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# Seeking Quality Mentors: Exploring Program Design Characteristics to Increase an Individual's Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor

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Seeking Quality Mentors: Exploring Program Design Characteristics to Increase an  
Individual's Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

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in

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I would like to dedicate this work as a testament of the enduring support and patience of my family and friends, especially through the joys and difficulties of graduate school and working full-time.

Particularly, this work is dedicated to my parents for their ceaseless love and hospitality while I spent countless hours working at their kitchen table and to Jessi, who deserves an honorary doctorate for her support in the day-to-day experiences of life, work, and school.

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## Table of Contents

List of Figures .....	v
List of Tables .....	vi
List of Appendices .....	vii
Abstract .....	viii
CHAPTER 1 .....	2
Introduction.....	2
Literature Review.....	4
Formal Mentoring as a Benefit to Organizations.....	4
History and Definition of Mentoring .....	5
What Do Mentors Provide? .....	6
The Role of Personality in Identifying Quality Mentors .....	8
Potential Barriers to Mentor Participation .....	11
Program Design Characteristics to Overcome Potential Barriers.....	13
The Impact of Social Exchange in Formal Mentoring Programs .....	15
The Role of Perceived Organizational Support .....	17
Summary .....	19
CHAPTER 2 .....	20
Method .....	20
Participants.....	20
Sampling .....	20
Sampling Procedure .....	21

Sample Size and Power.....	22
Manipulations and Measures .....	23
Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor.....	24
Perceived Organizational Support.....	24
Prior Mentoring Experience and Quality.....	24
Covariates.....	25
Prosocialness Scale for Adults.....	25
Big Five Mini-Markers Adjective Check List.....	26
CHAPTER 3 .....	27
Analyses.....	27
Results.....	28
Data Preparation and Cleaning .....	28
Preliminary Analyses and Assumptions Testing .....	29
Primary Analyses .....	30
Post-hoc Analyses.....	32
CHAPTER 4 .....	34
Discussion.....	34
Implications for Theory .....	34
An unmeasured mediator between training and likelihood to participate.....	34
Experienced mentors and the need for training.....	36
The role of organizational support for participation.....	38

Implications for Practice ..... 39

    Strategies for fostering mentoring relationships during the workday..... 39

    Best practices when designing mentor training. .... 40

Limitations and Future Directions ..... 42

Conclusion ..... 44

References..... 45

APPENDIX A: Figures..... 56

APPENDIX B: Tables ..... 62



### List of Figures

Figure 1: Overview of variables in the current study

Figure 2: Mediation model for Hypotheses 3 and 4

Figure 3: Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering time in work with prosocial orientation on the b path

Figure 4: Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering time in work with openness to experience on the b path

Figure 5: Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering training for the mentor with prosocial orientation on the b path

Figure 6: Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering training for the mentor with openness to experience on the b path

Figure 7: Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of prosocial orientation in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *time at work* is the IV

Figure 8: Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of openness to experience in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *time at work* is the IV

Figure 9: Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of prosocial orientation in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *training* is the IV

Figure 10: Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of openness to experience in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *training* is the IV

Figure 11: Potential mediation model including observed (black lines) and unobserved (red lines) hypothetical (red lines) mediators

### List of Tables

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistencies, and Correlations for the Program Design Offering Time in Work

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistencies, and Correlations for the Program Design Offering Training

Table 3: Regression Results for Program Design Characteristics and Covariate

Table 4: Regression Results for Mediation: Program Design (Time) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor

Table 5: Regression Results for Mediation: Program Design (Training) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor

Table 6: Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Time) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Prosocial Orientation included on the b path

Table 7: Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Time) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Openness to Experience included on the b path

Table 8: Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Training) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Prosocial Orientation included on the b path

Table 9: Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Training) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Openness to Experience included on the b path

**List of Appendices**

APPENDIX A: Figures

APPENDIX B: Tables

### Abstract

Previous mentoring research has focused on informal mentoring relationships, but as formal mentoring programs proliferate throughout organizations as a means to train and retain high-quality employees, there is a need for more empirical research investigating the specific elements of formal mentoring programs that positively impact their success. The purpose of the current study, therefore, is to explore the causal relationship between formal mentoring program design characteristics and the likelihood that a qualified individual will choose to participate as a mentor. This relationship is examined through the hypothesized mediator of potential mentors' perceptions of organizational support. Participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk and had to score above a cutoff on either the personality behavior (i.e., prosocial orientation) or trait (i.e., openness to experience) measure to participate. The sample included 288 participants divided almost evenly between males and females (54% and 46% respectively), with a mean age of 35 years. Seventy-one percent were white and the average years of work experience was 13. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three formal mentoring program descriptions: (a) a program that offered no form of organizational support, (b) one that offered *time in work* to facilitate the dyadic relationships, or (c) one that offered to provide *training* for the mentors to prepare them for their role. It was hypothesized that both features of organizational support would yield an increase in a potential mentor's likelihood to participate compared to the mentoring program that did not offer these supportive elements. Results indicated that providing *time in work* to facilitate a mentoring relationship caused a significant increase in willingness to serve as a mentor ( $t(169) = -3.29, p = .001, d = .25$ ) whereas *training* for the mentor failed to emerge as a predictor ( $t(184) = -1.07, p = .915, d = .008$ ). Mediation analyses revealed that both *time in work* ( $B_{ab} = .33$ ; BC 95% CI = .13 to .52) and

*training* ( $B_{ab} = .23$ ; BC 95% CI = .04 to .46) for the mentor increased an individual's likelihood to participate through the mediating mechanism of perceived organizational support. The results of this study provide guidance for practitioners in allocating resources toward designing effective formal mentoring programs that attract quality mentors.

*Keywords:* mentor, formal mentoring, organizational support, mentor personality, mentoring, mentoring program design

## CHAPTER 1

### Introduction

As the impact of generational differences begins to affect organizations, there is an increased need to create ways of passing on organizational knowledge before older generations, who tend to exhibit greater organizational commitment, leave the workforce and to increase retention of younger employees to reduce the high cost of turnover (Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt, & Gade, 2012; Lyons, Ng, & Schweitzer, 2014). Previously, one way these efforts occurred naturally was through organically-formed mentoring relationships, which have demonstrated positive outcomes for the protégé's career commitment and development (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Castro, Scandura, & Williams, 2004; Dreher & Ash, 1990). Informal mentoring relationships, however, are not guaranteed to form in every organization. One response on behalf of organizations is to emulate the positive outcomes of informal mentoring relationships by creating formal mentoring programs (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992) wherein a more experienced individual provides support for a less experienced individual through a structured program.

Although mentoring has been an area of increased interest for researchers and practitioners over the last four decades (particularly from the protégé's perspective), Allen (2003), Ragins and Cotton (1999), and Underhill (2006) argue that there has been limited work surrounding formal mentoring with a specific call from Allen and Eby (2004, 2008) for more research from the mentor's perspective in order to understand mentoring relationships and the impact on organizations more completely. Specifically, researchers and practitioners need better empirical research regarding the program design characteristics of formal mentoring programs that lead to success in the mentoring relationship as well as better research from the mentor's

perspective as formal mentoring programs proliferate throughout organizations (Allen & Eby, 2008; Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006; Allen & Poteet, 1999; Weinberg & Lankau, 2011) and are used as a means to attract new employees (Allen & O'Brien, 2006; Horvath, Wasko, & Bradley, 2008).

Within a mentoring relationship, there is a natural give and take that can be understood as a form of social exchange, which provides insight into what mechanisms might be at play within a mentoring relationship as well as between an employee and an organization. When an organization provides a formal mentoring program, it may be perceived as a form of organizational support in that an employee perceives the program as a benefit for the employee instead of being something done to the employee (Scandura, Tejada, Werther, & Lankau, 1996). An increase in the perceptions of organizational support has been demonstrated to improve employee performance (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and reduce the high-cost of turnover (Dawley, Andrews, & Bucklew, 2007; 2010).

One of the challenges in developing a successful formal mentoring program is that those who may be most qualified to be mentors may also have the greatest barriers to participation (e.g., limited time, lack of preparation, etc.). In the current study, I will examine the causal relationship between formal mentoring program design characteristics and a potential, quality mentor's likelihood to participate. To more thoroughly understand the process of the causal relationship, I will explore the potential mediating effect of organizational support. The results of the current study will help organizations prioritize resource expenditures to design programs with the greatest likelihood of recruiting quality mentors. To proceed, I will begin with a review of the current literature examining the value of formal mentoring programs, the development of

mentoring in the workplace, the role and identification of a potential mentor, factors that inhibit participation in a formal program, and program design characteristics that demonstrate the greatest likelihood of attracting quality mentors through increased organizational support. I will also address the research hypotheses, the experimental design and measures, outline the data analyses (for an overview of variables see Figure 1 in Appendix A), and finally report the results. To conclude, I will explore the theoretical and practical implications of the study as well as limitations and future research.

## **Literature Review**

### **Formal Mentoring as a Benefit to Organizations**

As the landscape of the workplace continues to evolve, organizations and individuals search for methods that stimulate personal growth and learning (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). This is particularly salient as contemporary careers tend to be less relationally anchored to a single organization and instead are more transactional with organizations in order to further an individual's career (Hall & Mirvis, 1996; Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007). In light of this reality, it is imperative that organizations find realistic approaches to train and retain high-quality employees. Research has formerly addressed the benefits of informal mentoring wherein relationships form organically without the facilitation of the organization. The mentoring literature, however, has begun to distinguish between informal relationships and formal relationships that originate due to participation in a structured program (Allen, Day, & Lentz, 2005; Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006).

Formal mentoring programs have been recognized as a best practice for organizations (Allen, Finkelstein, & Poteet, 2009; Branch, 1999)—particularly as they stimulate employee growth and learning (Allen & Poteet, 1999). For example, as companies experience high-stress



changes, mentoring has been demonstrated to be a key avenue for fostering an adaptable and flexible workforce in light of the uncertain environment (Eby, 1997; Kram & Hall, 1989; Siegel, 2000). As the use of formal mentoring programs increases, it is first important to examine the development of mentoring, the role of the mentor, and methods to identify quality mentors. From there, one can better understand the factors that inhibit participation of potential, quality mentors and how to effectively design programs with the greatest likelihood to attract quality mentors.

### **History and Definition of Mentoring**

While early references to mentoring can be traced to ancient Greek mythology, it is only within the last few decades that mentoring has been studied critically—albeit with varied research agendas (Ragins & Kram, 2007). When Odysseus sailed to Troy in Homer’s *Odyssey*, he left behind Mentor as a guide and advisor to protect his son, Telemachus. The relationship between Mentor and Telemachus characterizes many of the developmental aspects studied in current research on mentoring, which will be discussed later in the paper. The next major reference to mentoring was not published until 1978 when Daniel Levinson addressed the value of mentoring for a man’s development in his foundational work, *Seasons of a Man’s Life*. Shortly following this publication, Kram (1985b) published her seminal text, *Mentoring at Work*, that established the role of mentoring in the workplace context. In the intervening four decades, mentoring has been the focus of an assortment of articles examining various types of mentoring relationships (Kram & Isabella, 1985), the unfolding phases of the mentoring relationship (Kram, 1983), the role of mentoring in the changing work environment (Eby, 1997), designing effective formal mentoring programs (Allen et al., 2009), and the role of gender in mentoring relationships (McKeen & Bujaki, 2007).

Two of the most challenging aspects of mentoring as a construct is its versatility in application and lack of uniform definition (Allen, Eby, O'Brien, & Lentz, 2008; Allen et al., 2004; Dougherty & Dreher, 2007). One particular difficulty in studying mentoring relationships is the complex nature of the evolving dyadic relationship (Allen, 2007; Allen & Poteet, 2011). Subsequently, researchers have begun to tease out the nuances of the mentoring relationship in order to paint a fuller picture of the process, experience, and benefits (e.g., informal versus formal relationships, protégé versus mentor perspectives, etc.). Based on this research, a generally-accepted working definition that incorporates the breadth of research to date defines a mentor as a more experienced individual, who provides various aspects of support and development for a less experienced individual—commonly referred to as a mentee or protégé (Chao et al., 1992; Eby, Lockwood, & Butts, 2006; Kram, 1985b; Levinson, 1978; Ragins & Kram, 2007).

