Motivated Mentors: An Examination of the Construct of Motivation to Mentor, Its Antecedents and Its Consequences

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Abstract

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Increasingly, organizations are becoming aware of the value that is associated with employee mentorship programs, where senior individuals with advanced knowledge and experience (mentors) provide support for, and assist the career progression of junior employees (protégés). Mentors can help new employees adjust to their new organization by providing them the guidance and support they need. They can then continue to act as a mentor by helping their protégés grow and develop within the organization. The present study is one that examined the construct of motivation to mentor, its antecedents and its consequences. Surveys were mailed to MBA Alumni of a large Canadian university, calling for those with mentoring experience to take part. Using theories of motivation, motivation to mentor was examined. Individual personality characteristics of altruism, positive affectivity and locus of control are proposed as independent variables affecting one's motivation to mentor. Job satisfaction was the outcome of motivation that was explored in this study. Findings indicate that the individual personality characteristics discussed are significantly related to motivation to mentor and that job satisfaction with pay and promotion opportunities as well as satisfaction with the nature of the work are two salient outcomes reported by mentors. Theoretical and practical implications, limitations, and future directions are discussed.

Dedications

It goes without saying that without the love and support of my family, this would not have been possible. Thank you to every one of you for supporting me and believing me, even when I did not believe in myself.

Thank you to Dr. Sheila Webber who was able to see me through this process and who was always there to advise and guide me.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The Importance of Mentorship

Increasingly, organizations are becoming aware of the value that is associated with employee mentorship programs, which traditionally involve individuals with advanced knowledge and experience (mentors) providing support for, and assisting the career progression of junior organizational members (protégés) (Allen, Russell, & Maetzke, 1997; Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1985; Ragins & Scandura, 1997). More specifically, organizational mentorship is defined by Chao, Walz and Gardner (1992), as:

> An intense work relationship between senior (mentor) and junior (protégé) organizational members. The mentor has experience and power in the organization and personally advises, counsels, coaches, and promotes the career development of the protégé" (p.624).

The issue of organizational mentorship is one that merits attention and discussion since new employees are often thrown into their roles and left misguided and unaccustomed to their new environment. Mentors can help new employees by providing them the guidance and support they need. Mentoring has been a well-known phenomenon for many years and the effects of mentoring on the protégé have been widely studied (Kram, 1985; Noe, 1988; Chao et al., 1992; Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins, 1997; Ragins, Cotton & Miller, 2000), however, little attention is paid to the reasons why a mentor would agree to take on such a role (Aryee, Chay & Chew, 1996). The current research proposes that a person will become motivated to mentor based on innate personality characteristics. The term "motivation to mentor" is one that has been explored briefly by Aryee, Chay & Chew, (1996), yet it warrants additional

consideration. This study contributes to the current research on mentoring by examining the construct of motivation to mentor, the central variable in this study.

Past research has proposed that individual personality characteristics will influence one's intrinsic motivation to mentor (Aryee, et al., 1996). Intrinsic motivation can be defined as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 56). Motivation to mentor can be considered a form of intrinsic motivation, since mentors voluntarily take on their role based on the challenge of the task rather than an external reward tied to engaging in the relationship. It is also possible that motivation to mentor can be considered a form of extrinsic motivation, which refers to engaging in an activity because it will lead to an independent outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For mentors who are interested in various extrinsic rewards that may be associated with mentoring, this form of motivation may apply. Motivation to mentor should be also influenced by personality characteristics. Characteristics such as *altruism, locus of control,* and *positive affectivity* are proposed to influence motivation. Aryee, et al. (1996) proposed that altruism and positive affectivity would impact motivation to mentor, while Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins (1997) found a relationship between locus of control and willingness to take on a mentor role.

Motivation to mentor must also be examined in terms of its outcomes for the mentor. Therefore, a second way in which this study will contribute to current mentoring research is by examining one of the salient mentoring outcomes, job satisfaction. This outcome is one that is relevant and important to examine, as there are many different

perceptions of the causes and consequences of job satisfaction and its relationship to job performance. Research has demonstrated in a current meta-analysis the direct relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Judge, Thorensen, Bono & Patton, 2001). Job satisfaction is defined as "positive or negative attitudes held by individuals towards their jobs" (Locke, 1990a). Simply put, it is the "degree to which people like their jobs" (Spector, 1997, p. vii). Deci and Ryan's (1985) Self-Determination theory argues that behaviour is directed "towards the ultimate experience of satisfaction, mediated of course by the attainment of a goal that is expected to yield that satisfaction" (p. 237). Mentoring is the behaviour in question and job satisfaction is the suggested outcome on the mentor. The goal in question is to provide the protégé with a rewarding mentoring experience.

Finally, this study will make a practical contribution to the workplace from a human resources perspective. Organizations must become aware of those who will serve as good mentors who are motivated to take on the role so that in the case of formal mentoring relationships they can properly assign mentors and protégés. If mentoring programs are implemented in organizations, then knowing who will serve as a good mentor may impact promotion as well as selection decisions, such as in the case of hiring middle-level managers. Understanding who will be a competent mentor is clearly important from this standpoint since sometimes the person who is likely to be promoted may not necessarily be the same person who would be a good mentor. Mentoring can help to sustain an organization's competitive advantage by developing employee competencies and career development (Aryee, et al., 1996). Since mentoring is becoming

increasingly popular in organizations today, recruiters must make sure that they select and promote people who can be trained and coached in order to be ready to fill the need for qualified mentors that will no doubt grow over the next years.

