105	5.34	1.43	1	7

The data indicate that individuals may seek mentors for a variety of reasons, but that protégés most commonly seek out mentors for career advancement purposes. Protégés hope a well-connected mentor will provide advice and guidance in how to advance within their own organization or achieve their overall career goals. Protégés may also seek a mentor when they are new to an organization (newcomer socialization) or as a form of help-seeking behavior.

Protégés were asked about their motivations have a mentor at work. Responses were analyzed using principle components factor analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation. The results presented table 4.41 provides the factor loadings for motivations to seek a mentor.

Table 4.41 Factor Analysis for Motivations to Seek a Mentor

Survey Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Achievement Motive			
I wanted others to see me as a leader in my org	**.650**	.390	-.062
I wanted to receive a promotion and move ahead in my organization	**.877**	.089	-.062
I thought it would help me achieve my long term career goals	**.682**	.345	-.358
I hoped for a salary increase	**.746**	-.033	.293
I thought a mentor would introduce me to influential people in their network	**.766**	-.103	-.014
Help-Seeking Motive			
I hoped to improve my own management skills	.287	**.723**	-.362
I wanted to be more confident at work	-.058	**.668**	.014
I hoped to learn new technical skills related to my current position	-.131	.538	.427
Organization Socialization Motive			
I hoped to learn more about my organization	.042	**.400**	.100
Work Requirement			
It was a work requirement	.124	.118	**.751**
Chronbach's alpha	**.80**	**.71**	**-**
Eigenvalue	**3.546**	**1.924**	**1.24**
Percent of variance explained	**29.55**	**16.04**	**10.34**
Cumulative variance explained	**29.55**	**45.59**	**55.93**
N =149			

The first factor represents items measuring advancement motivations. These items loaded as expected and included (alpha = .80):

- "I wanted others to see me as a leader in my organization"
- "I wanted to receive a promotion and move ahead in my organization"
- "I thought it would help me achieve my long-term career goals"
- "I hoped for a salary increase"
- " I thought a mentor would introduce me to influential people in their network"

The second factor includes items that measure both organizational socialization and help-seeking motivations. While socialization motives are restricted to newcomers early in their tenure with an organization, they still represent a type of help-seeking behavior.

Newcomers tend to seek out information about their organization, especially work norms and job expectations from their peers. The items included in this factor included (alpha = .71):

- "I hoped to learn more about my organization"
- "I hoped to improve my own management skills"
- "I wanted to be more confident at work"

The item "I hoped to learn new technical skills related to my job" cross-loaded on both factor 2 and 3 and was dropped from the analysis.

The final item, "It was a work requirement," was included to capture if individuals felt that engaging in the mentoring relationship was due to management pressure or out of obligation. Reponses for this item were recoded into a dummy variable. Those who reported that it was a work requirement ("very important" to "extremely important" in their decision to obtain a mentor) were one group (N = 15), while the other group reported it was not important to their decision to obtain a mentor. Of those 15, 2 were nonwhite, 8 were female, none held a masters degree or higher, and only one reported that they are currently in a supervisory position. Chapter 5, will investigate if there are differences between these two groups and perceived outcomes.

Table 4.42 presents the revised factors included in the analysis. These two factors represent advancement motivations and help seeking behaviors of protégés.

Table 4.42 Revised Factors Motivating Protégés

Factor 1: Advancement Motivations	Factor 2: Help-seeking Motivations
• I wanted others to see me as a leader in my organization • I wanted to receive a promotion and move ahead in my organization • I thought it would help me achieve my long-term career goals • I hoped for a salary increase • I thought my mentor would introduce me to influential people in their network	• I hoped to improve my own management skills • I wanted to be more confident at work

In addition to protégés, those that were not in a mentoring relationship at work but said that they would like to find a mentor were asked about their motivations to seek a mentor. In comparing protégés to those who would like to be protégés there are a few differences between the two groups in their motivations to seek a mentor. Table 4.43 shows the differences between protégés and potential protégés in their advancement and help-seeking motivations.

Table 4.43: Differences In Advancement and Help-Seeking Motivations

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Advancement Motivations	Protégés	108	5.31	1.10	1.8	7
	Potential Protégés	61	6.00	.88	3.6	7
Help-Seeking Motivations	Protégés	106	6.11	.73	4.33	7
	Potential Protégés	61	6.11	.81	3	7

Those who are or have been protégés (*M*= 5.31, *S.D.*= 1.10) differ in their level of advancement motivation than those who would like to be a protégé (*M*= 6.00, *S.D.*= .88). Those who would like to be a protégé have higher levels of advancement motivations than those who are or were protégés. This difference in motivations could be due to a change in perceptions once an individual has had a mentoring experience. Those who have not been

mentored may believe that a mentor will help them advance, while protégés may be more aware of the limited influence mentors actually have in making advancement or promotion decisions. As one protégé explains, "most mentors appear to have almost zero power to cause the most basic differences for their mentees (raises and promotions)." For employees concerned with raises and advancement, a mentor may not provide the type of development opportunities that protégés seek.

4.12 Review of Mentoring Logic Model

As discussed in previous chapters, the literature examines mentoring relationships by breaking it into parts, namely the antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes associated with mentoring relationships. Antecedents include demographic factors and specific structural features of the mentoring relationship, and in the context of this research, the motivations of the mentor or protégé to enter into a mentoring relationship. Behavioral factors include specific career and psychosocial supports that mentors provide their protégés. Outcomes will include those for individuals as well as the benefits for organizations. Figure 4.3 illustrates the basic model demonstrating this relationship between antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes.

First, this study examines who enters into a mentoring relationship as a mentor or a protégé. Next, in chapter 5, it examines what specific career and psychosocial supports mentors and protégés believe are important for a positive mentoring relationship. Finally, it examines the outcomes associated with positive mentoring relationships for individuals and organizations.

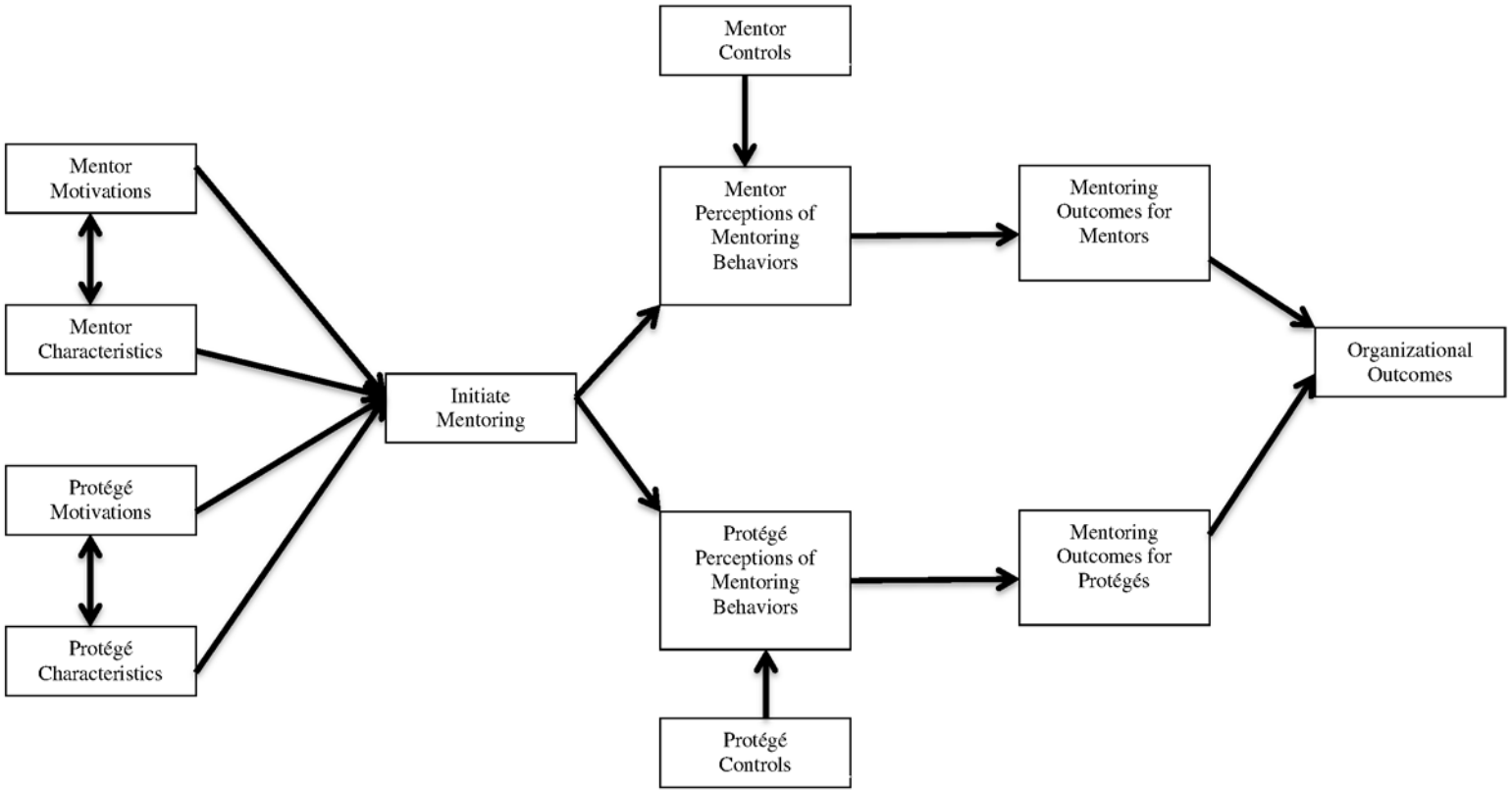

Figure 4.3: Full Logic Model of Mentoring

4.13 What Factors Predict Who Becomes a Mentor?

Unlike traditional mentoring studies that focus solely on the protégé, this study allows us to examine mentoring from the perspective of both mentors and the protégés. This research question seeks to determine what factors are associated with entering into a mentoring relationship at work. Those who are mentors are compared in multiple ways to those who have not had a mentoring relationship in their current organization. First, those who indicate they acted as a mentor will be compared to those who indicated that they would like to mentor, but have not mentored yet. Second, mentors will be compared to all of the individuals who indicated that they have never had a mentoring relationship at work. Finally, mentors will be compared only to those who do not want to be involved in a mentoring relationship at all.

4.13.1 Comparison of Mentors to Those Who Want to Mentor

Of the 523 respondents, 287 indicated that they had been in a mentoring relationship either as a mentor (N=179) or as a protégé (N=108). The remaining 236 individuals indicated that they have never engaged in a mentoring relationship. Those who indicated that they were not in a mentoring relationship were asked if they wanted to be in a mentoring relationship, and if so, would they like to be a mentor or protégé.

This analysis allows us to discover differences between those who mentor and those who do not (but want to mentor) to see if there are any demographic characteristics, work attitudes, or mentoring motivations that predict actual mentoring behavior. This group is probably the most likely to resemble the mentor group, and thus serves as the best

comparison group. Figure 4.4 illustrates the hypothesized relationship for factors influencing the decision to mentor, for both mentors and potential mentors.

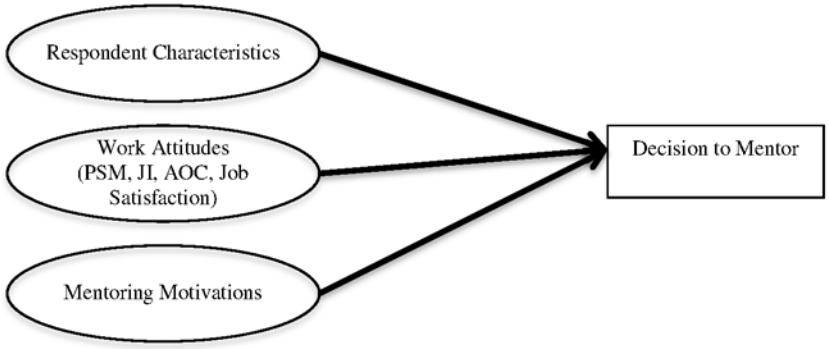

Figure 4.4 Factors Influencing Decision to Mentor
(Note: Work attitudes include public service motivation (PSM), job involvement (JI), affective organizational commitment (AOC), and job satisfaction)

This analysis uses the subset of those not in a mentoring relationship who indicated that they would like to be a mentor. Like those who were mentors, those who indicated they wanted to be a mentor were asked how important certain motivations were in their desire to mentor others. The results of the logistic regression are presented in table 4.44.

Table 4.44 Logistic Regression Predicting Acting as a Mentor (Comparison with potential mentors)

Category of Variables	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	Marginal Effect
Demographic Characteristics	Nonwhite	-,736	.479*	.214	-0.126
	Female	.404	1.497	.695	0.004
	Age (years)	-.048	.953*	.025	-0.070
	Education (Masters)	.106	1.111	.172	0.024
	Married	.063	1.065	.526	-0.011
	Children	-.275	.759	.368	-0.056
	Organizational Tenure (years)	.026	1.027	.026	0.040
	Supervisory Position	1.047	2.848**	1.272	0.125
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation (PSM)	.255	1.291	.367	0.032
	Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	.541	1.719	.653	0.085
	Job Involvement (JI)	-.647	.524	.223	-0.016
	Job Satisfaction	.143	1.155	.289	0.023
Mentoring Motivations	Other & Org.-Focused	-.562	.570**	.163	-0.083
	Self-Focused	-.797	.451***	.395	-0.114
	Positive Mentoring Experience	.434	1.54*	.395	0.065

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base probability = 0.26

Notably all three of the mentoring motivations are statistically significant; however, these effects are not all in the predicted direction. First, those who are higher in other- and organization-focused motivations are less likely to actually engage in mentoring. Holding other values constant, increasing other- or organization-focused motivations decreases the probability of acting as a mentor on average by -0.083 (p=.05). This finding is non-intuitive as we would expect those with motivations to help others or the organization would be more likely to mentor. Many mentors discussed how they enjoyed helping their protégés succeed. One mentor noted that they receive personal satisfaction from mentoring, "[It is] very enjoyable watching others succeed and accomplish their goals."

Similarly, those who are higher in self-focused motivations to mentor are less likely to mentor others. A one standard deviation increase in self-focused motivation,

approximately the difference between difference in means between mentors and potential mentors, decreases the probability of mentoring others by -.114 ($p<.000$). This suggests that mentors are different than those who want to mentor but do not in an important way. First, potential mentors may just not have the opportunity to mentor others in their current position, but believe that doing so would benefit them personally. Second, actual mentors either don't expect that they will receive tangible rewards for their efforts, or past experiences have shown there are no organizational rewards for mentors and therefore they are no longer motivated by personal benefit. As one mentor noted, "I like doing it [mentoring], but I do not really expect to get anything out of it for myself." Another pointed out that organizational and budget constraints mean there are limited opportunities for advancement, "It is hard to be a mentor in this organization because we have no chance of getting a raise and little chance of advancement. We have not had a raise in over 8 years." Those who mentor are motivated by self-interest to a lesser degree than those who have not mentored yet, but would like to.

The only motivation positively associated with mentoring others is a previous positive mentoring experience, either as a mentor or as a protégé. Holding other variables at their observed values, increasing previous positive mentoring motivations by one standard deviation increases the probability of mentoring by 0.065 ($p = .07$). Many mentors noted that they previously had a mentor early in their career and wanted to give back and help others. One noted, "I was assigned a mentor when I was first assigned to my current position and it helped develop my skills tremendously, so in return I strive to do the same to the members with less experience [in my current department]." Another said, "I am fortunate to have had wonderful mentors during my career. It is important to me that I in turn share my knowledge

and experience to help others feel competent in doing their job by giving them support and encouragement to develop or enhance job skills." Additionally, some mentors had positive experiences as a mentor in the past and enjoyed the experience and seeing their former protégés achieving their own success.

4.13.2 Comparison of Mentors to All Individuals Not in Mentoring Relationships

The second analysis differs from the first by comparing those who are mentors to the entire non-mentoring group. This allows us to examine differences between mentors and all individuals who have never had a mentoring relationship in their current organization. Figure 4.4 shows the relationship between respondent attitudes and work attitudes and the decision to act as a mentor at work.

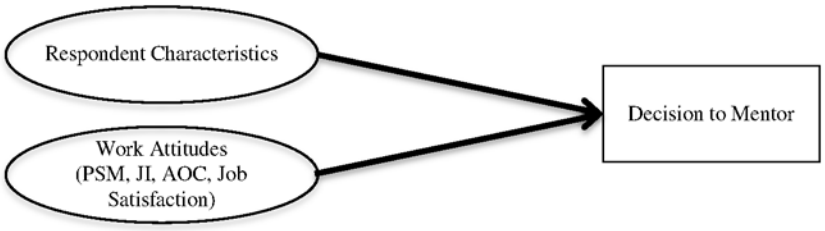

Figure 4.4 Factors Influencing Decision to Mentor- Comparison with all Non-mentored

The results of the logistic regression predicting who acts as a mentor are presented in table 4.45. The results of the analysis show that those that become mentors differ significantly from those who have not engaged in mentoring relationships in both demographic characteristics and work attitudes.

Table 4.45 Logistic Regression for Mentoring Others (Comparison with all Non-mentoring)

Category of Variables	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	Marginal Effects
Respondent Characteristics	Nonwhite	-.367	.693	.207	-0.089
	Female	-.648	.523**	.278	-0.144
	Age (years)	-.005	.995	.015	-0.000
	Education (Masters)	.226	1.25*	.101	0.083
	Married	-.286	.751	.325	-0.064
	Children	-.158	.854	.298	-0.035
	Organizational Tenure (years)	.034	1.035**	.016	0.006
	Supervisory Position	1.054	2.868***	.275	0.219
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation (PSM)	.719	2.053***	.211	0.106
	Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	-.072	.931	.194	-0.007
	Job Involvement (JI)	.064	1.066	.262	0.001
	Job Satisfaction	.269	1.308	.163	0.050

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base probability = 0.259

This analysis included eight respondent characteristic variables. The results show significant findings on four variables including gender, education, organizational tenure, and whether the respondent is in a supervisory position. Unsurprisingly, females are less likely to mentor others (p =.02). On average, being female decreases the probability of acting as a mentor by -0.144 (p =0.01). As previously discussed, women accounted for only 35% of respondents who mentored, and this gap between genders represented was not seen in the protégé group, nor those not in a mentoring relationship. Both protégés and non-mentoring individuals were split almost evenly between males and female. In addition to gender, education had a significant positive effect on mentoring, in that a masters degree increased the probability of being a mentor by 0.083 (p =.10).

In terms of organizational factors, organizational tenure (p =.045) and being a supervisor (p < .000) both had significant positive effects on mentoring others. Supervisors

were more likely to report they acted as a mentor, and supervisor status increased the probability of mentoring others 0.219 (p = 0.000). For organizational tenure, each additional year of tenure with the organization increased the probability of acting as a mentor by 0.006 (p = 0.05).

4.13.3 Comparison of Mentors to Those Who Don't Want Any Mentoring Relationships

The final analysis compares those who are mentors to those who do not wish to be in a mentoring relationship of any kind at work. Those who do not wish to engage in any mentoring are likely the most different from those who indicated that they would like to be a mentor or protégé. Table 4.45 presents the findings from the logistic regression predicting acting as a mentor.

Table 4.45 Logistic Regression for Mentoring Others (Comparison with No Relationship Wanted)

Category of Variables	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	Marginal Effects
Respondent Characteristics	Nonwhite	.391	1.479	.615	.067
	Female	-1.121	.325***	.119	-.203
	Age (years)	-.020	.979	.020	-.004
	Education (Masters)	.915	2.497**	1.11	.155
	Married	-.191	.826	.356	-.033
	Children	-.149	.861	.355	-.026
	Organizational Tenure (years)	.031	1.03	.021	0.006
	Supervisory Position	.967	2.630***	.958	0.181
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation (PSM)	.585	1.795***	.374	0.103
	Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	.349	1.417	.427	.061
	Job Involvement (JI)	.023	1.024	.061	.004
	Job Satisfaction	.049	1.051	.806	.009

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base probability = 0.368

The results show that three respondent characteristics were significant: gender, education, and being in a supervisory position. The largest marginal effect comes from gender. On average, the probability of mentoring someone at work is reduced by 0.203 (p = 0.002) if the individual is a female instead of male. Those who are in a supervisory position are more likely to report they mentor. Acting in a supervisory role increases in marginal effect of mentoring by 0.181 (p = .009). Finally, having a Masters degree increases the probability of mentoring other by 0.155 (p =0.026). The marginal effects of gender, education, and acting in a supervisory role are larger when comparing mentors to those who do not want to be in a mentoring relationship than either of the previous two analyses. In terms of work attitudes, those with higher scores on public service motivation increased the probability of acting as a mentor by 0.103 (p = 0.001), which suggests that public service motivation has a separate and significant effect on mentoring behavior.

4.13.4 Review of Hypotheses and Discussion for Predicting Who Becomes a Mentor

This research question sought to determine what factors predict an individual will act as a mentor at work. Those who are mentors were compared to those who are not currently in a mentoring relationship at work in three different ways. First, those who mentor were compared to those who are not in a mentoring relationship but would like to be mentor. Second, those who mentor were compared to the entire group of individuals who have not been a mentor in their current organization. Finally, mentors were compared to those who have never acted as a mentor and indicated that they did not want to be in a mentoring relationship at all. These three analyses allowed examination of mentor behavior from multiple angles.

The two hypotheses for predicting who acts as a mentor are:

Hypothesis 1: Mentors will have higher levels of public service motivation, job involvement, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction than non-mentors.

Hypothesis 2: Mentors will not be motivated solely by self-focused motivations to mentor others.

