EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

ON FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMS

by

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Abstract

This study focused on the relationship between formal mentoring programs and the effect organizational culture has on the characteristics of formal mentoring and the success of implementing such an initiative. The Competing Values Framework was used to analyze the differences in organizational culture profiles and how they might impact the acceptance of formal mentoring initiatives for organizations. The research results indicated that organizational culture has an impact on formal mentoring program characteristics and that organizations identified as Adhocracy and Market had the most significant correlations in supporting formal mentoring programs. The implications of the study can be significant as organizations assess their current workforce and prepare to implement formal mentoring programs. The findings can also be helpful to assess the likelihood of the organization embracing formal mentoring in an effort to retain valuable workers and achieve competitive advantage.

Dedication

It has been a long, yet enjoyable journey, which would not have come to fruition without the love of my heavenly Father, whom through all things are possible. It is through his blessings that I had the determination and perseverance to complete this research project.

I dedicate this document to my husband, Roderick, and my wonderful daughters, Dominique and Gabrielle, who I endearingly call my girls. I do not take for granted the sacrifices they made throughout this degree. I can recall plenty of evenings when I heard their voices behind the closed office door, but dared to knock due to the study schedule posted on the door. Roderick, you amazed me with your unceasing indulgence and ability to meet the challenges that were presented. I appreciate the entire family excusing me for the missed golf, cheerleading and softball events. I especially thank the girls for not holding the missed one on one times and girl talk that may have ensued had it not been for the hectic study schedules. Undoubtedly, a lot has happened throughout the pursuit of this degree, but what remains the same are my feelings. I love each of you collectively and individually for you were truly my inspiration and for which I owe a lifetime of gratitude.

Acknowledgements

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Numerous others have walked this journey with me and have lent sayings and statements to my ponder board, which in the early hours of the morning and late nights kept me focused on the dream. I thank my grandparents the late Dorothy Berridge and Ruby Gilmore; parents, Nathaniel and Norma Dowtin, siblings and friends for taking up the slack and volunteering extra hours when assignments were due. My work group provided support and encouragement to move forward and joined many others with that gentle push to keep going. Each and every one of those mentioned, and too many more that are not, will forever have a special place in my heart. I hope one day to give back to each of them the dream they have helped me to realize.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

The current workforce and that of the future are rapidly changing due to the number of baby boomers exiting the workforce for retirement. According to the U.S. Bureau of Statistics, in the year 2014 the United States workforce will diminish by 2% from its current state due to retirements, low birth rates, and diminishing numbers of eligible workers in the workforce (Tossi, 2005). Organizations responding to these alarming statistics are examining ways to retain and hire the talent they will need to maintain a competitive advantage. As such, organizations seek different strategies to assist them in the hiring and retention issues.

One such strategy is the implementation of a formal mentoring program. Mentoring, by its very nature, is a strategy that uses workers with more experience to assist in the development of workers with less experience (Holliday, 2001). Organizations discovered that use of this strategy not only assists the organization, but the prospective mentor and mentee as well. Specifically, the organization develops a more communicative workforce that values the development of others. The mentors are able to create a legacy by using the knowledge they have and taking advantage of the ability to pass on valuable information to the mentee. Finally, the mentee is able to acquire first-hand knowledge from an experienced employee and gain the skills needed to move to higher positions.

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In the past decade, the number of formal organizational mentoring programs has increased exponentially (Fagenson-Eland, Marks, & Amendola, 1997). However, as with any type of organizational change, formal mentoring must be initiated with caution. One of the main characteristics of implementing a formal mentoring program is an atmosphere that is conducive to sharing and learning (Zachary, 2005). According to Zachary, if a mentoring culture does not exist, then an effective program cannot be sustained. This research explored some of the benefits of formal mentoring programs and some of the areas that organizations must address before undertaking such an endeavor.

The consideration of mentoring and its sustainability begs the question of the type of environment in which mentoring thrives. In the business world, "environment" equates to organizational culture. Organizational culture is often recognized as the reason organizations do what they do. According to Schein (1992, p. 168), organizational culture is a "system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations."

O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) further explored this concept of shared meaning and referenced a set of six characteristics that an organization values: (a) innovation and risk taking, (b) attention to detail, (c) outcome orientation, (d) people orientation, (e) team orientation, and (f) aggressiveness and stability. O'Reilly et al. postured that all of the characteristics exist on a continuum going from low to high, and that as an organization is assessed, these characteristics provide a composite view of the organization. As O'Reilly et al. suggested over a decade ago, "Culture is critical in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and dedication among employees that often characterize successful firms" (1989, p. 17).

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This assessment is reflective of the shared views of employees of the organization, how things are done in the organization, and the way employees behave. It is also recognized as a contributor to performance management initiatives, for it represents a source of competitive advantage for organizations to achieve their objectives (DeLong & Fahey, 2000). Many theorists have made a strong connection to organizational culture and the importance of any change initiative as congruent to the culture. According to Schneider (1994), an organization's culture is so strong that it dictates how things are done in the organization in order to succeed; he went on state that no management idea will work if it does not fit the culture.

According to Holliday (2001), formal mentoring is not a one-size-fits-all strategic initiative. An organization must consider many pitfalls before moving forward with mentoring. Ragins (1997) listed some of the obstacles organizations face when implementing formal mentoring programs.

1.   Mentor delegates too much work to the protégé

2.   Mentor abuses his/her power over the protégé

3.   Mentor inappropriately takes credit for the protégé's work

4.   Mentor attempts to sabotage the protégé

5.   Mentor intentionally deceives the protégé

6.   Mentor intentionally is unavailable to or excludes protégé

7.   Mentor neglects protégé's career or does not provide support

8.   Mentor is too preoccupied with his/her own career progress

9.   Mentor lacks technical competence and cannot guide protégé

10.   Mentor lacks interpersonal competence and cannot interact with protégé

11.   Poor fit in personality between mentor and protégé

12.   Poor fit in work styles between mentor and protégé

13.   Mentor has a bad attitude about the organization or job

14.   Mentor cannot mentor effectively due to problems in his/her personal life

15.   Mentor sexually harasses protégé

Schein (1996) claimed that effective formal mentoring programs help organizations to eliminate the barriers and improve the development of the mentor and mentee. Thus, understanding how organizational culture interacts with formal mentoring is essential in any organization. As Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) stated, "Culture influences how decisions are made, the style of management, and relations and behavior patters in the organizations" (p. 548), thus making it important to determine the organizational culture before considering a formal mentoring initiative.

Although the relationship between organizational culture and formal mentoring is not a simple one, this study linked these two using existing measures from separate avenues of research. A great deal of literature revealed that organizational culture contributes to performance management (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991). While most organizations realize the importance of culture, they find it difficult to implement initiatives that foster a culture that leads to effective formal mentoring initiatives, because they fail to assess the culture prior to implementing change. According to Schneider (1994), if the initiative is not rooted in the organizational culture, it is bound to fail.

Formal Mentoring Programs

Many organizations are losing employees through the retirement of the baby boomers and the ever-changing face of the workforce. It is noted by the U.S. Bureau of Statistics that in the next 15 years, the workforce will diminish and the remaining eligible workers will be in high demand (Adams, 1998; Berman, 2005; Challenger, 2003; Kiyonaga, 2004; Tossi, 2005). The future outlook for the workforce has caused many organizations to examine their internal talent and to determine ways in which to grow the talent from within in order to strategically avoid or reduce the impact of the reduced workforce. In an effort to achieve such a goal, many organizations experiment with formal mentoring programs, which are noted to be an effective performance management tool.

The range of organizations that have been successful with formal mentoring strategies include both for-profit and nonprofit organizations. In the for-profit arena, notable organizations include Johnson & Johnson, Bank of America, Marriott International, and Charles Schwab. All of these organizations have formal mentoring programs in place to help them attract, retain, and develop high performers (Eddy, D'Abate, & Tannenbaum, 2003). In the nonprofit arena, the Department of Defense, the Department of Revenue, the Department of Agriculture, the Presidential Management Intern Program, the Internal Revenue Service, and the Fourth Federal Executive Development Group programs have documented success in the implementation of formal mentoring programs (Smith, Howard, & Harrington, 2005).

Formal mentoring programs have received a good amount of notoriety in terms of their effectiveness (Fagenson, 1989; Friday & Friday, 2002; Heimann & Pittenger, 1996;

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Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000; Tepper, 1995). As organizations review the diminishing number of persons eligible to enter the workforce within the next 10 to 15 years, formal mentoring programs as an organizational development strategy have picked up momentum (Berman, 2005; Challenger, 2003; Kiyonaga, 2004; Tossi, 2005). However, as with any strategic initiative, the right atmosphere must be present for the initiative to be successful. The right atmosphere for purposes of this research is organizational culture.

The Competing Values Framework

The competing values framework (CVF) provides the foundational theory in this research for examining organizational culture (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001; Harris & Mossholder, 1996). A review of the literature indicated that the quantitative assessment of organizational culture has been dominated by studies adopting the CVF developed by Quinn, Hildebrandt, Rogers, and Thompson (1991), including Maher in 2000 and Kwan in 2002. Goodman et al. (2001) stated that the CVF provides a useful conceptual tool for understanding an organization's culture and thus examining its relationship to the quality of work life. This model describes organizational culture in terms of value dimensions. It describes competing values as having implications for a variety of organizational issues, including strategic management issues (see Figure 1).

The CVF is a two-dimensional model that yields four cultural orientations. The four culture types include clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy. The hierarchy culture values stability and control, and it emphasizes formal coordination, centralized decision-making, and vertical communications. The members' roles are defined and enforced through formal rules and regulations. Clan culture has a primary concern with human relations and morale. In this environment, there is less emphasis on formal coordination

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and control systems, and greater emphasis on participation, decentralized decision-making, horizontal communications, and teamwork. Market culture values productivity and efficiency. This culture focuses on achievement and has centralized decision-making and more formal coordination and control systems. The adhocracy culture emphasizes growth and adaptability. There is an emphasis on informal coordination, control systems, and horizontal communications (Quinn, Hildebrandt, et al. 1991; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991).
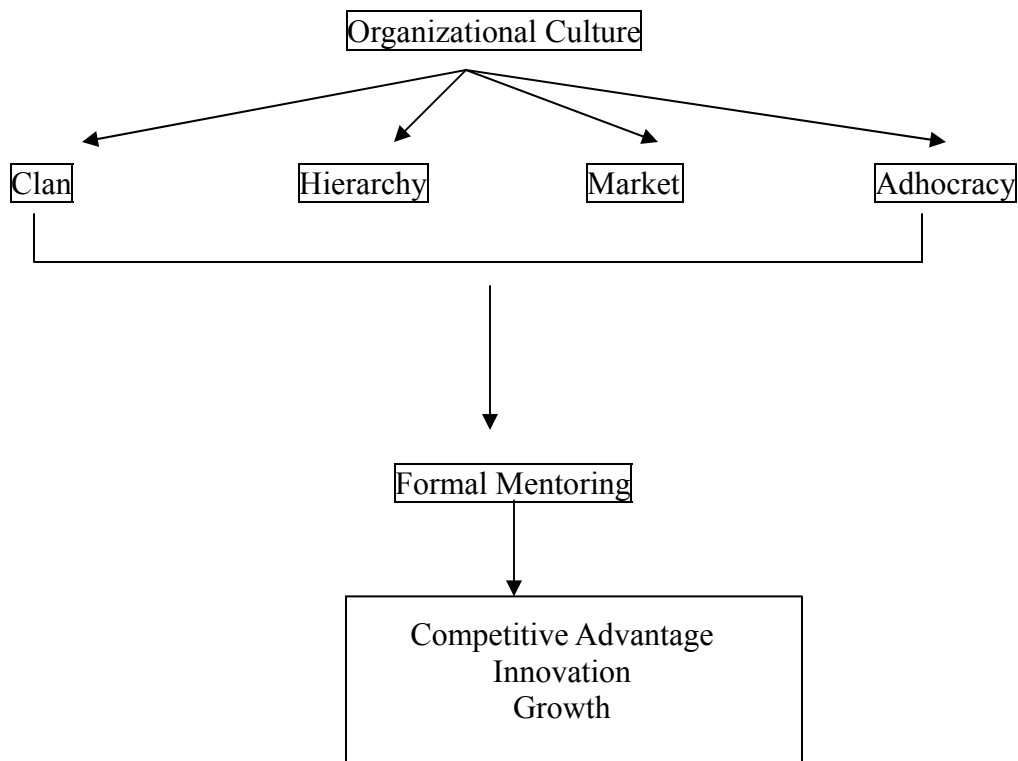
Figure 1. Theoretical model

Several research studies have used the CVF to examine the impact of culture on organizational issues (Chang & Wiebe, 1995; Dellana & Hauser, 1999; Dension & Mishra, 1995; McDermott & Stock, 1999). The advantage of the CVF is that it incorporates numerous elements and creates a rich visual representation of an organization's culture. Once surfaced, questions can be asked about the alignment between and within cultures (Goodman, Atkins, & Schoorman, 1983).

One highly used tool to examine organizational culture is the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999). This tool is based on six principles that allow the participant to rate, through a Likert-type scale, the propensity of the topics areas. The participants rank the categories and obtain a final score of 100 points. The indication is that the points scored in a certain categories place the organization in one of the cultural types: clan, hierarchy, market, or adhocracy. This cultural assessment tool has shown both validity and reliability and historically has shown to be a good instrument for indicators of cultural types. This researcher, based on the characteristics of this study, determined that this was an appropriate tool to utilize.