The current framework proposes that individuals who will likely take on a mentor role possess certain innate personality characteristics including *altruism, positive affectivity,* and *locus of control.* Aryee, et al., (1996) proposed that motivation to mentor may be predicted by such individual characteristics as altruism and positive affectivity. Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins (1997), proposed that locus of control was one of a number of individual characteristics related to supervisor's intentions to mentor others. These personality characteristics will, in turn, lead the individual to experience a high degree of *motivation to mentor.* Finally, the proposed outcome of mentoring for the mentor is *job satisfaction.* Through mentoring a junior person, the mentor will likely feel satisfaction within his or her own job. The mentoring experience can be a very validating and rewarding one, especially when the protégé succeeds due to the mentor's guidance and support. This in turn will leave the mentor feeling very satisfied with a job well done.

Employee Mentorship Programs

There are many reasons why an organization would adopt a mentoring program and there are several ways that it can be implemented as will be discussed. Many organizations employ the use of a mentoring program whether they realize it or not. In some instances, new employees 'buddy up' with senior employees upon their entrance to

the organization. Whether the senior 'buddy' is a colleague, team mate, supervisor or even an employee from a completely different department is irrelevant. Mentors may even have more than one protégé. Mentoring can exist on many levels, and for many different reasons. A supervisor may take on a mentoring role in order to provide the junior employee with the opportunity to learn and develop and take on new responsibilities. A team mate may mentor a colleague in order to simply be a listener and friend. Mentoring relationships need not even involve individuals within the same organization.

Types of Mentoring Relationships

Past research has identified two types of mentoring relationships: Informal and formal. The basic distinction between the two lies in the formation of the relationship. As Chao, et al. (1992) describe:

> Informal relationships are not managed, structured, nor formally recognized by the organization. Traditionally, they are spontaneous relationships that occur without external involvement from the organization. In contrast, formal mentorships are programs that are managed and sanctionized by the organization (p. 620).

The majority of mentoring relationships are informal (Phillips-Jones, 1983). Informal relationships develop because of shared interests or admiration. In this type of mentoring relationship, discussions between the mentor and protégé usually will go beyond career-related issues, to more personal sharing based on similar interests, needs and values (Noe, 1988). In this type of relationship, mentors willingly select their protégés based on those similar interests, needs and values. An informal mentorship relationship arises out of a desire on the part of the mentor to help, and willingness on the

part of the protégé to learn and be assisted by a senior employee. In general, informal mentoring programs are associated with more positive work attitudes, more career-related support, higher level of organizational socialization and job satisfaction, and salary than formal mentorship relationships (Chao, et al., 1992; Noe, 1988; Ragins, Cotton, and Miller, 2000).

In formal mentoring programs, protégés are assigned to a mentor. The relationship develops with assistance from the organization, which is typically in the form of matching mentors with protégés (Ragins, et al., 2000). The match may be simply a random assignment or a mentor may choose his or her protégé based on their employee files. Critics warn that formal mentoring relationships may not be as beneficial as informal ones due to the risk of personality conflicts, the protégé's supervisor feeling that their ability to influence is eroded by the mentor, and the lack of commitment of either party due to the fact that they were not active participants in the mentor-protégé selection process (Klauss, 1981; Kram, 1985). Formal mentoring relationships, however, are associated with more positive results than no mentoring at all (Chao et al., 1992). It may be the case that in a formal mentoring program, mentors volunteer to take on the role and are then assigned to a protégé. This sense of volition on the part of the mentor may still exist in the context of a formal mentoring relationship.

The Mentor

Typically, the mentor is a senior and experienced employee who serves as a role model, provides support, direction and feedback to the more junior employee (called the

protégé), with regards to career plans and interpersonal development, and who increases the protégé's exposure and visibility to other influential members of the organization (Noe, 1988). In addition to the functions previously mentioned, mentors can facilitate the personal development of their protégé by providing them with challenging assignments, coaching, counselling, protection, acceptance and confirmation, and friendship (Noe, 1988).

Currently very little research exists examining the mentor and what motivates an individual to take on such a role (Aryee, et al., 1996). Due to the increasing popularity of mentorship programs, examining the mentor function is more important than ever. If organizations want to hire or promote the right people to serve as suitable mentors in the future, they must understand the qualities that will bring about the best and most motivated mentors. Although not all senior employees will become mentors, human resources professionals must be aware of the growing trend towards an organization that supports a mentoring program in order to ensure that there are sufficient individuals to fill the demand. Similarly, because not all senior employees will serve as mentors, it becomes necessary to examine and understand the factors that will motivate those who do eventually become mentors.

The Protégé

As we now know, the protégé can be a junior member in same organization as the mentor. Alternatively, the protégé may simply be a student or member of a common association who is seeking advice from an alumni or senior person who may have

experienced similar issues and can provide guidance. When mentor and protégé are members of the same organization, the relationship may be assigned or may develop informally. When the relationship is assigned, the protégé need not be a proactive initiator of mentorship, however, if the relationship is to develop informally, the protégé must show that he or she is looking for a mentor and that he or she is seeking opportunities to grow and develop.

Motivation Theory

Motivation to mentor is proposed as a central variable in the current framework. Past research has proposed that it is the individual personality characteristics that will influence one's motivation to mentor (Aryee, et al., 1996). Because motivation to mentor can be considered as an intrinsic or extrinsic form of motivation, it is necessary to examine both of these motivation theories.

Intrinsic Motivation

The concept of "motivation to mentor" may be considered to fall within the parameters of intrinsic motivation, which is defined as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 56). People who are intrinsically motivated act because of the challenge or enjoyment of the task rather then because of external influences. Intrinsically motivated people would agree that the reward is in the task or the activity itself rather than an external circumstance tied to engaging in that task (Deci, 1972, Koestner & McClelland, 1990;

Ryan & Deci, 2000). They engage in the task because of the enjoyment, rather than out of a sense of duty.