The results show there is no significant relationship between any of the work attitudes and mentoring others when comparing mentors to those who want to be mentors. In comparing mentors to the entire group of non-mentoring individuals and to those who do not want to be involved in mentoring at all, only public service motivation was significant. On average, increasing public service motivation by one unit increased the probability of acting as a mentor by .106 (entire non-mentoring group) or .103 (those who do not want to be in a mentoring relationship at all). Table 4.46 shows the marginal effects of work attitudes on mentoring across each comparison group.

Table 4.46 Marginal Effects of Work Attitudes on Mentoring Across Comparison Groups

	PSM	AOC	JI	Job Satisfaction
Mentors vs. Potential Mentors	0.032	.085	-.016	.023
Mentors vs. All Non-Mentoring	.106***	-.007	.001	.050
Mentors vs. Want No Mentoring Relationship	.103***	.061	.004	.009

Mentors and potential mentors have the highest PSM scores of any other group, which is likely why it is not significant in predicting actual mentoring behavior. These findings further indicate that potential mentors are a resource that can be activated with the organization to promote mentoring relationships. If given the opportunity, these potential

mentors could contribute to the strategic initiatives of their organizations and improve career development opportunities for potential protégés.

The mean PSM for those who are not interested in mentoring relationships is the lowest among all respondents. This finding shows that PSM is a significant predictor of mentoring behavior, as those who are highest in PSM are the most likely to mentor or want to mentor others.

The examination of motivations reveals that mentors are motivated by self-interest to a much lesser degree than those who want to be a mentor. The findings suggest both self-focused and other- and organization-focused motivations reduce mentoring behavior. The only motivation positively related to mentoring is having a pervious positive mentoring experience. Those with a previous positive mentoring experience are more likely to report actually acting as a mentor in their current organization.

In addition to work attitudes and mentoring motivations, actual mentors differ from potential mentors in respondent characteristics as well. Mentors are more likely to be white, slightly younger, and more likely in a supervisory position. When comparing mentors to those who do not want to be involved in mentoring at work, mentors are more likely to be male, hold a masters degree or higher, hold a supervisory position, and report higher levels of PSM. These results show that mentors, potential mentors, and those who are not interested in having a mentoring relationship have different demographic characteristics, work attitudes, and motivations to enter into mentoring relationships.

4.13.5 What Factors Predict a Mentor Will Mentor Someone Struggling in the Organization?

Mentors may choose to mentor others for a variety of reasons. This research question looks at those who do mentor others to determine what factors predict a mentor would choose to mentor someone who is struggling in their organization. Previous research by Allen et al. (2006) finds that those who are higher in advancement motivations will be more likely to mentor someone who is struggling, as the success of their protégé will be attributed to the mentor and not to any personal attributes of the protégé. Additionally, mentors often report choosing a protégé who reminded them of themselves when they first started out in their own careers, and thus want to help someone who may be struggling (Allen et al., 2000; Ragins & Scandura, 1994).

Mentors were asked how important it was to them to mentor someone who was struggling in their organization. Responses ranged from not important at all (1) to extremely important (7). Frequency data is found in table 4.47.

Table 4.47 Would Mentor Someone Struggling

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
I wanted to help someone who was struggling and needed help	**Not Important at All**	12	6.98	6.98
	Low Importance	4	2.33	9.30
	Slightly Important	8	2.33	4.65
	Neither	35	20.35	34.30
	Moderately Important	39	22.67	56.98
	Very Important	37	21.51	78.49
	Extremely Important	37	21.51	100
Total		172	100	

For the purposes of this analysis, those who indicated that wanting to help someone who was struggling and needed help was very important or extremely important are combined into one group with all others reporting they thought it was less important. Figure

4.6 illustrates the hypothesized relationship between respondent characteristics, work attitudes, and mentor motivations predicting mentoring someone in the organization.

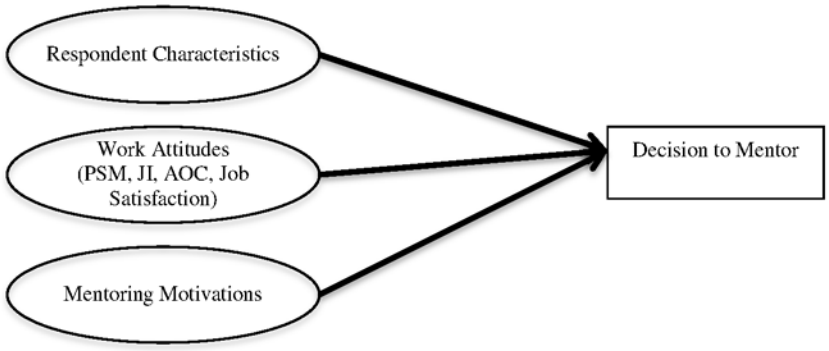

Figure 4.6 Factors Predicting Mentoring a Struggling Individual

The results of the logistic regression predicting mentoring a struggling individual are presented in table 4.48.

Table 4.48 Logistic Regression for Mentoring Others (Comparison with potential mentors)

Category of Variables	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	Marginal Effect
Demographic Characteristics	Nonwhite	-.442	.634	.328	-.090
	Female	.059	1.067	.524	0.012
	Age (years)	.011	1.010	.026	.002
	Education (Masters)	-.028	.973	.470	-.006
	Married	-.232	.792	.420	-.048
	Children	-.656	.519	.250	-136
	Organizational Tenure (years)	.057	1.059**	.026	.012
	Supervisory Position	-.142	.867	.422	-.030
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation (PSM)	.192	1.211	.337	0.040
	Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	-.747	.474**	.176	-.155
	Job Involvement (JI)	.065	1.067	.082	.014
	Job Satisfaction	.362	1.436	.376	.075
Mentoring Motivations	Other & Org.-Focused	-.162	.849	.209	-.034
	Self-Focused	.394	1.483**	.246	.082
	Positive Mentoring Experience	.336	1.399	.291	.070

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base probability = 0.461

The results show several factors significantly predict mentoring importance in mentoring someone who is struggling. First, organizational tenure is positively associated with the importance to mentor a struggling individual. On average, an increase in one year of organizational tenure increases the probability by .012 (p = .011), meaning those who have been in the organization longer are slightly more likely to report that mentoring a struggling individual is very or extremely important.

In terms of work motivations, it was hypothesized that mentors who would mentor a struggling individual would be higher in public service motivation, affective organizational commitment, and job involvement than those that do not.

> *Hypothesis 3: Mentors who choose to mentor a struggling individual will report higher PSM, affective organizational commitment, and job involvement than those who do not.*

The findings do not support this hypothesis. Only affective organizational commitment was significant and not in the hypothesized direction. On average, a one-unit increase in affective organizational commitment reduced the probability of mentoring a struggling individual by -.155 (p = .033). While opposite of the hypothesized direction, those who are more committed to their organization may see those who are struggling and in need of help as individuals who are not a good fit with the organization and may need to exit. If true, they may see turnover as a positive for the overall good of the organization.

Mentor motivations were also hypothesized to predict who would mentor a struggling individual.

> *Hypothesis 4: Mentors higher in self-focused motivations will be more likely to mentor someone struggling in their organization.*

The findings support this hypothesis as self- advancement motivations were positively related to the willingness to mentor someone who is struggling and needs help. On average, a one-unit increase in self-advancement motivations increases the probability of mentoring a struggling individual by .082 (p = .01). This is in line with findings from Allen et al. (2006) that found that mentors believe success with a struggling protégé will be more beneficial for their own career than successfully mentoring a "rising star."

4.14 What Factors Predict Who Becomes a Protégé?

Research question one looked at mentors; this research question seeks to determine what motivates protégés to enter into a mentoring relationship. Previous research suggests that those who obtain a mentor may differ in substantial ways from those who do not. As discussed in Chapter 2, some demographic factors, such as gender and race, may affect the formation of informal mentoring relationships (Blake-Beard et al., 2007; Blake-Beard et al., 2011; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; O'Brien et al., 2010; Thomas, 1990). Likewise, differences in job involvement, affective organizational commitment, public service motivation, job satisfaction, and other general work related attitudes might also play a role in who obtains a mentor and who does not.

In this section, those who are protégés will be compared in multiple ways to those who have not had a mentoring relationship in their current organization. First, those who indicate they were a protégé will be compared to those who indicated that they have would like to be a protégé, but have not had a mentor yet. This group likely most closely resembles the protégé group and provides a pseudo-control group to see what factors lead to actual mentoring. Second, protégés will be compared to the entire group of individuals who

indicated that they never had a mentoring relationship at work. Finally, protégés will be compared those who do not want to be involved in a mentoring relationship at all. This group is likely the most different from protégés as they have expressed that they have not, and do not, want to be involved in any mentoring relationships.

4.14.1 Comparison of Protégés to Those Who Want to Become a Protégé

The first analysis compares those who are or have been protégés in their current organization to those who would like to be protégés but have not had a mentor. Those who want to be protégés are likely the closest comparison group for actual protégés as they both share the desire to have a mentor. Those who are protégés will be compared to those who would like to be protégés in terms of demographic characteristics, work attitudes, and mentoring motivations to determine what differences may prevent an individual from gaining a mentor that wants one. This relationship is illustrated in figure 4.7.

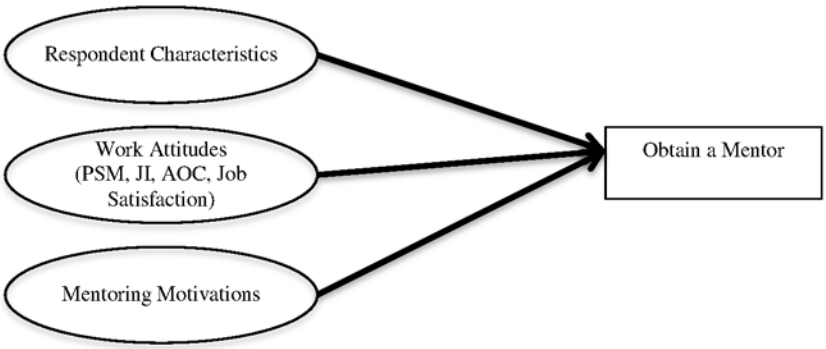

Figure 4.7: Factors Influencing Obtaining a Mentor
(Note: Work attitudes include public service motivation (PSM), job involvement (JI), affective organizational commitment (AOC), and job satisfaction)

Those who are protégés differ from those who wish to be protégés in a number of important ways. The results for the logistic regression that predicts being a protégé are

presented in table 4.49. This study hypothesized mentoring motivations would influence who became a protégé.

> *Hypothesis 5: Those who obtain a mentor will be higher in career development and advancement motives than those who do not obtain a mentor.*

Table 4.49 Logistic Regression Predicting Obtaining a Mentor Comparison to Potential Protégés

Category of Variables	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	Marginal Effect
Demographic Characteristics	Nonwhite	-1.731	.177***	.107	-.263
	Female	.123	1.13	.565	0.032
	Age (years)	-.015	.984	.026	-.007
	Education (Masters)	-.247	.162***	.151	-.314
	Married	-1.817	.254**	.168	-.218
	Children	.246	1.279	.639	.094
	Organizational Tenure (years)	-.045	.956	.037	-.004
	Supervisory Position	.520	1.681	1.061	.164
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation (PSM)	.230	1.259	.375	.028
	Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	-.147	.863	.303	-.015
	Job Involvement (JI)	.131	1.139	.565	-.007
	Job Satisfaction	.306	1.357	.311	0.28
Mentoring Motivations	Advancement Motives	-.941	.390***	.119	-.157
	Help-Seeking Motives	-.042	.959	.325	-.001

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base probability = 0.631

Like with mentors, individuals who were nonwhite were less likely to report that they were currently in a mentoring relationship. Of protégés, 26% reported that they were nonwhite, while 45% of those that would like to be a protégé are nonwhite. In looking at the sample compared to the overall population, nonwhites were oversampled in two cities, suggesting that nonwhites may be disadvantaged in gaining a mentor. On average, holding all other variables constant, being nonwhite reduced the probability of gaining a mentor by -.263 (p = .003). These finding support previous findings by Cox & Nkomo (1991) which found that black MBAs reported significantly less access to mentors than white MBAs. Likewise,

Dreher & Cox (1996) found that nonwhite female MBAs reported the most difficulty in gaining a white mentor (those more likely to hold a leadership position). Other research finds that mentors preferred protégés that they felt were similar to them which suggests that we are more psychologically comfortable, on the most basic level, with those who look similar to ourselves. Thomas (1990) found that African-Americans with African-American mentors reported greater satisfaction with the mentoring relationship and overall career success compared to those with white mentors.

Interestingly, those who are protégés (M = .23) are less likely to hold a masters degree or higher than those who would like to be protégés (M = .46). On average, an advanced degree reduced the probability of having a mentor by -.314 (p = .003) when holding other factors constant. One mentor offers some insight on why this may be the case, suggesting that those who have completed MPA-type programs believe that advanced degrees are "more important than work experience, but the classroom does not prepare you for the real world." Those who have advanced degrees may believe that they already have the necessary technical and management skills needed for advancement and therefore not seek out a mentor.

Finally, advancement motivation were significant in predicting who becomes a protégé, but not as hypothesizes. Those who are protégés (M = 5.31) report lower levels of advancement motivations than those who would like to be protégés (M = 6.00), which suggests that protégés and potential protégés may view the role of the mentor in career advancement differently. On average, a one-unit increase in advancement motivations reduces the probability of obtaining a mentor by -.157 holding other factors constant. As

previously discussed, those who are protégés may have a more realistic expectation regarding the direct influence of their mentor may have in creating raise or promotion opportunities for their protégés.

4.14.2 Comparison of Protégés to All Individuals Not in Mentoring Relationships

This study asked individuals if they currently had, or previously had, a mentor in their current organization. Of those who responded to the survey, 108 indicated that they were protégés, and 232 indicated that they were not in a mentoring relationship at work. Figure 4.8 shows the hypothesized relationship between respondent characteristics, work attitudes, and obtaining a mentor.

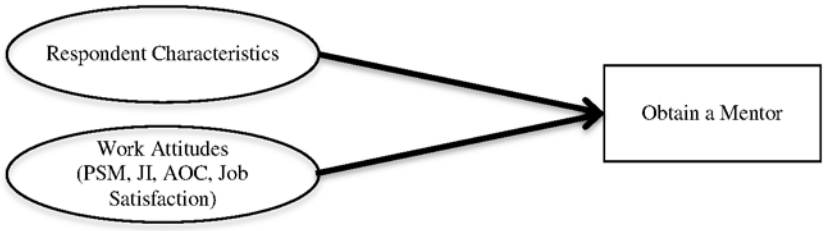

Figure 4.8 Factors Influencing Gaining a Mentor (Comparison with all Nonmentored)
(Note: Work attitudes include public service motivation (PSM), job involvement (JI), affective organizational commitment (AOC), and job satisfaction)

The results of the logistic regression predicting who obtained a mentor and became a protégé are presented in table 4.50.

When comparing protégés to the entire group of non-mentoring individuals, nonwhite respondents are still less likely to be protégés. On average, being nonwhite reduces the probability of gaining a mentor by -.116, while holding other factors constant. As previously discussed, previous studies have found that nonwhites have less access to mentors than whites (Cox & Nkomo, 1991).

Table 4.50 Logistic Regression Predicting Obtaining a Mentor

Category of Variables	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	Marginal Effect
Demographic Characteristics	Nonwhite	-.841	.467*	.175	-.116
	Female	.215	1.286	.170	.044
	Age (years)	-.053	.945***	.017	-.009
	Education (Masters)	.033	1.033	.126	-.080
	Married	-.393	.674	.247	-.090
	Children	.209	1.232	.409	.066
	Organizational Tenure (years)	-.032	.967	.024	-.006
	Supervisory Position	-.189	.827	.296	-0.10
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation (PSM)	-.170	.835	.156	-.031
	Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	.476	1.622*	.411	.085
	Job Involvement (JI)	.152	1.095	.343	.005
	Job Satisfaction	-.106	.847	.376	-.019

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base probability = 0.291

Those who are higher in affective organizational commitment, the psychological attachment and positive regard for the organization, are more likely to report having a mentor. On average, a one-unit increase in AOC increases the probability of having a mentor by .085, holding other factors constant. Logically, those who feel more committed to their organization would seek career development and mentoring internally. Additionally, positive mentoring relationships are likely to increase affective organizational commitment, as those who have sought developmental mentoring relationships at work and found them will likely believe that their current organization is meeting their needs.

4.14.3 Comparison of Protégés to Those Who Do Not Want Any Mentoring Relationships

The final analysis compares those who were protégés to those who do not want to be in a mentoring relationship at work. The results of the logistic regression are presented in table 4.51.

Only one demographic characteristic was significantly related to being a protégé. As expected, age is negatively related to becoming a protégé, though the marginal effect is quite small.

Table 4.51 Logistic Regression Predicting Obtaining a Mentor

Category of Variables	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	Marginal Effect
Demographic Characteristics	Nonwhite	-.249	.779	.378	-.049
	Female	.151	1.163	.465	.030
	Age (years)	-.064	.937***	.019	-.013
	Education (Masters)	.343	1.409	.741	0.067
	Married	-.357	.699	.332	-.071
	Children	.354	1.426	.618	.071
	Organizational Tenure (years)	-.027	.653	.143	-.005
	Supervisory Position	-.228	.797	.028	-.045
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation (PSM)	-.049	.952	.199	-.010
	Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	.712	2.038**	.645	0.140
	Job Involvement (JI)	.030	1.031	.067	.006
	Job Satisfaction	-.426	.653***	.143	-.084

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base probability = 0.464

Two of the work attitude measures were significantly related to being a protégé. As seen in the previous analysis, affective organizational commitment remains significant when comparing protégés to those who do not want to be in a mentoring relationship, though the marginal effect nearly doubles. A one-unit increase in AOC increases the probability of being a protégé by .140 holding all other factors constant. Again, those who seek out a mentor are, on average, more committed to their organization than those who do not wish to be in a mentoring relationship.

Interestingly, job satisfaction is negatively related to seeking out a mentor. A unit increase in job satisfaction reduced the probability of being a protégé by -.084. Those who

are less satisfied in their position may seek out opportunities outside of their current organization instead of looking internally for mentoring or career development opportunities.

4.15 Review of Chapter 4

Chapter 4 investigated differences between those who become mentors and protégés, and those who do not engage in mentoring relationships at work. This chapter has a number of important findings with both theoretical and practical implications for informal mentoring in the public sector.

- **There are individuals in organizations that want to be in a mentoring relationship at work.** Half of respondents who are not currently in a mentoring relationship want to be in one. This group represents untapped potential within organizations. Organizational support and encouragement for the development of informal mentoring relationships may provide opportunities for potential mentors and protégés to connect. As one potential mentor noted, the organization can provide tangible incentives like compensatory time to encourage mentors to take on protégé. A potential protégé suggested that the organization provide training to potential mentors and protégés about the benefits of mentoring and give opportunities for individuals to meet and explore possible mentoring relationships.
- **Mentors are altruistically motivated and express the desire to help others and their organization, not achieve personal advancement.** Mentors, as a group, report they enjoy helping others to succeed. They derive satisfaction from others' success and do not expect to receive formal acknowledgement from their organizations.

- **Mentoring someone who is struggling is important for some mentors.** For some mentors, helping a struggling employee was an important consideration in their decision to mentor others. Those more likely to mentor struggling individuals reported higher self-advancement motivations than those who did not. They may see a struggling protégé as a way of demonstrating their value to the organization, as the success of the protégé is more likely attributed to the work of the mentor than to the natural abilities of the protégé.
- **Potential mentors are similar in many ways to those who actually mentor.** Potential mentors have levels of work attitudes almost as high as those who are currently mentors. These two groups are highest in public service motivation, affective organizational commitment, and job involvement. Potential mentors are also similar to actual mentors demographically. These findings indicate that mentors and those who would like to be mentors may only differ in perceived opportunities to mentor.
- **Potential mentors are higher in self-focused, other-, and organization-focused motives.** Potential mentors reported higher levels of other- and organization-focused motivations than mentors. Again, this suggests that potential mentors represent an untapped resource for organizations to use mentoring as a tool to promote strategic management initiatives in training and development. Potential mentors are also higher in self-focused motivations and consider mentoring as a way to achieve personal career advancement. Mentoring can provide a buffer for the negative effects of middle career plateauing for those who wish to advance in their career but lack the

opportunity. Mentoring provides an opportunity for these individuals to feel important and provide guidance and leadership to those who are less experienced without requiring a change in title or position.

- **Those who want to have a mentor differ from protégés in important ways.** Potential protégés report lower levels of affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction than mentors, protégés, or other non-mentoring individuals. Lower reported job attitudes may be the result of frustration in searching unsuccessfully for mentoring or other development opportunities. Potential protégés also report higher advancement motives than actual protégés. They may feel that having a mentor will improve their advancement potential. This finding is important for organizations because lower levels of affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction, as well as perceived lack of advancement opportunities are associated with increases in turnover intentions. One respondent suggested the city "provide mentors to the lower levels" and that [it] seems that only supervisors or office people are mentored and encouraged to move forward." Another suggested the city offer more opportunities for people not in the "managerial track" to participate in leadership development and serve on committees. They also noted that the lack of clear paths to advancement means, "at this point in my career with the city I do not have a career path… I'm at a dead end, there is nowhere for me to move up." A number of individuals in the non-mentoring group suggested that their organization either start a mentoring program or create a way to match mentors and protégés

together. Organizations can facilitate and encourage the development of mentoring relationships to help provide career development for those who seek a mentor.