Although the OCAI was selected as an assessment tool, there are other tools available, including the Baldrige Award. Fraser (2005) modified the criteria for the Malcolm Baldrige Quality Award to develop a self-assessment tool and used the results to drive organizational improvement. This is a useful tool if organizations have not already engaged in formal mentoring programs; however, this researcher is interested in the dimensions that affect formal mentoring programs and culture.

Another assessment tool that has been used for organizational culture research is the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (Denison, 1990). The Denison Organizational

Culture Survey is known to translate difficult-to-understand organizational behavioral concepts into everyday business action and strategies. It enables leaders, key stakeholders, and employees of all levels to understand the impact of their culture on the organization's performance and to learn how to redirect their culture to improve organizational effectiveness. These findings are tied statistically to expectations for organizational performance, as measured by financial ratios such as return on sales, return on assets, and return on investment. This survey helps organizations to identify their cultural strengths and weaknesses so they can capitalize on the best and appropriately address the others in preparing to compete successfully in their industries. Again, due to the scope of the research, this tool did not meet the needs for this study.

Background of the Study

Mentoring has been studied for many years and steadily, it has become a strategic movement for many organizations. The concept of mentoring began with Greek mythology in the *Odyssey* (Homer, 1990). The legend suggests that when Odysseus, the King of Ithaca, went to fight in the Trojan War, he left behind his trusted friend and adviser, Mentor, to educate and look after his son, Telemakhos. The job of Mentor was to oversee Odysseus' estate and to train and prepare Telemakhos for adulthood. It was through the guidance of the mentor that Telemakhos was able to find his long-lost father and protect his mother. The point is that the mentor helps to guide the direction of the mentee and assist in personal development.

Over time, the word *mentor* came to presage a wise and trusted teacher and counselor. According to Chao, Walz, and Gardner (1992), a formal mentoring program is

an organized mentoring program managed by the organization that typically uses a systematic selection and matching process. Formal mentoring offers valuable attributes for all involved in the process: organization, mentor, and mentee (see Table 1). Some of the benefits of a formal mentoring program include competitive advantage, retention, assisting in the development and growth of less seasoned employees, and creating a new generation of employees that have the requisite skills to move the organization to the next level (Scandura & Williams, 2001).

A formal mentoring initiative promotes mounting advantages for the organization, including increased communication, as well as personal and professional development through the sharing of information (Chao et al., 1992; Ragins, 1989; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). However, in order for mentoring to exist, the environment must be conducive to a fostering culture. A positive culture assists the possibilities of a mentoring atmosphere (Zachary, 2005). Having a positive organizational culture is further supported by Brannen and Salk (2000), who stated that there is a significant link between strong culture and effective organizational outcomes. However, if mentoring programs are implemented incorrectly, they can reap disastrous results. Brannen and Salk (2000) found that the organization culture was a major hurdle to creating formal mentoring programs and implementing them in the organization

Table 1
Formal Mentoring Attributes

Organizations	Mentor	Mentee
Increased leadership development	Increased self-esteem	Increased awareness of organizational culture and direction
Increased communication within the organization	Increased work motivation	More focused career development
Increased supportive environment	Increased creativity	Networking opportunities
Increased organizational stability	Increased productivity	Easier transition
Turnover reduction	Knowledge transfer; leaving a legacy	Increased self-esteem and confidence
Increased organizational morale	Gained expertise in leadership and training others	Opportunity to learn from a seasoned employee
Promotion of diversity		
Improved technical knowledge		
Increased leadership development		

Note. From Management Mentors, 2006. Adapted with permission of the author.

Background on Mentoring

Mentoring is an old concept; however, the formal organizational literature and research became recognized only over the last century. According to Higgins and Kram (2001), mentoring is the process whereby one directs or guides another through lived experiences and expertise. Surely, most can think of many mentoring relationships that

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either were formally orchestrated or that came together in an informal manner (Robbins, 2003). Mentoring is most often associated with the social sciences and behavior-changing methods through personal development. Although the subjects are different, the concept is analogous. The result of mentoring is to grow others from the collective knowledge and skills of someone for developmental purposes.

Mentoring Defined

One of the most widely accepted definitions of mentoring is cited by Kram (1985, p. 2) "Mentoring is a relationship between a young adult and an older more experienced adult that helps the younger individual learn to navigate in an adult world and the world of work." Although the significance of age has been eliminated through the many variations of the definition, mentoring has been accepted as the ability to guide the direction of another through experience and knowledge gained (Holliday, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Ragins et al., 2000). It is a deliberate process that uses focused behavior to create an environment for individual growth, purposeful action, and sustained improvement. Robbins (2003) defined mentoring as a senior employee who sponsors and supports a less-experienced employee. Ragin (1989) defined a mentor as a higher-ranking influential individual with advanced knowledge who is committed to supporting the career of a protégé. Although the definitions vary, the objective is clear: to assist in the growth of others through a collaborative, voluntary effort. The exchange of information is two-fold, as are the benefits derived from the transaction. If performed properly, mentoring is a win-win situation for all involved and can foster sustained development for organizations.

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Mentoring in the Business Environment

Mentoring has gained a great deal of popularity and can be seen in many *Fortune* 500 companies, due to globalization, rapid technological advancements, and the need to retain high quality employees (Hegstead & Wentling, 2004, Zachary, 2005). Notably, organizations like IBM and Johnson & Johnson have formal mentoring programs that have been successful (Phillips-Jones, 1983, 1999). Many organizations see this as a critical initiative and realize that it is not only a popular movement, but a smart one as well. A survey conducted by CMSI Mentoring Solutions (2002), which entailed polling over 378 companies across the United States that offered mentoring programs, found that mentoring enhanced career development, improved leadership skill, developed new leaders, improved technical knowledge, put high-potential individuals in the fast career track, and promoted diversity.

Formal Mentoring In Action

Formal mentoring research and literature started to attract interest in the 1970s with the work of management theorist Rosabeth Moss Kanter. She depicted the role that mentoring played in large organizations, as well as showing the benefit minorities realized by working with a mentor. The concepts of mentoring became even more profound when a study surveyed over 1,250 top U.S. executives and concluded that over two thirds of the participants had been mentored (Roche, 1979). These findings confirmed the usefulness of mentoring and confirmed that it was a strategic tool for the socialization and development of less experienced and new employees.

Fagenson (1989) determined a significant difference in those mentored and those not mentored. The research was developed to include peer mentoring, which furthered the

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growth of formal mentoring programs in organizations (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Phillips-Jones, 1983). The 1989 study revealed the importance of mentoring as a training and development tool. Individuals who secure mentors earn more money, receive more promotions, and are more satisfied with their jobs and careers than individuals who do not secure mentors (Fagenson, 1989; Scandura, 1992). Finally, Scandura (1992) revealed the significance between self-selected and assigned mentors and found that mentoring relationships make opportunities more equitable in the workplace.

Mentoring flourished in the 1990s and it continues to be a factor in many disciplines today. For this research, mentoring was noted in two forms: informal and formal (See Table 2). However, there is a psychosocial aspect of mentoring that exists, wherein the emphasis is on relational learning. Each of the mentoring types has distinct characteristics and purposes. Formal mentoring is strategic and planned, and informal mentoring, by nature, is unstructured and casual (Fagenson, 1989). Although informal mentoring relationships have proven successful, formal mentoring programs provide a structure and help maximize opportunities for all employees (Ensher & Murphy, 1997).

Strategic Formal Mentoring

Formal mentoring is a strategy in which organizations couple less experienced workers with those who are more seasoned to aid in professional development. Mentoring can serve as a component of strategically planned change in organizational development (Swanson, 1999). Mentoring can also function as a form of on-the-job training (Lawrie, 1987; Robinson, 2001) and support individual employees' professional career development (Arthur, 1997; Herr, 2001).

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Table 2

Differences between Formal and Informal Mentoring

	Formal	Informal
Structure	Clear expectations	No expectations
Mentoring Relationship	Strategic pairing of participants; usually arranged; developed with the assistance of the organization	Chemistry of participants wanting to work together, usually a trust bond between the mentor and mentee; usually develops spontaneously
Inclusion	Generally opens doors for those not normally mentored	No measurements for success
Time Limitations	Usually lasts one year	Usually shorter duration; no time frame
Training	Includes a training or orientation session for both the mentor and the mentee	No formal training provided
Follow-up	Regular reminders needed to keep participants focused	No measurements necessary.

Note. From Management Mentors, 2006. Adapted with permission of the author.

The growth and interest in formal mentoring relationships exist not only in *Fortune* 500 organizations, but also in many United States governmental offices, as well as educational institutions, including Empire State College and Brown University (Klauss, 1981; Phillips-Jones, 1983). In addition, nonprofits are using these programs for their benefits, with examples of California Women in Government and the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (Phillips-Jones, 1983). Organizations realize that as the economy and the workforce change, more emphasis must be put on productivity and efficiency. According to Stanley and Clinton (1992), an effective leader

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reproduces him/herself by developing other leaders, thus making the importance of

formal mentoring a major factor in developing leadership in organizations. The need for

collaboration and sharing of information has become paramount in the business

environment more than ever before; thus, the importance of formal mentoring and

gaining the experiences and feedback of seasoned employees is a smart move. Zachary

(2005) proclaimed:

> Mentoring relationships offer an opportunity for individuals to nurture seeds in
> others so they might become blossoms, and blossoms might become fruit, which
> then nourishes others. When mentoring relationships are rooted in the fertile soil
> of a mentoring culture, they also enrich the quality of the organizational life. (p.
> 22)

The ability to develop and maintain a stellar formal mentoring program has not

been defined; like all change initiatives, there is no single best answer. The literature

offers guidelines for achieving this goal, matching strategies, and suggestions on program

development (Burke, McKeen, & McKeen, 1991; Coley, 1996; Phillips-Jones, 1999). It is

important that mentoring is offered in strategic alignment with other development

initiatives and that it uses programs that are consistent with the mission, vision, and

values of the organization (Peters & Waterman, 2004; Worley & Lawler, 2006).

Background on Organizational Culture

The importance of organizational culture is often overlooked by organizations

when implementing the newest, latest, and greatest organizational initiative (Schneider,

1994). According to Schein (1992, p. 2), "A deeper understanding of cultural issues in

organizations is necessary not only to decipher what goes on in them, but even more

importantly, to identify what may be the priority issues for the leader and leadership."

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This also became apparent in the early 1980s, as noted by Peters and Waterman (2004) when they made the point that organizational culture had a profound affect on change reactions.

Organizational culture was further explored by Cameron and Quinn (1999), which spawned the creation of their CVF instrument. The competitive values framework is a tool that defines the organization's activities based on competing values. The instrument that was developed by Cameron and Quinn to assess organizational culture is the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory, OCAI. The instrument is a survey that uses a series of questions to identify a specific organizational culture.

Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is defined in many ways, but is most noted as the way organizations do things (Cameron & Ettington, 1988; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996; Schein, 1996). If the culture is one that is conducive to learning and growth, then the initiatives that are introduced will be successful in achieving organizational effectiveness. The culture of an organization is important when considering any type of change initiative. According to Schein (1992), the right mixture consists of good communication, an atmosphere of trust, and the ability to accept and embrace change.

Organizational cultures, like formal mentoring programs, are difficult entities to classify and are not conducive to emphatic measurements. Researchers concur that organizational culture affects employee performance and behavior (Cabrera & Bonache, 1999; DeLong & Fahey, 2000; Harrington, Miles, Connally, & Lopez, 2000). However, defining, creating, and establishing the right mix is difficult. The key, as many theorists have determined, is initially to determine the culture in which the organization operates

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and determine if it is conducive to performance effective initiatives (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Schneider, 1994).

Focus of the Study

This study focuses on the relationship between formal mentoring programs and the effect organizational culture has on such an initiative. The CVF, developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), was used to analyze the differences in organizational culture profiles and determine how these differences might influence the acceptance of formal mentoring initiatives in organizations. The implications of the study may be significant as organizations prepare to implement formal mentoring programs. The findings may also be helpful to assess the likelihood of the organization embracing formal mentoring and achieving a competitive advantage.

Theoretical Foundation of the Competing Values Framework

The competing values model was first developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) to categorize general organizational phenomena in relation to organizational effectiveness and was adapted by Cameron and Ettington (1988) to describe organizational culture. Essentially, the model builds on two underlying dimensions. The first dimension is internal and person-oriented, versus external and organization-oriented. The second dimension examines stability and control versus flexibility and change. The two axes form a four-quadrant typology of organizational cultures, represented by (a) the clan culture (flexibility/change and internal/people oriented), (b) the market culture (flexibility/change and external/organization oriented), (c) the hierarchical culture

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(stability/control and internal/people oriented), and (d) the adhocracy culture (stability/control and external/ organization oriented) (see Figure 3). Since its development, the CVF has been used extensively by researchers to assess organizational culture, even though in some cases various writers have used alternative labels to describe the typology.

Validation Based on the Scenario Approach

The instrument developed by Cameron and Ettington (1988) used a scenario approach. The authors proposed that the culture of an organization could be reflected in four organizational attributes: strategic emphasis, organizational bonding, leader style, and dominant affective characteristic. For each of the organizational attributes, four scenarios were constructed to describe each of the four types of organizational cultures. Respondents were asked to divide 100 points among the four scenarios in each of the organizational attributes, depending on how similar each scenario was to their own organization. The scores on each question for the same quadrant were summed to determine a total score for each of the four culture quadrants: the higher the scores, the more strongly the organization possessed that particular type of culture.