In the past, intrinsic motivation has been defined in various ways although there are two measures that remain the most popular, and one which applies to the current study. In the first measure, called the "free choice" measure (Deci, 1971), participants are exposed to a task under two conditions (reward vs. no reward). At a certain point during the experiment, participants are left alone and told that they do not have to perform the given task. They thus have a "free choice" to either return to the activity or to engage in various other distractor activities. Deci (1971) claimed that if there is no extrinsic reason to continue with the task (i.e. no reward), then the more time that is actually spent engaging in that task during the "free choice" period, the more intrinsically motivated that person is. Motivation to mentor can be seen in a similar manner. Informal mentoring takes place during an employee's "free choice" time, that is, he or she is not being watched or evaluated on the time that is spent mentoring. Although amount of time spent mentoring was not examined in the current it is the act of choosing to mentor during an employee's free time that is of importance. Those who choose to mentor, without receiving tangible or intangible rewards, are truly intrinsically motivated.

If motivation to mentor is a form of intrinsic motivation, it should be influenced by personality. Individuals possess personality characteristics, which will lead them to be motivated or not motivated to engage in various tasks or activities. Deci (1975) explains that all individuals have a common core personality, which encompasses a group of

characteristics and tendencies which are driven by intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975). One's personality, as well as his or her environment, is what will drive him or her to feel a sense of competence and self-determination, both of which are associated with intrinsic motivation. Characteristics such as *altruism, positive affectivity and locus of control* are three such traits. As mentioned, these characteristics have been proposed to be related to motivation to mentor (Aryee, et al., 1996; Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins, 1997). It is proposed that these characteristics will influence a person's motivation, and these personality traits will affect an individual's decision to engage in a mentoring relationship. Positive affectivity, for example, has been linked to a predisposition to exhibit behaviours that will benefit organizational members (Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Mentoring is one important role that employees will no doubt profit from; therefore possessing a personality characteristic such as positive affectivity will lead individuals to be motivated to engage in a mentor function. Similarly, people with an internal locus of control believe that they can have some impact on their environment and believe that they are competent and self-determining (Rotter, 1966). This feeling of competence and self-determination will intrinsically motivate the individual to engage in a task such as mentoring, where outcomes rely on the talent of the mentor. Over time it becomes possible that motivation to mentor may be manipulated to become extrinsically motivating. This scenario can be created by including tangible rewards such as pay made contingent on the act of mentoring, or threats of punishment, which may shift a person's motivation for taking on the role from intrinsic to extrinsic.

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it will lead to an independent outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In the past, extrinsic motivation has been characterized as a controlled form of motivation, however, more recently extrinsic motivation can be further broken down into controlled and autonomous states. In the classic example of controlled extrinsic motivation, an activity is performed with the expectation that a reward will be issued. Although it is not always the case, the task may be performed with resentment and resistance. More recently however, it was found that an autonomous form of extrinsic motivation exists where a task might be met with "an attitude of willingness that reflects an inner acceptance of the value or utility of a task" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.55). In this case, the task is performed with a sense of volition. The scenario whereby motivation to mentor can become extrinsically motivating may exist in this case. When the task is self-endorsed, it is adopted with a sense of free will (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Over time the scenario may be created where motivation to mentor is extrinsic, even though mentors are volunteering to take part in a mentoring relationship.

In a setting where mentoring takes place informally, individuals will agree or volunteer to become mentors based on a sheer desire to help and guide new employees. In an informal setting, the tendency to reward mentors for engaging in a mentoring relationship is not apparent in a formal sense, although 'informal' rewards may still exist. In general, however, when mentoring takes place informally, motivation to mentor is based on the task at hand and not an external reward attached to the task. In a formal

setting, where mentors and protégés are assigned, motivation to mentor can still be considered a form of intrinsic motivation since mentors volunteer to engage in the relationship, that is, it is done of their own volition. However since the organization has formally implemented the mentoring program, it will monitor it to ensure its success and reward accordingly. In this case, mentors may accept the value of the task of mentoring, but since they are engaging in it with the knowledge that they are being observed and evaluated, motivation may shift to extrinsic.

Motivation to Mentor

For the purpose of the current study, I define motivation to mentor as "the intrinsic or extrinsic desire to take on the role of mentor in a mentoring relationship." The construct of motivation to mentor has been examined once in the past (Aryee, et al., 1996). It was explored in terms of its antecedents (both individual and situational influences). Motivation to mentor was measured, however it was not discussed or researched in terms of its intrinsic or extrinsic nature. Nor were outcomes of such a motivation measured. Aryee, et al. (1996), focused on the antecedents of motivation to mentor. The current study is one that explores motivation to mentor in great detail, concluding that it can be an intrinsic or extrinsic form of motivation.

With motivation being the central variable of the current framework, it is important to now examine the antecedents of motivation to mentor and see what it is that causes mentors to be motivated to take on such a role. Personality characteristics such as *altruism, locus of control,* and *positive affectivity* are proposed to be antecedents of

motivation. It is hypothesized that those who have voluntarily taken on the mentor role will possess these innate personality characteristics. These characteristics will cause them to be motivated to become mentors. Because motivation to mentor is an intrinsic form of motivation, according to Self-Determination theory, people will be motivated to take on the role based on the challenge of the task of mentoring rather than the outcomes associated with it (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Antecedents of Motivation to Mentor: Individual Characteristics of Mentors

In a study of Singaporean managers by Aryee, et al. (1996), managerial employees in the maintenance stage of their careers were surveyed with regards to their motivation to take on a mentor role and the authors found that *altruism* (tendency to be more generous, helpful and kind to others) and *positive affectivity* (tendency of people to be happy or experience positive affect) were two individual characteristics that influenced motivation to mentor. In a study by Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins (1997), the authors found that intention to mentor others was significantly related to a number of variables, the main one being *locus of control* (belief that one is in control of the events and consequences that control his/her life). These three independent variables are proposed to be antecedents of motivation to mentor in the current framework (illustrated below). A description of each is necessary in order to appreciate their position in the framework.