4.16 Preview of Chapter 5

Chapter 4 examined who becomes involved in mentoring relationships at work. Chapter 5 will investigate what mentoring supports mentors and protégés believe are most important for a successful mentoring relationship, as well as the perceived outcomes of those relationships.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL MENTORING MODELS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter examined what respondent characteristics, work attitudes, and mentoring motivations predict who becomes involved in mentoring relationships at work. This chapter will examine what mentoring supports mentors and protégés believe are important for successful mentoring relationships and how the perceived efficacy of those mentoring supports relates to positive outcomes for individuals and their organizations. This chapter will proceed as follows:

5.1 Introduction
5.2 What Produces a Successful Mentoring Experience?
5.3 What are the Major Divergences Between Mentor and Protégé Expectations and Experiences?
5.4 How Does Mentoring Efficacy Affect Measures of Mentorship Success?
5.5 How Does Mentoring Efficacy Affect Organizational Outcomes?
5.6 What Matters for Successful Informal Mentoring Relationships?
5.7 Preview of Chapter 6

5.2 What Behaviors Are Important for Successful Mentoring?

In one of the first in-depth investigations of mentoring, Kram (1988) revealed two types of mentoring behaviors: career development and psychosocial support (see table 5.1). Career functions provide specific opportunities for training and development, such as challenging work assignments that allow the mentor to showcase the work of their protégé to those higher up in the organization. Psychosocial supports on the other hand are more subjective and provide protégés with role modeling, counseling, and friendship. Subsequent

studies also found evidence to support two similar dimensions of mentor behavior supports (Noe, 1988; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Scandura, 1992) .

Table 5.1 Mentoring Supports

Career Functions	Psychosocial Supports
Sponsorship	Role modeling
Exposure and visibility	Acceptance and confirmation
Coaching	Counseling
Protection	Friendship
Challenging assignments	

Mentors and protégés may differ in what career and psychosocial supports they believe produce successful mentoring experiences. First, we will examine what mentors and protégé believe is most important for successful mentoring relationships. Next, this chapter will compare the importance of supports with the perceived quality of supports provided.

Two hypotheses relate to the perceptions of the importance of career and psychosocial support.

Hypothesis 6: Protégés will report career supports are more important for mentoring success than mentors.

Hypothesis 7: Mentors will report psychosocial supports are more important for mentoring success than protégés.

Mentors and protégés were both asked to reflect on how important they believed certain mentoring behaviors were to a successful mentoring relationship. These behaviors included both career supports and psychosocial supports that mentors may provide to protégés in a mentoring relationship. Table 5.2 presents the descriptive statistics for both mentors and protégés regarding the importance of career supports for positive mentoring.

Table 5.2 Perceived Importance of Career Supports

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success	**Mentors**	170	5.86**	1.21	0	7
	Protégés	98	6.15**	.486	0	1
Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"	**Mentors**	168	5.31***	1.53	3	7
	Protégés	98	5.78***	.96	2	7
Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills	**Mentors**	168	6.21	.83	3	7
	Protégés	98	6.05	1.16	2	7
Provide opportunities to learn new management skills	**Mentors**	168	5.55***	1.45	1	7
	Protégés	98	5.98***	.93	3	7
Provide feedback regarding performance	**Mentors**	168	6.19	1.04	1	7
	Protégés	98	6.28	.99	1	7
Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization	**Mentors**	165	5.86***	1.17	1	7
	Protégés	98	5.20***	1.41	1	7
Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network	**Mentors**	165	5.28**	1.50	1	7
	Protégés	98	4.86**	1.56	1	7
Share experiences of moving up in the organization	**Mentors**	165	5.27	1.46	1	7
	Protégés	98	5.50	1.28	1	7
Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules	**Mentors**	165	5.45*	1.55	1	7
	Protégés	98	5.78*	1.10	1	7
Mean of Career Support Items	**Mentors**	165	5.73	.059	3.33	7
	Protégés	98	5.67	.060	4.22	6.89

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

Mentors and protégés differed in their rated level of importance for specific career mentoring supports, though mentor and protégé overall averages on all of the career mentoring items are not significantly different, t (261) = 0.61, p = .54.

Protégés rated four of the career supports significantly higher than mentors. First, protégés rated "provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success" as the most important career support (M = 6.15, $S.D.$ = .486) and significantly higher than mentors (M = 5.86, $S.D.$ = 1.21), t (226) = 1.99, p = 0.04. Both mentors and protégés discussed the importance of a mentor in helping to navigate the career ladder. One protégé notes that the

mentoring experience is especially enriching, as the mentor "strives to be a resource for my long-term career aspirations (beyond the department's immediate needs)."

Two items deal with navigating the politics of the organization and managing "red tape." First, protégés rated discussing the politics of organization (M = 5.78, $S.D.$ = .96) higher than mentors (M = 5.31, $S.D.$ = 1.53), t (264) = 2.72, p = .007. Additionally, protégés also rated strategies for managing red tape (M = 5.78, $S.D.$ = 1.10) higher than mentors (M = 5.45, $S.D.$ = 1.55), t (261) = 1.66, p = .09. One mentor noted that skills are important for career success in the public sector, "Everyone should have a mentor in a public organization like this. It would help one navigate the interoffice politics as well as assist the mentee in missing the landmines in communication." Another mentor notes that one of the most important parts of the job is "building successful relationships with multiple stakeholders" and learning to navigate conflict that may arise.

Finally, protégé rated opportunities for learning new management skills (M = 5.98, $S.D.$ = .93) higher than mentors (M = 5.55, $S.D.$ = 1.45), t (264) = 2.61, p = .001. One protégé noted the need for advice to manage the "balancing act between technical expert and strategic leader" and how to transition into more managerial positions when climbing the career ladder. Providing opportunities for protégés to acquire management and technical skills can also benefit mentors. On mentor said, "I enjoy helping others and feel it [mentoring] is as beneficial to me as to them in my own professional development" as it keeps skills fresh and provides opportunities to use them.

Mentors rated two career support items significantly higher than protégés. First, mentors rated opportunities to bring accomplishments of the protégé to those higher up in the

organization (*M* = 5.86, *S.D.* = 1.17) higher than protégés (*M* = 5.20, *S.D.* = 1.41), *t* (261) = 4.06, *p* <.000). In addition, mentors believe that introducing protégés to influential people within their network (*M* = 5.28, *S.D.* = 1.50) is more important than do protégés (*M* = 4.86, *S.D.* = 1.56), *t* (261) = 2.17, *p* = .03. One mentor explained, "Building relationships within the organization and with outside agencies are everything in getting the job done. Often this takes years of working together through deadlines and a track record of competencies and teamwork to build the necessary trust for successful collaborations. These working relationships and the outcomes are what I hope my mentee will understand are the crux of career building." One mentee said shared, "The mentoring process has been the deciding factor to stay within this organization. I was seeking outside employment until assigned a mentor that has put me in touch with the right people where I can be developed better and especially have opportunities for advancement."

Mentors and protégés were also asked to rate the importance of specific psychosocial mentoring supports in a successful mentoring relationship. Overall, mentors believed the psychosocial supports (*M* = 5.28, *S.D.* = .77) taken as an average of the five psychosocial support were more important than protégés (*M* = 5.03, *S.D.* = .82), *t* (260) = 2.42, *p* = .02. These finding confirm hypothesis 7 that stated that mentors would think psychosocial supports were more important than protégés. The means for each psychosocial item are found in table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Perceived Importance of Psychosocial Supports

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Socialize outside of working hours	**Mentors**	168	2.79	1.69	1	7
	Protégés	98	2.87	1.80	1	7
Act as a sounding board for frustrations	**Mentors**	168	5.51*	1.54	1	7
	Protégés	98	5.18*	1.61	1	7
Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame	**Mentors**	164	5.26*	1.60	1	7
	Protégés	98	4.93*	1.57	1	7
Provide support and encouragement	**Mentors**	165	6.42	.77	1	7
	Protégés	98	6.32	.86	2	7
Act as a role model	**Mentors**	165	6.38***	.83	3	7
	Protégés	98	5.88***	1.06	1	7
Mean of psychosocial support items	**Mentors**	164	5.28**	.06	2.8	7
	Protégés	98	5.03**	.83	2.4	7

Mentors identified three psychosocial supports that they felt were more important for protégé success than protégés themselves. First, mentors thought that acting as a role model was the most important psychosocial support (M = 6.38, $S.D.$ = .83) and rated it significantly higher than protégés (M = 5.88, $S.D.$ = 1.06 , t (261) = 4.22, p < .000). Mentors also rated "act as a sounding board for frustrations" and "protect protégé from unnecessary blame or criticism" as more important than protégés.

Mentors (M = 2.79, $S.D.$ = 1.69) and protégés (M = 2.87, $S.D.$ = 1.80) both agree that socializing with each other outside of working hours is of very low importance. This finding is curious as many researchers have found that social networks and social capital are important for career success and advancement (Burt, 2005; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). If fact, social networking sites such as LinkedIn and professional associations, focused on career and professional connections, have changed the way individuals search for employment, especially at the highest levels of organizations (McDonald & Damarin, 2015). If professional networks and career connections are as important as researchers have

suggested, it seems both mentors and protégés would believe that socialization outside of work would be an important part of building that social network. One possible explanation for this disconnect may be that more formalized personnel rules in the public sector hinder advancement and therefore social networking is of lesser importance.

5.2.1 Do Mentors and Protégés Disagree on the Perceived Importance of Career and Psychosocial Mentoring Supports?

Findings suggest that mentors and protégés are more similar in their ratings of importance for both career and psychosocial supports than originally hypothesized. Overall, both mentors and protégés thought career supports were important to mentoring success, meaning support for hypothesis six is mixed. Protégés rated long-term career advice, managing red tape and organizational politics, and opportunities to learn new management skills significantly higher than mentors. Mentors believed social networking and advocating for their protégé were significantly more important than protégés.

Examining psychosocial support, there only three areas where mentors and protégés had statistically different rating of importance; acting as a sounding board for frustrations, protecting protégés from unnecessary criticism, and acting as a role model. Mentors rated these areas as more important than protégés, providing support for hypothesis seven that mentors believe psychosocial support is more important than protégés.

The next section will examine the quality of career and psychosocial supports mentors believe they provided and protégés think they received. Differences in perceptions of what is most important for mentoring success may lead to disagreement in the perceived quality of support provided. These disagreements may also impact reported outcomes.

5.3 What are the Major Divergences Between Mentor and Protégé Expectations and Experiences?

The first part of this research question seeks to determine if mentors and protégés perceive the quality of career and psychosocial supports to be the same or different, and if the differences are significant. This study hypothesized that mentors, on average, would rate the quality of the supports they provided higher than protégés, as self-ratings tend to be more positive than more objective ratings.

> *Hypothesis 8: Mentors will report higher quality for career and psychosocial supports provided than protégés.*

Mentors and protégés were asked to think about their most recent mentoring experience and evaluate the quality of their experience. Both were asked to rate the quality of career and psychosocial supports provided on a scale from poor (1) to excellent (5). They could also indicate that a support was not provided (0).

The means for the quality of career supports are shown in table 5.4 and 5.5. Overall, there is no support for the hypothesis that mentors rated the quality of career supports higher, as mentors (M = 3.48, $S.D.$ = .85) and protégés (M = 3.46, $S.D.$ = .90) rated the quality of career supports similarly, t (255)=.179, p = .86. The same relationship is true of psychosocial supports. Mentors (M = 3.24, $S.D.$ = .85) and protégés (M = 3.22, $S.D.$ = 1.07) rated the quality of supports similarly, t (256)=.158, p = .87).

Table 5.4 Perceived Quality of Career Supports

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success	**Mentors**	165	3.66	1.10	0	5
	Protégés	98	3.68	1.20	0	5
Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"	**Mentors**	164	3.49	1.28	0	5
	Protégés	97	3.68	1.26	0	5
Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills	**Mentors**	164	3.82*	1.12	0	5
	Protégés	98	3.58	1.38	0	5
Provide opportunities to learn new management skills	**Mentors**	164	3.21	1.45	0	5
	Protégés	98	3.30	1.31	0	5
Provide feedback regarding performance	**Mentors**	164	3.92*	1.00	0	5
	Protégés	98	3.82	1.22	0	5
Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization	**Mentors**	161	3.69*	1.23	0	5
	Protégés	98	3.01	1.55	0	5
Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network	**Mentors**	160	3.01*	1.54	0	5
	Protégés	98	2.91	1.54	0	5
Share experiences of moving up in the organization	**Mentors**	161	3.21	1.46	0	5
	Protégés	98	3.52	1.39	0	5
Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules	**Mentors**	161	3.28	1.53	0	5
	Protégés	98	3.40	1.40	0	5
Mean Quality of Career Supports	**Mentors**	97	3.48	.85	0	5
	Protégés	160	3.46	.90	.89	5

* = mentors rated quality of support higher than protégés

Mentors did rate the quality of four career supports higher than the protégés. These supports, in order of quality rating, include:

- Provide feedback regarding performance (3.92)
- Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills (3.82)
- Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization (3.69)
- Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network (3.01)

Overall mentors tended to rate the quality of these career supports provided higher if they also believed that those were the most important to a successful mentoring relationship.

When looking at psychosocial supports, mentors rate the quality of each item higher than protégés except socializing outside of work, which both agreed was not very important. Table 5.5 shows the means for the quality of psychosocial supports as rated by mentors and protégés. Overall, mentors rated the quality of psychosocial supports higher (M = 3.23, $S.D.$ = .85) than protégés (M = 3.22, $S.D.$ = .83), but this difference was not significantly different, t (256)=.158, p = .87).

Table 5.5 Perceived Quality of Psychosocial Supports

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Socialize outside of working hours	**Mentors**	168	1.27	1.84	1	7
	Protégés	98	1.86	1.61	1	7
Act as a sounding board for frustrations	**Mentors**	168	3.53*	1.63	1	7
	Protégés	98	3.37	1.39	1	7
Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame	**Mentors**	164	3.39*	1.47	1	7
	Protégés	98	3.31	1.51	1	7
Provide support and encouragement	**Mentors**	165	4.07*	.93	1	7
	Protégés	98	3.90	1.22	2	7
Act as a role model	**Mentors**	165	3.94*	.95	3	7
	Protégés	98	3.61	1.41	1	7
Mean of psychosocial support items	**Mentors**	164	3.24*	.84	2.8	7
	Protégés	98	3.22	.83	2.4	7

* = mentors rated quality of support higher than protégés

Mentors did rate the quality of four psychosocial supports higher than protégés. These supports, in order of quality rating, include:

- Provide support and encouragement (4.07)
- Act as a role model (3.94)
- Act as a sounding board for frustrations (3.53)
- Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame (3.39)

As with career supports, the supports rated as the highest quality were the same as those rated as most important for mentoring success by mentors.

Overall, mentors rated the quality of career and psychosocial supports higher if they also rated them as more important. Mentors rated the quality of psychosocial support higher than protégés, but these differences were not statistically significant.

5.3.1 Do Mentors and Protégés Differ in Perceived Efficacy of Mentoring Supports?

The second part of this research question seeks to determine where the largest differences occur between mentor and protégé assessments of the efficacy of the mentoring supports provided. Efficacy scores for each respondent were calculated through a multiplicative process (importance x quality). The efficacy scores for mentors and protégés are shown in table 5.6.

The largest and only statistically significant difference in efficacy scores between mentors and protégés was bringing accomplishments of protégés to the attention of those higher up in the organization, t (257)=4.98, $p < .000$. Mentors rated the efficacy much higher than protégés. This difference may result from the nature of this specific support. Mentors are likely to promote their protégés to those higher up in the organization out of the sight or without the knowledge of the protégés; therefore, protégés may not accurately assess the efficacy of this support.

Table 5.6 Perceived Efficacy for Career Mentoring Supports

		Mean Importance	Mean Quality	Efficacy (IxQ)	Mentor & Protégé Difference
Provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success	**Mentors**	5.86	3.66	22.31	0.63
	Protégés	6.15	3.68	22.94	
Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"	**Mentors**	5.31	3.49	19.61	2.19*
	Protégés	5.78	3.68	21.80	
Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills	**Mentors**	6.21	3.82	24.28	1.81
	Protégés	6.05	3.58	22.47	
Provide opportunities to learn new management skills	**Mentors**	5.55	3.21	21.58	0.05
	Protégés	5.98	3.30	21.53	
Provide feedback regarding performance	**Mentors**	6.19	3.92	24.96	0.57
	Protégés	6.28	3.82	24.39	
Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization	**Mentors**	5.86	3.69	22.55	6.08***
	Protégés	5.20	3.01	16.47	
Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network	**Mentors**	5.28	3.01	15.50	2.03
	Protégés	4.86	2.91	17.53	
Share experiences of moving up in the organization	**Mentors**	5.27	3.21	20.27	1.90
	Protégés	5.50	3.52	18.37	
Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules	**Mentors**	5.45	3.28	19.70	0.54
	Protégés	5.78	3.40	20.24	

As shown in table 5.7, mentors and protégés differed on rated efficacy for two psychosocial supports. Unsurprisingly, socializing outside of working hours received low efficacy scores from both mentors and protégés. Mentors and protégés only rated acting as a role model significantly differently, with mentors providing a higher average efficacy score.

In the next two sections, these efficacy scores (career and psychosocial supports) will be used to determine if the efficacy of supports affects measures of mentoring success.

Table 5.7 Perceived Efficacy of Psychosocial Supports

		Mean Importance	Mean Quality	Efficacy (IxQ)	Mentor & Protégé Difference
Socialize outside of working hours	**Mentors**	5.86	3.66	4.39	2.22**
	Protégés	6.15	3.68	7.15	
Act as a sounding board for frustrations	**Mentors**	5.31	3.49	20.90	2.35
	Protégés	5.78	3.68	18.55	
Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame	**Mentors**	6.21	3.82	19.18	1.82
	Protégés	6.05	3.58	17.36	
Provide support and encouragement	**Mentors**	5.55	3.21	26.51	1.39
	Protégés	5.98	3.30	25.12	
Act as a role model	**Mentors**	6.19	3.92	25.53	3.48**
	Protégés	6.28	3.82	22.05	

5.4 How Does Mentoring Efficacy Affect Measures of Mentorship Success?

This research question seeks to determine how the efficacy of mentoring supports affects overall mentoring success and outcomes for both mentor and protégé. Mentoring has a number of positive benefits for mentors and protégés. Those who engage in positive mentoring relationships report higher levels of promotion, increased salary, increased job and career satisfaction, and greater perceived career success (Chao et al., 1992; Aryee, Wyatt, & Stone, 1996). In addition, for mentors, mentoring others can buffer the negative effects of career plateauing that comes with remaining in a job or position for a long period of time (Lentz & Allen, 2009). Mentors report that mentoring provides them an outlet pass on their knowledge and makes them feel knowledgeable and important.

Both mentors and protégés were asked to reflect on their mentoring relationship. First, they asked questions about the structural features of their mentoring relationship (e.g. frequency and type of interaction, length of mentoring relationship, etc.). Next, they were asked to think about how the mentoring relationship may have provided benefits such as knowledge and skills necessary to achieve career goals, formal recognition from the organization, or tangible career benefits (e.g. a promotion, raise, etc.).

5.4.1 Independent Variables: Factors Influencing Individual Outcomes

As previously discussed, there are a number of variables in the literature associated with positive mentoring relationships. These factors include the efficacy of the career and psychosocial supports provided, the establishment of clear goals and expectations, the degree of collaboration on mentoring goals, frequency of interactions, length of relationship, and family and demographic characteristics of respondents.

Both mentors and protégés were asked to rate the importance and quality of individual career and psychosocial supports that mentors may provide to protégés. Tables 5.8 and 5.9 provide the efficacy scores for career supports and psychosocial supports for both mentors and protégés. Both mentors and protégés were assigned a career efficacy score that was an average of career and psychosocial support items. As discussed in the pervious sections, difference in what behaviors were believed were important and the quality with which was provided can influence the efficacy of the mentoring supports.

Table 5.8 Mean Perceived Efficacy Scores for Career Supports

		Mean Importance	Mean Quality	Efficacy (IxQ)
Provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success	**Mentors**	5.86	3.66	22.31
	Protégés	6.15	3.68	22.94
Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"	**Mentors**	5.31	3.49	19.61
	Protégés	5.78	3.68	21.80
Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills	**Mentors**	6.21	3.82	24.28
	Protégés	6.05	3.58	22.47
Provide opportunities to learn new management skills	**Mentors**	5.55	3.21	21.58
	Protégés	5.98	3.30	21.53
Provide feedback regarding performance	**Mentors**	6.19	3.92	24.96
	Protégés	6.28	3.82	24.39
Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization	**Mentors**	5.86	3.69	22.55
	Protégés	5.20	3.01	16.47
Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network	**Mentors**	5.28	3.01	15.50
	Protégés	4.86	2.91	17.53
Share experiences of moving up in the organization	**Mentors**	5.27	3.21	20.27
	Protégés	5.50	3.52	18.37
Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules	**Mentors**	5.45	3.28	19.70
	Protégés	5.78	3.40	20.24

Table 5.9 Mean Perceived Efficacy Scores for Psychosocial Supports

		Mean Importance	Mean Quality	Efficacy (IxQ)
Socialize outside of working hours	**Mentors**	5.86	3.66	4.39
	Protégés	6.15	3.68	7.15
Act as a sounding board for frustrations	**Mentors**	5.31	3.49	20.90
	Protégés	5.78	3.68	18.55
Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame	**Mentors**	6.21	3.82	19.18
	Protégés	6.05	3.58	17.36
Provide support and encouragement	**Mentors**	5.55	3.21	26.51
	Protégés	5.98	3.30	25.12
Act as a role model	**Mentors**	6.19	3.92	25.53
	Protégés	6.28	3.82	22.05

When protégés have more input into goals for the mentoring relationship, they tend to report more positive outcomes. Both protégés and mentors were asked the extent to which their mentoring relationship had clear goals and expectations and the degree to which those

goals and expectations were decided on collaboratively. Responses range from not at all (1) to a great extent (5). Table 5.10 shows the means for both mentors and protégés.