Kwan and Walker (2004) advanced that even though the scenario approach was adopted by a number of studies as a valid tool for assessing organizational culture, its use is not without limitations, and they cited the work of Fjortoft & Smart, 1994; Smart & Hamm, 1993a, 1993b; Smart & St. John, 1996; and Zammuto & Krakower, 1991. As Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) suggested,

> A high score on one quadrant necessitates a low score on the other quadrants.
> …The scenario approach results in a fixed choice, or ipsative data, in which
> measures are perfectly correlated with one another and the correlations render the

measures not suitable for correlation-based statistical analysis, such as factor analysis and regression, and LISREL. (p. 117)

In light of the limitation of the scores, Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) revised the model and developed a Likert-type scaled instrument to assess organizational culture. Since that time, the CVF has been used widely to assess organizational culture.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of the Study

This was a quantitative study designed to advance the understanding of the impact of organizational culture on the dimensions of formal mentoring and on the successful implementation of such an initiative. There is a paucity of literature on the topic of formal mentoring as it relates to organizational culture. There is, however, a large amount of literature on either mentoring or organizational culture individually; these sources have been extrapolated to guide this study.

Mentoring has been described and defined by many theorists, but usually in terms of its relationship and functions (Kram, 1985), development (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978), and power (Ragins, 1997). Organizational culture has been widely explored with regard to the research declared by many theorists (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Denison, 1990; Maher, 2000; Schein, 1992). This is important, as it provides the underlying foundation for organizational development and performance. The two entities share many characteristics and commonalties, which indicates that some organizational environments may be more conductive to the implementation of formal mentoring, whereas others may be less conducive. This research explored these possibilities (see Figure 2).

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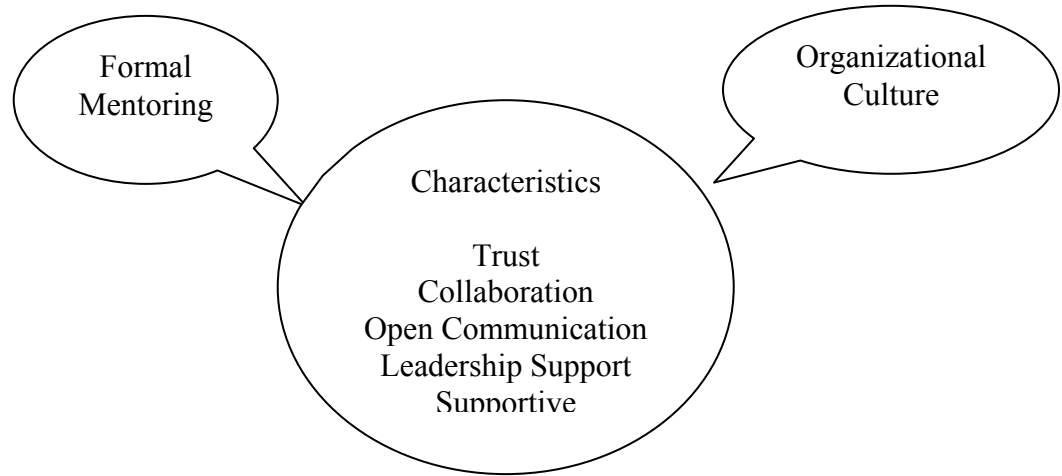
Figure 2. Shared characteristics of mentoring and organizational culture

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to analyze different organizational culture profiles and analyze how they might influence the acceptance of a formal mentoring initiative. The research used the CVF developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983). The implications of the study may be significant as organizations prepare to implement formal mentoring programs. The findings may also be helpful in determining what type of culture an organization has and whether that culture may be effective for the implementation of a formal mentoring program .

Research Questions

This research explored two questions:

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1. Does organizational culture have a positive effect on the implementation of formal mentoring initiatives?

2. Is there a culture type that supports the successful implementation of formal mentoring programs?

These questions were explored through the CVF to establish if there was a relationship between organizational culture and the implementation of formal mentoring programs. The literature review explored the four cultural types of the framework to ascertain which of the culture types would have the most profound impact on formal mentoring programs. It is paramount to gather the responses to this first question before organizations begin the implementation of formal mentoring programs.

This is a quantitative study designed to advance the understanding of the impact of organizational culture on the successful implementation of a formal mentoring programs. Specifically, two major data collection strategies were employed: first was the selection of those organizations that had developed and maintained formal mentoring programs for a period of 5 years or more. An organizational profile instrument was used to collect demographic information on the organization and was self-administered by members of the organization. The researcher contacted key personnel within the organizations to verify information and data collected.

The second data collection method involved the administration of the Organization Culture Assessment Inventory (OCAI) to those organizations. The OCAI is a tool designed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) to determine the perceptual thinking of an organization as it pertains to organizational culture. The tool measures the likelihood of

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organizational change initiatives and it has been shown effective in the determination of organizations' categorizations.

The population used for this study was organizations that implemented formal mentoring programs. The organizations were selected from The Mentoring Society, *Fortune* 500 listings, Society of Human Resources Management (SHRM), and International Personnel Management Association (IPMA) membership. The criterion for selection was those organizations within the United States that have had formal mentoring program for at least 5 years.

<div align="center">Significance of the Study</div>

The significance of the study was in the examination of the relationship between various organizational cultures and dimensions of formal mentoring programs. This is significant as organizations attempt to incorporate formal mentoring programs as a strategy, because study results could conserve resources prior to the implementation. Once the organizational culture has been determined, necessary changes to the culture can be undertaken prior to implementation.

The findings of this study may be of great value to organizations as they begin to investigate formal mentoring program initiatives. The implications may help an organization determine if the formal mentoring initiative would increase the organization's competitive advantage. This is critical, given the time, money, and resources that organizations commit when embarking upon change initiatives. Subsequently having a better understanding of the relationship between organizational culture and the implementation of formal mentoring initiatives may improve the

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organization's ability to expend these resources effectively. The research findings may also be important on a universal level: as many organizations attempt to find solutions for the impending labor shortage, they will need to determine the most effective manner to replace those seasoned workers with skilled successors.

Definition of Terms

Several terms are central to the development and understanding of this study. The following definitions are offered as a means to establish a uniform understanding.

Culture. This is a pattern of shared basic assumptions that a group has learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1992).

Mentee. This is individual who aspires to achieve professional development through a mentor (Hendricks & Hendricks, 1995).

Mentor. A trusted teacher or counselor who has the mentee's best interests at heart and who voluntarily helps the mentee learn the ropes of the business (Ragins, 1989). Kram (1985) defined a mentor as an individual with advanced experience and knowledge who is committed to providing upward mobility and career support to a protégé.

Mentoring. This is an ongoing relationship to assist in the development of professional growth. Mentoring is also defined as a process that allows an individual to advance to expanded professional roles by assistance, support, and transference of knowledge and skills (Kram, 1985; Mullen, 1998). Mentoring is a developmental, caring, sharing, and helping relationship where one person [mentor] invests time, know-how, and

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effort to enhance another person's [mentee's/protégé's] growth, knowledge, and skills, and responds to critical needs in the life of that person in ways that prepare the individual for greater productivity and achievement in the future.

Mentoring relationship. This is a relationship in which experienced people, mentors, share their time and knowledge with others, mentees, who are willing to perform the work required to be successful (Stanley & Clinton, 1992).

Organizational culture. This is the organization's values, beliefs, principles, practices and behaviors. Simply stated, it is the reason organizations do what they do (Schein, 1992).

Assumptions and Limitations

The study should be viewed in terms of some assumptions and limitations. The population sampled was U.S. organizations that had formal mentoring programs in place for at least 5 years. The sample was limited to only 100 companies from among the many U.S. organizations. It was unknown whether the organizations would share what might be considered as proprietary information.

Other assumptions included that persons with similar understanding about each organization would complete the survey. It was the intention of the research that the chief learning officer, persons with human resources experience, or persons with organization development experience complete the survey. If this were not the case, a common knowledge and understanding of the organization might not have existed. Additionally, the study utilized a self-report survey, which can cause concern for uniform understanding and variance in interpretation. Another limitation of this study was that the

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survey was distributed and responses gathered using the Internet. The use of the Internet was considered due to the researcher's limited resources and the cost savings of gathering data about large populations.

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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Background of Organizational Culture

The importance of organizational culture often has been overlooked by organizations when implementing the newest, latest, and greatest organizational initiative. It became apparent in the early 1980s as Peters and Waterman (2004) made the point that organizational culture had a profound effect on change reactions. It was further explored by Cameron and Quinn (1999) and it spawned the creation of their CVF instrument. Although researchers and practitioners developed useful approaches to diagnosing organizational culture, Cummins and Worley (1993) described organizational culture in three different perspectives: (a) the behavioral approach, (b) the competing values approach, and (c) the deep assumption approach. Each of these has its own separate nuances, but they remain complementary and focus on the different aspects of organizational culture.

Organizational culture has been described as beliefs, values, attitude, norms of behavior, routines, traditions, ceremonies, and rewards (Schein, 1992). If the culture is conducive to learning and growth, then the initiatives that are introduced will be successful in achieving organizational effectiveness. The culture of an organization is highly important when considering any type of change initiative (Schneider, 1990). The culture of an organization manifests it ability to thrive or to meet an early demise. It is

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through the culture that initiatives either succeed or fail. If the culture is positive and supports learning and growing, initiatives that mimic these characteristics have a propensity to be prosperous. However, if the organizational culture does not support these characteristics, the likelihood of the initiative gaining momentum decreases. According to Schein (1992), the right mixture consists of good communication, an atmosphere of trust, and the ability to accept and embrace change. Schein (1992) described organizational culture as a pattern of basic assumptions that a group has developed and which it uses to interact and solve problems.

<div align="center">The Competing Values Framework</div>

Cameron and Quinn (1999) developed the CVF model, which has received a great deal of publicity and which embodies a high degree of validity. The CVF was developed from research conducted to determine the relationship between organizational culture and major indicators of organizational effectiveness. This empirical research spawned two dimensions that further divided into four main categories. The first dimension is from internal to external focus and integration, and the second is from flexibility to stability (see Figure 3).

Internal Versus External Focus

The first dimension, which focuses on the differentiation between internal and external focus, pertains to the organization's effectiveness. An organization is considered to be internally oriented if it has harmony within the existing structure. An externally focused organization, according to Cameron and Quinn (1999), is one in which the focus

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in regard to organization effectiveness is on interacting with outside sources and seeking

improvements based on environmental changes.

Flexibility

Clan Culture	Adhocracy
Internal	External
Hierarchy	Market

Control
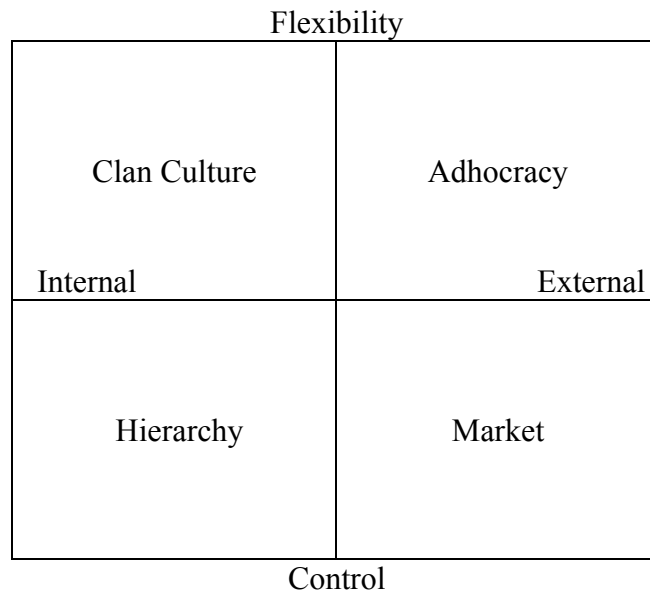
Figure 3. Competing values framework

Note. Adapted from *Diagnosing and Changing Organizations' Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*, by K. S. Cameron, & R. E. Quinn, (1999, Reading, MS: Addison Wesley. Copyright 1999 by Addison Wesley. Adapted with permission of the author.

Flexibility Versus Stability

This continuum of the CVF model establishes the effectiveness of the

organization based on how it changes and how it adapts to the changes as compared to

other organizations. It is noted that organizations that support integration and that are

centralized are control oriented, whereas organizations that support differentiation and

that are decentralized are flexibility oriented.

Four Cultures

The CVF, as developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999), consists of four culture

types, clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market (See Figure 3).

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The clan culture is described as a culture that values teamwork, employee development, participation, and openness. The mantra of the organization is to focus on the development of human capital and encourage employee participation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Adhocracy culture concentrates on the external focus. The main concern is creativity, adaptability, and flexibility. In this type of culture, the emphasis is placed on risk-taking, individuality, and looking toward future endeavors (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

The hierarchy culture is more internally focused and moves toward the stability continuum. The main directives of this type culture are efficiency, stability, and predictability. This type of culture is more formalized and has structured workplaces, where rules and policies are most prevalent.

The market culture is the culture in which values are focused toward competitiveness, productivity and goal achievement. This is most often seen in organizations that are highly competitive and more customer-driven, with a primary emphasis on the bottom line.

Organizational Culture Research

The research on organizational culture spans a variety of business initiatives, and it is through these initiatives and their levels of success that culture becomes paramount. As organizations look more closely at both their internal and external factors, they realize the importance of organizational culture attributes to the bottom line. As such, organizations make varied attempts to determine the organization's cultural orientation

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and to decipher whether the business initiatives are supportive of their cultural types. The most prevalent framework in determining organizational effectiveness, the CVF, has been a factor in many studies.