Altruism

Altruism is defined as an "action carried out with the intent to benefit others without the desire to receive benefit from others in return" (Romer, Gruder & Lizzadro, 1986, p.1001). Altruistic personalities are associated with people who are "consistently more generous, helpful, and kind than others and that such people are more readily perceived as more altruistic" (Aryee, et al., 1996, p.263). Altruistic people are content with knowing that they have helped those who deserve and are in need of help. They nurture others and avoid receiving help from them. Altruism has been found to be a reinforcing trait in itself as well, which implies that one who has helped might go on helping (Isen, Clark & Schwartz, 1976). Although altruists will help others to the degree that is needed, they avoid helping others to the degree that compensation is contingent on the act of helping (Romer, et al. 1986, Batson, Fultz, Schoenrade & Paduno, 1987). Since people who are highly altruistic are more likely to engage in helping behaviour, I expect that those organizational members high on the altruism scale will be more likely to engage in mentoring than those who are low in altruism. Similarly, since mentoring outside of one's own organization does not involve any form of compensation, altruists will truly make the most of their opportunity to mentor for the sheer joy that comes from helping someone else. Altruism and helping behaviours are necessary for organizational effectiveness. Without these behaviours in the workplace, employees would be left to their own devices to orient themselves to the way in which the organization runs. Mentorship is a form of helping behaviour that, performed within or outside of the organization, will have tremendous benefits to the employee being mentored. Altruists

possess a helping behaviour and in their desire to do that, they may be motivated to take on a role such as mentor.

Hypothesis 1: Altruism will be positively related to a mentor's motivation to engage in a mentor-protégé relationship.

Positive Affectivity

Positive affectivity (PA) is defined as "the disposition to experience positive feelings" (Wright, Larwood & Denney, 2002, p.113). Joyfulness, enthusiasm and excitement are feelings that those with high PA will report experiencing. They are full of energy and enjoy life. Negative affectivity (NA), on the other hand, is defined as "the disposition to experience negative feelings" (Wright, Larwood & Denney, 2002, p.113). Anger, hatred and dislike are some of the feelings that those with high NA will experience. These people are often tense and nervous. Literature indicates that PA can influence social behaviour in a number of positive ways, namely by promoting helpfulness, cooperation and generosity to others as well as welcoming problem-solving opportunities (Isen & Baron, 1991). According to Wright and Staw (1999), those individuals with high PA will set more demanding goals for themselves and/or accept more challenging goals provided by others. If these goals are not reached successfully, the authors claim that those with high PA will interpret this failure as simply a temporary setback not caused by themselves. They are seen as more likely to persevere following negative feedback. Individuals who are high in positive affectivity are also seen as more approachable due to their generally positive mood. When a potential protégé views a mentor as being high on PA, he or she will naturally be more likely to select that person

as their mentor. Since individuals with this quality are seen as being more attractive, they will be selected by protégés more often, and this is one reason why individuals with high PA are more likely to engage in mentoring relationships. A second reason is that "because individuals high in positive affectivity are more active and attentive, they are more likely than those low in positive affectivity to empathize with organizational newcomers regarding the problems of launching one's career and navigating the organizational world" (Aryee, et al., 1996, p.264).

Links have been made between positive affect and social activity. In a study by Watson (1988), PA and NA were found to influence the nature of people's social interactions. PA was found to be positively correlated with the reported number of hours of daily social contact, that is, the higher the PA, the more time that was reported being spent on social interactions. NA, on the other hand, was unrelated to the number of hours of social interaction. Berry and Hansen (1996) found that high levels of PA were associated with reports of more enjoyable interactions. They were also found to be associated with longer and more frequent group interactions than those with low PA. The enjoyment that high PA individuals may derive from social interaction may reinforce their already positive moods. If mentoring can be viewed as a form of social interaction such as in the case when it is for a psychosocial purpose, then these qualities of individuals with high PA can be extrapolated to include mentors. Mentors with high PA will enjoy the interaction that they receive from mentoring and the joy that they receive will fuel their desires for more interaction. This cycle of enjoyment-interaction clearly explains the reason as to why individuals high in PA are likely mentors.

In a study by Williams and Shiaw (1999), the authors found that the amount of positive affect experienced by an individual will influence his or her likelihood to conduct acts such as organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB), defined as "employee behaviour that goes beyond prescribed role requirements in its benefits to the organization" (Williams & Shiaw, 1999 p.656). OCBs are discretionary and are not recognized by formal rewards. Employees who reported that they were in good moods were more likely to express intent to perform OCBs than employees who reported that they were in more negative moods. The authors explain this occurrence by saying that those with high levels of positive affect will perform OCBs as a means to prolong their good feelings. Alternatively, since they see things more positively, they will see others as more deserving of help, and will conduct OCBs in order to assist them. Positive affect, therefore, facilitates helping behaviour. Puffer (1987) found support for his hypothesis that positive affect increases employees' tendencies to engage in various forms of prosocial behaviour.

Mentoring can be considered a form of OCB or prosocial behaviour when it is informally implemented, that is, it is not assigned by the organization, and is a voluntary activity. An employee with positive affect, would, according to Williams and Shiaw (1999), be likely to volunteer to take on a mentoring role in order to assist others and prolong their own positive emotions. Additional support for the role of PA in prosocial actions concerns the development of the mentor-protégé relationship. As discussed, mentors will be more likely to volunteer to take on the role if they are high in PA, but as Kram (1985) points out, they will also choose a protégé that they find pleasant or

attractive. Kram (1985) also notes that mentoring relationships will be more likely to develop in an environment where positive supervisor-subordinate relationships exist and where favourable working relationships are prominent. This positive overall culture will then enhance the process of mentor-protégé relationship-formation. When mentoring takes place outside of one's organization, I hypothesize that mentors will still report high levels of PA. Since mentoring in general is an extra-role behaviour, whether mentor and protégé are a part of the same organization or not, the effect should remain the same and the personality trait of PA should still remain a motivating factor in taking on a mentorship role.