Table 5.10 Perceptions of Clear Goals and Collaboration

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
To what extent did your mentoring relationship have clear goals and expectations?	**Mentors**	171	3.53	1.15	1	5
	Protégés	99	3.24	1.32	1	5
To what extent were these decided on collaboratively with input from both mentor and protégé?	**Mentors**	170	3.32	1.14	1	5
	Protégés	98	3.24	1.36	1	5

Mentors and protégés were also asked about specific features of their mentoring relationship, including how long the mentoring relationship lasted and how frequently they communicated though a variety of means. Both length of the relationship and frequency of communication have been shown to influence the quality of mentoring interactions and perceived mentoring success.

Table 5.11 Descriptive Statistics for Length of Mentoring and Communication Frequency

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Length of mentoring relationship (months)	**Mentors**	179	15.8	22.96	0	121
	Protégés	108	27.02	33.84	0	180
Communication Frequency (face to face)	**Mentors**	171	1.78	1.13	0	6
	Protégés	108	1.76	1.21	1	6
Communication Frequency (email)	**Mentors**	160	2.01	1.57	0	6
	Protégés	105	2.22	1.59	0	6
Communication Frequency (telephone)	**Mentors**	161	2.51	1.89	0	6
	Protégés	100	2.94	1.82	0	6

Protégés reported that their most recent mentoring relationship lasted an average of 27.02 months, and that they communicated most frequently with their mentor by telephone. For mentors, the most recent mentoring relationship averages 15.8 months and they communicated with their protégé most frequently by telephone.

Mentors and protégés were also asked if they were married, if they had children under 18 living at home, and the race and gender makeup of their mentoring dyad. Table 5.12 presents the descriptive statistics for both mentors and protégés.

Table 5.12 Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Features

	Group	N	Mean
Married	**Mentors**	170	.76
	Protégés	99	.72
Children Under 18	**Mentors**	171	.37
	Protégés	98	.47
Race Match (nonwhite-nonwhite)	**Mentors**	179	.17
	Protégés	108	.14
Gender Match (female-female)	**Mentors**	179	.23
	Protégés	108	.33

72% of protégés are married, 47% have a child under 18 living at home, 33% are in female-female dyads, and 14% report that they are in nonwhite-nonwhite dyads. 72% of mentors are married, 37% have a child under 18 living at home, 23% are in female-female dyads, and 17% are in nonwhite-nonwhite dyads.

5.4.2 Dependent Variables: Outcomes for Individuals Associated with Mentoring

Both groups were asked, "Thinking about your overall experience, how satisfied are you with your most recent mentorship experience?" Responses were a seven point Likert-type scale ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (7). Table 5.13 provides descriptive statistics for those that indicated that they had a mentoring relationship at work. Overall, mentors reported slightly greater mean (M= 6.07, $S.D.$= .94) in satisfaction with the mentoring relationship than protégés (M= 5.95, $S.D.$= 1.21); however this difference is not statistically significant.

Table 5.13Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables: Satisfaction with the Mentoring Relationship

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Mentors	171	6.07	.94	3	7
Protégés	98	5.95	1.21	1	7

Next, both mentors and protégés were also asked about how the mentoring relationship influenced their work life, specifically what benefits they may have received as a result of their mentoring relationship. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement with the following statements:

1) Because of my mentoring relationship I believe I have more knowledge and skills necessary to achieve my career goals;
2) Because of my mentoring relationship I received recognition or formal acknowledgement from my organization;
3) Because of my mentoring relationship I received some tangible career benefits, like a bonus, promotion, raise, etc.

Responses were a seven-point Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Table 5.14 provides descriptive statistics for both mentors and protégés.

Table 5.14 Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables: Career Outcomes for Individuals

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Believe have knowledge and skills to achieve career goals	**Mentors**	171	5.14	1.28	1	7
	Protégés	101	5.97	1.08	1	7
Received recognition	**Mentors**	171	3.52	1.77	1	7
	Protégés	100	4.35	1.69	1	7
Received tangible career benefits	**Mentors**	171	2.68	1.73	1	7
	Protégés	100	4.09	1.79	1	7
Satisfaction with Mentoring Relationship	**Mentors**	171	6.07	.94	3	7
	Protégés	98	5.95	1.21	1	7

As shown in table 5.14, on average, mentors were less likely to agree that they had received recognition or tangible career benefits. Only 28.7% of mentors believed they had received recognition from their organization and even fewer (14.6%) believed they received some tangible career benefits as a result of their mentoring relationship. Despite the

perception of a lack of recognition and career benefits, mentors still report high levels of satisfaction with the most recent mentoring relationship.

Protégés, on the other hand, did believe that they received some benefits from their mentoring relationship. Most notably, protégés reported that their most recent mentoring relationship provided them with the knowledge and skills needed to achieve their long-term career goals. Despite the strict personnel rules governing raises and promotions, half of all protégés believed that they received recognition from their organization because of their mentoring relationship, and 41% believed they received some tangible career benefits.

5.4.3 Mentoring Outcomes for Protégés

The majority of the mentoring literature focuses on the outcomes for protégés, as protégés are seen as the target for mentoring supports. This section will examine the results of mentoring behaviors on the individual outcomes for protégés.

The original model attempted to link all parts of the mentoring logic model into a single structural equation model, as shown in figure 5.1.

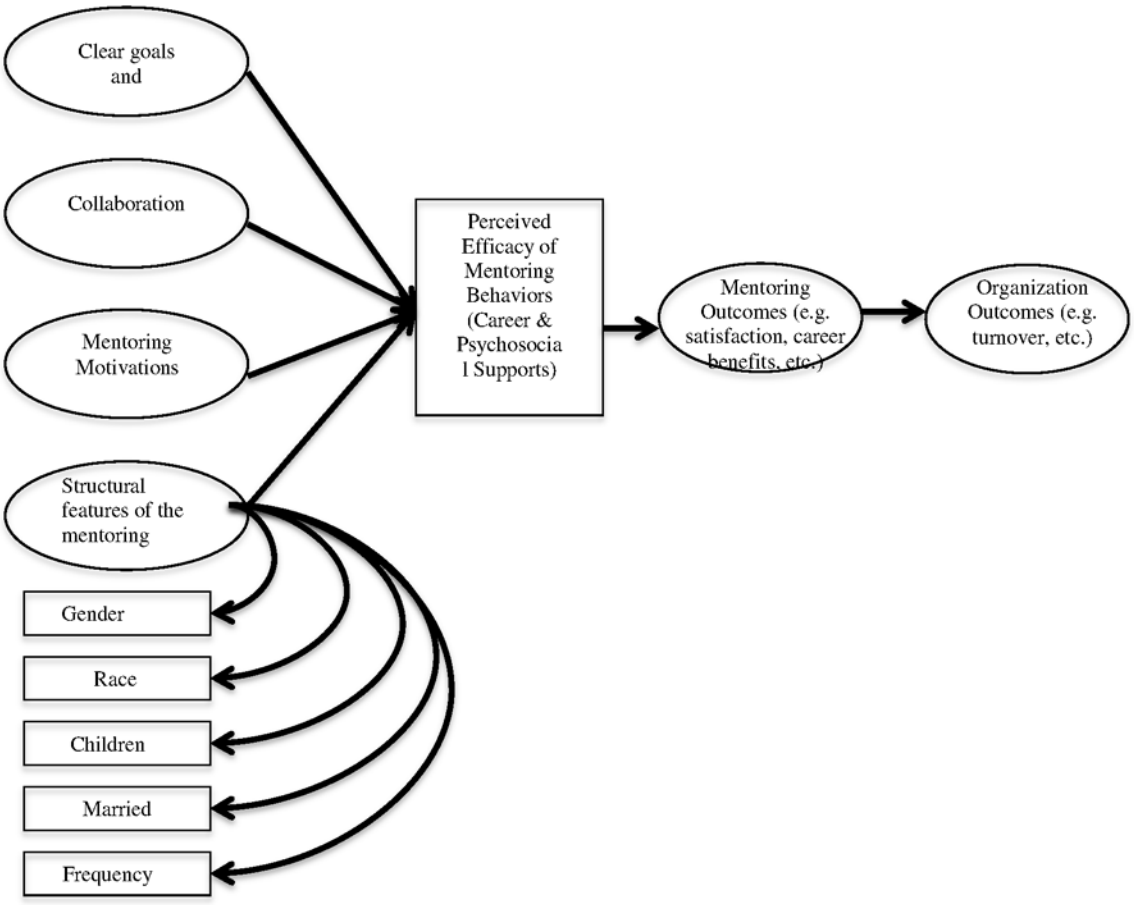

Figure 5.1 Factors Influencing Outcomes Associated with Mentoring

Predicting Mentoring Efficacy Scores for Protégés

Due to the complexity of the full model (as shown in figure 5.1), modeling the full mentoring relationship was not possible. Instead, the model was broken into two pieces. First, what antecedents, mentoring motivations, and structural features of the mentoring relationship lead to higher perceived efficacy scores for career and psychosocial behaviors? Second, how to efficacy scores for career and psychosocial supports lead to protégé

outcomes of interest (perception one will achieve career goals, recognition for the organization, and tangible career benefits)?

The antecedents, mentoring motivations, and structural features of the mentoring relationship were used to predict career and psychosocial efficacy scores. The model is presented in figure 5.2.

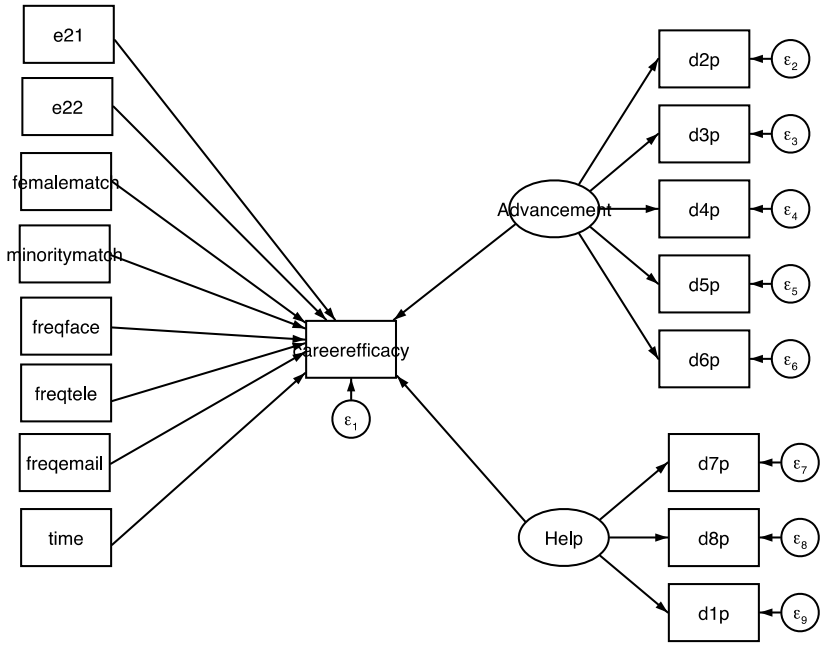

Figure 5.2 Predicting Career Efficacy Scores for Protégés

The original model attempted using structural equation model failed to converge. Due to the continuous nature of the career and psychosocial efficacy scores, OLS regression was

used to determine what factors predict efficacy scores. The results of the regression predicting career and psychosocial efficacy are presented in table 5.15.

Table 5.15 Predicting Efficacy Scores for Protégés

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Career Efficacy Score	Psychosocial Efficacy Score
Clear goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	18.43**	11.68**
	Collaboration	-1.45	.115
Mentoring Motivations	Advancement Motives	5.68	-5.07
	Help-seeking Motives	2.86	8.26*
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	-2.37	-3.32
	Female-Female Gender Match	-6.76	-.19
	Children	4.09	7.37
	Married	1.13	4.03
	Communication Frequency: Email	-10.43**	-7.31**
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	-.31	1.29
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	3.46	4.43*
	Length of Mentoring Relationship	.11	.08

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

Only two factors were significant in predicting perceived career efficacy scores. Having clear goals and expectations for the mentoring relationship had a significant positive relationship with reported career efficacy. Collaboration between mentors and protégés was not significant. The only other statistically significant predictor of career efficacy was email communication. Communication frequency by email was negatively related to career efficacy scores.

Setting clear goals and expectations was also significant in predicting psychosocial efficacy scores. Both communication frequency by email and communication frequency by telephone were significant; however telephone communication was associated with a positive increase in psychosocial efficacy. Email and other forms of written communication can be seen as distant and challenging to decipher tone, and can lead to miscommunication. This

may be why communication by telephone has a positive effect while communication by email is negative. Finally, an increase in help-seeking motivations by protégés is positively associated to increased perceptions of psychosocial efficacy. Those who need help at work may require greater levels of social support to boost their self-esteem and confidence at work.

Predicting Outcomes for Protégés. Outcomes of interest for protégés include:

- Belief they have the knowledge and skills needed to achieve their career goals
- Receiving recognition from their organization
- Receiving tangible career benefits
- Satisfaction with the mentoring relationship

Protégés were asked about to what extent their mentoring relationship had clear goals and expectations, to what extent those goals and expectations were made collaboratively, their motivations for seeking a mentor, and information about the structural features of their mentoring relationship (e.g frequency of communication, length of relationship, etc.).

Hypothesis 9: Mentors and protégés who report establishing clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of satisfaction with the mentoring, and b) receiving greater tangible career benefits than those who do not establish clear goals and expectations.

Hypothesis 10: Mentors and protégés who report collaborating to establishing clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of satisfaction with the mentoring, and b) receiving greater tangible career benefits than those who do not collaborate to establish clear goals and expectations.

Outcomes for protégés were modeled using structural equation modeling. Like the model predicting career and psychosocial efficacy, the full model predicting protégé outcomes was unable to converge. In order to examine the relationship between career and psychosocial mentoring and the effect on outcomes more closely, the model was trimmed to use these two

latent constructs as predictors of outcomes. Structural equation modeling allows the three factors associated with career mentoring supports to be modeled separately.

Exploratory factor analysis reveals support for three latent factors that measure aspects of career supports that mentors provide to protégés: career development, social/career network development, and navigation of politics/red tape. Initially, each latent variable was believed to have a direct effect on the outcomes of interest, however there is evidence that red tape/politics does not have a direct effect on mentoring outcomes. The model is presented in figure 5.3.

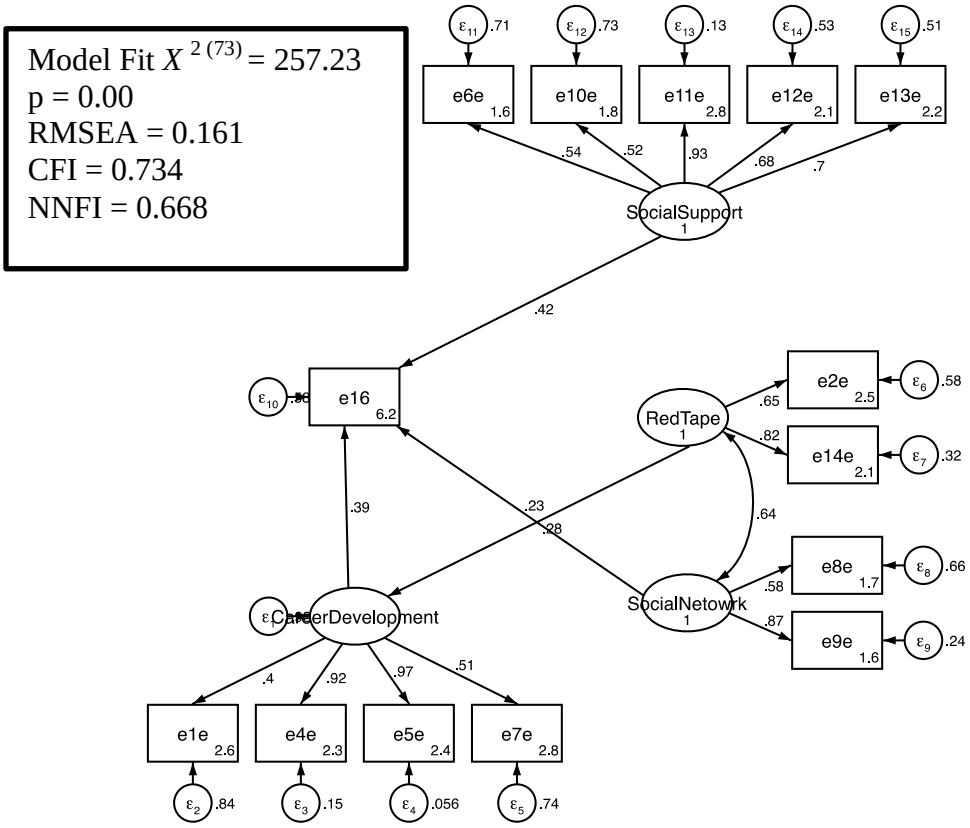

Figure 5.3 The Relationship of Career and Psychosocial Supports and Outcomes

Despite significant paths in the structural model from red tape and career development (p = .015) and significant path coefficients to the outcomes of interest, the overall model fit statistics show that the model is not a good fit for the data and not significantly different than the saturated model.

Due to the ordinal nature of the response variable, ordinal logistic regression was used to examine the relationship between mentoring efficacy, work attitudes, and structural features of the mentoring relationship. Results are presented in table 5.16.

Table 5.16 Individual Outcomes for Protégés (Odds Ratios)

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Will Achieve Career Goals	Received Recognition	Received Tangible Career Benefit
Clear Goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	.546*	1.373	.894
	Collaboration	2.175**	.859	.870
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	1.050***	1.025***	1.016**
	Psychosocial Efficacy	1.002	.987	.994
Mentoring Motivations	Advancement Motives	.737*	1.553*	2.833***
	Help-seeking Motives	1.633	.733	1.019
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	.819	1.017	.968
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	.339	.785	2.683
	Female-Female Gender Match	.562	.625	.926
	Children	2.99**	.793	.507
	Married	.278**	1.187	1.491
	Communication Frequency: Email	.978	1.130	1.277
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	.883	1.360	.844
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	.939	.928	1.167
	Length of Mentoring Relationship	1.003	.998	1.000

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

Will Achieve Career Goals. For protégés, a number of factors were significant in predicting their belief that they would achieve their career goals. First, the efficacy of career supports was significant. For a one standard deviation increase in career efficacy (*M* =185.6, S.*D.* =55.6), the odds of indicating a higher belief of achieving career goals increased by 172.3%, holding all other variables constant. Setting clear goals and expectations for the mentoring relationship was also significant in achieving career goals, but opposite of the hypothesized direction. A one standard deviation in change in reporting setting clear goals and expectations, reduced belief one would achieve their career goals by -13.6%. As for setting those goals collaboratively, a one standard deviation increase (*S.D.* =1.35) leading to a 117% increase in odds of achieving career goals. Interestingly, a high level of advancement motivation was negatively related to the belief in achieving career goals. Because there is often little a mentor can do to change the organizational role of their protégés, those higher in advancement motives may be dissatisfied with their career progression.

Recognition and Tangible Career Goals. The efficacy score for career mentoring as well as protégé advancement motivation were positively related to receiving recognition and tangible career benefits from the organization. We would expect that those higher in advancement would seek out recognition and advancement to a greater degree than those who seek a mentor for help.

Satisfaction with the Mentoring. Table 5.17 shows the ordinal regression results predicting satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. Only two factors were significantly related to protégé's overall satisfaction with the mentoring relationship: efficacy of the career supports and having children at home. Somewhat intuitively, those who report that their

mentoring relationship was of higher quality and focused on areas important to the protégé, the perceived efficacy of career supports, were more satisfied with the mentoring relationship.

Table 5.17 Satisfaction with the Mentoring Relationship- Protégés

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Satisfaction with Mentoring
Clear Goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	1.551
	Collaboration	1.712
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	1.060***
	Psychosocial Efficacy	1.018
Mentoring Motivations	Advancement Motives	.834
	Help-seeking Motives	1.021
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	.905
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	.586
	Female-Female Gender Match	.473
	Children	4.294**
	Married	1.969
	Communication Frequency: Email	1.396
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	.874
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	1.039
	Length of Mentoring Relationship	.992

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

What Leads to Positive Outcomes for Protégés? A number of factors were related to positive outcomes for protégés. These factors include:

- **High perceived efficacy of career supports associated with positive outcomes.** Protégés who reported higher perceived efficacy of career supports also reported they felt more confident they would achieve career goals, they received recognition and some tangible career benefits from their organization, and were satisfied with their mentoring relationship. Ensuring that both mentor and protégé agree about what career supports are important leads to more positive outcomes.

- **Collaboration on clear goals and expectations contributes to achieving career goals.** Protégés who reported that they collaborated in determining clear goals and expectations for what their mentoring relationship should accomplish reported greater belief that they would achieve their career goals. This finding supports the finding above, protégés who receive high quality in areas they believe are most important have more positive outcomes.
- **Communication type and frequency matter for perceived efficacy.** Protégés reported higher perceived efficacy of psychosocial supports when they communicated with their mentor more frequently by telephone. Communicating frequently with their mentor by email resulted in lower perceived efficacy of both career and psychosocial efficacy. The impersonal nature of email may depress the perceived utility of mentor feedback. Communication by telephone may help protégés feel connected and supported by the mentor, leading to greater perceived psychosocial efficacy.
- **Higher advancement motivations of protégés associated with career benefits.** Protégés who were higher in advancement motives were more likely to report that they received recognition or tangible career benefits (e.g. a raise or promotion) from their organization as a result of their mentoring relationship.