Mentoring research has previously focused on the protégé's perspective and development (see Allen et al., 2004 for a meta-analysis of these studies); however, more recent research has acknowledged the need to address and explore the mentor's perspective as well (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Grima, Paillé, Mejia, & Prud'homme, 2014; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008). Mentors have been recognized as a critical element to prepare junior employees for future leadership and to transfer valuable organizational knowledge (Kram & Hall, 1996). Mentoring relationships offer intentional, unique forms of support and development that are not necessarily present in other workplace relationships.

### **What Do Mentors Provide?**

There are three main functions typically provided in a mentoring relationship: *career development*, *psychosocial support*, and *role modeling* (Castro et al., 2004; Kram, 1985b; Ragins

& Kram, 2007). Career development occurs when a mentor helps a protégé understand the organization in order to prepare for future advancement. This may occur through multiple avenues facilitated by the mentor including but not limited to creating challenging developmental assignments, coaching for skill development, providing visibility for the protégé, or sponsoring the protégé for a project. In contrast, psychosocial support relates to the relational aspects of the mentoring relationship and helps enhance a protégé's individual growth and identity, self-worth, and self-efficacy. Psychosocial support typically is developed through trust and intimacy built between the mentor and protégé. It is important to note that these functions often work together in a mutually reinforcing dynamic (Kram, 1985b). Role modeling was first recognized as a distinct aspect of mentoring wherein a less experienced individual sought to emulate a more experienced individual's career and occasionally pursued an informal mentoring relationship with that individual in order to reach their own career goals. Later research identified role modeling as the strongest predictor of mentoring outcomes (Dickson et al., 2014). Additionally, just as each relationship is unique, so is the extent to which each of these functions occurs within a mentoring relationship (Allen et al., 2009; Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

One way to examine how to identify potential, quality mentors with positive characteristics, who will facilitate effective mentoring relationships, is to examine a potential mentor's personality. While some researchers suggest that the role of personality in mentoring is yet in its infancy (Allen, 2007), consensus is emerging around specific behaviors (i.e., a prosocial orientation) and traits (i.e., openness to experience) that might suggest an individual has the potential to be a quality mentor (Allen, 2003; Allen, Poteet, Russell, & Dobbins, 1997; Bozionelos, 2004).

### **The Role of Personality in Identifying Quality Mentors**

In order to understand the advantage of personality as a method to identify potential, quality mentors, it is important to examine briefly two other aspects of an individual that might increase their likelihood to participate as a mentor (e.g., generativity and previous mentoring experience).

Life stages theorists (e.g., Erikson, 1963) suggest that mentoring is a natural part of the life cycle and may not be directly related to a personality trait. As adults age and develop, it is expected that they will reach a stage wherein they want to give back to others. As an act of generativity, mentoring provides a way to pass on knowledge and to cultivate the upcoming generation. However, this stage may potentially span four decades and it is not guaranteed that a person will pursue the act of generativity or that they will choose to give back through mentoring. The challenge of this approach for organizations is that it is not clear how to increase a potential mentor's likelihood to serve in the mentoring capacity since the phase of generativity is so expansive and each individual will pursue generativity in unique ways.

While previous mentoring experience may be one possible avenue to facilitate an individual's likelihood to serve as a mentor (Bozionelos, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1993; Ragins & Scandura, 1999), organizations cannot expect more experienced individuals to have had prior mentoring experience that would motivate them to pursue mentoring relationships without encouragement. As such, research examining an individual's personality may provide a more promising avenue to understand what contributes to an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor (Turban & Lee, 2007). In the current study, I will explore two measures of personality to identify individuals as potential, quality mentors—first as it relates to personality through behavior (i.e., a prosocial orientation) and second as it relates to personality as a trait (i.e.,

openness to experience).

**The role of prosocial behavior in identifying potential, quality mentors.** Prosocial behavior is characterized by actions that are beneficial to individuals, groups, or organizations (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005). Penner, Fritzsche, Craig, and Freifield (1995) suggest that a prosocial orientation includes both an other-oriented empathy as well as helpfulness. Additionally, Allen (2003) characterized the intent to mentor as a type of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), which suggests that it is a way for an individual to give back to an organization as a form of social exchange.

As a mentoring relationship has been demonstrated to be mutually beneficial for both mentor and protégé (Allen et al., 2009), an individual who demonstrates prosocial behavior may be more likely to participate in a mentoring relationship because they will be able to give as well as to receive. The benefit of considering a prosocial orientation as a potential motivation to mentor is that it is not exclusive to a life stage, demographic factor, or specific population. Moreover, Bear and Hwang (2015) reported a positive relationship between prosocial orientation and an individual's willingness to mentor.

At its core, a prosocial orientation is the desire to care or provide for others through behavior and action (Grant, 2008). As such, it is predicted to be unlikely that an individual with low prosocial tendencies would choose to participate in a mentoring relationship as mentoring can be understood as a helping relationship, which decreases participation of a potential mentor for purely selfish reasons. For this reason, only individuals who are more than likely to demonstrate prosocial behavior will be included in the study in order to better tease out which program design characteristics are most likely to increase a potential, quality mentor's likelihood to participate.

**The role of openness to experience in identifying potential, quality mentors.**

Another way to explore personality is through the Five Factor Model (FFM), which developed throughout the course of the twentieth century (John & Srivastava, 1999). The FFM originated through a lexical tradition with Allport and Odbert's (1936) research that sought to identify and classify words in the English dictionary that related to personality. Research surrounding personality continued slowly until a resurgence of interest occurred in the 1960s when Tupes and Christal (1961) introduced an orthogonal structure of personality traits. A commonly accepted taxonomy of personality was introduced by Costa and McCrae's (1992) research, which includes five dimensions with 30 corresponding facets. While multiple approaches to categorizing personality into a taxonomy have been pursued, the FFM has been consistently replicated across multiple studies (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 2004). Goldberg (1990) sought to simplify the measure using adjectives that would consistently replicate the FFM structure. This approach, in turn, was further abridged by Saucier (1994), who developed a measure with only 40 adjectives (referred to as "mini-markers") that can be used in survey research.

The integration in research of the FFM and mentoring began to flourish in the early 2000s (Turban & Lee, 2007) and evidence suggests that personality can impact mentoring relationships (Niehoff, 2006). As it relates to the current study, research on the relationship between personality and an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor suggests that *openness to experience* may be a key personality trait that predicts an individual's likelihood to serve as a mentor (Bozionelos, 2004; Niehoff, 2006). Similar to a prosocial orientation, it is unlikely that an individual who rates low on openness will elect to serve as a mentor without prior experience, which has already been demonstrated as a reason a potential mentor would

participate (Bozionelos, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1993; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). For the purpose of the current study, measuring a potential mentor's openness to experience is important because it provides another avenue building on prior research to examine what may contribute to the definition of a quality mentor. As such, only participants who score above the cutoff score on openness to experience will be included in the study in order to better elucidate what program design characteristics are most likely to recruit quality mentors. It is important to examine how to define a quality mentor in order to understand how to effectively design a formal mentoring program that motivates individuals with a prosocial orientation and/or strong openness to experience to serve as a mentor regardless of barriers to participation.

### **Potential Barriers to Mentor Participation**

One of the reasons it is imperative to consider the mentor's perspective is the considerable amount of time and energy they potentially invest in the mentoring relationship. Research suggests that an individual is more likely to mentor if they have previously engaged in a mentoring relationship (Bozionelos, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1993; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). However, an organization cannot simply hope that there exists a plethora of experienced individuals in their organization, who have had previous mentoring experience, intend to mentor others, and will initiate a mentoring relationship. The organization is thus tasked with taking a proactive role to reduce the perceived costs of mentoring and to design formal mentoring programs with appropriate methods to reduce barriers and increase a potential mentor's likelihood to participate (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Although it is recognized that individuals who have a prosocial orientation (Allen, 2003) and those who rank high on openness to experience (Bozionelos, 2004) are more likely to mentor, there may yet be barriers that prevent such individuals from committing to the expenditure of personal and professional resources that

is required to serve effectively as a mentor.

**Limited time and fatigue as a barrier to participation.** As the current pace of work continues to accelerate and increasing responsibilities are placed on more experienced individuals, the likelihood of their electing to serve as mentors may be decreased (Allen et al., 1997). Potential mentors, who may have the requisite skills and personality to be effective mentors, are often the very same individuals who already have competing demands on their time (Allen et al., 2009), which may decrease their likelihood to participate if the role is perceived as an additional task to do in an already busy schedule. When adequate time to facilitate a mentoring relationship at work is not provided, it is perceived as a major cost to participation and diminishes the likelihood that a qualified mentor might participate (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Moreover, protégés have indicated that mentor neglect has negatively impacted their experience (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000), which as a result may decrease their likelihood to participate as a mentor in the future. The inability of a mentor to participate effectively in a mentoring relationship may indicate that they have too many responsibilities and may not be able to manage their various roles effectively.

Individuals, who tend to exhibit more OCBs and/or are most likely to volunteer for extra-role opportunities, may additionally experience greater fatigue, which may hinder their likelihood to participate in the future (Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Furthermore, individuals with a prosocial orientation—that encourages taking on additional roles—may unintentionally lead them to overcommit and decrease task performance, which may hinder their own career (Bergeron, 2007; Grant, 2008b). While there are potential, quality mentors available, it behooves an organization to think critically about how to recruit them effectively to participate without causing harm to themselves, others, or the organization



through fatigue and burnout.

**A lack of preparation as a barrier to participation.** Another barrier to serving as a mentor may stem from the hurdles created by unmet expectations within the mentoring relationship (Eby, Butts, Durley, & Ragins, 2010; Liu, Liu, Kwan, & Mao, 2009), which may ultimately be perceived as an energy drain (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). This may occur for two reasons.

First, mentors in formal mentoring programs have previously reported a sense of personal inadequacy to fulfill the role due to inappropriate preparation for the experience (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). These individuals may have participated in programs that failed to outline clear objectives and/or provide strategies to support the mentor. As a result, the mentor may not have been appropriately equipped to respond effectively to various challenges in the mentorship. Consequently, this may have hampered the reciprocal benefits of participating in a mentoring relationship. Second, the sense of being unprepared as a mentor in a formal program may stem from the reality that an informal mentoring relationship often forms due to a specific need, which naturally relates to a skill the mentor already possesses thereby increasing personal efficacy and purpose (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). In a formal mentoring program, in contrast, there may not be the same sense of need for or clarity of the mentor's function, which may decrease their likelihood to participate.

### **Program Design Characteristics to Overcome Potential Barriers**

In preparation for this investigation, I conducted a non-experimental pre-study replicating Ragins and Scandura's (1999) exploration of the costs and benefits of mentoring in order to ascertain which program design characteristics would be most attractive to a potential mentor. Additionally, I examined the relationship between the expected costs and benefits of mentoring

and a potential mentor's likelihood to participate in a formal program moderated by each of the FFM traits separately. After data was cleaned, the sample consisted of 280 participants, who were predominantly white (70%), reported an average age of 33 years, and an almost equal representation of males and females (51% and 49% respectively). Based on the pre-study results and aforementioned research, the two factors that were most positively correlated with a potential mentor's likelihood to participate include *time in work* to facilitate the mentoring relationship and *training* for the mentor. As organizations continue to adopt formal mentoring programs, it is critical that the program design characteristics address the barriers to participation for a potential, quality mentor in order to increase their likelihood to participate. The first two hypotheses for the current study thus reflect these program design characteristics.

A practical step to help mitigate the negative effects of busy schedules becoming overloaded with extra-role opportunities leading to exhaustion of high-quality employees is to provide *time in work* to facilitate the mentoring relationship. Grant (2008a) suggests that it is important to design jobs in such a way as to enable individuals to do good and to do well. In this way, an organization could be perceived as providing support for its employees by offering space in the workday to glean the benefits of a mentoring relationship rather than attempting to squeeze in an additional role.

*Hypothesis 1:* Programs that offer *time in work* to facilitate a mentoring relationship will result in higher likelihood to participate as a mentor in a formal mentoring program than programs that do not offer time in work.