Hypothesis 2: Positive affectivity will be positively related to a mentor's motivation to engage in a mentor-protégé relationship.

Locus of Control

Locus of control (LOC) is a variable that represents a person's generalized belief about his or her ability to control positive and negative events in his or her life (Spector, 1997). Individuals who have a high internal LOC believe that they have control over the events that affect their lives, that is, rewards and other events will follow from their behaviours. Those with an external LOC believe that it is external circumstances that control their lives, that is, rewards are determined by luck or fate and are not related to behaviour (Deci, 1975). Internals have been found to take more initiative and select more difficult tasks than externals (Gul, Tsui & Mia, 1994). Because externals tend to have a defeatist attitude, they will likely have poorer outlooks than internals when they face a difficult task. Since internals feel that they can control their actions, the difficulty level of the task is viewed as an exciting challenge. Internals are more likely to adopt a

positive attitude since they believe that their own actions will lead to positive outcomes, rather that luck or fate.

Locus of control is a personality trait that may affect one's motivation to take on the role of a mentor. Those with an internal LOC believe that events that occur in their lives are under their personal control and depend on their own behaviour (Noe, 1988), therefore they will feel as if they are in control of the mentoring that they provide and that the way in which they behave throughout the mentoring relationship will impact the outcomes that they and their protégé receive. Mentors who have an internal LOC would seemingly be "more interested in the developmental career opportunities afforded to those who mentor others" (Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins, 1997, p.6). They would feel that the protégé's opportunity to learn and develop is under their control. Someone with and internal LOC will assume the mentor role with confidence in his or her ability to effectively coach, counsel and support a protégé. With the belief that the protégé will learn and grow with the mentor's help and guidance, the mentor will be interested in exerting maximum effort to better the relationship not only for the protégé's sake, but for the opportunities that he or she might be afforded as well. An individual with an external LOC, on the other hand, will not be so interested since the developmental opportunities that he or she is afforded are seemingly a matter of luck and good fortune. Exerting effort to mentor would seem like a pointless task since the external believes that this effort is futile and that the outcomes of mentoring both on mentor and protégé are controlled and determined by the environment.

LOC has a strong tie to motivation (Deci, 1975). Since externals do not believe that they can affect the environment, they will not often engage in behaviours in order to feel competent and self-determined. Internals will be much more likely to engage in a mentoring relationship, since this type of relationship is one that is more intrinsically than extrinsically motivating. As well, mentoring is an opportunity to validate one's feelings of competence and self-determination and internals will jump at this chance while externals are likely to shy away from taking on such roles.

Hypothesis 3: Internal locus of control will be positively related to a mentor's motivation to engage in a mentor-protégé relationship.

Consequences of Mentorship

As discussed, a positive mentoring relationship may have very strong outcomes on the protégé (Allen, Russell, & Maetzke, 1997; Chao, et al., 1992; Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1985; Ragins & Scandura, 1997), however little is known about the effects of mentoring on the mentor (Aryee, et al., 1996). Job satisfaction would appear to be an outcome that a mentor may experience since he or she is looked onto with respect and admiration by his or her protégé and may feel validated by having mentored a protégé who later becomes a successful employee or business person. According to Deci (1975), intrinsically motivated behaviour is motivated by a person's need for competence and self-determination in dealing with his or her environment. Deci and Ryan (1985) later furthered this idea by asserting that people engage in self-determined behaviour because they are aware of the potential for satisfaction that lies ahead. Their behaviour is then directed at the outcome of satisfaction and to reach the desired outcome, the individual will have to attain a goal. A mentor's feelings of competence will lead him or her to

perform the mentoring function well, which will lead to desired outcomes, namely job satisfaction. Having recently mentored an individual on various aspects of the work is an indication that the mentor is satisfied with various aspects of his or her job as well. Although performing a mentor role may lead to desired outcomes, it is the motivation to perform that is of interest here. The motivation to engage in a mentoring relationship will also have job satisfaction as an outcome since those who are motivated to take on such a role will likely be the same people who will later report satisfaction with various aspects of their own jobs.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as "positive or negative attitudes held by individuals towards their jobs" (Locke, 1990a). Simply put, it is the "degree to which people like their jobs" (Spector, 1997, p. vii). Job satisfaction can be a consequence of many factors, both environmental and personal. Environmental antecedents of job satisfaction are influenced by many factors, including those that make up Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics theory (1976). The basis of their theory is that people can be motivated by the intrinsic satisfaction they find in doing their jobs. If they find their work meaningful and significant, they will be satisfied in their jobs. The Job Characteristics theory concludes that people who prefer challenging and interesting work will be happier and more motivated if they are given complex jobs. Mentoring can be thought of as that extra challenge and appeal that some people need. It is an easy way to take on greater responsibility and excitement without having to redefine one's job entirely. By adding

additional trust and enjoyment that comes from mentoring, the individual is fulfilling his or her need for challenge and job satisfaction is a likely outcome.

Spector (1985) designed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to measure job satisfaction among human service organizations (as opposed to industrial organizations). The JSS was based on the principle that job satisfaction represents an attitudinal reaction to a job. According to Spector, job attitudes arise from the belief that certain aspects of jobs should lead to satisfaction of particular job facets. Level of pay, for example, should be related to satisfaction with pay. Spector designed the JSS to measure individual feelings about the job as opposed to a combined cluster of feelings. The individual characteristics that Spector looked at were satisfaction with pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (such as appreciation and recognition), operating procedures, co-workers, nature of the work itself, and communication. These were considered to be the nine most common dimensions (Spector, 1985). For the purpose of the current research, only four of the nine subscales of job satisfaction will be examined. They are satisfaction with pay, opportunity for promotion, benefits and the nature of the work itself. These items were retained because they are the most relevant to the present research.