5.4.4 Outcome of the Mentoring Relationship for Mentors

While the majority of mentoring literature focuses on the outcomes for protégés, mentors can also receive benefits from their mentoring relationships. Mentors often find that

they enjoy mentoring and teaching others and derive some satisfaction from their efforts. In addition, as mentors pass knowledge and skills that have become routine in nature, they often have to reflect and think about their work in new ways. For some, a protégé can also teach the mentor new ways of thinking about their everyday work processes (e.g. social media, cell phone apps, etc.).

Predicting Mentoring Efficacy Scores for Mentors

As with protégés, attempts at the full structural model were unsuccessful, and required the parts of the model to be broken down into smaller parts. First, career and psychosocial efficacy scores were predicted using ordinary least squares regression (OLS). Table 5.18 presents the efficacy scores for mentors.

Table 5.18 Predicting Efficacy Scores for Mentors

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Career Efficacy Score	Psychosocial Efficacy Score
Clear goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	7.508	2.432
	Collaboration	3.715	2.136
Mentoring Motivations	Other-Org Motives	19.564***	12.455***
	Self-Motives	-5.110	-1.250
	Previous Positive Mentoring	14.844*	9.258***
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	5.993	7.724
	Female-Female Gender Match	9.670**	-1.940
	Children	-4.827	-4.493
	Married	3.851	4.493
	Communication Frequency: Email	-.313	-.231
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	-9.344***	-4.659**
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	3.861*	3.235**
	Length of Mentoring Relationship (months)	.326*	.086

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

Mentor career mentoring efficacy scores have a number of significant predictors. First, mentors higher in other-org motivation and previous positive mentoring experiences

reported higher career efficacy scores. Those with mentoring dyads made up of a female mentor and a female protégé also reported higher levels of career efficacy. Communication was also significant, though face-to-face interaction had a negative effect on career efficacy, while communicating by telephone was positive. There was no significant effect for email communication.

For psychosocial mentoring efficacy all the same factors were significant except for female-female dyads. Previous research suggested that the positive effect of female-female mentoring relationships was found in the higher quality of psychosocial mentoring, because females provide better social support to other females. This analysis suggests the opposite conclusion, as female-female dyads does not affect perceived psychosocial efficacy at a level of significance.

Predicting Outcomes for Mentors. Outcomes of interest for mentors include:

- Belief they have the knowledge and skills needed to achieve their career goals
- Receiving recognition from their organization
- Receiving tangible career benefits
- Satisfaction with the mentoring relationship

Mentors were asked about to what extent their mentoring relationship had clear goals and expectations, to what extent those goals and expectations were made collaboratively, their motivations for acting as a mentor, and information about the structural features of their mentoring relationship (e.g frequency of communication, length of relationship, etc.).

> *Hypothesis 9: Mentors and protégés who report establishing clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of satisfaction with the mentoring, and b) receiving greater tangible career benefits than those who do not establish clear goals and expectations.*

Hypothesis 10: Mentors and protégés who report collaborating to establishing clear goals and expectations for their mentoring relationship will report: a) greater levels of satisfaction with the mentoring, and b) receiving greater tangible career benefits than those who do not collaborate to establish clear goals and expectations.

Mentors were also asked how their mentoring relationship related to outcomes associated with positive mentoring relationships. The results for mentors are presented in table 5.18.

Table 5.18 Individual Outcomes for Mentors

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Will Achieve Career Goals	Received Recognition	Received Tangible Career Benefit
Clear Goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	1.026	1.475*	1.128
	Collaboration	1.352	1.113	1.404
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	.999	1.006	.995
	Psychosocial Efficacy	1.005	.980**	.991
Mentoring Motivations	Other-Org Motives	1.382	1.364	1.775**
	Advancement Motives	1.856***	1.801***	1.778**
	Positive Mentoring	1.578**	1.261	1.110
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	1.889**	1.126	1.102
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	.982	1.116	1.933
	Female-Female Gender Match	.363	.392**	.299
	Children	.896	1.154	1.049
	Married	1.557	1.209	.778
	Communication Frequency: Email	1.219*	.073	.997
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	.846	1.008	.919
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	.949	1.161	1.171
	Length of Mentoring Relationship	1.176	.877	1.044

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

Will Achieve Career Goals. A number of factors were associated with mentors' beliefs that they would achieve their career goals. While advancement motivations were not significant in predicting who would act as a mentor (as discussed in chapter 4), they are

significant in mentors reporting that their mentoring relationship increased their belief they would achieve their career goals. In addition, previous positive mentoring relationships, public service motivation, and communication by email increased belief in achieving career goals.

Received Recognition. While few mentors reported that they received recognition from their organization for their mentoring relationships (28.9%), several factors were positively related to reporting receiving recognition. First, as with achieving career goals, the mentors' level of advancement motives was positively related to reporting receiving recognition. In addition, those who set clear goals and expectations reported receiving recognition. Perhaps most interesting, female-female dyads had a negative effect on reporting receiving recognition from the organization. This may be due to the smaller numbers of females in upper level management positions, which depresses the visibility of female mentors within the organization.

Received Tangible Career Benefits. Two factors positively related to mentors reporting that they received tangible career benefits (e.g. a raise or promotion as a result of their mentoring relationship. Both other/organizational motives and advancement motivations are positively associated with receiving tangible career benefits.

Satisfaction with the Mentoring Relationship. Table 5.19 shows the ordinal regression results predicting satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. Three factors were positively related to satisfaction with the mentoring relationship: having clear goals and expectations, higher perceived efficacy of psychosocial supports, and nonwhite-nonwhite dyads. The largest marginal effect for this model is nonwhite-nonwhite dyads. On average,

those in nonwhite-nonwhite dyads increased the odds of reporting high satisfaction with their mentoring relationship by 183%. Mentors advancement motivation was negatively related to satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. Those looking to advance within their organization do not derive as much satisfaction from mentoring as those who mentor to help others r their organization.

Table 5.19 Satisfaction with the Mentoring for Mentors

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Satisfaction with Mentoring
Clear Goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	1.529*
	Collaboration	1.182
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	1.006
	Psychosocial Efficacy	1.018**
Mentoring Motivations	Other-Org Motives	1.251
	Advancement Motives	.527***
	Positive Mentoring	1.401
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	1.088
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	2.839*
	Female-Female Gender Match	1.338
	Children	1.654
	Married	1.673
	Communication Frequency: Email	1.077
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	1.174
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	.852
	Length of Mentoring Relationship	1.088

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

What Leads to Positive Outcomes for Mentors? A number of factors were associated with positive outcomes for mentors:

- **Mentors' advancement motivations increase belief in achieving career goals and receiving recognition and tangible career benefits from the organization.** Mentors high in advancement motivations reported more positive outcomes. Those high in advancement motives may have been more likely to use their mentoring relationship

as a tool to improve their standing, or they may just be more likely to seek positive reinforcement and attribute that to their mentoring efforts.

- **Clear goals and expectations lead to greater satisfaction with the mentoring.** Mentors with clear goals and expectations for the mentoring relationship had more positive outcomes in terms of receiving recognition from their organization and in satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. As one mentor notes that there isn't really a mentoring "playbook" that tells mentors what they should be doing to develop their mentees, so "better understanding on specific skill development and expectations" ensures that the mentoring relationship is meeting the needs of the protégé. Like with protégés, clear goals and expectation leads to greater satisfaction.

5.5 How Does Mentoring Efficacy Affect Organizational Outcomes?

Mentoring relationships are also associated with a number of positive outcomes for organizations, including increased organizational commitment, increased job satisfaction, reduced turnover intentions, and increased likelihood of mentoring others/again (Craig et al., 2013; Donaldson et al., 2000; Payne & Huffman, 2005b). Mentoring can have positive effects for organizations even when there is no formal or recognized mentoring program. This section will investigate the outcomes for organizations associated with mentoring relationships at work.

5.5.1 Organizational Commitment

Both mentors and protégés were asked about how the mentoring relationship influenced their commitment to their organization. They rated their level of agreement with the statement: "Because of my mentoring relationship I feel more committed to my

organization." Responses ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Table 5.20 provides descriptive statistics for those who indicated they were in a mentoring relationship at work.

Table 5.20 Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables: Organizational Commitment
(Survey Question: Rate level of agreement with the following statement "Because of my mentoring relationship I feel more committed to my organization")

Group	N	Mean	S.D	Min	Max
Mentors	171	5.16	1.18	1	7
Protégés	101	5.38	1.33	1	7

Protégés reported slightly higher levels of organizational commitment than mentors as a result of their mentoring relationship. Table 5.21 shows which mentoring variables predict organizational commitment for both mentors and protégés.

For protégés, three variables had a statistically significant effect on their reported organizational commitment. First, setting clear goals and expectations for the mentoring relationship had a positive effect on organizational commitment. Career efficacy, or the perceived importance and quality of the mentoring supports provided, also increased reported levels of organizational commitment. Interestingly, nonwhite protégés with nonwhite mentors was negatively related to organizational commitment. Those in nonwhite-nonwhite dyads reported a -74.3% decrease in odds of reporting high organizational commitment.

Table 5.21 Organizational Commitment for Protégés and Mentors (Odds Ratios)

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Protégé Organizational Commitment	Mentor Organizational Commitment
Clear Goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	1.935**	1.548**
	Collaboration	1.065	.925
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	1.019**	1.001
	Psychosocial Efficacy	1.010	1.001
Mentoring Motivations (Protégé)	Advancement Motives (P)	1.019	-
	Help-seeking Motives (P)	.924	-
Mentoring Motivations (Mentor)	Org-Other Motives (M)	-	1.143
	Self-Focused Motives (M)	-	1.423*
	Positive Mentoring (M)	-	1.752***
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	1.076	1.897***
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	.257**	.934
	Female-Female Gender Match	1.213	.261***
	Children	.659	.632
	Married	1.660	1.582
	Communication Frequency: Email	.815	1.209
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	1.236	1.034
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	1.082	.862
	Length of Mentoring Relationship	.999	1.011

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01

For mentors, public service motivation, setting clear goals and expectations, self-focused motivations to mentor, and previous positive mentoring relationships were positively associated with higher levels of organizational commitment. Interestingly, females mentoring other females had a significant negative effect on organizational commitment for mentors. On average, female-female dyads reported a -73.9% in odds of reporting they strongly agreed that their mentoring relationship increased their organizational commitment.

5.5.2 Job Satisfaction

Respondents were asked their level of agreement with the following statement: "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." Responses ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Table 5.22 provides descriptive statistics for those in a mentoring relationship. The

majority of respondents (68.5%) indicated that they agree (39.9%) or strongly agree (28.54%) that they are satisfied in their job. Table 5.23 shows the ordinal regression results predicting mentor and protégé job satisfaction.

Table 5.22 Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables: Job Satisfaction

Group	N	Mean	S.D	Min	Max
Mentors	172	5.94	1.18	1	7
Protégés	101	5.69	1.51	1	7

Table 5.23 Job Satisfaction for Protégés and Mentors

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Protégé Job Satisfaction	Mentor Job Satisfaction
Clear Goals/Collaboration	Clear Goals and Expectations	.631	1.274
	Collaboration	1.641	1.258
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	1.008	1.002
	Psychosocial Efficacy	1.002	.991
Mentoring Motivations (Protégé)	Advancement Motives (P)	.854	-
	Help-seeking Motives (P)	1.569	-
Mentoring Motivations (Mentor)	Org-Other Motives (M)	-	2.492***
	Self-Focused Motives (M)	-	.663**
	Positive Mentoring (M)	-	1.665**
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	1.909***	1.17
Structural Features of the Mentoring Relationship	Nonwhite Race Match	1.461	.647
	Female-Female Gender Match	.730	.083*
	Children	1.678	.689
	Married	.719	3.509***
	Communication Frequency: Email	1.081	.876
	Communication Frequency: Face-to-face	.820	1.104
	Communication Frequency: Telephone	.816	.917
	Length of Mentoring Relationship	.995	.991

For protégés, only public service motivation was associated with reported job satisfaction. For mentors, all three mentoring motivations were significantly associated with job satisfaction. Both other-org motives and a previous positive mentoring relationship increased job satisfaction. Those mentors that were motived by self-interest, or those that

mentored to gain personal benefit, reported lower job satisfaction. This may be the result of mentors not receiving what they expected, in terms of rewards, from their mentoring relationship.

Again, as with organizational commitment, female-female dyads are negatively related to measured outcomes. On average, being in a female-female mentoring dyad reduced the odds of mentors reporting they strongly agreed they were satisfied in their job by -27%. Female mentors who mentor other females may not report lower satisfaction with their mentoring relationship, but institutional factors that depress mentoring behaviors in women in general may also reduce their reported organizational outcomes.

5.5.3 Turnover Intentions

Respondents were asked, "Over the past few years, have you considered leaving your organization for reasons other than retirement?" The response option was binary, with all participants selecting yes or no. Table 5.24 provides descriptive statistics for all respondents in the survey.

Table 5.24 Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables: Intent to Turnover
Survey Question: "Over the past few years, have you considered leaving your organization for reasons other than retirement?"

Group	N	Percentage Yes
Mentors	172	45%
Protégés	98	50%
Others	225	48%
Potential Mentors	61	51%
Potential Protégés	60	67%
Non-Mentoring	104	35%

While this section focuses on the outcomes associated with mentoring, it is worth noting the difference in turnover intentions between those who were in a mentoring

relationship and those who are not but want to be. As shown in table 5.24, mentors (45%), protégés (50%), and the aggregate non-mentoring group (48%) report similar levels of turnover intentions. When examine turnover intentions for the non-mentoring group we find a large difference between potential mentors (51%), potential protégés (67%), and those who don't want to be in a mentoring relationship (35%).

About half of the mentors and protégés reported that they had considered leaving their job in the past few years. Tables 5.25 and 5.26 present the results predicting turnover intentions. For both mentors and protégés, the perceived efficacy of mentoring supports provided had no significant effect on turnover intentions. For mentors, only organizational tenure and holding an advanced had a statistically significant effect. On average, a one-year increase in organizational tenure reduces the probability of turnover by -.011 (p = .021). For those with a Masters degree, the probability of reporting thinking about leaving the organization increased the probability by .198. For mentors, it seem that educational attainment provides opportunities to seek alternative employment outside of their current organization.

Table 5.25 Mentor Turnover Intentions

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	Marginal Effect
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	.003	1.003	.001
	Psychosocial Efficacy	.000	1.000	.000
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	-.119	.888	-.025
Respondent Characteristics	Nonwhite	.013	1.013	.003
	Female	-.256	.774	-.054
	Children	.342	1.407	.073
	Married	-.711	.491	-.154
	Supervisory Position	.125	1.133	.026
	Organizational Tenure	-.057**	.949**	-.011**
	Age (years)	-.006	.994	-.001
	Education (Masters)	.934**	2.545**	0.198**

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base Probability = .429

For protégés, only marriage had a statistically significant effect on stated turnover intentions. On average, those who are married have decreased probability of reporting they had thought about leaving their organization by -.273 (p = .023). Those who are protégés and starting out in their career may see stability in staying in an organization and building a career as opposed to move between organizations as a means of career advancement.

Table 5.26 Protégé Turnover Intentions

Category of Variable	Independent Variable	Coeff.	Odds Ratio	Marginal Effect
Mentoring Efficacy	Career Efficacy	.006	1.006	.001
	Psychosocial Efficacy	.002	1.002	.000
Work Attitudes	Public Service Motivation	-.282	.754	-.059
Respondent Characteristics	Nonwhite	-.539	.583	-.155
	Female	-.451	.636	-.096
	Children	-.548	.578	-.116
	Married	-1.331**	.264**	-.273**
	Supervisory Position	.891	2.438	0.184
	Organizational Tenure	.002	1.001	.000
	Age (years)	-.018	.982	-.004
	Education (Masters)	.002	1.002	.000

*p< .1, **p< .05, ***p<.01
Base Probability = 0.585

5.5.4 Mentoring Others

Mentoring can be seen as a form of organizational citizenship behavior. Those who are more committed to their organizations will be more likely to help others in service to their organization. Additionally, those who have positive mentoring experiences are more likely to mentor others. As a result, we would expect positive mentoring relationships to have positive cascading results for organizations. Both mentors and protégés were asked "Thinking through your recent mentoring experience, do you think you will serve as a mentor to someone else in your organization (either formally or informally)?" The response option was binary (Yes, No). Table 5.27 provides the descriptive statistics for mentors and protégés. Almost all mentors reported that they intended to mentor others in the future.

Table 5.27 Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables: Intent to Mentor Others
Survey Question: "Thinking through your recent mentoring experience, do you think you will serve as a mentor to someone else in your organization (either formally or informally)?"

Group	N	Percent Yes
Mentors	171	97%
Protégés	97	88%

For protégés, 88% said they would act as a mentor to someone else in the future. These findings support previous research that finds that those who were mentored are more likely to mentor others (Eby, Tormes, Allen, 2007). Previous mentoring experience (as a mentor or protégé) is highly predictive of future mentoring behaviors. While the non-mentoring group was not asked specifically about their plans to mentor in the future, only 61 of 225, or 27.1% indicated that they would like to be a mentor. This number falls short in comparison to mentors (97%) and protégés (88%) who said they would act as a mentor in the future. For organizations that wish to support mentoring, targeting those who have previously

been in mentoring relationships may an effective strategy. In addition, any resources invested in support for facilitating mentoring relationships will likely pay dividends to the organization, as those who participate will likely mentor again. One protégé reflected on the career benefits of good mentors and indicated, "I think it is important to give back by being as good a mentor to others as a can be."

5.6 What Matters for Successful Organizational Outcomes?

Chapter 5 reveals a number of factors important for successful informal mentoring relationships.

- **Clear goals and expectations are important for mentoring success.** Mentors and protégés who set clear goals and expectations report increased organizational commitment and increased satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. One mentor notes that there isn't really a mentoring "playbook" that tells mentors what they should be doing to develop their mentees, so "better understanding on specific skill development and expectations" ensures that the mentoring relationship is meeting the needs of the protégé.
- **Potential protégés report the highest turnover intentions.** The potential protégés, those that would like a mentor but do not have one, represent the group most likely to turn over, and likely the group most dissatisfied with the level of professional development, mentoring, or coaching they currently receive. A number of potential protégés felt that mentoring was for "others," mostly those in upper management and more professionalized divisions. The sentiment seemed to be that there was a lack of support and development opportunities for those in lower rungs of the organization.

One respondent suggested the city "provide mentors to the lower levels" and that [it] seems that only supervisors or office people are mentored and encouraged to move forward." Another suggested the city offer more opportunities for people not in the "managerial track" to participate in leadership development and serve on committees. They also noted that the lack of clear paths to advancement means, "at this point in my career with the city I do not have a career path… I'm at a dead end, there is nowhere for me to move up." A number of individuals in the non-mentoring group suggested that their organization either start a mentoring program or create a way to match mentors and protégés together. Organizations can facilitate and encourage the development of mentoring relationships to help provide career development for those who seek a mentor.

- **Informal mentoring relationships provide cascading benefits.** Those who have had a mentor are more likely to mentor others in the future. Almost all the mentors who responded to this survey indicated that they intended to mentor again. The open-ended comments reveal that mentors have multiple motivations for mentoring. Many felt it was their "duty" or "responsibility" to "share knowledge and experiences with others," while others felt "taken advantage of" by the organization that does not acknowledge or compensate mentors for their efforts. Even those who expressed negative feelings towards the organization stated that they would likely mentor again. Organizations may buffer mentors from these negative feelings by creating a means to acknowledge mentors for their efforts, such as a certificate of recognition or award. Of protégés, 88% stated that they would mentor others in the future. For

organizations looking to support and encourage mentoring behaviors, establishing some support systems could pay dividends into the future.

- **Gender and race matching may have negative effects on mentoring success.** Female mentors with female protégés reported lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction than other mentors. Likewise, nonwhite protégés with nonwhite mentors reported lower organizational commitment. These findings add to the literature that finds mixed support for the effects of same gender and same race dyads on mentoring outcomes (Dreher & Cox, 1996).

5.7 Preview of Chapter 6

This chapter examined outcomes associated with informal mentoring relationships. Chapter 6 will examine formal mentoring relationships through two programs established to provide leadership training and development within their organizations. The two programs differ in many ways from the informal mentoring relationships discussed in chapter 4 and 5. Chapter 6 will discuss the stated goals of each program, examine what behaviors mentors and protégés think are important for mentoring success, what outcomes are associated with the mentoring programs, and how these formal relationships differ from informal mentoring relationships.

CHAPTER 6: REVIEW OF FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters examined informal mentoring relationships and their associated outcomes. This chapter will examine mentoring relationships in two formal mentoring programs. Formal mentoring relationships differ from informal in two important ways. First, formal relationships are usually different in initiation because the mentor and protégé are assigned to each other by the organization. Second formal relationships are different in structure because the organization creates formal mentoring events or processes to ensure the mentoring relationship supports specific organizational goals (e.g. diversity initiatives, leadership development, succession planning, etc.). This study examines two formal mentoring programs in two large southeastern cities that will be called North City and South City. The program in North City is formal in initiation only, while South City is formal in both initiation and structure.

Like chapter 4, this chapter will examine the factors associated with these formal mentoring relationships, including the antecedents to the mentoring relationship, the career and psychosocial behaviors associated with mentoring, and the expected outcomes associated with positive mentoring relationships.