The challenges presented by a lack of preparation may be mitigated by providing *training* for the mentor (Allen et al., 2006; Allen et al., 2009). Training may prevent some of the experiences mentors shared about being unprepared and/or not knowing how to handle various situations. Forret, Turban, and Dougherty (1996) suggests that training is a critical component

for mentors within a formal mentoring program because it communicates clear expectations for the mentor, protégé, and the organization. Specific approaches that can be used include but are not limited to role-playing to practice providing constructive feedback, videos that model effective mentoring techniques, as well as lectures in order to teach participants about the functions and benefits of mentoring (Forret et al., 1996). Despite the fact that training may add an additional task for the mentor, the benefit of training is that it is an act of organizational support that clarifies the objectives of the program and the roles of protégés and mentors. Allen et al. (1997) reported that individuals were more likely to participate when they perceived organizational support such as when the organization provided training for their learning and development.

*Hypothesis 2:* Programs that offer *training* for the mentor will result in higher likelihood to participate as a mentor in a formal mentoring program than programs that do not offer training.

Although both of these factors are hypothesized to increase the likelihood of a potential, quality mentor's participation in a formal program, there are lingering questions as to how this process occurs. The first step to understanding this process is to explore the factors that predict successful dyadic relationships as well as trust and goodwill between the employee and the wider organization. The second step is to examine the impact of an organization providing support and development for employees through a formal mentoring program.

### **The Impact of Social Exchange in Formal Mentoring Programs**

To facilitate positive outcomes and create an environment for formal mentoring programs to be successful, a mentor should be committed to the mentoring relationship and to the organization (Allen & Poteet, 1999; Hu, Wang, Yang, & Wu, 2014; Kram, 1985b). Social Exchange Theory (SET) provides insight into the mechanisms that may be at play in

relationships. SET was refined initially through the contributions of Blau (1964), Homans (1961), and Emerson (1976), and operates on the premise that relationships form, develop, and end based upon the perceived positive and negative outcomes of the relationship. Essentially, SET suggests that when one party in a relationship receives something, there is a need to reciprocate on behalf of the other party to balance the exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This may transpire in relationships within a mentoring dyad as well as between organizations and employees.

**Social exchange within the mentoring dyad.** Individuals, who choose to serve as mentors, may elect to participate in mentoring relationships for reasons ranging from an external motivation to serve others to an internal desire for personal development (Allen et al., 1997). A mentoring relationship between two individuals may be understood as a form of social exchange through the elements of career development and psychosocial support (Kram, 1985b). In the context of a formal program, for example, mentor proactivity was reported by protégés and mentors to be positively associated with career-related mentoring functions and additionally by mentors to psychosocial mentoring functions (Wanberg et al., 2006). For this reason, it is important to recruit mentors who will model positive behaviors within the mentoring dyad to facilitate reciprocal, positive experiences.

Mentors may also choose to participate based on the perceived costs and benefits of serving as a mentor (Ragins & Scandura, 1999) in addition to their internal motivations ranging from an altruistic desire to give back to a self-serving purpose (Scandura, et al., 1996). Despite the specific intention, a mentor must perceive the potential relationship as worthwhile for their time and investment. This suggests that as a form of social exchange, a mentor must perceive the potential relationship as valuable for their time and investment. Parise and Forret (2008)

suggest that when participation as a mentor is voluntary, mentors are more likely to perceive it as a rewarding experience. As such, to maximize the benefits of a formal mentoring program, the program design characteristics with benefits for the mentor must be compelling enough to increase their likelihood to participate despite potential barriers. However, the benefits to the mentor should not be so great as to recruit individuals who only seek to participate for selfish reasons, which is why only individuals who score above the determined cutoffs on prosocial orientation and/or openness to experience will be included in the study.

**Social exchange between employee and organization.** Specifically, SET posits that employees may be more committed to an organization and to give back when they interpret actions on behalf of an organization as forms of organizational support (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). A mentor may facilitate an increase in Perceived Organizational Support (POS) for other employees as a tangible representation of an organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and may, in turn, receive benefits such as enhanced job performance and increased organizational commitment through participation as a mentor (Ghosh & Reio, 2013). A mentoring relationship facilitated by an organization may be characterized as a form of social exchange wherein an individual benefits from the mentoring received and an organization benefits from the increase in POS (Baranik, Roling, & Eby, 2010).

### **The Role of Perceived Organizational Support**

POS stems from the larger body of work encompassing Organizational Support Theory, which posits that employees' perceptions of an organization are largely based upon the extent to which the organization values employee well-being and contribution (Kurteiss et al., 2015). Increasing employee POS is a benefit, in and of itself, to the organization as it may be more likely to retain high-quality employees and reduce the associated turnover costs (Dawley et al.,

2007; 2010). Specifically, increased POS has been demonstrated as a method to enhance employee performance and affective commitment to an organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As such, increasing POS may be an effective approach to retain high-quality employees. One avenue that may effectively stimulate POS is for an organization to provide opportunities for mentoring, which has similarly been demonstrated to reduce employee turnover intentions (Dawley et al., 2007; 2010) and provide affective care through psychosocial support (Kram, 1985b; Ragins & Kram, 2007).

In the current study, I seek to understand how formal mentoring program design characteristics (i.e., *time in work* to facilitate a mentoring relationship and *training* for the mentor) positively impact a potential mentor's likelihood to participate as a mentor in a formal program. This relationship is hypothesized to occur through increasing employees' POS (see Appendix A for Figure 2).

*Hypothesis 3:* Formal mentoring programs that offer *time in work* to facilitate a mentoring relationship will positively impact a potential mentors' likelihood to participate through increased perceptions of organizational support.

*Hypothesis 4:* Formal mentoring programs that offer *training* for the mentor will positively impact a potential mentors' likelihood to participate through increased perceptions of organizational support.

The focus of the current study is to provide evidence-based research regarding what specific program design characteristics will most likely increase a potential mentor's likelihood to participate. It is hoped that the results will inform practical methods by which organizations can justify the prioritization of resources when designing a formal mentoring program with the greatest likelihood of success. One of the critical factors in determining the success of a mentoring program is attracting and retaining qualified mentors.

### Summary

The purpose of the current study is to examine whether two specific program design characteristics (i.e., *time in work* to facilitate the mentoring relationship or *training* for the mentor) will increase the likelihood that individuals, who meet the cutoff scores on the personality qualifications, will participate as a mentor in a formal mentoring program. Both of these program design characteristics may be understood as types of POS as the organization is facilitating mentor growth and development by providing *time in work* to facilitate the mentoring relationship instead of adding an additional task to fit into an already-busy schedule or by offering *training* for the mentor that outlines clear expectations and provides support for the mentor so that the relationship is a beneficial experience. Personality characterized as a behavior and a trait (i.e., prosocial orientation and openness to experience) will be used as a means to ensure that formal programs are attracting high-quality mentors. As such, participants will need to score above the assigned cutoffs on either scale to be included in the study. It is anticipated that the results of this study will inform organizations on how to allocate their resources effectively when designing formal programs for success.

## CHAPTER 2

### Method

#### Participants

As the focus of the current study is the role of the mentor, there are five inclusion criteria that participants had to fulfill in order to participate in the study. At the most basic level, participants had to be at least 18 years of age and reside in the United States. To better capture the intended audience (i.e., those who might serve in a mentor capacity in an organization), participants additionally had to be employed at least part-time, work outside the home at least three days a week, and have a minimum of five years' work experience. The latter parameters are in place to ensure that participants work at an organization and have enough experience to be qualified to potentially serve in a mentor capacity.

#### Sampling

Data for this study was collected through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is an online market place where requestors can post Human Intelligence Tasks (HITs) that may include surveys or projects that individuals can elect to participate in if they meet the minimum requirements (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). After each HIT is completed successfully, MTurk participants receive the allotted payment directly into their personal account. Although researchers have debated the amount participants should be compensated (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012; Buhrmeister et al., 2011; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010), payment for this study was based upon the federal minimum wage, which at the time of the study was \$7.25 per hour. Consequently, for a survey expected to take 10 minutes, participants were compensated \$1.20.

Data collected via MTurk has been demonstrated to be comparable to data collected via a



traditional laboratory study, and may perhaps be a better tool due to its anonymity (a feature lacking in traditional data collection wherein volunteers decline due to face-to-face interactions; Berinsky et al., 2012; Shapiro, Chandler, & Mueller, 2013). Most MTurk participants are employed full-time and pursue MTurk for their personal enjoyment (Mason & Suri, 2011). One reality of using MTurk as a data collection platform is that participants are more likely to be female, educated, younger, and politically liberal (Berinsky et al., 2012; Paolacci et al., 2010). However, data collected via MTurk has been shown to be more diverse than the typical US college samples used for research (Burhmester et al., 2011; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014; Shapiro et al., 2013) and tend to provide a more stable pool of participants (Mason & Suri, 2011). In fact, many top-tier journals accept studies that have collected data via MTurk (e.g., Inesi & Cable, 2015; Phillips, Gully, McCarthy, Castellano, & Kim, 2013). For the purposes of this study, it is a valuable approach as it provides a broader sample of participants that meet the inclusion criteria, creating a stronger pool to enhance generalizability (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002) when compared to the traditional college student samples typically used for research and who would not meet the inclusion criteria of the current study.

### **Sampling Procedure**

The survey to participate was listed as a HIT on MTurk. If MTurk participants met the requirements for the study and elected to participate, they were directed to Qualtrics, an online survey software. Based on pilot tests, the survey was estimated to take a maximum of 10 minutes. Participants first confirmed that they meet the requirements for the study and agreed to the informed consent before proceeding.

Each participant was randomly assigned via Qualtrics to one of three scenarios (one that invited them to participate in formal mentoring program without a form of organizational

support, one that offered *time in work* to facilitate the relationship, or one that provided *training* for the mentor). Participants were then asked to report their likelihood to participate as a mentor based on the scenario they received. To ensure that the scenarios were effectively manipulated, participants had to select which form of organizational support was provided in the scenario (i.e., none, *time in work*, or *training*) and respond to a scale about their perceptions of organizational support. To better understand the potential impact of previous mentoring experience, participants took the mentoring experience and quality scale, which included two questions about the perceived value of serving as a mentor and protégé respectively and would be used as covariates in the subsequent analyses. Next, they were asked to take two personality measures. The first assessed their prosocial orientation and the second measured personality through the FFM. The survey concluded with a series of demographic questions and a question about the quality of their data.

**Ensuring data quality.** There were four data checks provided within this study. The first was for participants to confirm they met the general requirements of the study after being directed to Qualtrics. The second and third were built into the prosocial orientation scale and the FFM scale respectively, and participants were removed from the study if they did not follow the direction to select a specific answer. The final check assured participants that regardless of their answer they will be compensated and asked whether they provided quality data and if their data should be included in the study. In these ways, the goal was to provide quality responses by not including data from careless responders.

### **Sample Size and Power**

There are three scenarios within the current study (i.e., a formal mentoring program that provides no organizational support, one that provides *time in work*, and one that offers *training*

for the mentor). Each group needed to have a minimum of 64 participants to detect a medium effect size, with a power set at a minimum of .80, and alpha set at .05 (Cohen, 1992). This suggests that a sample should have a minimum of 192 participants divided equally amongst the three scenarios. For the mediation analyses using a bias-corrected bootstrap method, the sample should include at least 71 participants in order to detect a medium effect size on both the a and b paths with power set to 80% (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). Due to the likelihood of losing participants in the screening and data cleaning process, data from a total of 450 participants was collected.

### **Manipulations and Measures**

To provide a consistent conceptualization of a formal mentoring program, the following description was included in the survey: “For the purpose of this entire survey, a formal program is defined as a mentoring program that is sponsored by an organization.”

**Program Design Characteristics.** To test the effectiveness of each program design characteristic, three scenarios were created inviting a potential mentor to participate in a formal mentoring program (see [Appendix C](#)). The first scenario invited an individual to serve as a mentor in a formal mentoring program, but does not offer any form of organizational support. This scenario serves as a baseline comparison to the latter two scenarios, each of which highlights a specific type of organizational support (i.e., *time at work* to facilitate a mentoring relationship or *training* for the mentor). To ensure that the manipulation of the program design characteristics was clearly distinguished, a manipulation check was included. Participants needed to select which form of organizational support (i.e., none, *time in work*, or *training*) was offered in the invitation to participate. The survey concluded with a set of demographic questions (see Appendix C). To further test the aforementioned hypotheses, five scales were

used in this study.

**Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor.** Ragins and Scandura (1999) adapted Ragins and Cotton's (1993) intention to mentor scale by including the original two items: "I would like to be a mentor" and "I have no desire to be a mentor" and adding two items: "I intend to be a mentor" and "I would be comfortable assuming a mentoring role." Each of the four items was assessed on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of .92 was reported and it was further noted that the 4-item measure was better than the 2-item measure by Ragins and Cotton (1993) that only reported an internal consistency reliability estimate of .81. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was .91.

**Perceived Organizational Support.** Eisenberger et al. (1986) originally developed a 36-item measure for POS with a reported Cronbach alpha coefficient of .97. In attempt to create a shorter version, multiple iterations were examined (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013) resulting in the current six-item measure with factor loadings from .71 to .84 (Bear & Hwang, 2015; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Example items include: "The organization really cares about my well-being" and "The organization strongly considers my goals and values." Participants were asked to rate their responses to the statements about their organization on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .83 in the current study.

**Prior Mentoring Experience and Quality.** Mentoring experience has typically been

captured with a single yes or no answer. As there does not exist a viable option to capture mentoring experience and quality, a measure was developed for use in both the pre-study and the current study. Each participant was asked if they had ever served in a mentor or protégé role in a formal or informal relationship, whether participation in a formal program was mandatory for either mentor or protégé, and asked them to rate their most recent experience as a mentor and protégé on a sliding scale from -100 (*the worst experience*) to +100 (*the best experience*) including a not applicable option if they had not participated in a mentoring relationship.

**Covariates.** Given that the purpose of the current study is to better understand how to design a formal mentoring program with the greatest likelihood of recruiting potential mentors, it was important to control for the perceived value of participating in a mentoring relationship. Consequently, the results would reflect the impact of the program design characteristics controlling for the participants' personal perceptions and expectations. Participants were asked to indicate their perceived value of serving as a mentor or protégé respectively on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

**Prosocialness Scale for Adults.** Caprara, Steca, Zelli, and Capanna (2005) introduced the prosocialness scale for adults that includes behaviors and feelings related to one of four actions including sharing, helping, taking care of, and feeling empathic with others and their needs or requests. The scale comprises 16-items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never/almost never true*) to 5 (*almost always/always true*) that can be aggregated for a single score. Example items include: "I try to help others" and "I easily put myself in the shoes of those who are in discomfort." Traditional psychometric analyses demonstrated strong reliability and validity properties with a reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .91 and a mean corrected item-total correlation of .59. Authors further examined the scale using item response

theory and received satisfactory results both theoretically and methodologically. Participants needed to score 2 or higher to be included in this study as this indicated they are more likely to exhibit prosocial behavior. Within the current study, the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was .94.

**Big Five Mini-Markers Adjective Check List.** In effort to create a FFM of personality that could be used readily in research, Saucier (1994) refined the FFM adjective list developed by Goldberg (1990). The approach using mini-markers demonstrated stronger Cronbach alpha coefficients for each of the five factors ranging from .74 to .83. Participants were asked to rate themselves on 40-adjectives using a 9-point Likert ranging from 1 (*extremely inaccurate*) to 9 (*extremely accurate*). The directions indicated that individuals should rate themselves as they are and not as they wish to be in comparison to others who are of comparable age and sex. While only the openness to experience scale was used in the analyses, all five scales were collected to provide distractor items so participants did not anticipate the hypotheses being studied. Individuals needed to report above average (5 or higher) to be included in this study. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .77 was reported within the current study.

## CHAPTER 3

### Analyses

After cleaning the data, I ran preliminary analyses to evaluate assumptions for the subsequent tests and to check the reliabilities of each scale. While the original design of the study included two covariates (i.e., the perceived value of serving as a mentor and protégé respectively), it is valuable to note that they were not included in the results of the subsequent analyses. Spector and Brannick (2011) address the importance of a correctly-specified model such that covariates should only be included if they elucidate underlying constructs or account for missing variance. To ensure a properly-specified model, the results were examined with covariates included and then re-run without covariates. As the control variables did not contribute significantly to the model, they were removed in order to preserve model parsimony. Additionally, because the primary analyses separately compare each program design characteristic (i.e., *time in work* or *training*) with the program that offers no form of organizational support, I created two correlation tables to explore the interrelationships among variables within each condition. In all following analyses, conditions were coded 0 = no form of organizational support provided and 1 = *time in work* or *training* offered respectively. I then proceeded to the primary analyses of the study.

For Hypotheses 1 and 2, I first conducted two *t*-tests to examine each of the program design characteristics that provided organizational support (i.e., *time in work* and *training*) separately against the scenario that did not offer a form of organizational support. This investigated whether or not the program design characteristics increased a potential mentor's likelihood to participate without any additional variables included. Second, I ran a regression to understand the unique variance accounted for by each program design characteristic.

Next, I examined Hypotheses 3 and 4 that proposed that the relationship between program design characteristics and a potential mentor's likelihood to participate as a mentor functioned through Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Each condition comparing the program that offered no form of organizational support and either *time in work* or *training* was assessed through Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro for SPSS as a mediation (Model 4).

Finally, for exploratory purposes, a moderated-mediation was conducted post-hoc to test the full spectrum of the personality measures (i.e., prosocial orientation and openness to experience) along with the original covariates (i.e., the perceived values of serving as a mentor and protégé) in order to understand if there were different outcomes based on how individuals rated on the personality scales controlling for participants' perceptions about the values of participating as mentor or protégé. The covariates were retained for this model given that all participants were included in these analyses, which may include more varied perceptions of the value of mentoring. The outcomes of these analyses are addressed next.

## **Results**

### **Data Preparation and Cleaning**

Originally, 461 participants were collected via MTurk. Through the data cleaning process, 36 were removed due to failure to adhere to the four data quality checks, 105 were removed for not selecting the correct answer to the manipulation check, and 32 were removed for not meeting the cutoff score for either prosocialness or openness to experience. Thus, the final sample included 288 participants distributed fairly evenly across the three program design characteristic scenarios (93 for the program that included no form of organizational support, 102 for the program that offered *time in work* to facilitate the mentoring relationship, and 93 for the scenario that provided *training* for the mentor). To test if attrition rates varied across conditions,



I conducted a chi-square test across all conditions to see if they differed significantly from one another in terms of who stayed and who left. Results indicated that there was no significant association between the program design scenarios and those removed from the sample ( $X^2(4) = 6, p = .19$ ) or for those who were retained in the sample ( $X^2(2) = 3, p = .22$ ). As such, it is appropriate to assume that the results of the current study are not due to the participants who were either removed and/or retained.

The final sample was predominantly white (71%), reported an average age of 35 years, and an average of 13 years of work experience. There was a nearly equal representation of males and females (54% and 46% respectively) across a variety of industries (i.e., no single industry represented more than 15% of the total sample). A missing analysis was conducted at the case-level revealing no missingness above 5% for all except for six cases, which reported 6.25% missingness. Given that the predominance of the sample did not exceed the 5% limit, multiple imputation was not utilized (Schafer, 1999). For each scale, the items were aggregated by computing the mean and calculated only if 75% of data were present for each scale. Scale scores were subsequently computed given that comprehensive data was available for all 288 participants.

### **Preliminary Analyses and Assumptions Testing**

Before testing hypotheses, assumptions for the analyses (e.g., normality of residuals, linearity, etc.) were analyzed using P-P and scatter plots respectively with results indicating that none strayed too far from normality. Homogeneity of variance was later examined via the Levene's test. Tables 1 and 2 provide the means, standard deviations, internal consistency estimates, and bivariate correlations for variables within each of the two conditions comparing the program that offered no form of organizational support and programs that offered *time in*

*work* and *training* accordingly. Within the tables, the demographic variables include participant age and sex, the covariates are the perceived value of serving respectively as a mentor and protégé, openness and prosocialness are the variables used to determine participant inclusion in the study, the independent variables are represented as the program design scenarios coded as 0 = program with no organizational support offered and 1 = program design offering *time in work* or *training*, the mediator is POS, and the dependent variable is an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor.

In Table 1, it is important to note that POS was significantly correlated with the program design that offered *time in work* to facilitate the mentoring relationship ( $r = .25, p < .001$ ) as well as but not as strongly with the program design that provided *training* for the mentor ( $r = .17, p = .02$ ; Table 2). An individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor was significantly correlated with POS in the condition that included *time in work* ( $r = .56, p = .00$ ) and in the program design that offered *training* ( $r = .45, p = .00$ ). Furthermore, in both conditions (i.e., *time in work* and *training*), participants' likelihood to participate as a mentor was more strongly correlated with their proclivity toward prosocial behavior ( $r = .51, p = .00$ ;  $r = .40, p = .00$ ) than with their level of openness ( $r = .30, p = .00$ ;  $r = .16, p = .04$ ). After reviewing the results of the preliminary analyses, I proceeded to the analyses that tested the proposed hypotheses.

### **Primary Analyses**

In Hypothesis 1, I proposed that a formal mentoring program that offered its participants *time in work* to facilitate a mentoring relationship would result in a higher likelihood that an individual would participate as a mentor compared to a program that did not provide a form of organizational support. To test the differences between the program designs, an independent samples *t*-test was used. Levene's test for equality of variances was significant ( $F = 6.09, p =$

.01), so the results were reported utilizing the Welch-Satterthwaite method given that equal variances cannot be assumed. Results indicated a significant difference between the program design without any form of organizational support ( $M = 5.15$ ,  $SD = 1.42$ ) and the program design that provided *time in work* ( $M = 5.74$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ), demonstrating that the program that offered this particular form of organizational support resulted in a greater likelihood of participation by potential mentors ( $t(169) = -3.29$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $d = .25$ ).

In Hypothesis 2, I proposed similarly that a formal mentoring program that provided *training* for the mentor compared to a program that did not provide a form of organizational support would result in a greater likelihood that a potential mentor would choose to participate. The Levene's test for equality of variance was not violated ( $F = .07$ ,  $p = .80$ ), so equal variances could be assumed. The program design without any form of organizational support ( $M = 5.15$ ,  $SD = 1.42$ ) and the program design that provided *training* ( $M = 5.17$ ,  $SD = 1.44$ ) did not indicate a significant difference in a potential mentor's likelihood to participate and exhibited a negative relationship ( $t(184) = -1.07$ ,  $p = .915$ ,  $d = .008$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Next, a regression was used to explore the unique variance within an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor. In order to examine the categorical predictors in a regression analysis, two dummy codes were created (Field, 2013). The first code compared the program design that offered *time in work* to the program design with no form of organizational support. Similarly, the second code compared the program design the provided *training* to the program design with no form of organization support. Likelihood to participate as a mentor was then regressed on the two dummy codes. Overall, the model accounted for 4.4% of the variance of an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor in a formal mentoring program (see Table 3 in Appendix B). It is also important to note that *time in work* contributed significantly to the

model ( $B = .59$ ; Bias Corrected [BC] 95% confidence interval [CI] = .23 to .97) whereas *training* for the mentor did not ( $B = .12$ ; BC 95% CI = -.36 to .40), which corroborates the results of the *t*-tests.

In Hypotheses 3 and 4, I proposed that the positive relationship between program design characteristics and likelihood to participate as a mentor is facilitated through the mediating mechanism of increased POS. Utilizing the SPSS macro, PROCESS (Hayes 2013; Model 4), I tested Hypotheses 3 and 4 (see Tables 4 and 5 in Appendix B). Results of the mediation analysis for Hypothesis 3 indicated that there is a significant indirect effect of the program design offering *time in work* to facilitate a mentoring relationship on an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor through POS ( $B_{ab} = .33$ ; BC 95% CI = .13 to .52). The results for Hypothesis 4 revealed that there is a significant indirect effect providing *training* for the mentor on an individual's likelihood to participate in mentoring through POS ( $B_{ab} = .23$ ; BC 95% CI = .04 to .46). Interestingly, it is important to note that while the results of the *t*-test indicated that there was not a significant relationship between the program design offering *training* and a potential, quality mentor's likelihood to participate, the relationship became significant when included in the mediation model. This seemingly counterintuitive result will be addressed in the discussion section.

### **Post-hoc Analyses**

Finally, a moderated-mediation was conducted as a post-hoc analysis in order to better understand the role of prosocial orientation and openness to experience including controlling for the perceived value of serving as a mentor or protégé. Both covariates were included in this model given that all individuals representing the full range of the personality measures were included in these analyses instead of just those who met the cutoff scores for the personality

scales. Since a broader array of individuals were included in these analyses, it was important to control for both perceptions of serving as a mentor and protégé in order to tease out the influence of the personality scales rather than the perceived value of participating in a mentoring relationship. For this analysis, the 32 participants, who did not meet the cutoff scores for the prior hypotheses, were included in order to examine a fuller spectrum of prosocial orientation and openness to experience. The prior mediation model was retained with the addition of prosocial orientation and openness included on the b path respectively, creating four models to test (see Figures 3-6 in Appendix A).