A significant exploratory study was conducted by Chang and Wiebe (1995) wherein they attempted to seek out the ideal culture for total quality management. In an effort to test the research question, Chang and Wiebe invited a panel of members from the Conference Board of the Total Quality Management Center, who played an intricate part in developing various aspects of total quality initiatives, and asked them to indicate the extent to which the six issues on the CVF supported total quality principles. The research revealed that the total quality principles are not characterized by one culture, but are a combination of many of the cultural types. According to Chang and Wiebe (1995), the clan and adhocracy culture types were most prevalent within an ideal organization, wherein the organization values human capital development and innovativeness. The organizational climate was characterized as one of trust, strong support, and fostered creativity.

Another study that utilized the CVF by Dellana and Hauser (1999) examined the relationship between TQM and organizational culture. Here the Baldrige Award criteria were split into seven categories: leadership; information and analysis; customer focus and satisfaction; strategic quality planning; management of process and quality; human resource development, and management and quality and operational results. Dellana and Hauser indicated the adhocracy culture was strongly linked to TQM initiatives. Although the clan culture showed a positive relationship to TQM, it was not as strong as the adhocracy. Further, organizations that emphasized the values in these two quadrants, clan

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and adhocracy, supported decentralization and differentiation, and the organizations characteristically had a climate of trust, positive attitudes toward the organization, equity of rewards, and adaptability.

A study by Dension and Mishara (1995) sought to develop a model of organizational culture and effectiveness. They found a positive relationship between culture and effectiveness. They performed two separate studies wherein they linked the nature of organizational effectiveness with four cultural traits: involvement, consistency, mission, and adaptability. The participants included the chief executive officers from 764 organizations. In order to determine effectiveness, Denison and Mishra used the growth and stability traits. To determine involvement and adaptability, they used the flexibility, openness, and responsiveness traits. On the other end of the spectrum, consistency and mission, they used integration, direction, and vision as indicators of profitability. The results suggested that each of four cultural traits showed a positive relationship with organizational effectiveness. The study was additionally significant because it showed links between specific traits and criteria for effectiveness. These same characteristics are noted in other mentoring models (Cohen, 1999, Holliday, 2001). Cohen (1999) noted six dimensions of a mentoring relationship that connect to organizational characteristics (see Table 3).

The literature review of the CVF as it pertains to organizational effectiveness revealed a positive relationship between organizational culture and effective organizational outcomes. The four cultures as described by Cameron and Quinn (1999) have direct correlation to outcomes; the clan and adhocracy culture types have a more

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positive likelihood of effective organizational outcomes. These outcomes are also closely related to the organization's ability to be more flexible.

Table 3

Mentoring Dimensions and Organizational Characteristics

Mentoring Dimensions	Organizational Characteristics
Relationship	Developing trust
Informative	Advice
Facilitative	Generating alternatives
Confrontative	Challenging
Mentor model	Motivating
Employee vision	Initiating

Mentoring in Business

As the concept of mentoring moved into the 21st century, Murray (2001) provided a brief history of the renewed interest and research into mentoring and concluded that academic research, popular literature, and personal accounts tout the value of informal mentoring in every conceivable vocation and avocation. Researchers advocated facilitated mentoring programs in organizations and provided research to validate the benefits to the organizations, while speaking forthrightly concerning organizational challenges (Murray, 2001). While research on mentoring continues, researchers in the business environment face several new problems. Included are the type of environment in which mentoring initiatives thrives, the roles of the mentor and protégées, training of the

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participants, and functions of the participants (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995). These are all important components in whether mentoring as an initiative is embraced or avoided by the organization.

Mentoring continues to gain popularity while practitioners search for the proper mix of environment and culture to promote the most effective program. There are certain principles that are prominent in the success of formal mentoring. The seminal works of mentoring support the theory that mentoring is an advantage for organizations.

The recent mentoring explosion has piqued the curiosity of many organizational development practitioners. As such, many organizations have been studied to determine the necessary characteristics for developing a mentoring program. Several characteristics are repeatedly represented:

1. Designing the program (Cohen, 1999; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Phillips-Jones, 1983)

2. Candidate screening (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Murray, 2001)

3. Matching the mentor and mentee (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Holliday, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Murray, 2001; Ragins et al., 2000)

4. Communicating the mentoring program (Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Kram, 1985; Ragins et al., 2000)

5. Selecting the mentor and mentee (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Holliday, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Murray, 2001; Ragins et al., 2000)

6. Having a training and support vehicle (Cohen, 1999; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Phillips-Jones, 1983)

7. Providing feedback and evaluation (Cohen, 1999; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Phillips-Jones, 1983)

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Program Design

It is important when designing any type of program that the objectives be clearly defined. This helps the organization and participants by providing a guide and direction to details of the program. In creating formal mentoring programs, this is a critical characteristic. The program design tells the participants the objective of the program, the eligible participants, and the duration of the program. (Cohen, 1999; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Phillips-Jones, 1983)

Candidate Screening/Matching

The candidate selection is another important criterion for formal mentoring. Many organizations have screening applications for both the mentor and the mentee. Another objective is to provide a tool through which the prospective mentee will select the mentor. This relates to the one of the seminal characteristics of mentoring, where the mentees pair themselves with trusted mentors for development. The term *trusted* in some mentoring programs relates to someone with whom that the mentee is familiar and for whom there is respect. As noted in the definitions section, the characteristic of trust resonates (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Holliday, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Murray, 2001; Ragins et al., 2000).

Support and Training Mechanism

Training is a characteristic that is important for any strategic initiative. Participants, especially in mentoring programs, must be able to discern the roles and responsibilities, the program objectives, and the path to work through the many avenues of mentoring. These functions are most effectively accomplished through training. Although the mentoring program objectives are defined in the early part of the mentoring

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program, it is important to maintain a support system for the program. The support system may be composed of a coordinator who is responsible for the communication of the program, for developing additional opportunities based on feedback, and most importantly, for keeping all of the stakeholders abreast of the progress and newest developments (Cohen, 1999; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Phillips-Jones, 1983).

Feedback and Evaluation Process

The evaluation and assessment process, although last in the efforts of developing a mentoring program, is by far one of the most important factors for the program success. It is through this vehicle that mentoring programs remain viable. The program coordinator evaluates the mission and objectives of the program and program participants to determine its success and locate areas where improvement is needed (Cohen, 1999; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Phillips-Jones, 1983).

Summary

In summary, the literature review revealed that for the effective implementation of a formal mentoring program, a certain cultural characteristics must be present in the organization. Specifically, the review highlighted the background of organizational culture and mentoring. It associated the type areas and their pertinence to the business world, and finally, bridged the relationship between the organizational culture and formal mentoring. The literature review highlighted the important factors that must be considered for effective implementation of formal mentoring programs: a culture type that embraces sharing, trust, involvement, openness, and creativity is required.

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CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to determine if there is a relationship between

organizational culture and the dimensions of formal mentoring programs. It also explored

the cultural types that would be most conducive for the successful implementation of a

formal mentoring program. The research examined four different culture types as

presented by Cameron and Quinn (1999) and bridged the concept of its relationship to the

implementation of formal mentoring programs.

This chapter discusses the research questions; the research design, including the

identification of dependent and independent variables; data collection methodology and

instruments, with justification for using them, reliability and validity, and scoring

instructions; statistical hypotheses; and data analysis procedures.

Research Questions

This research explored two questions:

1. Does organizational culture have a positive effect on the implementation
   of formal mentoring initiatives?

2. Is there an organizational culture type that supports the successful
   implementation of formal mentoring programs?

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These questions were examined through the CVF (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) to establish if there is a relationship between organizational culture and the implementation of formal mentoring programs. The research reviewed the four cultural types of the framework to ascertain which of the culture types had the most profound impact on formal mentoring programs. It is paramount to gather the responses to the first question before organizations begin the implementation of formal mentoring programs.

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

$H1_0$: There is no significant relationship between organizational culture and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

$H1_A$: There is a significant relationship between formal mentoring and organizational culture as measured by the OCAI.

The purpose of the hypothesis testing was to test the validity of the null hypothesis in light of the experimental data. Since the researcher believed organizational culture had an impact on the successful implementation of formal mentoring programs, the researcher looked for data to contradict the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1 questioned whether there is a relationship between organizational culture and formal mentoring programs. Acceptance of the null hypothesis indicates that a relationship exists between organizational culture and formal mentoring initiatives.

$H2_0$: There is no relationship between clan culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

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H2$_A$: There is a relationship between clan culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

Hypothesis 2 questioned whether there is a relationship between the clan organizational culture type and formal mentoring programs. Acceptance of the null hypothesis indicates that a relationship exists between the clan organizational culture type and formal mentoring initiatives.

H3$_0$: There is no relationship between adhocracy culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

H3$_A$: There is a relationship between adhocracy culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

Hypothesis 3 questioned whether there is a relationship between the adhocracy organizational culture type and formal mentoring programs. Acceptance of the null hypothesis indicates that a relationship exists between the adhocracy organizational culture type and formal mentoring initiatives.

H4$_0$: There is no relationship between market culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

H4$_A$: There is a relationship between market culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

Hypothesis 4 questioned whether there is a relationship between the market organizational culture type and formal mentoring programs. Acceptance of the null hypothesis indicates that a relationship exists between the market organizational culture type and formal mentoring initiatives.

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H5$_0$: There is no relationship between hierarchy culture type and formal

mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

H5$_A$: There is a relationship between hierarchy culture type and formal mentoring

as measured by the OCAI.

Hypothesis 5 questioned whether there is a relationship between the hierarchy

organizational culture type and formal mentoring programs. Acceptance of the null

hypothesis indicates that a relationship exists between the hierarchy organizational

culture type and formal mentoring initiatives.

Research Design and Methodology

This was a quantitative study designed to advance the understanding of the impact

of organizational culture on the successful implementation of a formal mentoring

program. The target population of this study was U.S. organizations that have had formal

mentoring programs in existence for at least 5 years. Since this research intended to

generalize about the population that has formal mentoring programs, random sampling

was necessary. In such cases, information collected from the sample was used to make

estimates about the population. The intent was to use a large sample size to decrease the

sampling error. As is customary, the study used a 5% margin of error, which is an

indicator of the range of values that results when using a sample to estimate a population.

Therefore, a 5% margin of error means that 50% of those organizations with formal

mentoring programs are impacted by organizational culture, and the research can be

reasonably certain that 47.5 % to 52.5% of the entire population was affected. The

researcher used SPSS to assist in the calculation of the results. Most social science

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researchers who use simple random samples also use the default significance test generated by SPSS or other statistical packages.

There is a great deal of debate over the use of qualitative or quantitative methods in the study of organizational culture. The proponents of this idea suggest that only a thick description of an organization can reflect its culture, and that such descriptions can only be produced by using qualitative methods (Barney, 1983; Smircich, 1983). The criticism that quantitative methods cannot identify the deeply hidden aspects of culture has some merit, as the standardized and structured format of questionnaires is not necessarily conducive to directly investigating the most unconscious and abstract layer of organizational culture. Nevertheless, the survey method is commended by a number of researchers for its ability to make a fuzzy field more accessible on a number of relatively salient components of organizational culture (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Rousseau, 1990). Mohan, as cited in Hawkins (1997), argued that the two methods should be used to measure different levels of organizational culture. Mohan explained thus: if one "Looks at root metaphors, stories, and rituals . . . [one] uses more qualitative research with the elicitation of the accounts of the culture by those within it" (Mohan, as cited in Hawkins, p. 424). However, if one "focuses most on the structure and function of the organization . . . [one] relies more heavily on quantitative research methods and external analysis by researchers (Mohan, as cited in Hawkins, p. 424).

Moreover, according to the multilevel concept of organizational culture (Schein, 1996), values and behavioral norms are the manifestations of underlying assumptions and are therefore the culture-bearing reflections of an organization. Viewed in this light, using quantitative methods to assess organizational culture is acceptable to many researchers

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(e.g., Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Hofstede, 1998; Hofstede, Bond, & Luk, 1993; Rousseau, 1990), provided that the researchers are fully aware of their constraints. This researcher also realized the shortcomings of data collection by e-mail and mail; face-to-face interviews would be desirable, but not feasible.

Random sampling increases the likelihood that the information collected is representative of the entire group. Sample sizes are based on what the researcher wants to know, what will be useful in the research and lend creditability, as well as what can be accomplished in the timeframes (Isaac & Michael, 1981; Patton, 1990). In the realm of participant surveys, it is noted (Aberdeen Group, 2006) that there are three primary reasons participants involve themselves in research: (a) benchmarking, (b) ability to get first-hand information about other organizations, and (c) to be on the leading edge of research. This researcher took into account all of these factors and provided sufficient cause for organizations to participate in this research project. It was anticipated that, due to the incentive of gaining access to the research results and the organizations' desire to seek competitive advantage, organizations would be inspired to participate.

The data in this survey was collected utilizing an online secure Web server, Survey Monkey. The information was maintained in a secured database that was password-protected. The use of surveys and assessments in an online environment has become an accepted an vehicle for data collection (Buchanan, 2000). More researchers are using online data collection because it provides ease of participant responses, reaches a wider range of participants, and has a faster calculable rate (Buchanan, 2000; Maheu & Gordon, 2000; Reips, 2000). The researcher reviewed these characteristics and found them appropriate for this study.