The two formal mentoring programs examined in this study have different purposes and very different processes that may influence their ultimate outcomes. For that reason, it is important to discuss each of the programs separately. This chapter will first examine a program in North City, which was implemented as part of formal succession planning efforts. North City matched mentors and protégés, but left much of the mentoring supports at the

discretion of the mentoring pair. Because of the level of autonomy provided to participants in North City they are similar to those in informal relationships, and allows us to examine the difference that the forced assignment makes on the mentoring supports provided.

Next, the chapter will address a second formal program in South City designed to provide leadership training and development to prepare middle-level managers for advancement. The program in South City was formal in both initiation and structure. The primary focus of the South City program discussion will to analyze ways in which formal programs can be structured for success. This chapter will address the following:

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Description of North City Formal Mentoring Program

6.3 Descriptive Statistics North City Formal Mentoring Participants

6.4 What Behaviors Do North City Mentors and Protégés Believe Are Important for Formal Mentoring Success?

6.5 Do Formal and Informal Mentoring Participants Differ in the Assessment of What Behaviors are Important for Mentoring Success?

6.6 How Satisfied Are Participants in North City?

6.7 South City Formal Mentoring Program

6.8 Descriptive Statistics for South City Formal Mentoring Program

6.9 Outcomes of the South City Mentoring Program

6.10 Program Events for South City Mentoring Program

6.11 Implications for Practice of Formal Mentoring Programs

6.12- 6.13 Review of Chapter 6 and Preview of Chapter 7

6.2 Description of North City Formal Mentoring Program

The formal mentoring program in North City was created as part of the succession planning process. Anticipating the high number of retirements in the coming years, the city manager and human resource director decided that a mentoring program was needed to help ensure that there were employees in all departments prepared with the knowledge and skills to assume leadership position across all levels of the organization. Participants in the program were selected through an application process. Mentors and protégés had a two-hour workshop that introduced the main objectives of the mentoring program and provided some informal guidance around how frequently mentors and protégés should be communicating and what they should be discussing. Protégés were purposely matched with mentors outside of their functional area in an attempt to focus on developing managerial competencies and not technical skills.

Data was collected for the North City formal program at the same time as informal mentoring responses. North City formal participants were asked the same questions in the same way as those in informal mentoring relationships, so the wording of survey items should not bias responses. This program was in the first year of operation at the time of this study. Participants were asked to rate the importance and perceived quality of the mentoring supports received so far through the mentoring program. Respondents were asked about the outcomes of their mentoring relationship, but because this program was in the beginning stage (approximately five months into the mentoring program) we cannot draw conclusions about the program's overall effectiveness from this data.

6.3 Descriptive Statistics for North City Formal Mentoring Program

Table 6.1 presents the demographic characteristics for all respondents.

Table 6.1 Demographic Characteristics for Formal Mentoring Respondents

Demographic Characteristic		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	Mentor	43	.37	-	-	-
	Protégé	42	.42	-	-	-
Nonwhite	Mentor	42	.38	-	-	-
	Protégé	41	.34	-	-	-
Age	Mentor	42	50.00	8.03	34	67
	Protégé	38	42.26	9.73	27	63
Education (Masters+)	Mentor	24	.56	-	-	-
	Protégé	14	.33	-	-	-
Married	Mentor	43	.86	-	-	-
	Protégé	40	.70	-	-	-
Children Under 18	Mentor	43	.44	-	-	-
	Protégé	40	.45	-	-	-
Organizational Tenure	Mentor	43	15.86	8.08	2	31
	Protégé	41	10.15	7.31	2	26
Supervisory Role	Mentor	42	.95	-	-	-
	Protégé	42	.36	-	-	-

Formal mentors were similar to informal mentors in many ways. Formal and informal mentors were roughly the same in terms of gender, age, organizational tenure, and marital status. The formal program in North City had a larger percentage of nonwhite mentors (38%) than the mentors in informal relationships (28%). They were also more likely to report they held a masters degree, and more likely to occupy a supervisory role.

Protégés in the formal program in North City differed from their informal counterparts more than the mentors did. Formal protégés were more likely to be male, to be nonwhite, and hold a masters degree. Formal protégés also had a longer organizational tenure on average, and were more likely to report they currently held a supervisory position.

6.3.1 Descriptive Statistics for Work Attitudes

This study asked respondents to think about their current position and organization and respond to a question designed to measure public service motivation (MSPB5), affective organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), job involvement (Lodahl & Kenjer, 1964), and job satisfaction. All items were measured on a 7-point scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Table 6.2 present the means for items measuring work attitudes for mentors and protégés.

Table 6.2 Work Attitude Item Means for Succession Planning Formal Program Participants

PSM Items		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Public Service Motivation (5 items)	Mentors	43	5.75	.74	3.4	6.8
	Protégés	45	6.07	.60	4.6	7
Affective Organizational Commitment (6 items)	Mentors	44	5.74	.82	3.5	7
	Protégés	43	5.62	1.00	2	7
Job Involvement (6 items)	Mentors	45	4.53	.51	3.67	7
	Protégés	43	4.21	.53	2.83	5
Job Satisfaction (1 item)	Mentors	44	6	.78	3	7
	Protégés	43	5.49	1.14	2	7

As the table indicates, mentors and protégés in the North City formal program report mostly similar levels of work attitudes as those in informal relationships.

6.4 What Behaviors Are Important for Formal Mentoring Success?

Like those in informal mentoring relationship, those in the North City formal mentoring program were asked what mentoring supports they believed were most important for a successful mentoring relationship. As previously discussed, it is often helpful to divide mentoring supports into career development and psychosocial support. Table 6.3 presents the means for mentors and protégés in rating the importance of career supports.

Table 6.3 Importance of Career Supports for Formal Mentoring Relationships

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success	**Mentors**	43	6.0	.85	3	7
	Protégés	43	6.23	.84	3	7
Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"	**Mentors**	43	5.70	1.01	2	7
	Protégés	43	5.98	1.10	1	7
Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills	**Mentors**	43	5.23	1.44	1	7
	Protégés	43	5.0	1.89	1	7
Provide opportunities to learn new management skills	**Mentors**	43	6.05	.82	3	7
	Protégés	43	6.23	.87	4	7
Provide feedback regarding performance	**Mentors**	43	5.27	1.72	1	7
	Protégés	43	5.12	1.81	1	7
Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization	**Mentors**	42	4.93	1.61	1	7
	Protégés	43	5.09	1.88	1	7
Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network	**Mentors**	42	5.57	1.38	1	7
	Protégés	43	5.27	1.54	1	7
Share experiences of moving up in the organization	**Mentors**	42	5.69	1.18	1	7
	Protégés	43	6.05	1.02	3	7
Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules	**Mentors**	42	5.5	1.47	1	7
	Protégés	43	5.81	1.22	1	7
Mean of Career Support Items	**Mentors**	42	5.55	.82	3.11	6.89
	Protégés	43	5.64	.72	4.22	6.78

Formal mentors and protégés differed in their rated level of importance for specific career mentoring supports, but none of those differences were statistically significant. Mentors and protégés rated "provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success" and "provide opportunities to learn new management stills" the highest overall, with means higher than six. Additionally, protégés rated "share experiences moving up in the organization" higher (M = 6.05) than six, and higher than mentors. These finding show that mentors and protégés mostly agree on the importance of career mentoring supports, and which supports they view as most important. This may be due to the training workshop that

mentors and protégés attended that described the goals and purposes of the mentoring program and laid out specific expectations for both parties.

North City mentors and protégés were also asked to rate the importance of specific psychosocial mentoring supports in a successful mentoring relationship. Overall, mentors believed the psychosocial supports (M = 5.05, $S.D.$ = .87), taken as an average of the of the five psychosocial support items were more important than did protégés (M = 4.46, $S.D.$ = 1.03), t (83) = 2.88, p = .005. The means for each psychosocial item are found in table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Perceived Importance of Psychosocial Supports for Formal Mentoring Relationships

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Socialize outside of working hours	**Mentors**	43	2.74	1.73	1	6
	Protégés	43	2.60	1.66	1	5
Act as a sounding board for frustrations	**Mentors**	43	5.95	.87	3	7
	Protégés	43	4.58	1.69	1	7
Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame	**Mentors**	42	4.05	2.08	1	7
	Protégés	43	3.21	2.0	1	7
Provide support and encouragement	**Mentors**	42	6.40	.63	5	7
	Protégés	43	5.93	1.05	4	7
Act as a role model	**Mentors**	42	6.10	.93	3	7
	Protégés	43	5.98	1.06	3	7
Mean of psychosocial support items	**Mentors**	42	5.06	.87	3	6.2
	Protégés	43	4.46	1.03	2.8	6.4

Mentors rated all five psychosocial supports higher than protégés. The largest difference between mentors and protégés was "act as a sounding board for frustrations," which mentors (M = 5.95, $S.D.$ = .87) ranked significantly more important than protégés (M = 4.58, $S.D.$ = 1.69), t (84) = 4.72, p =.000. Mentors rated two other supports higher than protégés: "protect mentee from unnecessary blame" and "provide support and encouragement." As with the informal mentoring relationships, mentors in North City believe that the psychosocial supports they provide are more important than do protégés.

Some of the difference may be because protégés are not aware of the efforts of their mentors in providing psychosocial support, as it may not be perceived as an explicit part of the formal mentoring relationship.

FORMAL AND INFORMAL RELATIONSHIPS COMPARED

6.5 How do Formal and Informal Participants Differ in their Assessment of the Importance of Mentoring Behaviors?

Formal and informal mentoring relationships differ in important ways. Often formal mentoring programs are set up for specific purposes, such as leadership development, and therefore participants may have very different expectations and experiences than participants in mentoring relationships that happen organically.

Although previous research has examined the differences between formal and informal mentoring relationships, few studies investigate whether there are differences in what behaviors mentors and protégés believe are important for successful mentoring relationships. This section seeks to determine if there are difference in the perceived importance of mentoring supports, and if so, where those differences exist.

6.5.1 Do Formal and Informal Mentors Differ in their Assessment of the Importance Mentoring Supports?

Mentors in the formal program were given specific direction on the purpose of the mentoring program. This program focused on developing employees at all levels of city government, including low-level front-line managers, to take over leadership roles in the coming years as part of the city's formal succession plan. As such, the focus was on building management skills. Table 6.5 shows the perceived importance of career supports for formal mentors in North City and informal mentors.

Table 6.5 Importance of Career Supports for Formal and Informal Mentors

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success	**Formal**	43	6.0	.85	3	7
	Informal	170	5.86	1.21	1	7
Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"	**Formal**	43	5.70	1.01	2	7
	Informal	168	5.31	1.53	3	7
Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills	**Formal**	43	5.23***	1.44	1	7
	Informal	168	6.21***	.83	3	7
Provide opportunities to learn new management skills	**Formal**	43	6.05**	.82	3	7
	Informal	168	5.55**	1.45	3	7
Provide feedback regarding performance	**Formal**	43	5.27***	1.72	1	7
	Informal	168	6.19***	1.04	1	7
Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization	**Formal**	42	4.93***	1.61	1	7
	Informal	165	5.86***	1.17	1	7
Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network	**Formal**	42	5.57	1.38	1	7
	Informal	165	5.28	1.50	1	7
Share experiences of moving up in the organization	**Formal**	42	5.69	1.18	1	7
	Informal	165	5.27	1.46	1	7
Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules	**Formal**	42	5.5	1.47	1	7
	Informal	165	5.45	1.55	1	7
Mean of Career Support Items	**Formal**	42	5.55	.82	3.11	6.89
	Informal	165	5.73	.60	3.33	7

Formal and informal mentors differ in their rated importance of career supports. Most of this is likely due to the way mentors and protégés were matched in the formal program, notably that they were purposefully matched with individuals in other technical areas. Informal mentors rated three areas significantly higher than formal mentors. Informal mentors thought "providing opportunities to learn new technical skills" and "provide feedback regarding performance" were significantly more important than formal mentors Due to the matching scheme, it seems less likely that formal mentors could provide feedback on performance or opportunities to learn new technical skills because they are in separate functional areas and do not share the same base of technical knowledge and skills.

Informal mentors thought "bring accomplishments to the attention of those higher up in the organization" (M = 5.86, $S.D.$ = 1.17) was more important than formal mentors (M = 4.93, $S.D.$ = 1.61), F (1, 205) = 34.15, p <.000. Because the North City formal mentoring program is supported by top management (i.e. city manager), the selection of protégés to participate in the program is a recognition the accomplishments or future potential of protégés.

Only "provide opportunities to learn new management skills was rated higher in importance by formal mentors (M = 6.05, $S.D.$ = .81) than by informal mentors (M = 5.55, $S.D.$ = 1.45), and this difference was statistically significant, F (1, 209) = 4.58, p = .03. These findings are in line with what we would expect, because the main goal of the formal program was to increase management skills.

Formal and informal mentors were also asked to rate the importance of psychosocial support. Informal relationships often develop over time and usually out of mutual admiration or liking between the mentor and protégé. As such, we expect that those in informal mentoring relationships will report higher levels importance for psychosocial support than formal mentors. Table 6.6 provides the means of the importance of psychosocial support for formal and informal mentors.

Table 6.6 Perceived Importance of Psychosocial Supports for Formal and Informal Mentors

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Socialize outside of working hours	**Formal**	43	2.74	1.73	1	6
	Informal	168	2.79	1.69	1	7
Act as a sounding board for frustrations	**Formal**	43	5.95*	.87	3	7
	Informal	168	5.51*	1.54	1	7
Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame	**Formal**	42	4.05***	2.08	1	7
	Informal	164	5.26***	1.60	1	7
Provide support and encouragement	**Formal**	42	6.40	.63	5	7
	Informal	165	6.42	.77	1	7
Act as a role model	**Formal**	42	6.10*	.93	3	7
	Informal	165	6.38*	.83	3	7
Mean of psychosocial support items	**Formal**	42	5.06	.87	3	6.2
	Informal	164	5.28	.60	2.8	7

Formal mentors believed that acting as a sounding board for frustrations (M = 5.95, $S.D.$ = .87) was more important than did informal mentors (M = 5.51, $S.D.$ = 1.54), and that difference was statistically significant, F (1, 205) = 3.59, p = .06. This is an interesting finding considering that mentors and protégés in the formal program were mostly from different functional areas and it is unlikely that they would share job specific frustrations. It is much more likely that those in informal relationship would have more in common, as 74.5% reported they were in the same functional area as their protégé, and nearly half reported they were a direct supervisor. Under these circumstances, informal mentors may be less open to listening to the frustrations of their subordinates.

Informal mentors reported that "protecting the protégé from unnecessary criticism and blame" (M = 5.26, $S.D.$ = 1.60) was more important than formal mentors (M = 4.05, $S.D.$ = 2.08), and this difference was statistically significant, F (1, 204) = 16.84, p = .000. Again, this may be due to the high percentage of informal mentoring relationships that consist of

supervisor-subordinate, as supervisor have better knowledge about the performance of their protégés.

There are several statistically significant differences between formal and informal mentors on their assessment, and most of them spring from two differences: the program has a clear management (and not psychosocial) support focus, and the formal program has far fewer relationships that are supervisor-subordinate.

6.5.2 Do Formal and Informal Protégés Differ in their Assessment of the Importance Mentoring Supports?

As previously discussed, formal and informal mentoring relationships can differ greatly in terms of their focus and therefore in their definition of success. The formal program had one overarching goal for protégés: improve management skills. For that reason we expect that protégés in the formal program to rate some mentoring supports as more important than do informal protégés. Table 6.7 presents the means for formal and informal protégés in perceived importance of career mentoring supports.

As seen with mentors, formal and informal protégés mostly agree about the importance of career supports, though there are some differences. Some of these differences may be explained by the nature of the formal program, which focuses on leadership development preparing protégé to take on greater management roles. Informal protégés believed that providing opportunities to learn new technical skills, F (1, 139) = 16.35, p = .000, and providing feedback on performance, F (1, 139) = 23.86, p < .000, were more important than formal protégés. Formal protégés believed that sharing experiences of moving

up in the organization was more important than those in informal relationships, F (1, 139) = 6.13, p = .01.

Table 6.7 Importance of Career Supports for Formal and Informal Protégés

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Provide advice or strategies for achieving long term success	**Formal**	43	6.23	.84	3	7
	Informal	98	6.15	.99	1	7
Discuss the politics of the organization or "how we do things around here"	**Formal**	43	5.98	1.10	1	7
	Informal	98	5.78	.96	2	7
Provide opportunities to learn new technical skills	**Formal**	43	5.0***	1.89	1	7
	Informal	98	6.05***	1.16	2	7
Provide opportunities to learn new management skills	**Formal**	43	6.23	.87	4	7
	Informal	98	5.98	.93	3	7
Provide feedback regarding performance	**Formal**	43	5.12***	1.81	1	7
	Informal	98	6.28***	.99	1	7
Bring accomplishments to those higher up in the organization	**Formal**	43	5.09	1.88	1	7
	Informal	98	5.20	1.41	1	7
Introduce protégé to influential people in the mentors network	**Formal**	43	5.27	1.54	1	7
	Informal	98	4.86	1.56	1	7
Share experiences of moving up in the organization	**Formal**	43	6.05***	1.02	3	7
	Informal	98	5.50***	1.28	1	7
Provide information about how to manage "red tape" or burdensome procedural or administrative rules	**Formal**	43	5.81	1.22	1	7
	Informal	98	5.78	1.10	1	7
Mean of Career Support Items	**Formal**	43	5.64	.72	4.22	6.78
	Informal	98	5.72	.58	4.22	6.89

As seen with mentors, we would expect that protégés in informal relationships will report that psychosocial support is more important than protégés in the formal program, and that proves to be true, as shown in table 6.8.

Table 6.8 Perceived Importance of Psychosocial Supports for Formal and Informal Protégés

		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Socialize outside of working hours	**Formal**	43	2.60	1.66	1	5
	Informal	98	2.87	1.80	1	7
Act as a sounding board for frustrations	**Formal**	43	4.58**	1.69	1	7
	Informal	98	5.18**	1.60	1	7
Protect protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame	**Formal**	43	3.21***	2.0	1	7
	Informal	98	4.92***	1.57	1	7
Provide support and encouragement	**Formal**	43	5.93**	1.05	4	7
	Informal	98	6.31**	.86	1	7
Act as a role model	**Formal**	43	5.98	1.06	3	7
	Informal	98	5.88	1.06	1	7
Mean of psychosocial support items	**Formal**	43	4.46	1.03	2.8	6.4
	Informal	98	5.03	.83	2.4	7

Protégés in informal mentoring relationships believed the psychosocial supports were more important than protégés in the formal program. First, informal protégés (M = 5.18, $S.D.$ = 1.60) rated acting as a sounding board for frustrations higher than those in the formal program (M = 4.58, $S.D.$ = 1.69), F (1, 139) = 4.06, p = .05. Interestingly for mentors, those in the formal program believed that "acting as a sounding board for frustrations" was more important than informal mentors. Likewise, informal protégés thought that protection from criticism and blame (M = 4.92, $S.D.$ = 1.57) was more important than those in the formal program (M = 3.21, $S.D.$ = 2.0), F (1, 139) = 30.12, p < .000. Additionally, informal protégés rated providing support and encouragement (M = 6.31, $S.D.$ = .86) higher than those in the formal program (M = 5.93, $S.D.$ = 1.05), F (1, 139) = 5.25, p = .02.

Due to the nature of informal mentoring relationships, informal protégés likely feel a greater attachment and admiration for their mentors than those in the formal program. As such, they would likely seek greater support and encouragement from their mentor than those in the formal program, who may seek support and encouragement from someone closer to

them at work. This means that protégés in the formal program are disadvantaged in terms of receiving psychosocial support from their mentor in the formal program.

6.6 How Satisfied Are the Participants in North City?

While the program was quite new at the time of this data collection, both mentors and protégés were asked how satisfied they were with their current mentoring relationship. While we cannot draw definitive conclusions about satisfaction or the effectiveness of the program, this question provides some interesting insights. Despite the short tenure of the relationship, mentors (M = 6, $S.D.$ = .78) and protégés (M = 5.49, $S.D.$ = 1.14) were mostly satisfied with the relationship so far. Overall, the average reported satisfaction for formal mentors and protégés is similar to informal mentors (M = 6.07, $S.D.$ = .94) and informal protégés (M = 5.95, $S.D.$ = 1.21) and not statistically different. Although, as discussed, it is possible that formal participants had a narrower sense of the program's mission and therefore a lower standard of success, nonetheless, the positive evaluations suggest that formal programs may be an effective way for organizations to initiate and promote mentoring relationships at work.

Open-ended comments revealed some challenges for program participants. First, the program matched mentors and protégés with people outside of their functional area, which caused some frustrations. One mentor revealed, "It's been challenging and pretty near awful. I do not know enough people to help my protégé network. Our protégés were chosen for us outside our technical fields, so we can't share any technical skills that we have worked decades to develop, and we don't know the same people." Another mentor shared that he/she felt they "did not have as much to offer someone from a completely different line of work." While the goal of matching mentors and protégés from different functional areas what to

expose participants to other departments in the city and focus the mentoring on managerial development, some still did understand how to manage these differences in technical skills.

The program in North City was designed to be less tightly structured, to allow mentors and protégés more freedom to determine the content and design of their relationship; however, some thought the program was unclear in overall expectations. One mentor said he/she would "like to have better guidance on specific skill development expectations I should be looking to develop" or greater understanding about what sorts of discussions should occur. While the less structured program style allowed participants greater ownership, it may be beneficial to provide more guidance.