To explore this question, the SPSS macro PROCESS was utilized (Hayes, 2013; Model 14). In accordance with the bivariate, (see Tables 6-9 in Appendix B for details of the analyses), both the a and b paths were significant in each of the four models. This indicates that the higher the level of POS, the greater the likelihood that an individual would choose to participate as a mentor, controlling for the perceived value of serving as a mentor or protégé. The results suggest that a moderated-mediation exists for all four models such that moderate and high levels of both prosocial orientation and openness to experience are more likely to lead an individual to elect to participate as a mentor in a formal mentoring program (see Figures 7-10 in Appendix A for the simple slopes of each model). The theoretical and practical implications of the aforementioned results are addressed in the subsequent section as well as limitations and future research.

## CHAPTER 4

### Discussion

Results of the current study suggest that when designing a formal mentoring program with the greatest likelihood of recruiting potential, quality mentors, it is more effective to provide *time in work* to facilitate the mentoring relationship than to offer *training* for the mentor. While both limited time and lack of preparation were identified as potential barriers to participation, it may be that the increasing pace of work (Allen et al., 1997) and the competing demands on a potential, quality mentor's time (Allen et al., 2009) negated the consideration of lack of preparation as a barrier given that *training* may have been perceived merely as an additional task in an already busy schedule. It also may be that participants did not perceive training as a means to address deficits in preparation. Thus, while training may not be an effective method to recruit mentors, it may yet play an important role in the overall effectiveness of a formal mentoring program since it was positively related to an individual's perception of organizational support. Furthermore, other methods to prepare mentors should be explored in the future. Based on the results of the current study, there are theoretical and practical implications to address as well as limitations and future research to consider.

### Implications for Theory

**An unmeasured mediator between training and likelihood to participate.** The first aspect to examine regarding the outcomes of the current study is that although there was no significant impact of offering *training* on an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor (as evidenced in the bivariate correlation), the results were consistent with the proposition that training affects likelihood to participate *through* POS. Although these results seem contradictory, Hayes (2013) suggests that it is indeed possible to observe a significant mediation, even when

the bivariate correlation between the IV and DV is insignificant. He explains that an unmeasured mediator or multiple mediators can work cross-purposes with an observed mediator.

Specifically, the a and b paths for the measured and the unmeasured mediators could have opposing signs, such that when they work together, they produce the net result of nullifying the effect of the IV on the DV. Specifically, in the current study, the relationships on the a and b paths were positive with POS as the mediator. However, there may have been an unmeasured mediator operating with an a path that was positive and b path that was negative.

A hypothetical example of a possible unmeasured mediator in this study is the participants' perceptions of the personal time investment that training would require (see Figure 11; the observed variable is black and the hypothesized, unobserved variable is red). Whereas not all training requires extensive time, formal mentoring program trainings can range from a single half-day workshop (Cully et al., 2012) to five half-day workshops held consecutively across multiple weeks (Dickerson et al., 2016). If participants in the current study interpreted the training as requiring extensive time and effort, it is likely that there would have been a positive relationship on the a path between the independent variable (i.e., the program design providing *training*) and the unmeasured hypothetical mediator (i.e., the perceived effort of participating in the training). Because prior studies have suggested that a lack of time often dissuades individuals from participating in discretionary training opportunities (Galanouli, Murphy, & Garnder, 2004), there may have been a subsequent negative relationship on the b path between the perceived effort of training and the individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor. The resultant indirect effect for the unmeasured mediator (i.e., the perceived time investment of training) would be negative.

In combination, therefore, the positive indirect effect of the observed mediator and the

negative indirect effect of the unmeasured mediator would have cancelled out the effect of the bivariate between the predictor and outcome variables. As such, the results of the current study suggest that there are yet unmeasured mediators impacting the model that future research can address in order to better understand what factors specifically influence an individual's likelihood to participate as a mentor in a formal mentoring program.

**Experienced mentors and the need for training.** Another implication from the current study relates to the influence of prior mentoring experience, which has been demonstrated to be a significant predictor of future participation in mentoring relationships (Bozionelos, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1993; Ragins & Scandura, 1999) and may have influenced a potential mentor's perceived need for training. Although multiple studies have reported that training is a viable method to enhance an employee's job performance (see Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009 for the comprehensive literature review), training for a formal mentoring program has been reported to be more important for individuals with less mentoring experience, especially to improve relationship building skills (Cully et al., 2012). Consequently, individuals who have previously participated in a mentoring relationship may not have perceived as great a need for training given their prior experience. Within the current sample, 69% of participants reported some form of previous experience in a mentoring relationship. Specifically, 63% had previously served as a mentor, 49% had experience as a protégé, 37% had participated in a formal program, and 63% had been in an organically formed relationship.

Given their extensive prior experience as a mentor and/or protégé, participants may not have felt that training was relevant to them personally. Therefore, while providing the training may have been a signal of the organization's support for a potential mentor, any additional perceived benefit of training that could have increased their likelihood to participate was negated



for individuals with prior mentoring experience. If training is of greater benefit for individuals with less experience then it would behoove researchers to examine the perceived need of training and to explore if, how, and what type of training uniquely benefits those who have already served as a mentor or protégé. Perhaps the relationship between training offered and likelihood to participate is moderated by the amount of experience as a mentor. This would also explain the insignificant bivariate. The results of that information could be used to design training that is tailored uniquely to address the needs of the participants who have and have not had experience in a mentoring relationship.

In addition, future research should explore alternatives to formal training given that only 10% of learning is reported to occur through formal structures and programs and 20% through developmental relationships (McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988). One approach that programs could utilize is to provide infographics or other easy-to-use and easy-to-access resources that provide high-quality information without the time investment usually associated with training programs. For example, each guide could provide a practical overview of skills that a mentor or mentee could employ such as the top five best ways to ask open-ended questions. Additionally, organizations could provide resources to help participants capture the learning from their experiences or to create development plans that can be used in the mentoring relationship (Yost & Plunkett, 2010). In these ways, an organization would be building employee development into existing practices rather than requiring additional time from employees.

Another approach that organizations could consider outside the scope of formal training is to build a learning culture that benefits both the individual employee as well as the mentoring dyads. For example, an organization could facilitate a 30-day challenge wherein employees

sign-up to participate in daily developmental experiences. The challenges or questions could build upon each other or could function independently with the goal of each to improve employees' skills and abilities. To improve participation, organizations could offer a method for anonymous feedback that was shared with all staff in order to foster awareness of the benefits as well as provides real-time assessment. In this way, training becomes intertwined into the employee experience and can be used to prepare them for future roles (McCall, 1998).

**The role of organizational support for participation.** Further research is needed to better understand what other forms of POS would also positively impact a potential, quality mentor's likelihood to participate. Based on the mediation analyses, results suggest that both *time in work* and *training* were regarded by the participants as forms of organizational support. This, in turn, led to a positive relationship with a potential mentor's likelihood to participate in a formal mentoring program. Allen et al. (2006) suggest that when an organization provides training, the participants are clued in to the idea that the company supports the program and is dedicated to its ultimate success. Future research should examine other forms of organizational support that would motivate employees to participate in a formal mentoring program. For example, some organizations design formal mentoring programs that provide incentives for mentoring. For example, monetary compensation for the time mentors invest (Dickerson et al., 2016; Newby & Heide, 1992). This financial investment on behalf of an organization may be another form of POS that positively impacts a potential mentor's intention to participate. The challenge would be to find an appropriate amount that would incentivize those who would be quality mentors rather than encourage participants simply based on the financial benefit. Ultimately, the impact of POS should be underscored as a vital method to encourage opportunities to improve affective commitment to the organization and to enhance employee

performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The following section addresses practical methods that organizations can utilize to implement a formal mentoring program.

### **Implications for Practice**

As organizations continue to explore formal mentoring programs as means to recruit new employees (Allen & O'Brien, 2006; Horvath, Wasko, & Bradley, 2008) and to glean the career benefits that often stem from organically-formed mentoring relationships (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Castro, Scandura, & Williams, 2004; Dreher & Ash, 1990), there are two practical implications based on the current study to consider when designing a formal mentoring program.

**Strategies for fostering mentoring relationships during the workday.** As one of the most consistent issues reported within a formal mentoring program has been the participants' lack of time to facilitate a mentoring relationship (Kashiwagi, Varkey, & Cook, 2013; Stenfors-Hayes et al., 2010), it is not surprising in the current study that the program design that offered time in work to facilitate a mentoring relationship related positively to an individual's likelihood to participate as mentor. This suggests that an effective method to recruit quality mentors is to provide space within a busy workday to partake in a mentoring relationship. Given the high-pressure environments within organizations and the felt-need to "do" and "be" everything as an employee (Reid & Ramarajan, 2016), one of the challenges that organizations may encounter is how to practically provide the necessary time. Within companies, for example, there may be various community tasks in which employees engage periodically (e.g., cleaning a shared kitchen space). If an employee opts to serve as a mentor, the organization could offer dispensation from these communal tasks given that the mentor is providing other services that

benefit the greater community.

Another example to provide time in work is to utilize the lunch hour for mentoring meetings. One Midwestern consumer goods organization provides a lunch-ticket program that offers meal tickets for the mentor and protégé so that they have time to meet during the workday (Matarazzo & Finkelstein, 2015). Recognizably, this also requires some measure of financial investment on behalf of the organization. Perhaps offering coffee cards would be a more cost effective approach. If monetary support is not feasible for an organization, the mentoring dyad could be allowed to leave work an hour early if they use their use their personal lunch hours for their mentoring meeting. Finally, an organization could provide short-term coverage of a mentor's tasks in order to provide the time necessary to facilitate a mentoring relationship. One way this has been implemented in a Northwest school district was to create a mentoring program that recruited high-performing teachers to serve as mentors for lower-performing teachers by providing coverage of their classes during required mentoring responsibilities. The school district provided a substitute when the mentoring teacher attended the initial training workshop and when subsequent visits were made to the protégé's class in order to observe and provide feedback. It is important to acknowledge that there should be very clear expectations outlined regarding how time is offered to prevent individuals from taking advantage of the program or participating solely because of the potential benefits.

**Best practices when designing mentor training.** It is important to note that even though training was not related to increased proclivity to be a mentor, it is still a valuable component of a mentoring program (Allen et al., 2006; Forret et al., 1996), especially as a lack of confidence in providing mentoring has been expressed by mentors in formal programs (Connor, Bynoe, Redfern, Pokora, & Clarke, 2000). It may be that training for the mentor is more

significant to the ultimate success of a mentoring relationship than for the recruitment of potential mentors. While this study focused on increasing mentor participation and not mentoring quality, it is essential to examine best practices related to mentoring quality and outcomes when designing training that will set up mentors for success. For example, one of the benefits of training for mentors is that it improves factual knowledge and counseling skills (Dickerson et al., 2016). Perhaps training facilitates a more effective relationship, providing quality mentoring experiences that act recursively to encourage future participation.

The effectiveness of formal mentoring programs has been significantly correlated with training receipt and quality, but not with the number of hours invested (Allen et al., 2006). Given these results, an organization should conduct a needs analysis before developing training for employees in order to tailor the training and development to meet the needs of potential participants and to incorporate best practices from research (Noe, 2009). When designing the subsequent training, there are five elements to consider. First, one of the reasons training and development opportunities help mentors overcome a sense of inadequacy to fulfill the role is that it provides space to address the potential costs of mentoring and for mentors to ask questions (Giancola, Heaney, Metzger, & Whitman, 2016). In this way, mentors may discuss questions they may have and be prepared when the mentoring relationship begins. Second, a key element of a successful formal mentoring relationship is to set objectives for the dyad because this practice has been demonstrated to enhance learning and improve communication (Matarazzo & Finkelstein, 2015). By offering training and development to prepare mentors to facilitate a conversation about the purpose of the mentorship, potential issues stemming from unmet expectations may be avoided.