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Prior to the implementation of the research, a field test was conducted at the researcher's place of employment, the Hampton Roads Sanitation District (HRSD). The organization has a formal mentoring program, as well as a quality program that encourages the development of its human capital and the organization as a whole. Several employees assist the organization with this effort; they are titled "quality facilitators." The quality facilitators are the organization's highest level of quality initiative pioneers. The team consists of a representative from each of the five departments and is a cross section of organization. Because these employees are intimately involved in the quality program at HRSD, this population would be most familiar with organizational culture and mentoring program initiatives. The survey responses from this group assisted in determining several characteristics of the survey tools: clarity, ratability, focus, dispersion of responses, positive wording, fit with response scale, and items and responses that are not confounded to the scale. Based upon the responses, the survey tools and administration were adjusted.

Following this exercise and upon the approval of Capella's Institutional Review Board (IRB), a pilot test was conducted to establish reliability and validity of the survey questionnaire before the final survey was utilized in the real study. The pilot test allowed the researcher to adjust the instrument (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). The results of the pilot test helped the researcher test the analysis procedures, improve the verbiage of questions, and maximize response rates.

The researcher used two sample respondents to establish the validity and reliability of the survey instrument. The sample respondents were two organizational development professionals from organizations that had formal mentoring programs for 5

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or more years. These respondents were a part of the research study. The test respondents were sent an e-mail with a user identification and password. The e-mail also included the link to the survey instrument. Based on the results of the pilot test, the survey instrument was evaluated and questions changed accordingly.

In this study, it was important to be reasonably certain that the sample size was large enough to compensate for nonresponses (Isaac & Michael, 1981). According to Devore (2004) in order to gain significant analysis of the data, a minimum of 30 participants must be recruited. Based on random sampling methodology, 50 potential participants were targeted. The criterion for selection was organizations in the United States that had formal mentoring programs that had been functional for at least 5 years. In an effort to gain an adequate level of participation, the assistance of affiliated professional organizations was solicited. These included the Society of Human Resources, national and Hampton Roads chapters; the International Personnel Management Association, national and Virginia chapters; Southeastern Virginia American Society of Training and Development; and organizations that through the literature were noted to have formal mentoring programs. A preliminary e-mail was sent, noting the conditions for participation, to include anonymity and confidentiality. After receiving initial agreement to participate, a listing of potential participants was compiled. It was the intent to garner initial agreements from 70 organizations, with the assumption that the presolicitation letter would generate results better than the average 35% response rate.

When the volunteers' acceptance of participation was gained, a second letter or e-mail was sent to the responding volunteer, requesting the respondent's participation in the research and providing affirmation that the information obtained would remain

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confidential. The letter also stated that the vehicle of correspondence would be the Internet, unless the volunteer requested a paper survey. The e-mail included a user ID and password. It also provided instructions on how to access the study Website, accept participation in the study, and respond to the organizational profile instrument and organizational culture assessment inventory. The time allowed to submit the survey and receive responses was established at 45 days. A reminder notification was sent 15 days from the date of the first survey. During the third week, follow-up was conducted with a third e-mail. The data collection instruments consisted of two components:

1.   Organizational profile instrument (Appendix A)

2.   Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Appendix B) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999)

The first section of the research described the organizations being researched. The information concentrated on the attributes of the respondent, such as age, education, gender, and years of service. The researcher also contacted key personnel within the organizations to verify information and collect additional pertinent data. These key positions had a common knowledge of the organizational and human capital development programs. Typically, human resources or organizational development personnel were the most appropriate (Cummins & Worley, 1993; Swanson, 1999) as they could provide consistency in terminology and practical information with regard to organizational culture and formal mentoring programs.

The OCAI tool used a 5-point Likert-type scale. It had been used in several prominent studies and was renowned for its accuracy. It is an important tool in determining the types of cultures and their aptitude for formal mentoring programs. Six

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questions related to areas of organizational culture: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational strategy, and criteria for success. Each of the four items in the six scales related to one of the four dimensions of organizational culture. The OCAI was used because it had been shown valid and reliable in terms of examining organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The OCAI is a public-domain document, and therefore no permission was necessary for its use. The OCAI has been validated for measuring six key dimensions of organizational culture

1.   Organization dominant characteristics

2.   Organizational leadership

3.   Management of employees

4.   Organizational glue

5.   Strategic emphases

6.   Organization criteria for success

Cameron and Quinn (1999) provided a summary of the OCAI reliability and validity using Cronbach's alpha to assess reliability. Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) conducted a study that included 796 executives, with reliability statistics computed for each of the four cultural types assessed by the instrument. They found that each of the coefficients was statistically significant. The coefficient results were .74 for the clan culture, .70 for the adhocracy culture, .73 for the hierarchy culture, and .71 for the market culture. Yeung, Brockbank, and Ulrich (1991) provided additional evidence in the reliability of the instrument. They studied 10,300 executives and determined that the clan

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culture reliability was .79, the adhocracy .80, hierarchy .76, and market .77. Reliability of the instrument was confirmed by Zammuto and Krakower (1991) when they studied more than 1,300 respondents, resulting in a reliability coefficient for each of the culture types: clan .82, adhocracy .83, hierarchy .67, and market .78.

With regard to validity, Cameron and Quinn (1999) stated, "The empirical evidence suggests that the OCAI measures what it claims to measure, namely, key dimensions of organizational and individual behavior. Moreover, it measures these dimensions in a reliable way" (p. 144). Cameron and Freeman (1991) produced evidence of validity when they matched the four culture types with the domain the in which the organization excelled, the type of decision-making and organizational structure, and the manner in which they employed strategy.

Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis was used to provide profiles of the organizations and respondents. The data included information regarding the respondent's age, education, gender, position, and years of service. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to validate whether a relationship exists between formal mentoring and organizational culture. This measure was chosen because the study measured the relationship between two variables. This relationship could also be easily computed using SPSS. The criterion for the rejection of the null hypothesis was a determination of statistical significance at the $p < 0.5$ level of probability.

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CHAPTER 4: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of the research was to determine if a relationship exists between formal mentoring programs and organizational culture. This chapter describes the data collection process, data analysis, findings, and a summary of the data obtained. All research criteria were followed in accordance with research and findings.

Research Sampling

In preparation for the research approval, the researcher reviewed professional periodicals, researched *Fortune* 500 companies and gathered names of organizations that had formal mentoring programs. The researcher also used personal contacts with professional organizations to expand the list of potential survey participants. . The researcher developed a spreadsheet of potential participants to include names and addresses of the organizations along with e-mail addresses of human resources and training and development professionals. Several organizational presidents and chairpersons of development were contacted to obtain approval to solicit their membership to participate in an online survey.

Included in the correspondence was a brief summary of the survey, along with the criteria for participating in the survey. The correspondence included the name and contact

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information of the committee chair and the researcher's name and e-mail address, if the professional member was interested in participating in the survey. After prospective participants acknowledged the Internet news announcement and newsletter solicitations, the prospective participants e-mailed the researcher and either expressed a desire to participate in the survey and or volunteered contact names of other organizations that might be willing to participate in the survey. The researcher reviewed the participant list to highlight those that expressed and interest and added new names of organizations that were recommended as viable participants. After many e-mail contacts with potential participants, the researcher collected 30 potential participants (Table 2). Upon acknowledging the organization's criteria for participating, the researcher thanked the potential participant for replying and informed the respondents that the dissertation proposal was undergoing review by the Capella IRB and that upon approval, the participant would be e-mailed a link to the survey. All of the preliminary activities occurred within a 3-month period, with no more than a 2-day turnaround for correspondence between the researcher and the prospective participant.

Survey Distribution

The data was collected using an online survey domain, Survey Monkey. Online surveys have been used as a method of data collection to gather and analyze data from varied respondents in an environment that is nonintrusive and safe (Buchanan, 2000; Maheu & Gordon, 2000; Reips, 2000). Survey Monkey provided an environment where respondents could go to a predefined link and provide responses. Utilizing this vehicle also allowed the researcher to collect and analyze data by using SPSS.

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The survey was initially slotted for 45 days; however, the early response rate was slow. The researcher sent mass e-mails 2 weeks after the survey went live, thanking those who participated in the survey and encouraging others to respond. The response rate increased by two more respondents. The researcher also received three follow-up e-mails from potential participants, apologizing for not having completed the survey but giving indications that they would take the survey within the next few days. In an effort to gain more participants, the researcher once again solicited the help of professional organizations and requested a second post of the newsletter and Web blasts. The Web blast is a, announcement board that organizations use to send out quick announcements and queries to its membership. This is an effective tool when organizations want to make members aware of items that are time-sensitive and need immediate attention.

In addition, within the same two-week timeframe, the researcher sent personal e-mails to identify interested participants from National SHRM organizations, National IPMA and Training and Development Associations, and solicited additional help in acquiring participants for the survey. The researcher questioned the response rate and surmised that potential participants' schedules did not allow them to participate in the survey, there was loss of interest in the subject matter, or people were too busy with the normal day-to-day activities to make survey participation a priority. Despite the best efforts of the researcher, the survey produced 23 participants, with a final sample size of twelve complete survey responses. Although this type of sample size does not lend itself to robust data analysis, it was useful for descriptive and non-parametric statistical analysis. Descriptive analysis is used for quantitative research as a method to describe

data and gather impressions about the data. The information can be displayed in many forms and tested for means, variances and dispersions.

Survey Instrument

The online survey for this research project was titled *Formal Mentoring and Organizational Culture*. It was separated into four sections. The first section provided an explanation of the survey research criteria along with the conditions for participating in the survey. The survey participants had to select "I Agree" before the survey would advance. If the participant did not select "I Agree," the survey forwarded to a thank-you page and the participant could not progress further into the survey.

The second section solicited demographic information. The researcher attempted to gather information about the different characteristics of organizations that had formal mentoring programs: type of organization, number of employees, organizational development officers, age, gender, and training and promotional opportunities. The third section focused specifically on formal mentoring questions. Questions were formulated based on information obtained in the research literature to solicit responses that addressed ideal characteristics of formal mentoring programs: program design, candidate selection, matching mentors and mentees, communicating the program, training and support, and evaluation and feedback. This section also solicited an overall rating of the organization's formal mentoring program. The final section included Cameron and Quinn's (1999) Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory. The OCAI is an assessment tool that measures key dimensions of organizational and individual behavior.

Reliability of the Instrument

To determine the consistency of the formal mentoring results, Cronbach's alpha was used for the items in the pretest. The formal mentoring aspects of the survey indicated an acceptable level of consistency. An alpha value of .07 was an acceptable indicator of internal consistency. The OCAI developed by Cameron & Quinn (1999) was tested by previous research and is reliable (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Yeung et al., 1991; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991). In the pretest, the alpha values were tested for all of the individual items determined to be significant for effective formal mentoring programs. All of the resulting alpha values were above 0.94. These results are presented in Appendix C.

Validity of the Instrument

The OCAI developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) is valid, as tested by previous research. With regard to validity, Cameron and Quinn (1999) stated, "The empirical evidence suggests that the OCAI measures what it claims to measure, namely, key dimensions of organizational and individual behavior. Moreover, it measures these dimensions in a reliable way" (p. 144). Cameron and Freeman (1991) produced evidence of validity when they matched the four culture types with the domain in which the organization excelled, the type of decision-making, organizational structure, and the manner in which strategy was employed.

The items highlighted in the survey instrument to determine effective formal mentoring characteristics were tested using correlation coefficients and were found to be statistically significant. These characteristics were selection of the mentor and the mentee, pairing of the mentor and mentee, program design, training and development,

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feedback, and evaluation. All of these characteristics were mentioned in the formal

mentoring research literature as characteristics of successful formal mentoring programs

(Burke & McKeen, 1989; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Holliday, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kram,

1985; Murray, 2001; Ragins et al., 2000). Each characteristic was measured using

Pearson's correlation to determine the relationship to formal mentoring; all had positive

correlations. If there are positive correlations, the survey items are determined to be

significant.

Study Sample Demographic Data

The study consisted of twelve organizations that had formal mentoring programs

for a minimum of 5 years. The demographic data of the sample included organizational

levels, business type, years of service, population, gender, age, education, promotions,

and training opportunities. The final questions in this section queried the respondent's

rating of the success of the organization's formal mentoring program. The tool used for

statistical analysis was the *Statistical Package for Social Science, SPSS 11.0*. The survey

presented 12 participants. Three of the organizations represented service organizations,

four represented educational institutions, three represented government, three self-

reported as other, one was from service, and one was from industry.