Motivation to mentor is proposed to be positively related to job satisfaction. It is also proposed to mediate the relationship between the individual characteristics of altruism, positive affectivity and locus of control, and the outcome of job satisfaction. How might motivation explain the expected personality-satisfaction association? I

propose that the personality characteristics described, influence the motivation to take on a mentor role. In turn, this motivation to mentor will affect job satisfaction. For example, when an individual demonstrates high altruism, high positive affectivity, and high locus of control, he or she is likely to be motivated to take on a role such as mentor. On the other hand, if the aforementioned personality traits are absent, motivation to mentor may be absent as well. Therefore, the personality traits mentioned influence job satisfaction via the pivotal role of motivation.

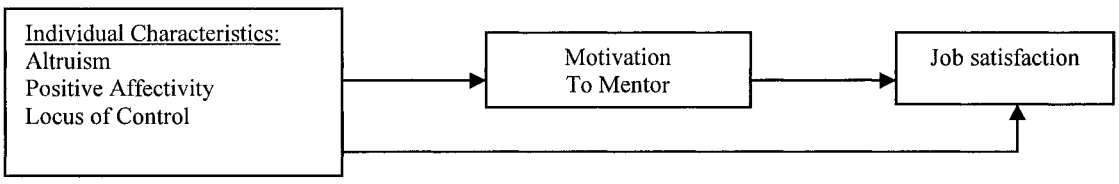
Hypothesis 4: Motivation to mentor will be positively related to overall job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Motivation to mentor will mediate the relationship between individual characteristics (altruism, positive affectivity, locus of control) and job satisfaction.

Present Study

The current research seeks to test the proposed framework which states that individuals possess certain personality characteristics, namely *altruism, positive affectivity,* and *locus of control (internal),* which predispose them to feel motivated to take on a role such as mentor and that taking on such a role will then lead the mentor to experience job satisfaction. It also takes into account the mediating role of motivation in this study. The framework can be illustrated as follows:

Figure 1
Theoretical Framework



2. METHODOLOGY

To examine the hypotheses, surveys were conducted with MBA Alumni from a large Canadian university. Only those alumni who had engaged in mentoring were included in the study since hypotheses concerned mentors only. Mean differences between mentors and non-mentors were examined, however. The survey was designed using already existing scales, which had been proven to be reliable. A copy of the survey can be found in Appendix A.

Pilot test

Prior to distributing the survey, a pilot test was conducted. Twenty individuals were sent an email asking them to comment on the content, layout and wording of the survey. All of the individuals contacted were university graduates (85% had undergraduate degrees and 15% graduate degrees). Their professions ranged from self-employed retail-store owner, human resources professional, engineer, and medical doctor, to name a few. Fifteen people responded with general comments regarding the readability of the survey. This information was used to improve the survey questions.

Participants

Participants included MBA alumni of a large Canadian university. An alumni list of 1800 names was obtained. First, it was decided that an email survey would be sent out to all those alumni who had valid email addresses. There were a total of approximately 400 viable email addresses. The survey was emailed to the 400 MBA alumni with a letter explaining the research and a call to anyone who performs a mentoring function to

please fill out the attached survey and to then email or fax it back to myself. They were informed of a drawing for a fifty-dollar gift certificate. A reminder email was sent out one week later. A total of 31 surveys were returned for a response rate of 7.8%.

In order to continue increasing the sample size emails were sent out to respondents asking them if their organization would be interested in participating in the research as well. Only one organization participated and two mentors from that company completed a survey.

Finally, surveys were mailed out via Canada Post to 1000 randomly selected MBA alumni residing in Canada, excluding those who had completed the email survey. A postage-paid return envelope was included with the mailing. Participants were instructed to complete the survey and mail it back to myself. A total of 29 return to sender surveys were received and 171 completed surveys were returned for a response rate of 17.6%.

A total of 202 MBA alumni had responded to the survey. Forty-three percent were between the ages of 36-45, 11% between the ages of 26-35, 31% between the ages of 46-55 and 15% over the age of 55. The majority of participants were male (63%) and White/Caucasian (90%) (1% African American, 5% Asian, 2% other and 2% did not provide this information). 89% reported that they worked full-time (32-40 hours per week), 4% said that they worked part-time (1-31.9 hours per week), 5% indicated that they did not currently work and 1% did not provide this information. 69% of respondents

indicated that they had mentored individuals within their organizations and 36% had mentored outside of their organization (this takes into account that 27% of respondents indicated that they had mentoring experience *both* within and outside of their organizations) and 20% had never mentored before. Participants were asked whether their organization provided them with rewards or incentives to engage in a mentoring relationship and 10% reported being provided with rewards, while 88% indicated that their organizations did not provide any rewards for mentors (2% did not respond). No significant difference was found with respect to motivation to mentor between those who reported receiving rewards and those who did not ($t = -1.26$, $p > 0.05$).

Before continuing with my analysis, it was necessary to drop the individuals who indicated that they had never mentored. These individuals were dropped since the hypotheses were made on motivation to mentor, its antecedents and its outcomes. In order to examine the hypotheses, it is necessary to use participants with mentoring experience. From the 202 complete surveys, 41 participants indicated that they had never mentored and therefore they were dropped from the sample, leaving a total of 161 viable participants (80%). Prior to dropping these individuals, however, mean differences were examined between mentors and non-mentors and are reported in Table 5 at the end of the results section.

Measures

Altruism

Altruism was measured using a 16-item scale developed by Rushton, Chrisjohn and Fekken (1981). Sample items include "I have delayed an elevator and held the door open for a stranger" or "I have offered my seat on a bus or train to a stranger who was standing." Responses were on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from "never" (1) to "very often" (5). Principal components analysis with varimax rotation provided a one-factor solution (one eigenvalue greater that 1.0) accounting for 31% of the variance. All of the 13 items from the altruism scale were retained, $\alpha = .79$.