The third best practice for organizations when developing training is to tailor training to

adult learning. A key characteristic of adult learners is that they want to know why they are learning the specific material and for the process to be self-directed (Knowles, 1990). For example, one method to provide practice is to role play situations that mentors may encounter (Cully et al., 2012). In this way, trainers can explain that mentors may encounter various situations and this portion provides hands-on practice regarding how they would approach and respond to a situation. Another method that has been used in formal mentoring training is a Montessori approach that offers self-directed learning (Modic et al., 2013). Specifically, participants are responsible for their own learning with clear objectives they need to demonstrably attain. A fourth consideration in designing training and development is to provide a training manual (Cully et al., 2012) or a hands-on resource (Modic et al., 2013). Mentors subsequently have tools to which they can refer as needed throughout the ongoing relationship.

Finally, assessment should be a scheduled element of the program design and focus on the utility of the experience (Alliger, Tannenbaum, Bennett, Traver, & Shotland, 1997; Cully et al., 2012; Giancola et al., 2016). As such, the program can be reviewed and modified based on the feedback of participants. For example, providing opportunities for participants to share their experiences permits the program to develop and grow over time, allowing it to continue to benefit both the participants and the organization.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

The central limitation of the current study is the potential for reduced external validity due to the use of vignettes (i.e., the scenarios that invited mentors to participate in one of the three program designs). Although vignettes have been demonstrated to be a more effective tool than abstract questions because they provide greater context (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Alexander & Becker, 1978), the challenge is that they are not fully reflective of real-life

situations given the lack of actual consequence of participants' decisions within a research study (Lohrke, Holloway, & Woolley, 2010). Realistically, the choice to participate as a mentor may require additional consideration before an individual agrees to commit to invest in an actual mentoring relationship. Without the actual responsibility, participants may have been more likely to express a positive inclination to participate as a mentor given that they did not actually have to forfeit their personal time and energy.

The current study also provides a platform from which to examine two additional areas of future research. First, one element of a formal mentoring program that was not included in the current study that may influence an individual's choice to serve as a mentor is whether participation is voluntary. When individuals willingly choose to serve as a mentor, they tend to perceive it as a rewarding experience (Parise & Forret, 2008). One reason this may be valuable is that it mirrors the process of electing to participate as a mentor in an informal relationship. This might suggest that an important aspect of designing a formal mentoring program with the greatest likelihood of recruiting quality mentors is to ensure that participation is voluntary instead of being mandated. However, if the program is required then the results of the current study would suggest that the program should be designed to provide time in work to facilitate the mentoring relationship as it is positively related to an individual's choice to participate as a mentor in a formal program. In this way, the program may be perceived more favorably given the reality that it has been reported to be an effective method to recruit mentors.

Finally, an additional limitation and area for further research is to consider the importance of the mentor-protégé match on the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship (Allen et al., 2006; Forret et al., 1996; Giancola et al., 2016). Within the context of the current study, high-quality mentors were defined as scoring at or above a set cutoff score on prosocial

behaviors and/or openness to experience. Mentors who rate highly on these personality characteristics may tend to be more effective (Allen, 2003; Allen et al., 1997; Bozionelos, 2004), new evidence suggests that it is more important that mentors and protégés exhibit similar levels of these characteristics (i.e., conscientiousness and openness) instead of just the mentor alone (Menges, 2016). Unfortunately, it may be unrealistic for organizations to invest the high cost and resources required to facilitate the assessment and matching process. Future research should examine what additional factors facilitate an effective relationship and cost-effective methods to match mentors and protégés

### **Conclusion**

Results of the current study contribute to the mentoring literature by providing empirical evidence about how to design formal mentoring programs. Specifically, I examined how program design characteristics lead to a quality mentor's likelihood to participate as a mentor uniquely as well as through the role of POS. When recruiting individuals to serve as mentors in formal mentoring programs, one viable way to increase their likelihood to participate is to provide *time in work* for them to facilitate a mentoring relationship rather than offering *training* for the mentor. The intention of the current study is to contribute to the growing literature on formal mentoring programs and to provide practical methods for organizations to use when creating opportunities for employee growth and development.



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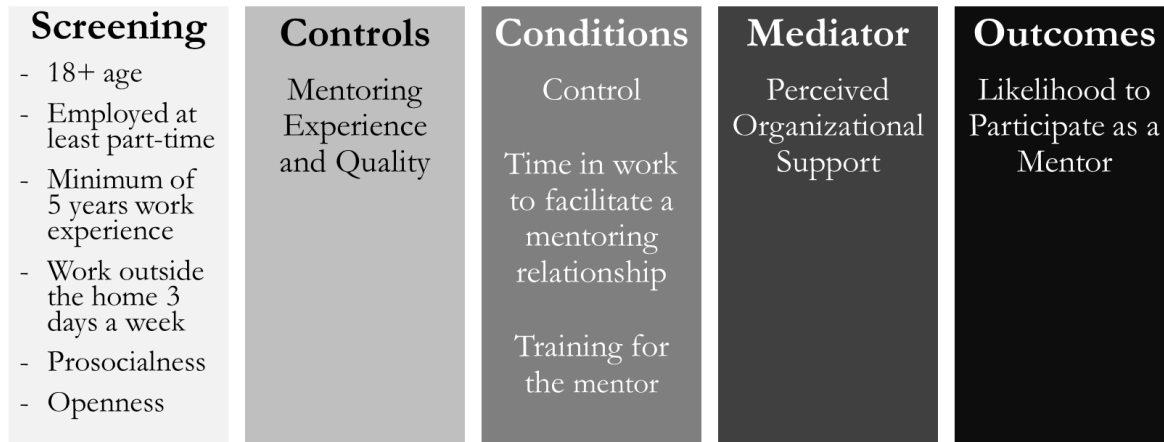
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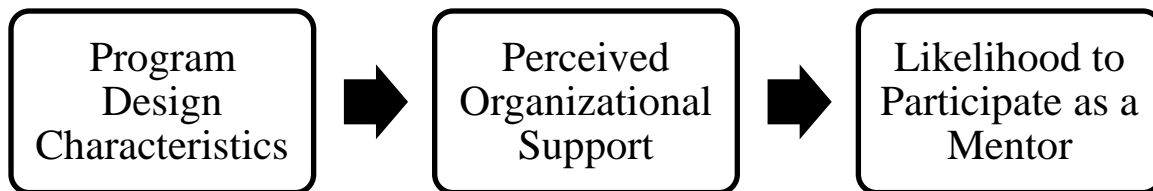
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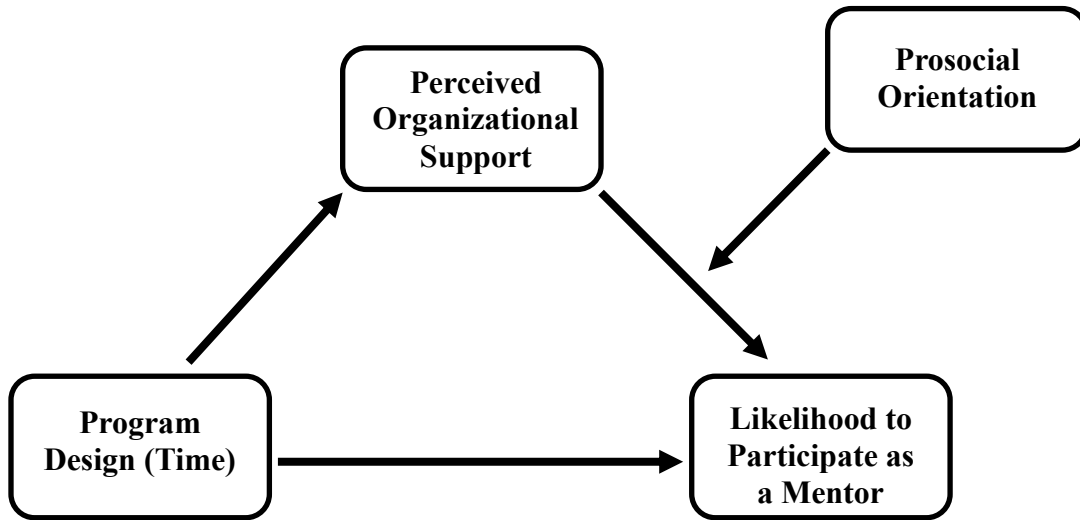
**APPENDIX A: Figures**



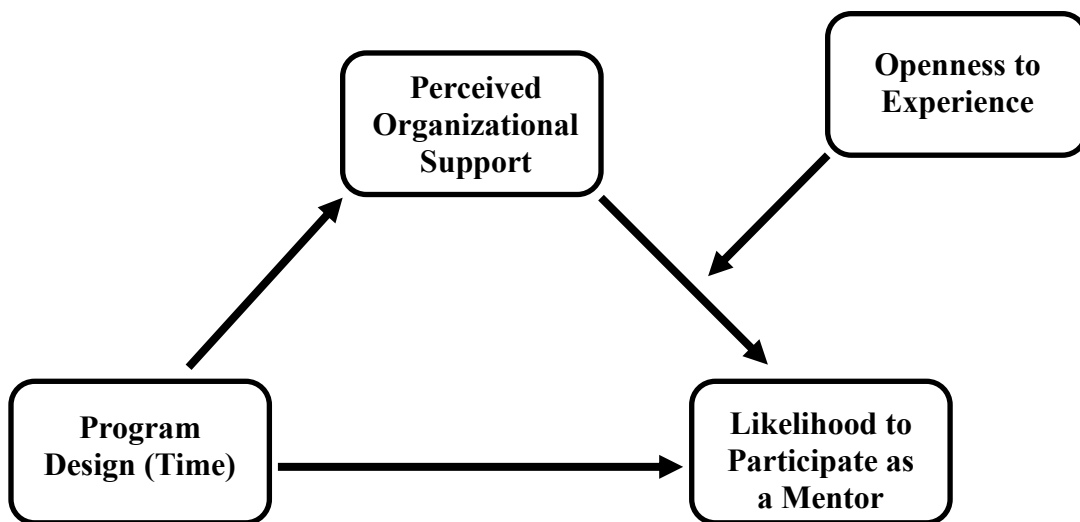
*Figure 1.* Overview of variables in the current study.



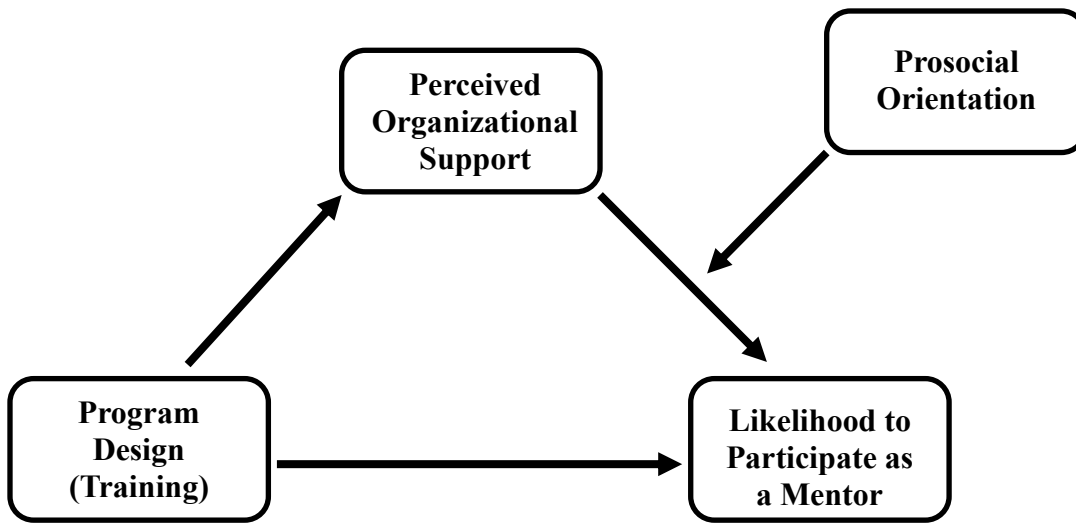
*Figure 2.* Mediation model for Hypotheses 3 and 4.