Organizational Level

The organizations used in the survey were identified from research discovered in

the literature review, personal networking contacts, professional human resources

organizations, and training and development memberships. The participants were either

human resources or training and development professionals who were responsible for the

administration of the formal mentoring programs. The participants' organizational levels are depicted in Figure 4 . The figure identifies that the majority of the respondents were 58% from senior management (i.e., Chief Learning Officers, Director of Human Resources, Director of Training and Development, Staff Development Manager); 61% from support staff (i.e., training and development assistants,), and 8% each from other, technical, and middle management (e.g.., human resources analysts, training and development technicians).
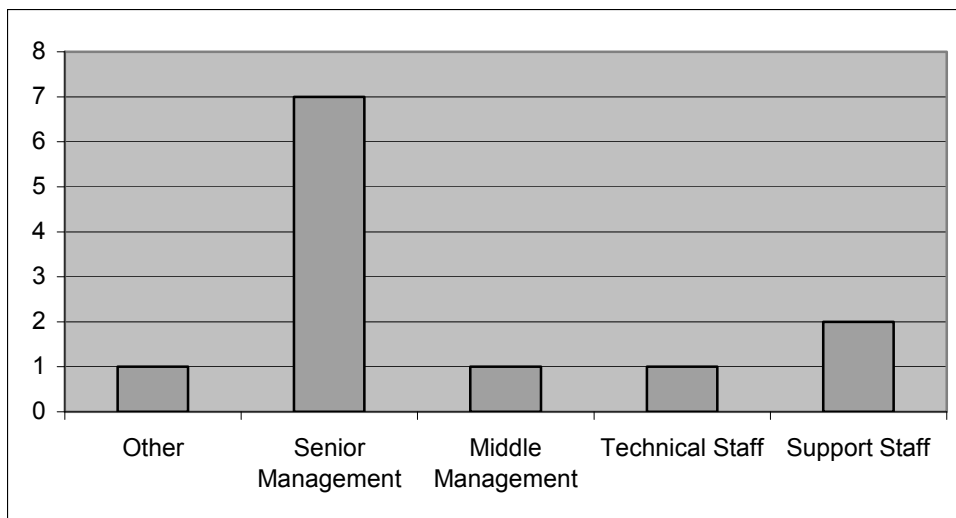
Figure 4. Organizational level of participants

Organization Type

The organizations represented various sectors: education, government, health, services, industrial, and a category noted as other. The participants' organization types are depicted in Figure 5. The figure indicates that the majority of the respondents were in education (i.e., universities), 33%, or government (i.e., state and municipal government agencies), 25%.

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Figure 5. Organizational type of participants
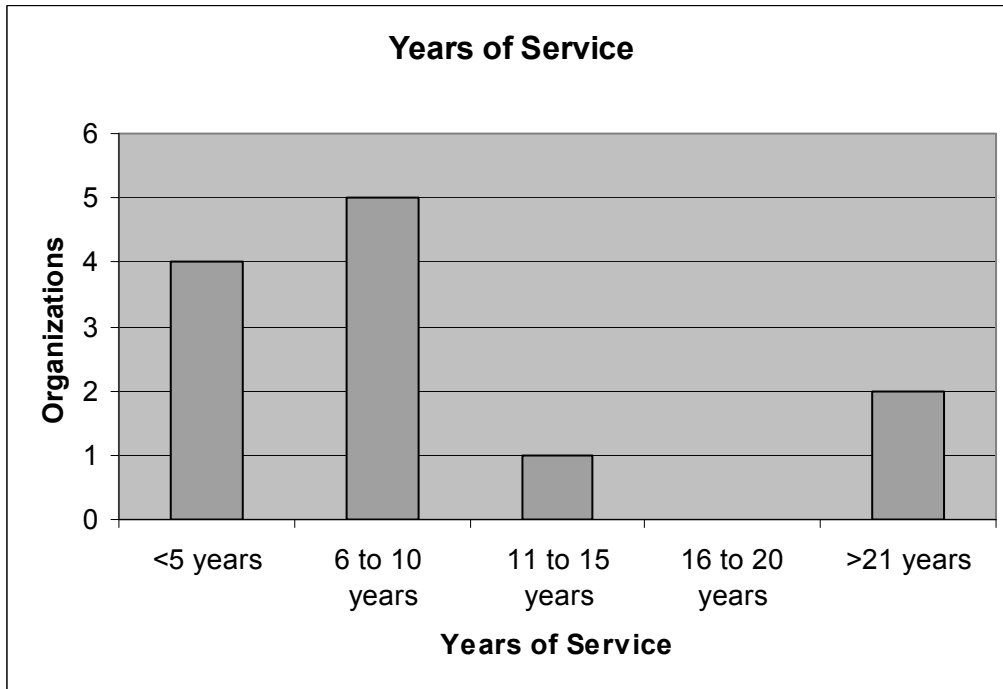
Figure 6. Years of service of participants

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Years of Service

The participants' years of service are depicted in Figure 6. The figure identifies that the majority of the participants, 41%, had 6 to 10 years of experience.
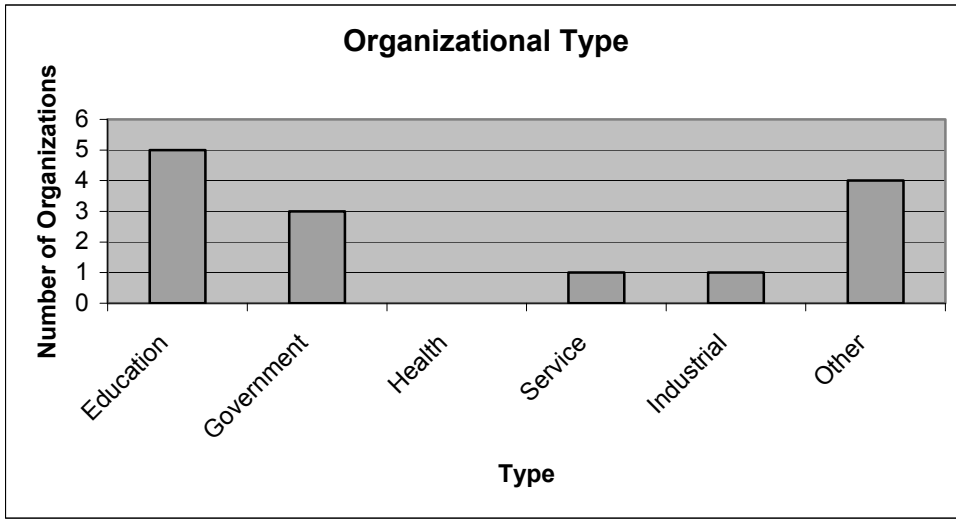
Organizations and Years of Service

The survey resulted in twelve reporting organizations, of which the participants in the education and government industries had 21 plus years of service. The participants in the service and industrial had average service times of 6 to 15 years (see Figure 7).

Gender

The participants' organization types are depicted in Figure 7. The figure identifies 75% of participants as female and 25% as male.
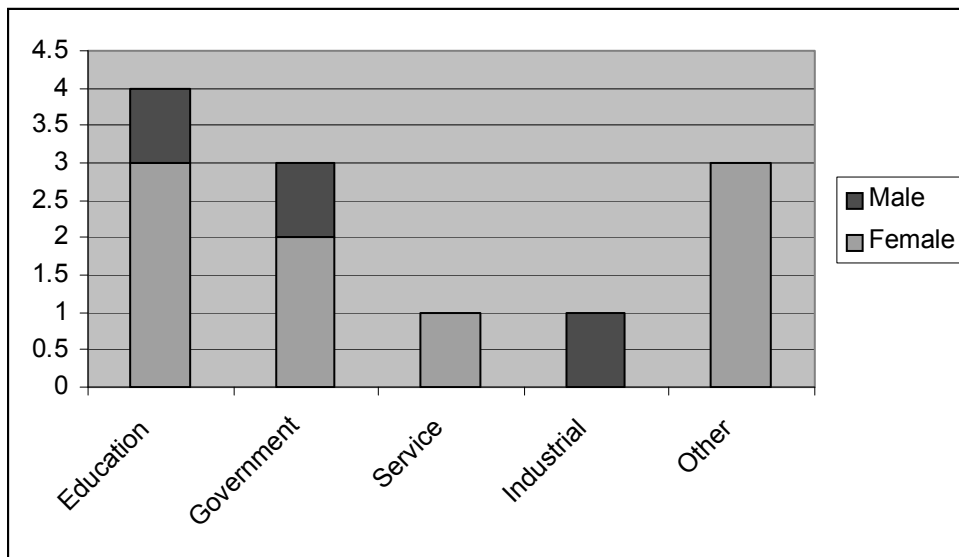
Figure 7. Gender by organization type

Age

The participants' organization types and ages are depicted in the Figure 8. The figure shows that the majority of the participants were between the ages of 41 and 51.

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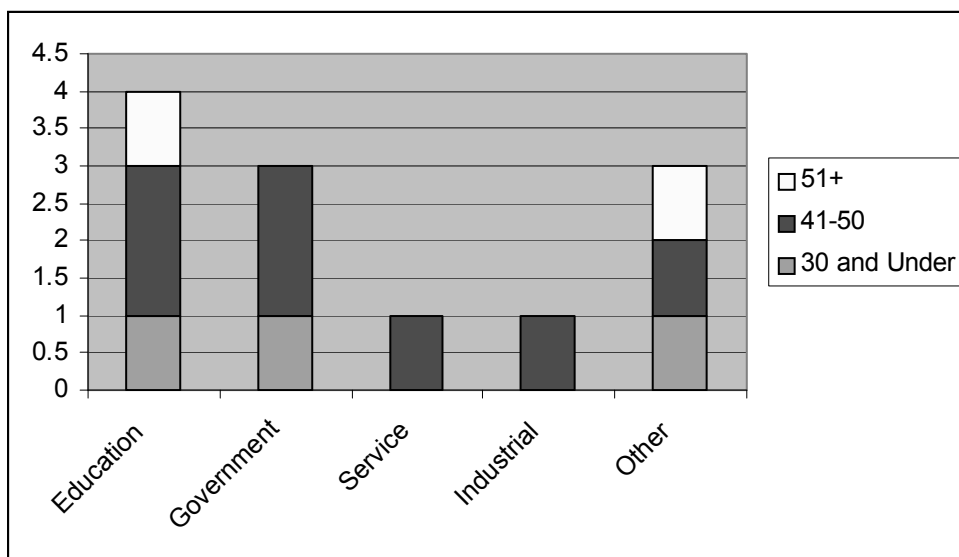
Figure 8. Age by organization type

Education

The participants' education by organization types are depicted in Figure 9. The figure identifies that the majority of the respondents had an undergraduate degree or higher, although 16% reported *other*.
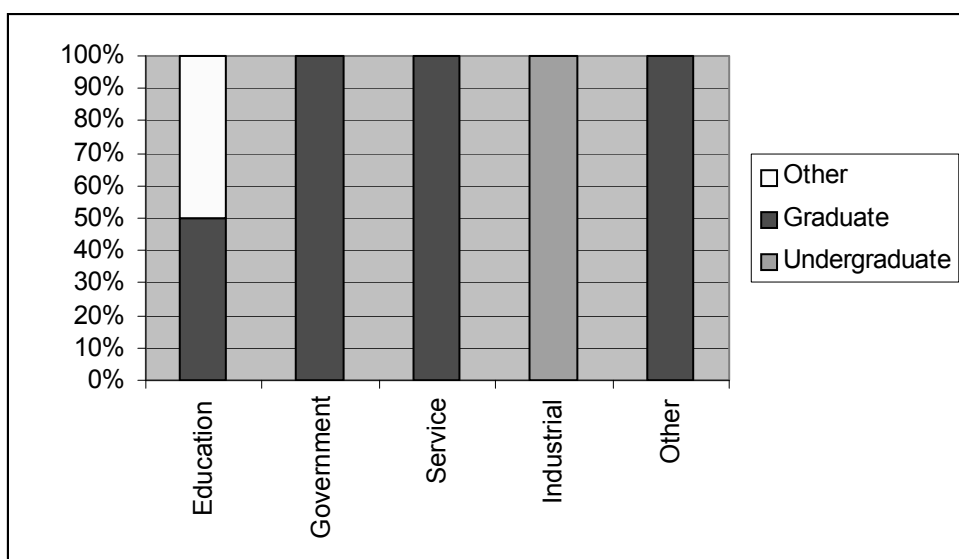
Figure 9. Education by organization type

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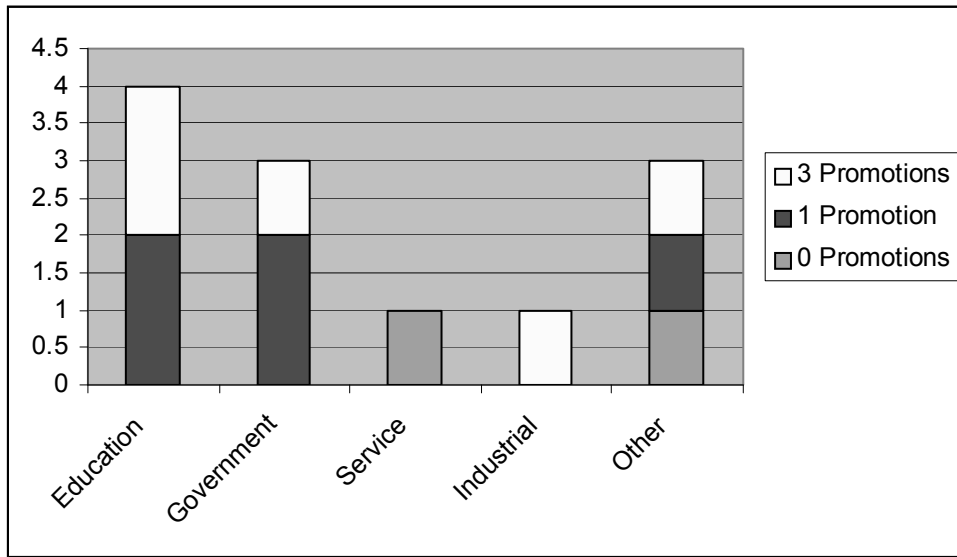
Figure 10. Promotions by organization type

Promotions

The participants' promotions by organization types are depicted in Figure 10. The figure shows that the majority of the respondents received more than one promotion within the last 5 years. Two respondents did not receive any promotions within the past 5 years.

Training Opportunities

The participants' training opportunities by organization types are depicted in Figure 11. The figure indicates that the majority of the respondents experienced four or more training opportunities in the past 3 years, while one of the participants did not experience any training opportunities and one experienced one training opportunity in the past 3 years.