FORMAL MENTORING IN SOUTH CITY

6.7 South City Formal Mentoring Program

The second formal mentoring program examined in this chapter was a formal program in a large southeastern city designed to provide leadership training and development. Unlike the program in North City, the program in South City is formal in both initiation and structure (i.e., specified purposes). The remainder of this chapter will examine the mentoring program in South City as a case study, highlighting a more formalized process.

At the time of the survey, the program had been in operation for six years and facilitated mentoring between those in upper management (executive-level positions) and those in lower management positions. Each year a new cohort of mentors and protégés were chosen, matched, and provided multiple formal opportunities to meet and interact. Mentors received a short training session about mentoring and the expectations for mentors, as well as overview of what the organization would like these mentoring relationships to provide to

protégés. Outside of the opportunities provided by the program administrator for formal interactions with their protégés, mentors were left to determine the frequency and content of meetings.

The sample includes five cohorts over a time period of six years (the program did not operate in one year), with each cohort consisting of approximately 20 pairs of mentors and protégés, for a total of 109 mentoring relationships. Many mentors participated in the program in multiple years; however, they were only asked to report on their most recent mentoring experience. Other participants may have left the organization, including the city manager credited with creating the program, reducing the overall sample size.

The program was competitive and those seeking a mentor must formally apply. The number of available spots depends on the number of executive-level employees who volunteered to act as a mentor in that year. In their application, protégés must assess their own strengths and weaknesses, describe their development needs, articulate future career goals, and explain how participation in the program will benefit their career development. If selected, program administrators match them with mentors based on protégés' stated needs and goals.

Participants for this study were recruited via email (using email addresses obtained from the mentoring program administrator) and asked to participate in a short survey. Invitations were sent to 105 protégés (65% response rate) and 28 mentors (68% response rate) in August of 2014. Since many mentors participated in multiple years, the number of total mentors (19) is much smaller than the number of total protégés (60).

The data collection for this study occurred one year prior to data collection for those in informal mentoring relationships and those in the formal program in North City. The data from South City informed the data collection for the other research questions in this dissertation but not all the South City data are directly comparable with the data from the North City program or informal mentoring data. More positively, the in-depth data from South City allows for a deeper analysis into a program that is formalized in both initiation and structure.

6.8 Descriptive Statistics for South City Mentoring Program

The South City formal mentoring program was specifically designed to target those who were identified as having the potential to move into top leadership positions in the coming years. Unlike the North City program, this mentoring program only targeted those in the middle or upper-management positions. Table 6.9 provides the demographic characteristics of the participants in the program.

The participants in this program are very similar to those in informal mentoring relationships. The only real differences between the two groups are the education level of mentors and protégés. 78% of the mentors in the formal program hold a masters degree or higher, as compared with 29.6% of informal mentors. Of protégés, 53% of protégés in the formal program hold a masters degree of higher as compared to 23% of informal protégés. This would be expected because those in the formal program occupy the highest levels of management (or have the potential to hold upper management positions), and thus they are more likely to hold a professional degree.

Table 6.9 Demographic Characteristics for Leadership Development Formal Mentoring Respondents

Demographic Characteristic		N	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Female	Mentor	7	.39	-	-	-
	Protégé	30	.47	-	-	-
Nonwhite	Mentor	5	.28	-	-	-
	Protégé	20	.32	-	-	-
Age	Mentor	16	52.0	8.27	40	63
	Protégé	55	45.38	6.51	32	62
Education (Masters+)	Mentor	15	.78	-	-	-
	Protégé	33	.53	-	-	-
Married	Mentor	15	.79	-	-	-
	Protégé	52	.83	-	-	-
Children Under 18	Mentor	7	.37	-	-	-
	Protégé	37	.59	-	-	-
Supervisory Role	Mentor	18	.95	-	-	-
	Protégé	NA		-	-	-

6.9 Outcomes of the South City Mentoring Program

Protégés were asked about the perceived outcomes associated with their participation in the mentoring program. These outcomes included satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, commitment to the organization, and increased confidence that they would achieve their career goals.

Satisfaction with the Mentoring

Both mentors and protégés were asked about their satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. Responses range from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). Descriptive statistics are presented in tables 6.10 and 6.11. Overall, the majority of mentors (75.0%) and protégés (74.5%) were either somewhat satisfied or very satisfied with their overall mentoring relationship, but their reported satisfaction is lower than those in informal relationships. 92% of informal mentors and 90% of informal protégés rated their satisfaction with their mentoring relationship as somewhat to very satisfied.

Table 6.10 Protégé Satisfaction with the Mentoring Relationship

		Frequency	Percent
Protégé Satisfaction with the Mentoring Relationship	**Very Dissatisfied**	1	1.47
	Somewhat Dissatisfied	8	11.76
	An Equal Mix	7	10.29
	Somewhat Satisfied	14	20.59
	Very Satisfied	38	55.88
	Total	68	100

Table 6.11 Mentor Satisfaction with the Mentoring Relationship

		Frequency	Percent
Mentor Satisfaction with the Mentoring Relationship	**Very Dissatisfied**	0	0
	Somewhat Dissatisfied	2	10.0
	An Equal Mix	3	15.0
	Somewhat Satisfied	6	30.0
	Very Satisfied	9	45.0
	Total	20	100

Increased Organizational Commitment

South City protégés were asked to reflect on how their mentoring relationship affected their commitment to their organization. The results were roughly comparable to the responses of protégés in informal mentoring relationships. As can be seen in table 6.12, 69.1% of South City protégés felt that the mentoring program increased their commitment to the organization as compared to 76.2% of informally mentored protégés.

Table 6.12 Protégé Organizational Commitment

		Frequency	Percent
Protégé Organizational Commitment	**Disagree**	3	4.41
	Somewhat Disagree	3	4.41
	Neither	15	22.06
	Somewhat Agree	16	25.53
	Agree	31	45.59
	Total	68	100

Belief in Achieving Career Goals

Protégés were asked their level of agreement with the following statement: "Because of my participation in the mentoring program I feel confident I will achieve my career goals." Responses ranged from disagree (1) to agree (5). Overall far fewer, 73.5% of protégés, felt that their participation in the mentoring program increased their confidence in achieving their career goals, compared to 92% of informal protégés.

Table 6.12 Protégé Achieve Career Goals

		Frequency	Percent
Achieve Career Goals	**Disagree**	2	2.94
	Somewhat Disagree	4	5.88
	Neither	12	17.65
	Somewhat Agree	14	20.59
	Agree	36	52.94
	Total	68	100

6.9.1 How Do Outcomes of the North City Formal Program Compare to Informal Outcomes?

Protégés in informal mentoring relationships reported greater satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, increased organizational commitment, and greater belief in achieving career goals as compared to their counterparts in the formal program in South City. These findings are in line with previous research that shows informal relationships produce better outcomes than formal programs (Chao et al., 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). The results from North City were likely more in line with informal relationships due to the less structured approach in processes. In order to better understand these differences in outcomes for those in South City, we must examine the structure and implementation of the mentoring program.

6.10 Program Events for South City Formal Mentoring Program

Unlike the program in North City, the South City mentoring program provides a more formal relationship structure and sponsors various formal programs and events designed to support protégé professional development. These events are opportunities for mentors and protégé to engage with others in the program and include a mentor/protégé meet and greet, a "fireside chat" with the City Manager, small group engagement opportunities, a leadership panel, speed learning, and the transition celebration. Both mentors and protégés were first asked whether or not they attended the event and if so, how effective was it in supporting professional development. Response categories included "ineffective, remove from program," "somewhat ineffective, needs major improvement," "Somewhat effective, needs some improvement," "effective," and "very effective."

6.10.1 Mentor/Protégé Meet and Greet

The mentor/protégé meet and greet was the kickoff event for the leadership program. All mentors and protégé were invited to attend and it provided the first opportunity for mentors and protégés to interact with one another. Overall, mentors (88%) and protégés (85%) rated the event as effective or very effective. Despite the positive overall ratings, the open-ended comments provided some areas for improvement.

- **Mentees felt they needed substantially more orientation to the program**. While many mentors have participated multiple times, protégés indicated they did not have enough information about their roles.

- **Transparency in pairing mentors and mentees**. Both mentors and protégés reflected that some of the pairings were not ideal, as they felt they were paired with someone too alike or different from themselves. They indicated that mentors and protégés should play more of a role in the matching process and not be simply assigned.

Both mentors and felt that they would like to have greater participation in the matching process and have time to meet one-on-one prior to the official kickoff. Unlike informal relationships, the administrator of the mentoring program matched formal participants without specific consideration to the personalities of mentors and protégés. Instead of developing over time through face-to-face interaction, mentors and protégés needed to immediately attempt to connect with their mentoring partner and quickly develop trust and confidence in one another. They also needed to determine their specific goals and expectation for how frequently they would meet outside of the formal events, what specific areas they would like to focus on for development, and how they would interact (e.g. email, face-to-face, etc.).

6.10.2 "Fireside Chat" with the City Manager

The "fireside chat with the city manager is a small group discussion with the protégés participating in the program. Many participants noted that access to top management provided an excellent learning and networking opportunity. As one protégé said, "As much as my one-on-one mentor relationship might have lacked, I really appreciate the city manager fireside chat. [This] made the program worthwhile for me because they provided more information and numerous perspectives on such a variety of topics that were simmering in our organization that I would not have access to otherwise." This access to top leadership is certainly beneficial those hoping to climb the career ladder in their organization.

Said another protege, "If it had not been for the leadership program a lot of participants would not have had the opportunity to meet and chat with the city manager or other top

leaders in other city divisions. I would like to see the program continue." 90% of protégés rated it as effective or very effective in their professional development.

6.10.3 Other Leadership Mentoring Program Events

There were several other formal events that received high (roughly 80% or better) ratings from both mentors and protégés.

- A leadership panel that consisted of top-level managers within the city, providing the opportunity for protégés to see "behind the scenes" of city business.
- Small group engagement opportunities for mentors and protégés to interact with people other than their assigned partner. This provided protégés with the perspective of numerous mentors related to their own professional development.
- Several opportunities for "speed learning." Much like speed dating, mentors and protégés would spend a few minutes together discussing leadership or other topics of conversation before moving on to the next partner.

6.10.4 Effectiveness of the South City Mentoring Program

Both mentors and protégés were asked about the perceived overall effectiveness of the mentoring program. 78% of protégés and 74% of mentors believe the program is effective or very effective in enhancing protégé professional development. Despite somewhat lower overall effectiveness ratings than found with informal mentoring relationships, 92% of formal protégés and 84% of mentors indicated they were likely or very likely to recommend the South City mentoring program to others.

6.11 Implications for Practice of Formal Mentoring Programs

The case study of the South City mentoring program provides some suggestions for organizations that support formal mentoring programs.

Open-ended responses from participants reveal some areas for consideration for those interested in instituting formal mentoring programs:

1. **Create Greater Transparency in the Matching Process.**

   Many expressed frustration at the matching process, specifically the lack of input mentors and protégés had in the process. Multiple respondents, both mentors and protégés, reported that their match was not ideal. Mentoring relationships often form organically out of a mutual respect or admiration. A formal mentoring program must rely on creating these relationships from scratch. One mentee offered an area for improvement, "Take into consideration the requests of the protégés related to the type of mentor they would like to have. This was not taken into account at all in my experience and I really had a very stressful experience." A female protégé wanted a female mentor specifically to help navigate issues related to a work/life balance, "I am a female considering starting a family but also want to move up in my career and specifically requested a female mentor. I may see about going through the program again so that I can have a female mentor to help me navigate work/life balance with family."

2. **Provide Greater Clarify Around Goals and Expectations**

   Programs should also offer training and guidance to mentors and protégés about the goals and expectations of the mentoring relationship. Some suggested additional

support for first-time mentors as well as greater clarity around what both parties should expect from the mentorship. One protégé said, "I feel that mentors should have more guidance as to the expectations of being a mentor and specific goals to cover with their protégé." Another said, "I would have preferred a mentor that was more focused and did more to set up specific goals and then work toward achieving those goals. The sessions were more informal and there wasn't a focus on being organized or deliberate and working toward performance improvement." One mentor felt that some protégés may have an unrealistic expectation of what they will receive for their participation, "I found it interesting that many protégés said they wanted to participate to help them advance in their career. Is that really the goal of the program? I believe it is to help one another (both parties) develop, not necessary to get a promotion." Managers of formal mentoring program should provide guidance to mentors and protégés about how to work collaboratively to determine clear goals and expectations as this likely reduces frustrations and increases satisfaction with the mentoring relationship by both parties. This step may be especially important for programs such as this one where mentors and protégés had no say in the matching process.

3. Provide Opportunities to Engage Mentors and Protégés Beyond the Formal Program

Formal mentoring programs are also designed to last for a predetermined period of time; however, managers of formal mentoring programs can encourage the continuation of the relationship by providing additional opportunities for formal

interactions between mentors and protégés. Some indicated that they felt participation in the program was very beneficial but other opportunities were limited. One protégé suggested engaging protégés in "organizational opportunities that will continue to build upon the experience of the program" and another suggested adding in an annual follow up to "track the career path and opportunities gained for the protégés who graduated from the program."

4. Realize Mentoring Programs Provide Cascading Benefits

One finding of this study highlights the snowball effect of mentoring. While instituting formal programs requires time and resources, the benefits of the program extend beyond formal participants. Of protégés who participated in the South City program, 63% reported acting as a mentor to someone else in their organization following their participation in the program. This suggests that organizations that institute formal mentoring programs may reap organizational benefits beyond just the individuals who participate in the formal program as studies have shown that those who have had a mentor are more likely to become mentors themselves.

6.12 Summary of Chapter 6

This chapter examined two formal mentoring programs. These programs differed in structure and implementation. Participants in North City were formally matched, but they were given much more freedom to define the structure and content of their mentoring relationship. Surprisingly, participants in the North City program believed career supports mentors provide to protégés were of similar importance to those in informal relationships.; however, unlike those in formal relationships formal protégés reported lower importance of

psychosocial support. This may be due to the structure of the North City program or the nature of "forced" relationships. While this program was in the early stages of implementation, initial findings suggest that participants report similar levels of satisfaction as those in informal relationships.

The South City program was formally structured in both matching and in program structure. It provided a number of formal opportunities for mentors and protégés to interact. This more formalized program did not produce the same level of positive outcomes for protégés. Informal protégés reported greater levels of satisfaction with their mentoring relationship, increased commitment to their organization, and greater belief they would achieve their career goals.

Those considering formal programs should first consider the overall goals of the program and what the organization hopes to accomplish. Next organizations must contemplate how a formal matching scheme or more formalized relationship structure will impact the overall outcomes of the program.

6.13 Preview of Chapter 7

Chapter 7 discusses the overall findings of this dissertation and implications for public sector mentoring theory and practice, as well as limitations and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Introduction

Mentoring relationships are developmental relationships that involve the transmission of organizational and technical knowledge from the person deemed the most knowledgeable (the mentor) to the person with less knowledge (the protégé) over a sustained period of time (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). These relationships can result from informal interactions or be part of a program formally recognized and supported by the organization.

This dissertation has examined the antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes associated with mentoring relationships at work, including:

- What respondent characteristics, work attitudes, and mentoring motivations are associated with choosing to become a mentor or protégé at work;
- What career and psychosocial supports mentors and protégés think are most important for successful mentoring relationship and how those supports lead to better or worse outcomes (e.g. receiving recognition from the organization, increased organizational commitment, reduced turnover intentions, etc.); and
- Whether there are any differences between formal and informal mentoring participants.

As will be discussed in more detail later, this research contributes to the theory of mentoring because it provides one of the relatively few studies of public sector mentorship, because it focuses on mentors as well as protégés, and because it examines motivation, including public sector motivation. It also suggests useful insights for both formal and informal mentoring practice in the public sector.

This chapter provides the overall summary of the study's results, considers the limitations of the dissertation, and outlines possible avenues for future research. The chapter is organized as follows:

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Overview of Research Questions and Key Findings

7.3 Implications for Mentoring Theory and Practice

7.4 Limitations of this Dissertation

7.5 Directions for Future Research

7.2 Overview of Research Questions and Key Findings

This dissertation examined the antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes associated with mentoring relationships through seven research questions.

7.3.1 What Factors Predict Who Becomes a Mentor?

This research examined the effects of job involvement, public sector motivation (PSM), affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, general work attitudes, and mentoring motivations on the decision to become a mentor to someone else in their organization.

Of those who were surveyed, just under half indicated that they had never been in a mentoring relationship at work. Those not involved in mentoring were asked if they would like to be, and if so, would they want to mentor or be mentored. Those who indicated that they were a mentor were compared to: individuals who have never been in a mentoring relationship at work; individuals who have never been in a mentoring relationship at work and don't want to be; and individuals who have not mentored others, but would like to.

The results showed a number of significant factors associated with becoming a mentor.

1. **Mentors and Potential Mentors Are Highest in Public Service Motivation**

   Overall, those who are mentors (M = 6.09) and those who want to be mentors (M = 6.09) report the highest levels of public service motivation. Those who do not want to be involved in a mentoring relationship at all report the lowest level of PSM (M = 5.66). The marginal effect of public service motivation on becoming a mentor increases the probability of mentoring by .106.

2. **Motivations to Mentor Predict Actual Mentoring Behavior**

   When comparing mentors to potential mentors, motivations matter. Those that actually mentor others in their organization were more likely to report that they had a previous positive mentoring experience. Potential mentors were more likely to report their intentions to mentor were focused on self-advancement. The marginal effect of a one-unit increase in self-focused motivations decreased the probability of mentoring by -0.114.

3. **There is a Substantial Group of Potential Mentors Who Want to Mentor Others**

   Perhaps one of the most important findings for organizations is the presence of a large number of individuals who would like to be mentoring, but are not. These potential mentors are similar to actual mentors in a number of ways. Both report high levels of PSM, affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. This group of potential mentors was more likely to report that they were nonwhite (49%) compared to actual mentors (29%). These finding support previous findings that suggest that females and nonwhites perceive institutional barriers to becoming mentors not

experienced by white male (Ragins, 1989; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; Mcdonald & Westphal, 2013).

4. **Those Who Mentor Struggling Individuals Are Motivated by Self-Advancement**

   Previous mentoring research suggests that mentors enter into mentoring relationships after conducting a cost-benefit analysis in which they perceive benefits for themselves, therefore mentors seek out a "rising star" in order to gain recognition for themselves (Ragins & Scandura, 1999; Singh et al., 2009). Alternatively, Allen et al. (2006) found that those higher in advancement motivations will be more likely to mentor someone qho is struggling, as the success of their protégé will be attributed to the mentor and not any personal attributes of the protégé. This study found support for Allen et al. (2006), as high advancement motives were positively associated with mentoring a struggling individual. The marginal effect of self-focused motives increased the probability of mentoring someone who is struggling by .082.

7.3.2 What Factors Predict Who Becomes a Protégé?

As examined in Chapter 4, this research also examined the effects of job involvement, public sector motivation (PSM), affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, general work attitudes, and mentoring motivations on who becomes a protégé. Like with mentors, protégés were compared to: individuals who have never been in a mentoring relationship at work; individuals who have never been in a mentoring relationship at work and don't want to be; and, individuals who have not been a protégé, but would like to.

The results showed a number of significant factors associated with becoming a protégé.

1. **Potential Protégés Have Higher Advancement Motives than Actual Protégés**

   Potential protégés report higher advancement motivations (M = 6.00) than actual protégés (M = 5.31). Potential protégés who may feel stuck in their current position may see a mentor as a means to move ahead in their career while those who are protégés may have more realistic expectations of what a mentor can and cannot do for their career as part of a mentoring relationship.

2. **Potential Protégés Were More Likely to be Nonwhite**

   Like with mentors, those who would like to be in a mentoring relationship as a protégé are more likely to be nonwhite. These findings support previous research that suggests that nonwhites reported greater difficulty in gaining a mentor (Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Dreher & Cox, 1996). This could signal a problem for organizations that value diversity as it appears that nonwhites may not have the same access to mentors as whites.

3. **Potential Protégés Lower on AOC, Job Involvement, and Job Satisfaction**

   Potential protégés reported similarly high levels of public service motivation as mentors and protégés, but reported the lowest levels of affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction of surveyed groups. Those who are potential protégés and not satisfied in their current position may seek out a mentor to remedy their dissatisfaction. Inability to access a mentor may further frustrate potential protégés. As will be discussed later, potential protégés also report greater intentions to turnover.

7.3.3 What Behaviors Are Important for Successful Mentoring?

Mentors provide protégés with two types of mentoring supports: career development (e.g. coaching, sponsorship, protection, etc.) and psychosocial support (e.g. role modeling, friendship, etc.). There were several findings of note:

1. **Mentors and Protégés Generally Agree on Importance of Career Mentoring Supports**

   Mentors and protégés generally agree that career development mentoring supports are important for successful protégé professional development.

2. **Mentors and Protégés Differ on Importance of Networking**

   Mentors believed that bringing the accomplishments of their protégés to the attention of those higher up in the organization and introducing their protégés to influential people were significantly more important than do protégés. Management literature consistently finds that networking, both inside and outside of the organization, is important for career development and advancement so it is notable that protégés rate these two supports as the least important overall.

3. **Mentors Believe Psychosocial Supports are More Important than Protégés**

   As hypothesized, mentors rated psychosocial supports higher in importance than protégés. Mentors rated the following significantly higher than protégés:

   - Act as a sounding board for frustrations
   - Protect the protégé from unnecessary criticism or blame
   - Act as a role model

Both mentors and protégés believed that socializing outside of working hours was very unimportant.