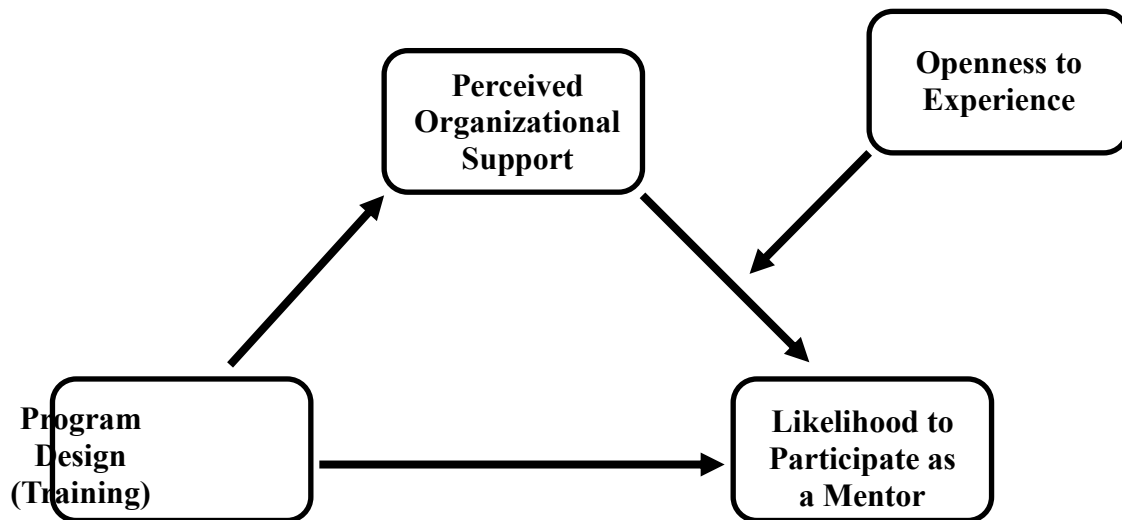
*Figure 3.* Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering time in work with prosocial orientation on the b path.



*Figure 4.* Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering time in work with openness to experience on the b path.



*Figure 5.* Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering training for the mentor with prosocial orientation on the b path.



*Figure 6.* Exploratory moderated-mediation model for the program design offering training for the mentor with openness to experience on the b path.

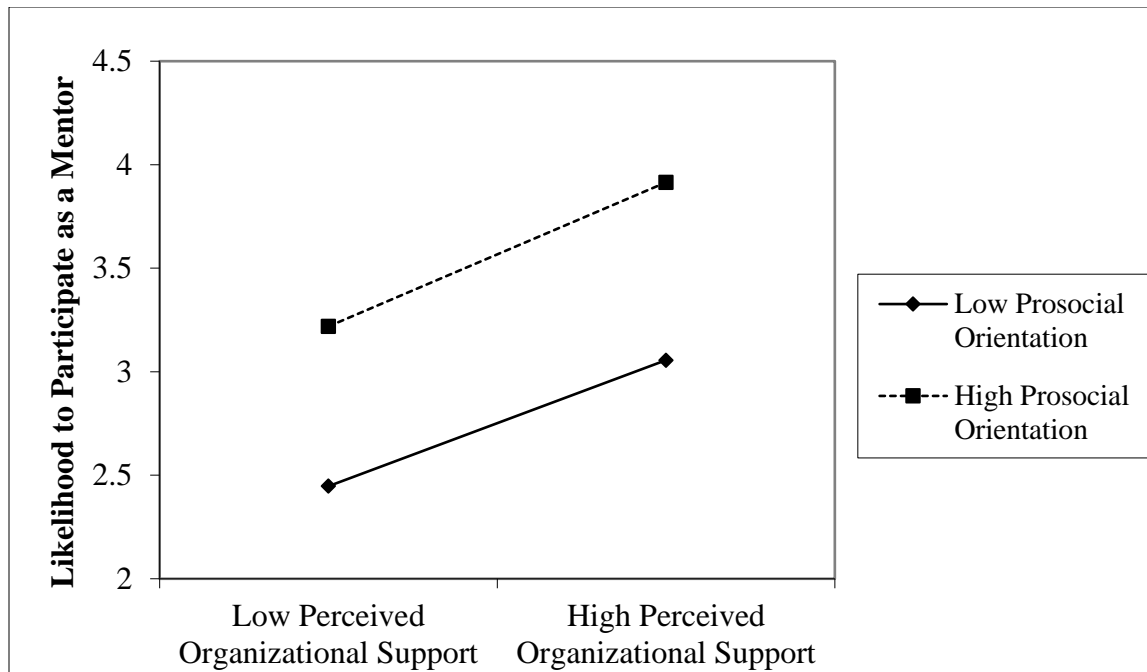


Figure 7. Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of prosocial orientation in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *time at work* is the IV.

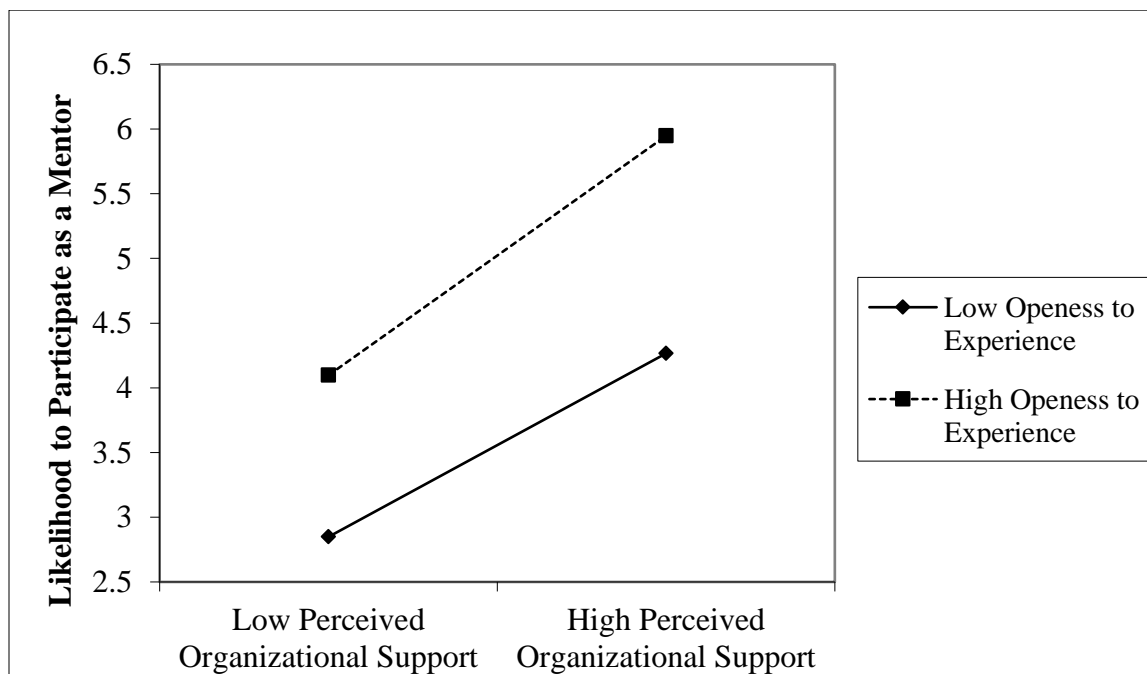


Figure 8. Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of openness to experience orientation in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *time at work* is the IV.

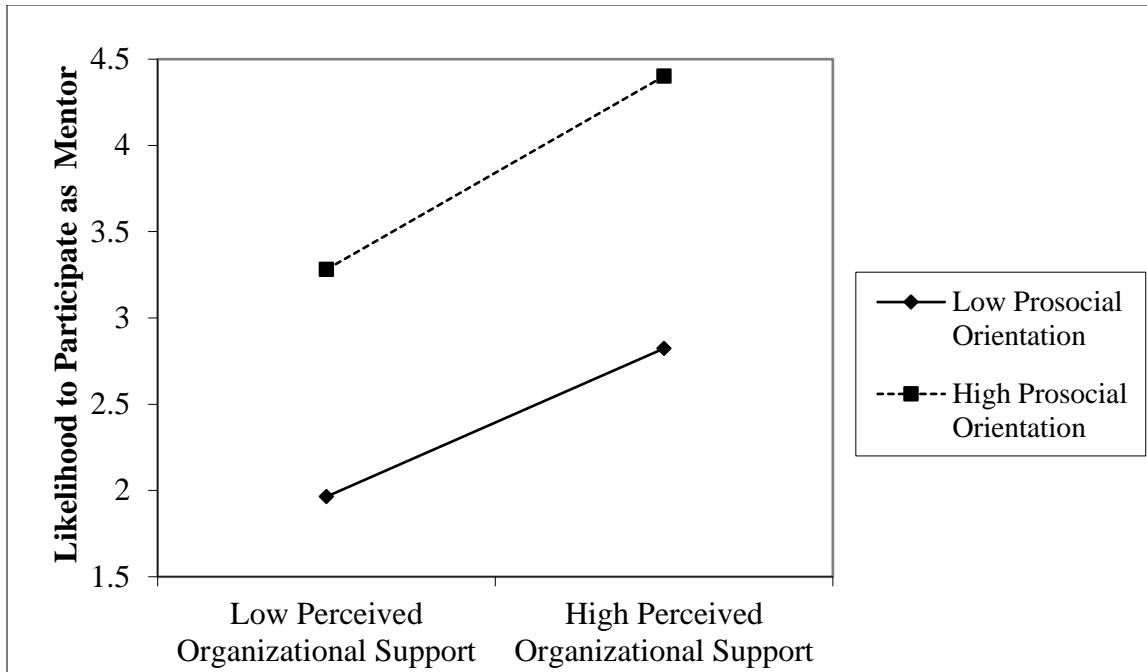


Figure 9. Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of prosocial orientation in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *training* is the IV.

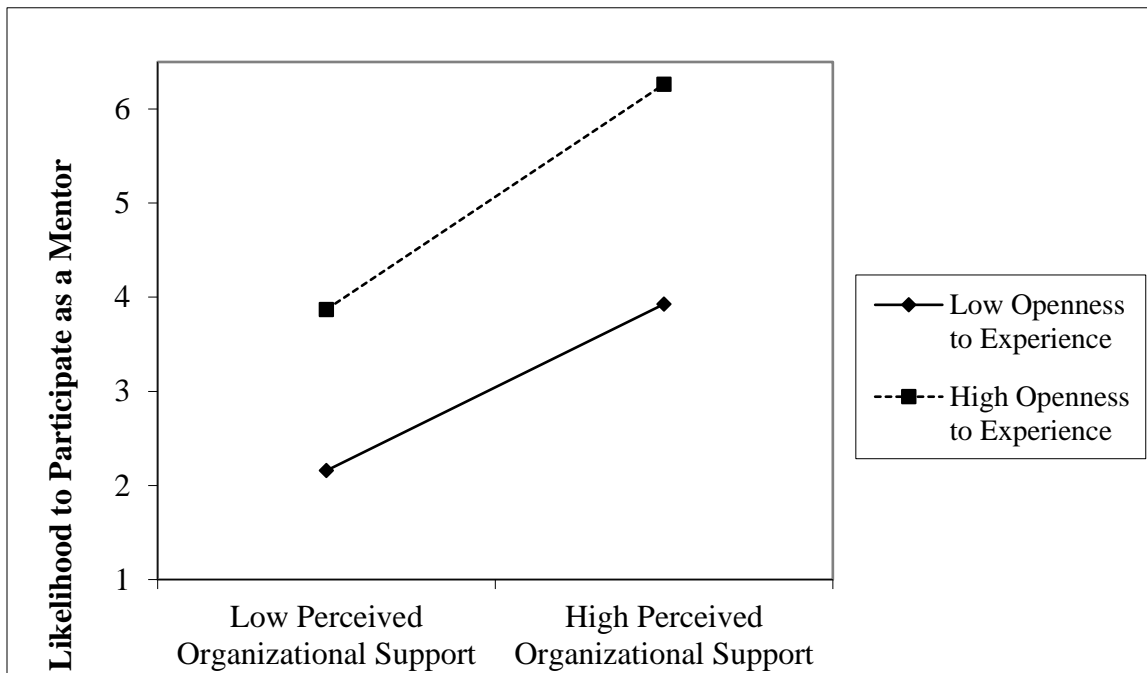
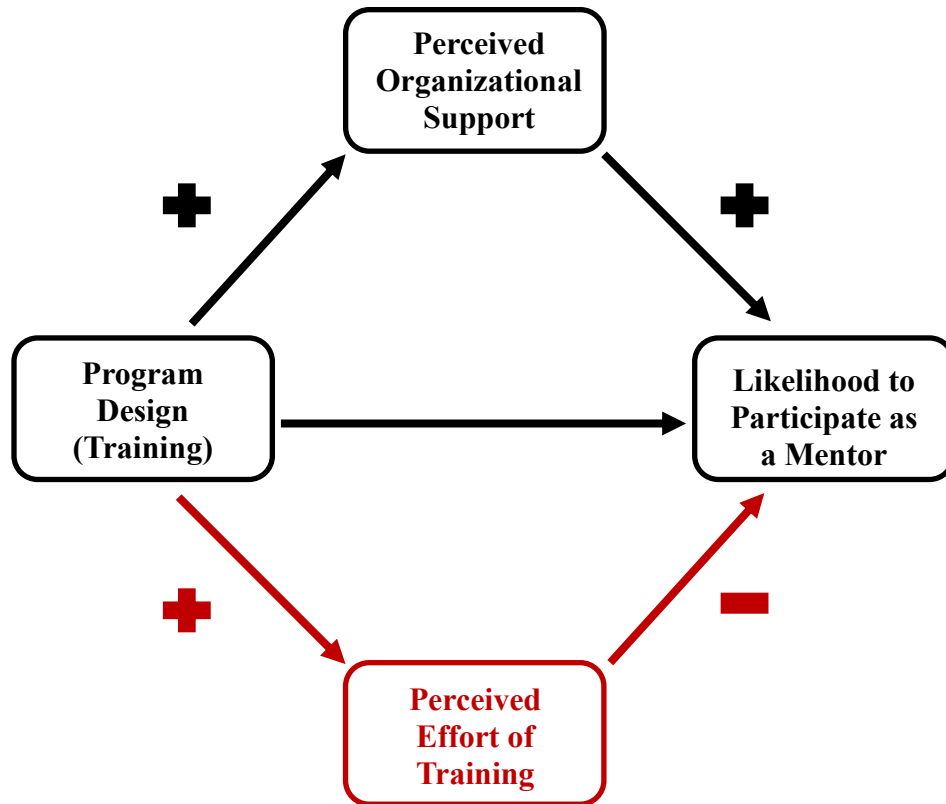