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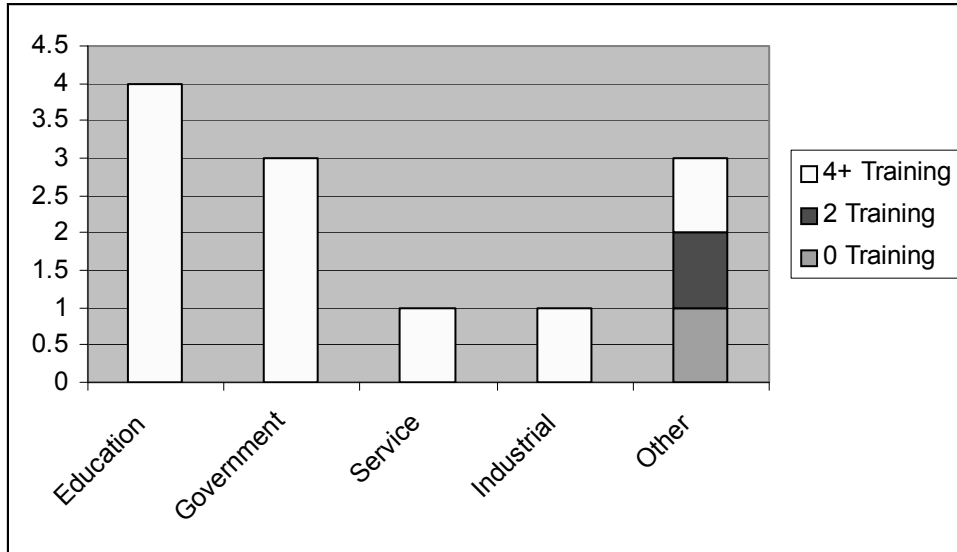
Figure 11. Training opportunities by organization type

Formal Mentoring Success

The participants' formal mentoring success by organization types are depicted in

Figure 12. The figure indicates that over 75% of the participants stated that the mentoring

program was average to outstanding.
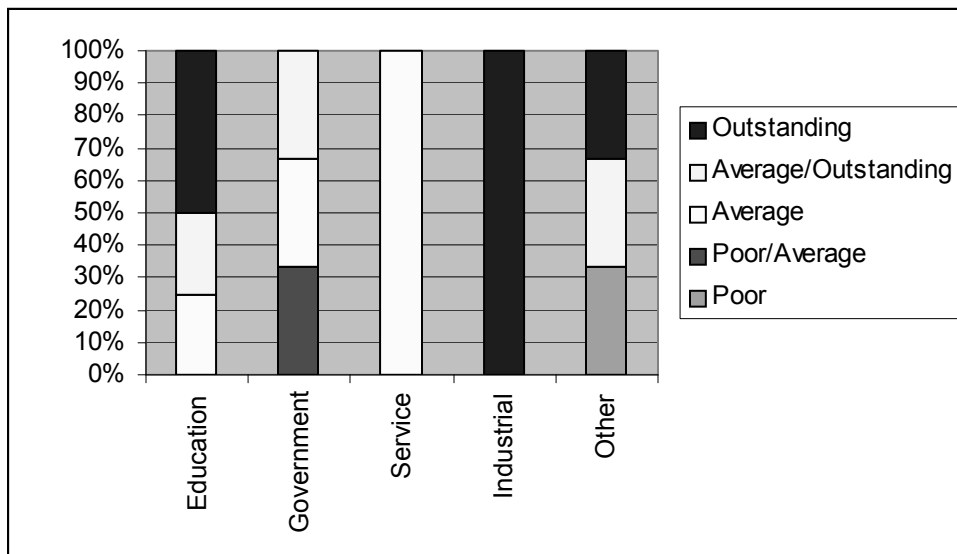
Figure 12. Formal mentoring summary

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Organizational Profiles

The organizational profiles were measured using Cameron & Quinn's (1999) OCAI. The CVF, as developed by Cameron and Quinn, consists of four culture types: clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market.

The market culture was present in 66% of the participating organizations. Values here are focused on competitiveness, productivity, and goal achievement. This is most often seen in organizations that are highly competitive and customer-driven, with a primary emphasis on the bottom line.

The adhocracy culture was present in 25% of responding organizations. It concentrates on the external focus, and the primary concern is creativity, adaptability, and flexibility. In this type of culture, the emphasis is on risk taking, individuality, and looking toward future endeavors (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

The hierarchy culture is focused internally and moves towards the stability continuum. This was present in 8% of responding organizations. The focus of this type of culture is efficiency, stability, and predictability. This culture is more formalized and has a structured workplace, where rules and policies are most prevalent.

The clan culture, which was not represented in any of the participating organizations, is a culture that values teamwork, employee development, participation, and openness. The mantra of the organization is to focus on the development of human capital and encourage employee participation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).
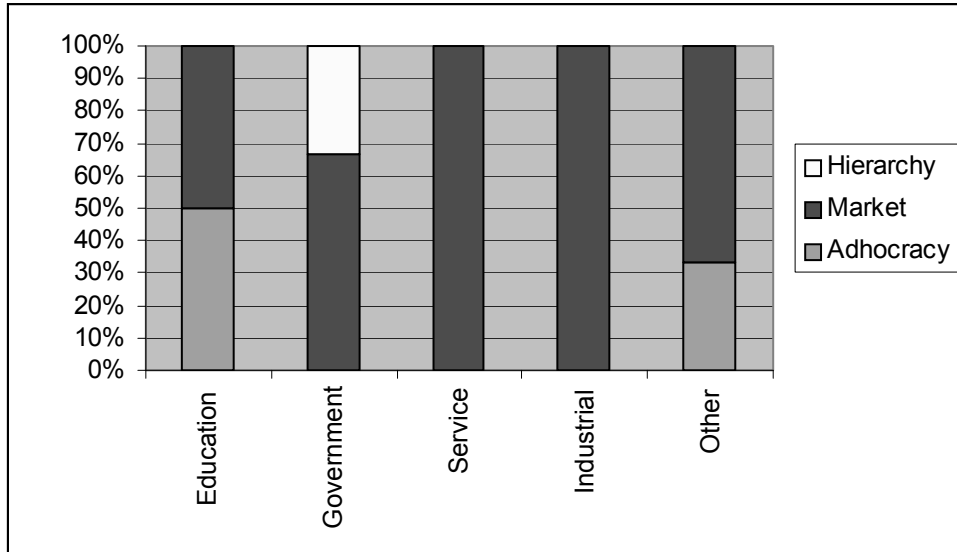
Figure 13. Organizational culture type

Inferential Analysis

The hypotheses examined the relationships between organizational culture and formal mentoring programs. The first hypothesis examined if there was a relationship between organizational culture and formal mentoring. The succeeding hypotheses examined the relationships between the cultures, clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchical cultures. Frequencies analysis was used to assess the relationship for hypotheses 2-5.

<p align="center">Analysis of Research Hypotheses</p>

Hypothesis 1

$H1_0$: There is no significant relationship between organizational culture and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

$H1_A$: There is a significant relationship between formal mentoring and organizational culture as measured by the OCAI.

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Table 4
Pearson Correlation: Hypothesis 1

		Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy	Formal Mentoring
Clan	*r*	-	-	-	-	-
	Sig. 2-tailed	-	-	-	-	-
Adhocracy	*r*	-	1	-.684	-.172	-.933
	Sig. 2-tailed	-	-	.014	.592	.000
Market	*r*	-	-.684	1	-.361	.460
	Sig. 2-tailed	-	.014	-	.250	.133
Hierarchy	*r*	-	-.172	-.361	1	.371
	Sig. 2-tailed	-	.592	.250	-	.235
Formal Mentoring	*r*	-	-.933	.460	.371	1
	Sig. 2-tailed	-	.000	.133	.235	-

Note. N = 12
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Non-parametric analysis was used to analyze the relationship between

organizational culture and formal mentoring programs, due to the small data sample. A

Pearson's correlation test was used. It revealed a positive correlation between

organizational culture and formal mentoring. The market and hierarchy culture types had

a greater relationship, with correlations of .460 and .371, while adhocracy had a strong

negative correlation. A negative correlation coefficient indicates that as the values on one

variable increase, the value on the other variable has a tendency to decrease. The clan

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culture could not be analyzed due to the small sample size. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2

$H2_0$: There is no relationship between clan culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

$H2_A$: There is a relationship between clan culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

This analysis could not be performed because none of the respondent organizations was classified in the clan culture category. Participants from different types of organizations were solicited to ensure representation of all of the organizational types; however, none of the self-reporting participants was noted as clan culture.

Hypothesis 3

$H3_0$: There is no relationship between adhocracy culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

$H3_A$: There is a relationship between adhocracy culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

In the analysis of the adhocracy culture, which included three of the organizations, three of the seven formal mentoring categories were significant. All of the organizations mentioned formal mentoring being present and had positive results for the formal mentoring characteristics (see Appendix D). The test failed to reject the null hypothesis.

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Hypothesis 4

H4$_0$: There is no relationship between market culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

H4$_A$: There is a relationship between market culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

In the analysis of the market culture, eight of the organizations presented data (see Appendix D). Several of the organizations stated having successful formal mentoring programs with above average formal mentoring characteristics. The survey results indicated that the organizations had strong mentoring characteristics, therefore the test failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5

H5$_0$: There is no relationship between hierarchy culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

H5$_A$: There is a relationship between hierarchy culture type and formal mentoring as measured by the OCAI.

The hierarchy organizational culture type only produced one respondent (see Appendix D). The respondent rated the formal mentoring program as average; however, the formal mentoring characteristics were less than average. This small sample size has too little information to test this hypothesis, so the result was inconclusive.

<center>Data Significance</center>

ANOVA was used to determine the significance of the results. The ANOVA test scores revealed F scores and significance levels < 0.05. This is an indicator that there was variance between the groups.

Table 5
ANOVA Test

		SS	*df*	*MS*	*F*	Sig.
Formal mentoring	Between groups	374.250	2	187.125	4.378	.047
	Within groups	384.667	9	42.741		
	Total	758.917	11			
OCAI	Between groups	1197.667	2	598.833	30.622	.000
	Within groups	176.000	9	19.556		
	Total	1373.667	11			

<center>Limitations</center>

The results of this study should be reviewed with several limitations. The first limitation noted was the small sample size, limited representation in different industries, small representation of men, and the problems that were encountered with the survey procedure.

The final sample size was 12 organizations that had formal mentoring programs. The organizations used in the survey were identified as a result of research discovered in the literature review, as well recommendations from professional human resources organizations, development and training organizations, and personal networking contacts.

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A sample size less than 30 is considered small, particularly when doing a correlation study (Brightman & Schneider, 1994).

The small sample size did not provide adequate data for all of the cultural types: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. As a result, the cultural analysis was inconclusive. The sample size had a limited number of representative sector types. The categories were broken down into five separate categories: service, industrial, education, government, and other. The sample size for this research had six service organizations. The sole qualifying criterion for survey participation was having a formal mentoring program for at least 5 years. In order to have fair sample of the population, all of the major industries should be represented.

Summary

The chapter presented the results and an analysis of the data collected from three survey instruments: demographic, formal mentoring, and the OCAI.

CHAPTER 5.

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter contains an overview of the study, including discussion of the results and the analysis of the findings. It includes suggestions for practical business applications of the results for two types of organizations: those that have a formal mentoring program and those that are considering the implementation of a formal mentoring program. In the final section, several future research proposals are suggested, based on the findings of the study.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between organizational culture and formal mentoring programs. The key research questions were:

1.   Does organizational culture have a positive effect on the implementation of formal mentoring initiatives?

2.   Is there a culture type that supports the successful implementation of formal mentoring programs?

The research was conducted by using an online survey tool that consisted of three parts: demographics, formal mentoring characteristics (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Holliday, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Murray, 2001; Ragins et al.,

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2000), and the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999). The respondents consisted of organizations that had formal mentoring program for at least 5 years.

The research results indicated that organizational culture has an impact on formal mentoring programs and that organizations identified as having the adhocracy culture or market culture had the most significant correlations in supporting formal mentoring programs. The hierarchy culture results appeared to support formal mentoring programs, but due to the small sample, the results were inconclusive. The survey did not identify any organizations in the clan culture, and therefore further research is warranted to determine the relationship to formal mentoring programs. The research results were insufficient to determine conclusively which cultural type supports the formal mentoring programs because of a low response rate and because the survey did not have representation from all four organizational culture types.

The study reviewed characteristics that were noted as success factors of formal mentoring programs as explored in the literature review (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Holliday, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Murray, 2001; Ragins et al., 2000). The main characteristics examined in this research were the design of formal mentoring programs, selection of the mentor and mentee, communication of the program, training and development of the program, and feedback and evaluation. In addition, the study analyzed organizational culture through the OCAI developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999). The OCAI is an organizational assessment tool that uses the competing values framework to determine organizational culture. According to the tool,

organizations are defined as one of four types: clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy. Each of the types is categorized by distinct characteristics.

The clan culture is described as a culture that values teamwork, employee development, participation, and openness. The mantra of the organization is to focus on the development of human capital and encourage employee participation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Adhocracy culture concentrates on the external focus. The main concerns are creativity, adaptability, and flexibility. In this culture type, the emphasis is placed on risk-taking, individuality, and looking toward future endeavors (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

The hierarchy culture is more internally focused and it moves more toward the stability continuum. The focus of this culture type is efficiency, stability, and predictability. This culture is more formalized and has structured workplaces wherein rules and policies are most prevalent.

The market culture is the culture in which values are focused toward competitiveness, productivity, and goal achievement. This is most often seen in organizations that are highly competitive and customer-driven, with primary emphasis on the bottom line.