Positive Affectivity

Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) developed a 20-item mood scale that comprises the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). The scale measures positive and negative affectivity at different times (i.e. respondents are instructed to complete the scale based on one of the following time instructions: this moment, today, past few days, past few weeks, year, and general). For the purpose of this study, respondents were instructed to complete the scale based on how they felt *in general.* They were instructed to use a Likert-type scale in their responses, which range from "very slightly or not at all" (1) to "extremely" (5), to indicate to what extent they have felt the various emotions that are indicated on the survey. The scale was divided into a 10-item scale measuring positive affectivity and another 10-item scale measuring negative affectivity, $\alpha = .89$ and $\alpha = .86$ respectively.

Locus of Control

Spector (1988) developed the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS), specifically concerned with locus of control in the work domain. This 16-item interval scale consists of items such as "A job is what you make of it" and "Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck." Respondents are instructed to answer based on a five-point Likert rating scale with answers ranging from "disagree very much" (1) to "agree very much" (5). Principal components analysis with varimax rotation provided a two-factor solution (two eigenvalues greater that 1.0). The two components to this scale are Internal Locus of Control as well as External Locus of Control. The 16 items loaded properly onto the two factors and the average of the items was taken as suggested by Spector (1988). All of the 16 items from the locus of control scale were retained, $\alpha = .83$.

Motivation to Mentor

Motivation to mentor is proposed as a mediating variable. Dreher and Ash (1990) developed a scale to measure the extent to which a protégé feels that a mentor has adequately performed his or her role. This scale was then modified by Aryee et al. (1996) to measure motivation to mentor. Sample items include "To what extent is identifying and nurturing managerial potential rewarded?" and "To what extent is arranging for junior employees to attend job-related training sessions rewarded?" Response options range from "not at all" (1) to "to a very large extent" (2). For this study, the wording of each item was changed to say; "To what extent is (…) reward*ing to you*" so that respondents understood that this was a personal question and not based on whether they are rewarded by their organization. Two new items were added to the scale.

They were "To what extent is helping recent graduates in your industry rewarding to you?" and "To what extent is sharing industry wisdom and knowledge with junior employees rewarding to you?" Principle components analysis with varimax rotation provided a one-factor solution (one eigenvalue greater that 1.0) accounting for 66% of the variance. All of the 8 items from the motivation to mentor scale were retained, $\alpha = .92$. This scale is considered to be a measure of motivation to mentor and does not differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Although the measures may appear intrinsic in nature, it is up to the individual's interpretation and so I cannot conclude that it is a measure of either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey. In it, Spector determined that nine subscales of job satisfaction existed and they were: Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Benefits, Contingent rewards, Operating procedures, Co-workers, Nature of work, and Communication. For the purpose of the current study, four of the subscales were used in the assessment of job satisfaction. They are pay, promotion, benefits and nature of work. Sample items include "I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do" (assessment of the Pay subscale), "There is really too little chance for promotion in my job" (assessment of the Promotion subscale), "I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive" (assessment of the Benefits subscale), and "I sometimes feel my job is meaningless" (assessment of the Nature of work subscale). Principle axis factoring with oblimin rotation provided a three-factor solution (three eigenvalues were greater than .01) accounting for 61% of the total variance. The four

components of job satisfaction that I measured were divided into three factors. Pay and promotion became one factor (accounting for 37% of the variance), benefits another (accounting for 15% of the variance) and nature of work, the third (accounting for 9% of the variance). Two of the items from the new pay/promotion combined subscale were dropped because they loaded onto two factors. Reliability was $\alpha = .84$, $\alpha = .78$ and $\alpha = .81$ respectively.

3. RESULTS

The five hypotheses were tested using regression analyses. Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics for the variables and Table 2 provides correlations for all the variables. All of the items were measured on a five-point scale, therefore a mean of 3.50 for altruism, indicates that in general, mentors tend to be more altruistic than not. Similarly, a mean of 4.12 was found for positive affectivity, indicating that mentors also exhibit a high level of positive affect. The mean for locus of control was only found to be 2.98, indicating that in general, mentors do report high internal locus of control. A final interesting point on personality is that mentors report low negative affect with a mean of only 1.55, indicating that in general, mentors do not exhibit feelings of negative affectivity. Motivation to mentor had a reported mean of 4.17, which suggests that those who act as mentors are also quite motivated to mentor. Job satisfaction with pay and promotion, with benefits and with the nature of the work were all found to be above average as well, with means of 3.67, 3.88 and 4.50 respectively. It is interesting to note that job satisfaction with the nature of the work, which is an intrinsic form of job satisfaction, has the highest reported mean at 4.50.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for All Variables

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Altruism	160	3.50	.53
Negative Affectivity	155	1.55	.50
Positive Affectivity	155	4.12	.51
Locus of Control	160	2.98	.51
Motivation to Mentor	160	4.17	.63
Job Satisfaction: Pay/Promotion	155	3.67	.90
Job Satisfaction: Benefits	156	3.88	.89
Job Satisfaction: Nature of work	158	4.50	.64

Table 2

Correlations for All Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Altruism	1.00							
2.	Negative Affectivity	-.08	1.00						
3.	Positive Affectivity	.26**	-.29**	1.00					
4.	Locus of Control	.08	-.21**	.41**	1.00				
5.	Motivation to Mentor	.35**	-.09	.43**	.35**	1.00			
6.	Job Satisfaction: Pay/Promotion	.17**	-.30**	.38**	.53**	.21*	1.00		
7.	Job Satisfaction: Benefits	.19*	-.25**	.19*	.41**	.12	.44**	1.00	
8.	Job Satisfaction: Nature of work	.17*	-.25**	.54**	.45**	.31**	.44**	.21**	1.00

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

To examine hypothesis one, two and three, I first used regression analysis to test the relationship between the three individual characteristics as a cluster and motivation to mentor. Altruism, positive affectivity and locus of control were entered as the independent variables, with motivation to mentor as the dependent variable. As a group of personality traits, the individual characteristics taken together accounted for 29% of the variance in motivation to mentor ($R^2 = .29$, $p = .001$).