Figure 10. Depiction of the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood to participate at different levels of openness to experience in the context of an exploratory moderated mediation in which *training* is the IV.





*Figure 11.* Potential mediation model including observed (black lines) and unobserved hypothetical (red lines) mediators.

## APPENDIX B: Tables

Table 1

*Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistencies, and Correlations for the Program Design Offering Time in Work*

Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	34.14	10.72	-								
2. Sex	0.45	0.49	0.09	-							
3. Value of serving as Mentor	5.98	0.99	0.02	0.09	-						
4. Value of serving as Protégé	5.83	1.09	-0.05	0.02	0.57**	-					
5. Openness	7.04	1.03	0.05	-0.05	0.26**	0.26**	(.77)				
6. Prosocialness	3.77	0.71	-0.01	0.05	0.51**	0.33**	0.44**	(.94)			
7. Time in Work	0.52	0.50	-0.03	-0.01	0.13	0.08	0.15*	0.24**	-		
8. POS	5.47	0.92	0.05	-0.03	0.56**	0.45**	0.21**	0.44**	0.25**	(.83)	
9. Likelihood to Participate	5.46	1.27	0.10	0.05	0.64**	0.38**	0.30**	0.51**	0.23**	0.56**	(.91)

*Note.*  $N = 195$ . Sex is measured 0 = Male and 1 = Female. Time in work is coded 0 = program design with no benefit, 1 = time in work offered. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. \*  $p < .05$  level (2-tailed). \*\*  $p < .01$  level (2-tailed).

Table 2

*Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistencies, and Correlations for Condition for the Program Design Offering Training*

Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	35.37	10.82	-								
2. Sex	0.43	0.49	0.12	-							
3. Value of serving as Mentor	5.90	1.02	0.06	0.09	-						
4. Value of serving as Protégé	5.80	1.14	-0.03	0.04	0.53**	-					
5. Openness	6.96	0.92	-0.03	-0.01	0.19**	0.21**	(.77)				
6. Prosocialness	3.71	0.67	0.10	0.23**	0.38**	0.22**	0.34**	(.94)			
7. Training for Mentor	0.50	0.50	0.08	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.10	0.18*	-		
8. POS	5.39	0.88	0.09	0.09	0.50**	0.35**	0.19*	0.38**	0.17*	(.83)	
9. Likelihood to Participate	5.16	1.43	0.14	0.09	0.62**	0.34**	0.16*	0.40**	0.01	0.45**	(.91)

*Note.*  $N = 185$ . Sex is measured 0 = Male and 1 = Female. Training for Mentor is coded 0 = program design with no benefit, 1 = training for mentor offered. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. \*  $p < .05$  level (2-tailed). \*\*  $p < .01$  level (2-tailed).

Table 3  
*Regression Results for Program Design Characteristics*

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	95% CI		$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
		Lower	Upper			
Constant	5.14	4.88	5.42		0.14	37.82
Dummy Code 1	0.59	0.23	0.97	0.21	0.19	3.16
Dummy Code 2	0.22	-0.36	0.40	0.01	0.19	0.12

*Note.*  $N = 288$ . *SE* = standard error. Dummy Code 1 = no organizational support versus *time*. Dummy Code 2 = no organizational support versus *training*.

Table 4  
*Regression Results for Mediation: Program Design (Time) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor*

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>Mediator Model (DV = POS)</i>			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	5.24	0.09	56.63	0.00
Program Design (Time)	0.45	0.13	3.51	0.00
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>Outcome Model (DV = Likelihood to Participate)</i>			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	1.27	0.46	2.75	0.01
Perceived Organizational Support	0.74	0.09	8.66	0.00
Program Design (Time)	0.26	0.16	1.68	0.10
	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
<i>Indirect Effect</i>	0.33	0.10	0.03	0.52

*Note.*  $N = 195$ . *SE* = standard error. *CI* = confidence interval. Program Design Coded 0 = no benefit offered, 1 = *time in work* offered.

Table 5

*Regression Results for Mediation: Program Design (Training) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor*

<i>Mediator Model (DV = POS)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	5.24	0.09	58.42	0.00
Program Design (Training)	0.30	0.13	2.40	0.02
<i>Outcome Model (DV = Likelihood to Participate)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	1.17	0.59	2.00	0.05
Perceived Organizational Support	0.76	0.11	6.96	0.00
Program Design (Training)	-0.21	0.19	-1.09	0.28
	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
<i>Indirect Effect</i>	0.23	0.10	0.04	0.46

*Note.*  $N = 185$ . *SE* = standard error. *CI* = confidence interval. Program Design Coded 0 = no benefit offered, 1 = *training* for mentor offered.

Table 6

*Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Time) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Prosocial Orientation included on the b path*

<i>Mediator Variable Model (DV = POS)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-4.45	0.44	-10.19	0.00
Program Design (Time)	0.37	0.10	3.63	0.00
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.36	0.06	3.38	0.24
Perceived Value as Protégé	0.13	0.06	2.32	0.02
<i>Dependent Variable Model (DV = LtM)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-0.07	0.71	-0.09	0.92
POS	0.24	0.08	2.94	0.00
Program Design (Time)	0.23	0.12	1.83	0.07
Prosocial	0.36	0.10	3.61	0.00
POS x Prosocial	0.03	0.07	0.46	0.64
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.56	0.08	7.19	0.00
Perceived Value as Protégé	-0.04	0.07	-0.36	0.53
<i>Conditional Indirect Effects at Prosocial = mean ± 1SD</i>				
<i>Prosocial (moderator)</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
-0.76	0.08	0.05	0.00	0.22
0.00	0.09	0.04	0.03	0.20
0.76	0.10	0.04	0.04	0.23
<i>Index of Moderated Mediation</i>				
<i>Indirect Effect</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
	0.01	0.03	-0.05	0.06

*Note.*  $N = 215$ . *SE* = standard error. *CI* = confidence interval. Program Design coded 0 = no benefit offered, 1 = *time in work* offered. *POS* = Perceived Organizational Support. *LtM* = Likelihood to Mentor.

Table 7

*Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Time) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Openness to Experience included on the b path*

<i>Mediator Variable Model (DV = POS)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-4.45	0.44	-10.19	0.00
Program Design (Time)	0.37	0.10	3.63	0.00
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.36	0.06	6.38	0.25
Perceived Value as Protégé	0.13	0.06	2.32	0.02
<i>Dependent Variable Model (DV = LtM)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-1.01	0.68	-1.49	0.14
POS	0.27	0.08	3.27	0.00
Program Design (Time)	0.28	0.13	2.13	0.03
Openness	0.08	0.05	1.54	0.13
POS x Openness	0.09	0.05	1.73	0.09
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.66	0.08	8.61	0.00
Perceived Value as Protégé	-0.05	0.07	-0.68	0.50
<i>Conditional Indirect Effects at Openness = mean ± 1SD</i>				
<i>Openness (moderator)</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
-1.32	0.06	0.05	-0.01	0.17
0.00	0.10	0.05	0.04	0.23
1.32	0.14	0.06	0.06	0.30
<i>Index of Moderated Mediation</i>				
<i>Indirect Effect</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.08

*Note.*  $N = 215$ . *SE* = standard error. *CI* = confidence interval. Program Design coded 0 = no benefit offered, 1 = *time in work* offered. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. *LtM* = Likelihood to Mentor.

Table 8

*Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Training) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Prosocial Orientation included on the b path*

<i>Mediator Variable Model (DV = POS)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-4.31	0.47	-9.14	0.00
Program Design (Training)	0.27	0.11	2.52	0.01
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.37	0.06	6.24	0.00
Perceived Value as Protégé	0.09	0.06	1.71	0.09
<i>Dependent Variable Model (DV = LtM)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-1.39	0.87	-1.59	0.11
POS	0.20	0.10	1.94	0.05
Program Design (Training)	-0.27	0.16	-1.71	0.09
Prosocial	0.44	0.12	3.64	0.00
POS x Prosocial	0.09	0.08	1.19	0.24
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.69	0.10	6.70	0.00
Perceived Value as Protégé	-0.03	0.08	-0.43	0.67
<i>Conditional Indirect Effects at Prosocial = mean ± 1SD</i>				
<i>Prosocial (moderator)</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
-0.77	0.03	0.04	-0.03	0.15
0.00	0.06	0.04	0.00	0.18
0.77	0.08	0.05	0.01	0.22
<i>Index of Moderated Mediation</i>				
<i>Indirect Effect</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
	0.03	0.03	-0.01	0.10

*Note.*  $N = 201$ .  $SE$  = standard error.  $CI$  = confidence interval. Program Design coded 0 = no benefit offered, 1 = training for the mentor offered. POS = Perceived Organizational Support.  $LtM$  = Likelihood to Mentor.

Table 9

*Regression Results for Moderated-Mediation: Program Design (Training) → Perceived Organizational Support → Likelihood to Participate as a Mentor with Openness to Experience included on the b path*

<i>Mediator Variable Model (DV = POS)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-4.31	0.47	-9.14	0.00
Program Design (Training)	0.27	0.11	2.52	0.01
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.37	0.06	6.24	0.00
Perceived Value as Protégé	0.09	0.06	1.71	0.09
<i>Dependent Variable Model (DV = LtM)</i>				
<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	-2.55	0.85	-2.99	0.00
POS	0.24	0.11	2.30	0.02
Program Design (Training)	-0.23	0.16	-1.44	0.15
Openness	0.08	0.07	1.17	0.24
POS x Openness	0.13	0.08	1.76	0.08
Perceived Value as Mentor	0.81	0.09	8.39	0.00
Perceived Value as Protégé	-0.05	0.08	-0.60	0.55
<i>Conditional Indirect Effects at Openness = mean ± 1SD</i>				
<i>Openness (moderator)</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
-1.19	0.02	0.05	-0.05	0.14
0.00	0.07	0.05	0.01	0.21
1.19	0.11	0.06	0.02	0.29
<i>Index of Moderated Mediation</i>				
<i>Indirect Effect</i>	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Bias Corrected 95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.12

*Note.*  $N = 201$ .  $SE$  = standard error.  $CI$  = confidence interval. Program Design coded 0 = no benefit offered, 1 = training for mentor offered. POS = Perceived Organizational Support.  $LtM$  = Likelihood to Mentor.