The survey results identified three organizations in the adhocracy, eight in the market, and one in hierarchy culture. None of the survey respondents was identified as a clan culture organization. The organizations identified as adhocracy and market had the most significant findings of formal mentoring characteristics. The survey results indicated that seven organizations in the adhocracy and market cultures exhibited more of the

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defined characteristics of formal mentoring. The Hierarchy and Clan culture results were non-conclusive due to the small sample size.

The three organizations that had Adhocracy cultures were identified as educational institutions, and other. Considering the characteristics of this type culture, customer orientation it is not surprising to see two educational institutions represented in this group. The educational system is focused on setting goals and placing initiatives to accomplish these goals. Also, depending on the level of the organizational institution, the customer service focus can vary. Institutions that are at the college level would have a different focus of customer satisfaction than that of early education due to the efficacy of the customer.

The eight organizations that were identified as Market culture spanned all five industry types; education, government, service, industrial and other. The Market culture is focused on goal achievement and productivity. Due to these type characteristics, it is not unusual for organizations to identify with characteristic that model these attributes.

The one organization that was identified in the Hierarchy culture was from the industry noted as government. This is no surprise since the government is known for its hierarchal structure. This is synonymous with the characteristics of the Hierarchy culture, which focuses on stability and continuum.

Formal mentoring as defined is a process where more experienced mentors assist less experienced mentee in development (Kram, 1985; Mullen, 1998). The two organizational cultures in the survey with significant formal mentoring characteristics were adhocracy and market. Adhocracy culture concentrates on the external focus. The main concern is creativity, adaptability, and flexibility. In this type culture, the emphasis

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is placed on risk taking, individuality, and looking toward future endeavors (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The market culture is the culture in which values are focused toward competitiveness, productivity and goal achievement. This is most often seen in organizations that are highly competitive and more customer-driven, with a primary emphasis on the bottom line.

It is significant that both cultures exhibit the competitive and developmental traits. This is important for the implementation of formal mentoring programs because it is the basis for the groundwork.

Recommendations for Practice

The results of the survey can be used to assist organizations that either have formal mentoring programs or anticipate starting this strategic initiative. Every organization has a culture. The culture is defined as the way the organization accomplishes it goals. The research suggested that the characteristics of the adhocracy and market cultures had a higher propensity of achieving success in implementing formal mentoring. This seems reasonable, considering the attributes of these organization types. If organizations are considering formal mentoring, or any type change initiative, they should first consider examining their organizational culture to determine if their current cultural type is supportive of the types of initiatives to be incorporated. If the traits are not conducive to the sharing of information, strong communication practices, and teamwork, then the initiative should not take place until those traits align.

The results of this research indicated there is a great deal of emphasis placed on the selection of mentors and mentees. The role of the mentor is to assist the mentee in

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gaining skills they ordinarily would not be exposed to through counseling or experience (Kram, 1985; Mullen, 1998). There are studies on the mentor-mentee relationship, which has been shown to be a valuable entity in formal mentoring programs. This may help to build credence into formal mentoring programs and increase the likelihood that they will last for a longer time.

Another important finding of the research was the feedback and evaluation. The programs should constantly be reviewed for efficiency; it should be a process of continuous improvement. This aspect of the formal mentoring program lacks momentum, as do most organizational development programs. Although in program design, review and evaluation are the last entities, they should be given the most effort. It is through this evaluation that programs either thrive or become extinct.

Many organizations have a difficult time hiring and retaining good workers. The mentoring process needs to be an early part of development for new employees, especially as they begin and become oriented. The next generations of workers seek career development, and the establishment of a formal mentoring program would be a significant recruiting tool. However, before this or any type change initiative is implemented, the organization must determine its organizational culture and determine if the two pieces of the puzzle fit.

Limitations

The research incurred several constraints that influenced the findings: the online survey environment, sample size, proprietary information, time constraints, and funding. This research was conducted using an online research engine. Although this particular

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forum has become more common as a tool to collect data, it presents it its own unique obstacles. The online environment allows the researcher to collect large data sets in a more economical and efficient manner. The dilemma however, is participants' comfort level in responding in this type environment, and the disadvantage of respondents not having a face-to-face rapport with the researcher. Many respondents agreed to participate in the survey and had good intentions. However, when it came time to put the pen to the paper or to consider the questions and key the responses, participants either did not have the time to respond or had competing priorities.

One of the challenges in collecting data is the forum in which the data is collected. If participants can easily postpone a task to accomplish later, they often will not come back to the task. In a survey environment, if there is not an immediate reward in responding and there is no penalty for not responding, participants are less compelled to make the survey a priority. A future consideration might be to offer something more tangible to the participant, such as a contribution to a favorite charity, movie or dinner tickets, or anything that might produce additional interest and responses.

As a result of the restraints, this research garnered a small sample size of 12 participants. This small sample size made it difficult to derive good correlation data because two of the organizational cultures being researched were not adequately represented.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of the research provided some insights on organizational culture and formal mentoring program characteristics. The research, however, offers questions on

other issues that should be addressed concerning this topic area, such as organizational culture and sector designations, size of the organization, age and gender of the leadership, and longitudinal studies of formal mentoring as it pertains to business of the 21st century.

The organizational culture and sector designations are important factors because, depending on the organization, the cultural characteristics change. Organizations that typically have nurturing qualities, such as education or service industries, tend to have cultural types that indicate the same elements. Organizations that are more systematic and structured have cultural characteristics that are more rigid.

The size of the organization is an important factor as it pertains to organizational culture. Organizations that are very large, with decentralized units, are more dispersed and may have several cultures operating within the same entity. As a result, planning an initiative within that structure might be more difficult than within smaller groups that are innately more cohesive.

The business environment has discovered a variety of differences among the generations. Many studies have been presented on both gender and age differentiation. The gender studies revolve around leadership styles and the differences of males and females. The generational studies revolve around the difference in the generations and the unique challenges they present to the workforce. The quotation "a picture is worth a thousand words" is indicative of a longitudinal study. The longitudinal study allows a complete look at how initiatives span through to fruition and allows the researcher to review how initiatives affect entities from beginning to end. It also creates a roadmap to follow if the initiative is considered for implementation.

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1. *Organizational culture and sector designations*. Further research should be done to examine organizational culture for different industries as determined by the U.S. Department of Labor. Different industries have unique cultures; some innate and some qualitatively described. It could be important to know the predominance of cultures within certain industries.

2. *Size of the organization*. The size of the organization may plat a role in determining organizational culture and the ability to initiate formal mentoring programs. This research suggested that organizations with smaller populations possessed a higher likelihood to have successful formal mentoring characteristics.

3. *Age and gender*. The age and gender of the individual who administers the formal mentoring program and employee development may be an influence. Gender difference and maturity have been factors in the drive and outcomes of many change initiatives. It is possible that the lead persons have a more clearly defined manner of defining the culture, and therefore accelerating movement of change initiative.

4. *Longitudinal studies*. Formal mentoring theories have existed for many years, and while many organizations have incorporated this philosophy, others have struggled with the dynamics and the proper methods of implementation. It would be appropriate to survey formal mentoring administrators in organizations that have formal mentoring programs and determine the effects formal mentoring on the organizations. Further research could help organizations as they enter the mass exodus of baby boomer employees who will leave organizations as a result of retirements.

Looking Forward

The research reviewed whether there was a relationship between organizational culture and formal mentoring programs. The research looked at organizations with formal mentoring programs and correlated that with organizational culture type. It was apparent from the research that the adhocracy culture, which is identified as teamwork-based, had a stronger correlation with the characteristics of formal mentoring. The research also

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indicated strong correlations between specific formal mentoring characteristics, selection of the mentor and the mentee, training and support, and evaluation and feedback.

The implications were reviewed and further research and future research projects were identified. Formal mentoring programs offer genuine benefits to organizations as they prepare for the shortage of workers in the 21st century. Organizations should strategically review their current culture and determine the means to incorporate formal mentoring to manage the talent of the succeeding workforce to best advantage. According to the Department of Labor, a shortage of employees in the workforce looms in the future. It will become imperative that organizations not only look at their current workforce for strategic planning, but also investigate the current culture to determine its nature in order to make strategic decisions about what type of programs will assist in the development of the future workforce.

Organizational culture, in its simplest terms, is noted as the way an organization goes about doing business. Depending on the organizational type and characteristics, some organizations are better equipped to make strategic decisions on what development initiative is appropriate. Those organizations will need additional resources, and development of their future workforce by current experienced employees may be an effective way to begin.

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APPENDIX A.

ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE INSTRUMENT

Organizational Culture and Formal Mentoring Programs

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project. Following are two survey instruments, the Organizational Profile Instrument, Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument, and the Formal Mentoring Assessment Instrument. The survey generally takes 20 minutes to complete. Please be assured that all information will be kept confidential. Your participation is voluntary, and you are free to decline any questions you do not wish to answer or to withdraw from the study at any time. Your participation will help to enhance the understanding of how organizational culture affects formal mentoring programs. Again, thank you for your time and interest in this research.

Organizational Profile Instrument

1. My level within the organization is

    a. Senior Management
    b. Middle Management
    c. Technical Staff
    d. Support Staff

2. Type of business is

    a. Education
    b. Government
    c. Health
    d. Service
    e. Industrial
    f. Other_____

3. Length of time in my current position is

    a. 0 – 5 Years
    b. 6 – 10 Years
    c. 11 – 15 Years
    d. 16 – 20 Years
    e. 21 + Years

4. The number of persons in my organization is

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a. 0 – 99
b. 100 – 300
c. 301 – 600
d. 601 – 900
e. 901 +

5. My sex is

    a. Female
    b. Male

6. My age group is

    a. 30 and under
    b. 31 – 40
    c. 41 – 50
    d. 51 +

7. Highest level of education I have attained is

    a. High School Graduate
    b. Technical Training
    c. Undergraduate Degree
    d. Graduate Degree
    e. Other

8. Number of promotions I have received in the past 5 years is

    a. 0
    b. 1
    c. 2
    d. 3
    e. 4+

9. Amount of on the job training received in the past 3 years is

    a. 0
    b. 1
    c. 2
    d. 3
    e. 4+

13. How successfully do you feel your organization's formal mentoring program has been?
(1= poor, 5= outstanding)

    a. 1
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4
    e. 5

14. How successfully do you feel your organization designed the formal mentoring program?
(1= poor, 5= outstanding)

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   a. 1
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
   e. 5

15. How successfully do you feel your organization selected the candidates for the formal mentoring program?
 (1= poor, 5= outstanding)

   a. 1
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
   e. 5

16. How successfully do you feel your organization matched the mentors and mentee in the formal mentoring program?
 (1= poor, 5= outstanding)

   a. 1
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
   e. 5

17. How successfully do you feel your organization communicates the formal mentoring program?
 (1= poor, 5= outstanding)

   a. 1
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
   e. 5

18. How successfully do you feel your organization provides training and support for the formal mentoring program?
 (1= poor, 5= outstanding)

   a. 1
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
   e. 5

19. How successful do you feel your organization's feedback and evaluation of the formal mentoring program has been?
 (1= poor, 5= outstanding)

   a. 1
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4
   e. 5

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT

Scale: 1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither agree nor disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree

	1	**Dominant Characteristics**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
A		My organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves					
B		My organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their neck out and take risks.					
C		My organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.					
D		My Organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.					

	2	**Organizational Leadership**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
A		The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating or nurturing.					
B		The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.					
C		The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.					
D		The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing or smooth-running efficiency.					

3	**Management of Employees**	1	2	3	4	5

A   The management style in my organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

B   The management style in my organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness.

C   The management style in my organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness high demands, and achievement.

D   The management style in my organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.

4	**Organization Glue**	1	2	3	4	5

The glue that holds my organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.

The glue that holds my organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.

The glue that holds my organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressive and winning are common themes.

The glue that holds my organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.

5	**Strategic Emphases**	1	2	3	4	5

A   My organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness and participation persist.

B   My organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

C   My organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

D   My organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operation are important.

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6Criteria for Success

		1	2	3	4	5
A	My organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment and concern for people.					
B	My organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.					
C	My organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.					
D	My organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical					

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APPENDIX C.

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS, FORMAL MENTORING

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS SCALE (ALPHA)

   1. VAR00001   Formal Mentoring Summary

   2. VAR00002   Formal Mentoring Design

   3. VAR00003   Candidate Selection

   4. VAR00004   Matching Mentor/Mentee

   5. VAR00005   Communicate Program

   6. VAR00006   Mentor/Mentee Selection

   7. VAR00007   Program training and Support

   8. VAR00008   Feedback and Evaluation

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 12.0 N of Items = 8

Alpha = .9414

APPENDIX D.

ORGANIZATIONAL RESPONSE SUMMARY

Survey Question No.

Organization and Culture	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1 Market	2	2	4	2	1	1	2
2 Market	5	5	3	4	3	5	4
3 Market	2	4	1	2	1	2	1
4 Market	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5 Adhocracy	5	5	5	5	5	5	4
6 Market	3	2	3	2	2	4	3
7 Market	4	4	3	2	4	1	4
8 Adhocracy	4	4	3	2	5	4	3
9 Adhocracy	4	4	5	5	4	4	3
10 Market	5	4	3	5	4	4	4
11 Hierarchy	3	3	3	2	1	1	1
12 Market	3	2	3	3	3	1	3

Note. (1 = *poor*, 5 = *outstanding*)

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