7.3.4 What are the Major Divergences Between Mentor and Protégé Expectations and Experiences?

Somewhat surprisingly, mentors and protégés were in general agreement about the quality of the career supports provided; however, mentors did rate the perceived quality of psychosocial mentoring supports higher than protégés.

7.3.5 How does Mentoring Efficacy Affect Measures of Mentorship Success?

Both mentors and protégés were asked to reflect on how the mentoring relationship may have provided benefits such as knowledge and skills necessary to achieve career goals, formal recognition from the organization, or tangible career benefits (e.g. a promotion, raise, etc.). Key findings from this research question includes:

1. **High Perceived Efficacy of Career Supports Were Associated with Positive Outcomes for Protégés**

   Protégés who reported higher perceived efficacy of career supports also reported they felt more confident that they would achieve career goals, that they received recognition and some tangible career benefits from their organization, and that they were satisfied with their mentoring relationship. Ensuring that both mentor and protégé agree about what career supports are important leads to more positive outcomes.

2. **Collaboratively Setting Clear Goals and Expectations Is Associated with Greater Efficacy of Mentoring Supports and Satisfaction**

   Setting clear goals for the mentoring relationship was positively related to increased perceived efficacy of the mentoring supports. It also related to higher expectations of

career advancement (for protégés), higher recognition (for mentors), and greater satisfaction with the mentoring relationship for both parties.

3. **Higher Advancement Motivations of Protégés Are Associated with Career Benefits** Protégés who were higher in advancement motives were more likely to report that they received recognition or tangible career benefits (e.g. a raise or promotion) from their organization as a result of their mentoring relationship.
4. **Mentors' Advancement Motivations Increase Positive Outcomes.** Mentors high in advancement motivations reported more positive outcomes.

7.3.6 How Does Mentoring Efficacy Affect Organizational Outcomes?

Mentoring relationships are also associated with a number of positive outcomes for organizations. Key findings include:

1. **Clear Goals and Expectations are Important for Mentoring Success.** Mentors and protégés who set clear goals and expectations report increased organizational commitment and increased satisfaction with the mentoring relationship..
2. **Potential Protégés Report the Highest Turnover Intentions** The potential protégés, those that would like a mentor but do not have one, represent the group most likely to turn over, and likely the group most dissatisfied with the level of professional development, mentoring, or coaching they currently receive. A number of potential protégés felt that mentoring was for "others," mostly those in upper management and more professionalized divisions. The sentiment seemed to be that there was a lack of support and development opportunities for those in lower rungs of the organization.

3. **Informal Mentoring Relationships Provide Cascading Benefits**

   Those who have had a mentor are more likely to mentor others in the future. Almost all the mentors who responded to this survey indicated that they intended to mentor again. Of protégés, 88% stated that they would mentor others in the future. For organizations looking to support and encourage mentoring behaviors, establishing some support systems could pay dividends into the future.

4. **Gender and Race Matching May Have Negative Effects on Mentoring Success**

   Female mentors with female protégés reported lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction than other mentors. Likewise, nonwhite protégés with nonwhite mentors reported lower organizational commitment. These findings add to the literature that finds mixed support for the effects of same gender and same race dyads on mentoring outcomes (Dreher & Cox, 1996).

7.3.7 How Do Formal and Informal Mentoring Relationships Differ?

Somewhat surprising, the findings of this dissertation show that mentoring supports in formal and informal mentoring relationships are more alike than hypothesized. The only real difference comes in the importance of psychosocial supports; informal protégés felt that psychosocial supports were more important than did formal program protégés. Informal mentoring relationships develop over time, and often out of mutual respect or admiration, meaning that there is likely greater trust and friendship in informal relationships. Formal programs often match mentors and protégés, which mean that these relationships do not have the pre-existing trust and respect seen with informal relationships. Formal programs should

seek to help program participants build trust and become more comfortable in their assigned relationships.

7.4 Implications for Mentoring Theory and Practice

The findings of this dissertation make several important contributions to mentoring theory and practice.

7.4.1 Contributions to Public Sector Mentoring Theory

This dissertation extends the work of Bozeman and Feeney (2009), which proposes a theory of public sector mentoring. They noted that the public sector context may mean that mentoring does not mirror the private sector.

This study extends public sector mentoring theory in three important ways.

First, Mentoring studies focus almost exclusively on the private sector contexts (Hale, 1995; Hale, 1996; Scandura & Viator, 1994; Fox & Schuhmann, 2001; Feeney, 2006; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; Feeney & Bozeman, 2008; Bozeman & Feeney, 2008; Bozeman & Feeney, 2009a; Bozeman & Feeney, 2009b). The public sector differs from the private sector in a number of important ways, including public service motivation. Public service motivation argues that public sector employees may be motivated differently than their counterparts in the private sector. This study introduces PSM and empirically tests the effects of public service motivation in actual mentoring behaviors. Results show that mentors and potential mentors are highest in public service motivation. Additionally, when comparing mentors to those who do not want to be in a mentoring relationship, PSM is a significant predictor of mentoring behavior. These finding lend support for including PSM in future mentoring studies in the public sector.

Second, due to the public sector context, mentors have different motivations to mentor at work, and those motivations influence mentoring relationships and their outcomes. Mentors tend to be altruistic and mentor to support the organization or to help others succeed, though the greatest predictor of mentoring comes from previous positive mentoring relationships. Those who previously had positive mentoring experiences as either a mentor or a protégé are more likely to act as a mentor in the future. Also of interest, mentors with self-advancement motives are more likely to take on a struggling individual than those with more altruistic needs. The findings show that future public mentoring studies should include multiple motivations to mentor, as motivations influence who mentors and for what purposes.

Third, both formal and informal mentoring have been used as a tool to promote diversity initiatives in public sector organizations, specifically to increase the number and women and minorities in upper management positions. The public sector places increased emphasis on the inclusion of minority groups in government as a way to promote representative bureaucracy and ensure that the public workforce matches the population they serve. This study found that nonwhites were over represented in both potential mentor (49%) and potential protégé (49%) groups, echoing previous findings that nonwhites may be disadvantaged in gaining or becoming a mentor (Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Dreher & Cox, 1996). More than half of nonwhites who reported they wished to be in a mentoring relationship have considered leaving their job for reasons other than retirement (58%). This further suggests that informal mentoring may not provide the opportunities for advancement for nonwhites. While formal mentoring programs are often seen as a less desirable than, and less effective than informal mentoring relationships, formal programs may be necessary tools to promote

diversity initiatives and overcome boundaries for women and minorities to obtain mentors at work.

7.4.2 Contributions to Public Sector Mentoring Practice

Moving beyond direct findings to consider possible practical implications, this dissertation suggests a number of possible actions for improving public sector mentoring practice, both in promoting informal relationships and establishing formal programs.

Organizations have an untapped pool of potential mentors and protégés who would like to be in a mentoring relationship but are not. Potential mentors are very similar to actual mentors in a number of important ways, including similarly high levels of work attitudes (PSM, AOC, job satisfaction) and demographic characteristics. Those who would like to be mentors reported that they did not feel they had the organizational support or the same opportunities to engage in mentoring relationships. Organizational support and encouragement for the development of informal mentoring relationships may provide opportunities for potential mentors and protégés to connect that would otherwise not have the opportunity to interact. Organizations can also provide tangible incentives like compensatory time to encourage mentors to take on a protégé.

Potential protégés are different from actual protégés in many ways. First they report the lowest level of work attitudes on average. This dissatisfaction may come from the frustration of searching unsuccessful for a mentor or other developmental opportunities for career advancement. These potential protégés were also the most likely to report lower satisfaction and that they had thought about leaving their organization for reasons other than retirement. For local governments concerned with turnover, providing opportunities for

potential protégés to meet or connect with potential mentors may help those individuals to gain the knowledge, skills, and abilities they seek, as well as connect with the organization.

Organizations should acknowledge the benefits that informal mentoring relationships provide, and create a means to acknowledge mentors for their efforts, such as a certificate of recognition or award.

For municipalities considering instituting formal programs there are several best practices gleamed from the two formal programs in this study.

1. **Provide Mentees with Orientation to the Program.**

   As discussed at the end of chapter 6, the two cities in the study did a good job of providing training and orienting mentors, but failed to train protégés. The result caused a good deal of confusion for protégés. Organizations should put as much emphasis on orienting protégés as they do mentors.

2. **Increase Transparency in the Matching Process.**

   In both formal programs, program administrators matched mentors and protégés together. Mentors and protégés in both programs felt that the process should be more transparent and that there should be more input into matching. While one program used personality tests to match mentors and protégés, some were still unsure why they were matched, as it seemed that they had little in common and were having difficulty connecting.

3. **Provide Training and Guidance for Mentors and Protégés on Collaboration**

   A recurring finding of this dissertation is that clear, mutually understood goals greatly increase the success of a mentoring relationship. Formal programs must act on this insight by providing an initial framework of how to structure goals in the orientation

training, and then by encouraging mentors and protégés to develop further goals as their relationship continues.

7.5 Limitations of the Research

There are a number of important considerations that may limit the generalizability of this dissertation. First, due to the sampling frame, we know very little about how those who took the survey compare to those who did not complete the survey in ways other than race and gender. This may mean that those who answered the survey are different than those that did not in a number of important ways. For example, social desirability bias may mean that those who answered the survey may only be mentors who had successful mentoring relationships, while those with negative mentoring relationships abstained from participating in the survey.

Survey response rate is a second limitation to this study. While some participant cities had higher response rates than others, the overall response rate for this study was 35%. While in line with comparable online studies and within the realm of acceptability (Dillman et al., 2014), a higher response rate would yield a more complete picture of what mentoring relationships actually look like in local government organizations.

The cross-sectional nature of this data is an additional limitation of this study. Respondents were asked to think about what they wanted to achieve going into the mentoring relationship and what they perceived they got as a result in the course of the same survey. A longitudinal research design would measure attitudes before the mentoring relationship starts, perceived outcomes just after the relationship ends, and then follow up again later to see

outcomes years later. Such a design would provide greater certainty that reported changes could not be attributed to halo or history effects.

The factor of time also limits this study as not every respondent was equally removed in time from his or her most recent mentoring relationship. Respondents in the informal mentoring survey were asked to think about their *most recent* mentoring experience. For some their most recent mentoring experience was many years ago, and for others, their mentoring relationship is currently ongoing. For those in the formal mentoring programs, there are additional issues related to the timing of the survey. Those in North City were just beginning their mentoring relationships (at the time of the survey they were four to five months into the mentoring program) and could not accurately reflect on the benefits they received as a result of their mentoring relationship. Mentors in South City mentored multiple times (as many as six) and were only asked about their most recent protégé, which could skew the data if the most recent protégé mentoring experience was especially good or especially poor.

7.6 Directions for Future Research

As shown in this dissertation, mentoring can be an important tool for organizations to attract and retain qualified talent, facilitate organizational learning and newcomer socialization, promote diversity initiatives, and assist in the process of succession planning. A better understanding of the mechanisms that lead to positive mentoring are needed to evaluate the effectiveness of mentoring as a public management tool. While adding to our understanding of both formal and informal mentoring relationships in local governments, this study highlights important areas for future research.

First, mentoring is a relationship between two individuals. Future research on informal mentoring relationships should focus on how those relationships form. There is a lack of qualitative research in the development of informal mentoring relationships that might provide greater insight into how mentors and protégés initiate, sustain, and terminate mentoring relationships. While a cross-sectional research designs allow for a larger data collection, it can miss the details that make these relationships unique.

The public sector uses formal mentoring programs to attract, train, and retain managers, though little is known about the effectiveness of these programs. The study of the two formal programs in this dissertation showed that mentoring can be used as a tool for leadership development and succession planning, but little is known about the long-term effects of these programs. Future research should consider the long-term outcomes of the programs and what features make them more effective.

Mentoring can be used as a tool to increase diversity in upper-level management positions. The findings of this dissertation reveal that minorities may be disadvantaged in gaining a mentor at work. Future research should consider the role of race or ethnicity in how mentors and protégés engage in mentoring relationships, especially informal mentoring relationships. If minorities really are disadvantaged in gaining a mentor through informal means, as this dissertation suggests, what can organizations due to remedy those disparities? The two formal programs examined had higher participation from nonwhites than those in informal relationships within the same organization, suggesting that formal programs might be a better solution for organizations interested in mentoring as a tool to promote diversity.

Finally, mentoring is also a tool for passing on technical and managerial skills, as well as organizational knowledge. What is less well understood is how that transference of knowledge through mentoring can improve overall employee performance, for both mentors and protégés. Future research should focus on if, and how, mentoring relationships lead to increased performance and managerial effectiveness. Empirical connections between mentoring and performance could help inform the creation and implementation of formal programs and help evaluate their effectiveness.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Mentor Role Instrument (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990)

My Mentor:

(SPONSOR)
helps me attain desirable positions.
uses his/her influence to support my advancement in the organization.
uses his/her influence in the organization for my benefit.

(COACH)
helps me learn about other parts of the organization.
gives me advice on how to attain recognition in the organization.
suggest specific strategies for achieving career aspirations.

(PROTECT)
protects me from those who may be out to get me.
"runs interference" for me in the organization.
shields me from damaging contact with important people in the organization.

(CHALLENGE)
gives me tasks that require I learn new skills.
provides me with challenging assignments.
assigns me tasks that push me to develop new skills

(EXPOSURE)
helps me be more visible in the organization.
creates opportunities for me to impress important people in the organization
brings my accomplishments to the attention of important people

(FRIENDSHIP)
is someone I can confide in.
provides support and encouragement.
Is someone I can trust.

(SOCIAL)
and I frequently get together informally after work by ourselves
and I frequently socialize one-on-one outside the work setting
and I frequently have one-on-one, informal social interactions

(PARENT)
is like a father/mother to me

reminds me of one of my parents.
treats me like a son or daughter.

(ROLE MODEL)
serves as a role model for me.
Is someone I identify with.
represents who I want to be.

(COUNSELING)
serves as a sounding board for me to develop and understand myself.
Guides my professional development.
thinks highly of me.

(ACCEPTANCE)
accepts me as a competent professional.
sees me as being competent.
thinks highly of me.

Satisfaction with Mentor Scale

My mentor:
is someone I am satisfied with.
fails to meet my needs. (reverse coded)
disappoints me. (reverse coded)
has been effective in his or her role.

Appendix A, continued

Mentoring Functions (Noe, 1988)

COACHING

- Mentor has shared history of his/her career with you
- Mentor has encouraged you to prepare for advancement
- Mentor suggested specific strategies for achieving your career goals
- Mentor shared ideas with you
- Mentor gave you feedback regarding your performance in your current job

ACCEPTANCE & CONFIRMATION

- Mentor has encouraged me to try new ways of behaving in my job
- My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual
- My mentor asked me for suggestions concerning problems he/she has encountered in his/her job

ROLE MODELING

- I try to imitate the work behavior of my mentor
- I agree with my mentor's attitudes and values regarding education
- I respect and admire my mentor
- I will try to be like my mentor when I reach a similar position in my career

COUNSELING

- My mentor has demonstrated good listening skills in our conversations
- My mentor has discussed questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts
- My mentor has shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to my problems
- My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work
- My mentor has conveyed empathy for the concerns and feeling I have discussed with him/her
- My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence

PROTECTION

- Mentor reduced unnecessary risks that could threaten the possibility of a promotion
- Mentor helped you finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete

EXPOSURE & VISIBILITY

- Mentor helped you meet new colleagues
- Mentor gave you assignments that increased written and personal contact with upper management
- Mentor assigned responsibilities to you that have increased your contact with people who may judge your potential for future advancement

SPONSORSHIP

- Mentor gave you assignments or tasks in your work to prepare you for an administrative position

CHALLENGING ASSIGNMENTS

- Mentor gave you assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills
- Mentor provided you with support and feedback regarding you performance

FRIENDSHIP

- My mentor has invited me to join him/her for lunch
- My mentor has interacted with me socially outside of work

Appendix B

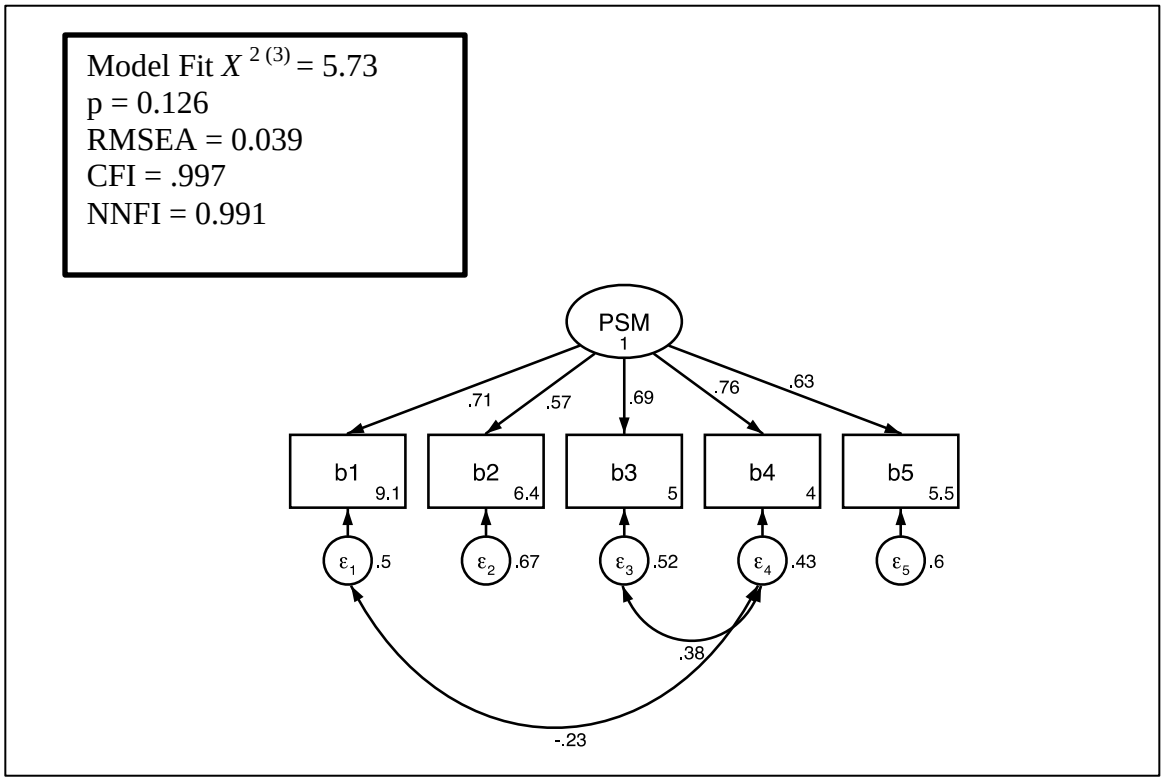

Figure 4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Public Service Motivation

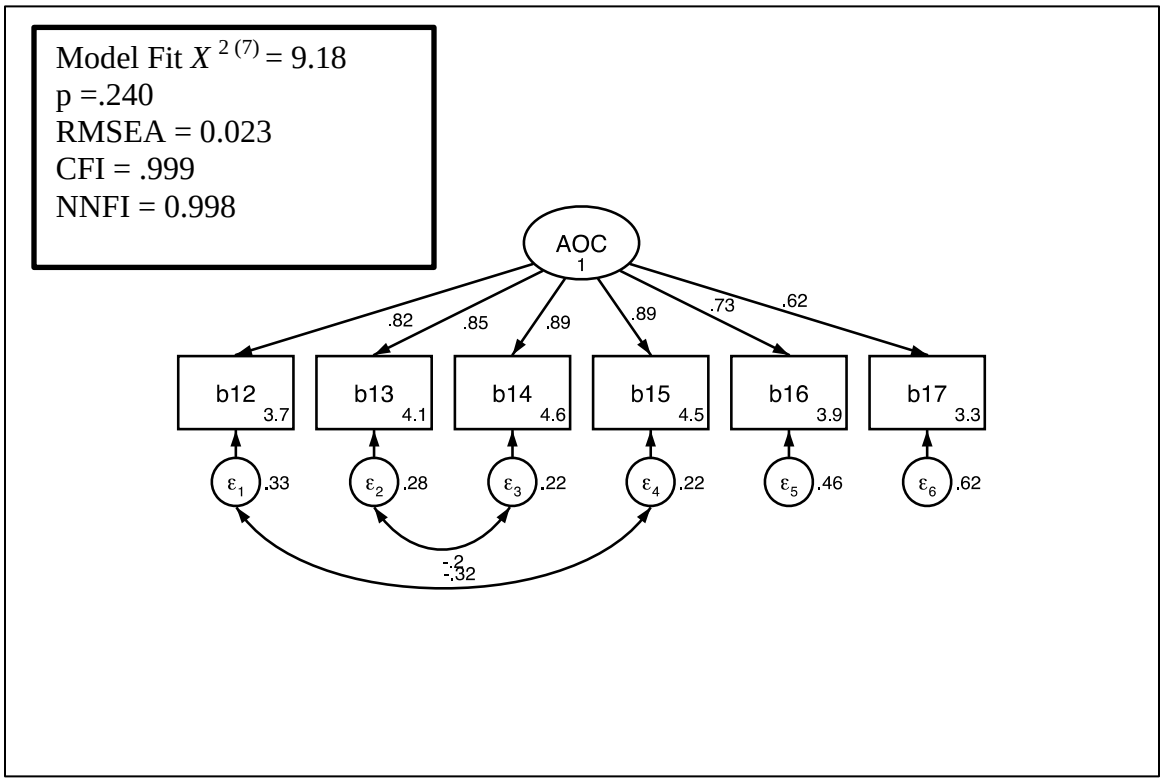

Figure 4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)