The results support hypothesis one, such that altruism is positively related to a mentor's motivation to engage in a mentor-protégé relationship ($\beta = .28$, $p = .001$). Therefore those who score high on altruism will be motivated to take on a mentor role.

Similarly, the results show support for hypothesis two, that positive affectivity is significantly related to motivation to mentor ($\beta = .27$, $p = .001$). Therefore, a high positive affectivity score will also lead one to become motivated to mentor.

Finally, the results show support for hypothesis three, that locus of control is significantly related to motivation to mentor ($\beta = .21$, $p = .01$). Similar to hypothesis one and two, those with an internal locus of control will be more motivated to take on the role of mentor. Results of hypotheses one, two and three can be found in Table 3.

The results of the three hypotheses above show that people who are altruistic, possess positive affect and an internal locus of control will be motivated to take on a mentorship role. These traits will lead to motivation on their own and as a cluster. It is

interesting to note that although the three independent variables overlap, they are all still unique predictors of motivation to mentor.

Table 3
Betas, p-values and R^2 for Individual Characteristics' Relationship to Motivation to Mentor

	B	p	R^2
Altruism	.28	.001	
Positive Affectivity	.27	.001	
Locus of Control	.21	.01	
Individual characteristics cluster		.001	.29

To test hypothesis four, that motivation to mentor will be positively related to overall job satisfaction, I conducted regression analysis for motivation to mentor on each of the three subscales of job satisfaction (pay/promotion, benefits, and nature of work). I found motivation to mentor to be positively related to the pay/promotion and the nature of work subscales of job satisfaction ($\beta = .21$, $p = .01$ and $\beta = .31$, $p = .001$ respectively). Therefore individuals who are motivated to take on a mentor role will also report being satisfied with the pay/promotion and nature of work aspects of their jobs. Motivation to mentor was not found to be related to the benefits subscale of job satisfaction ($\beta = .12$, $p = .15$). Therefore I found partial support for hypothesis four.

To test for hypothesis five, motivation to mentor as a mediator, I used Baron and Kenny's (1986) test for mediation. I first tested my individual personality characteristics to see if they were significantly related to the three subscales of job satisfaction. First I looked at altruism and found it to be significantly related to each component of job satisfaction (Pay/Promotion: $\beta = .17$, $p < .05$; Benefits: $\beta = .19$, $p < .05$: nature of work: $\beta = .17$, $p < .05$). Next, I looked at positive affectivity and found it to be significantly related to each component of job satisfaction as well (pay/promotion: $\beta = .38$, $p < .01$; benefits: $\beta = .19$, $p < .05$: nature of work: $\beta = .54$, $p < .01$). Finally, I looked at locus of control and again I found that it too was significantly related to each component of job satisfaction (pay/promotion: $\beta = .53$, $p < .01$; benefits: $\beta = .41$, $p < .01$: nature of work: $\beta = .45$, $p < .01$).

The next step in finding mediation is to see if my individual personality traits are significantly related to motivation to mentor. This has already been done in hypothesis one, two and three where the three individual characteristics were each found to be significantly related to motivation to mentor. Table 3 highlights those results.

The final step in testing for mediation is to test the relationship between the individual personality characteristics and the job satisfaction subscales once the mediating variable of motivation to mentor is brought into the equation. Since I know that motivation to mentor is not significantly related to the benefit subscale of job satisfaction, I need not examine this relationship in the test for mediation. I first started with altruism. As shown, altruism was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction

pay/promotion (β = .17, p < .01). I then regressed job satisfaction pay/promotion onto both altruism and motivation to mentor and found that once I ran the new regression, altruism was no longer significantly related to job satisfaction pay/promotion (β = .11, p > .05), demonstrating support for mediation. I then tested motivation to mentor as a mediator of the relationship between altruism and the remaining component of job satisfaction and found similar results. First I looked at the relationship between altruism and job satisfaction nature of work and found that altruism was significantly related to this component of job satisfaction (β = .17, p < .05). Again, I then regressed job satisfaction nature of work onto both altruism and motivation to mentor and similar results were found. Altruism was no longer significantly related to job satisfaction nature of work (β = .08, p > .05). Again, mediation was supported. Therefore support was found for mediation in the altruism-motivation to mentor-job satisfaction hypothesis.

The second variable that I examined in the test for mediation was positive affectivity. As shown in Table 2, positive affectivity is significantly related to the pay/promotion subscale of job satisfaction (β = .38, p < .01). I then regressed job satisfaction pay/promotion onto both positive affectivity and motivation to mentor. This time, support for mediation was not found. Results showed very little change in the relationship and level of significance when motivation to mentor was included in the regression. Positive affectivity continued to be significantly related to job satisfaction pay/promotion (β = .36, p < .01). Next I looked at positive affectivity and job satisfaction with nature of work. Similar results were found. Positive affectivity is significantly related to the nature of work subscale of job satisfaction (β = .54, p < .01). Again, I

regressed job nature of work onto both positive affectivity and motivation to mentor and support for mediation was again not found. Results showed very little change in the variance and level of significance when motivation to mentor was included in the regression. Positive affectivity continued to be significantly related to job satisfaction nature of work ($\beta = .49$, $\underline{p} < .01$). Therefore, no support was found for a mediating relationship between positive affectivity and either component of job satisfaction.

The final step in the test for mediation is with the individual personality characteristic of locus of control. First I examined the relationship between locus of control and the pay/promotion subscale of job satisfaction. As demonstrated earlier, locus of control was found to be significantly related to this component of job satisfaction ($\beta = .53$, $\underline{p} < .01$). When I regressed job satisfaction pay/promotion onto locus of control and motivation to mentor, support for mediation was again not found. Similar to what occurred above, there was very little change in the relationship and level of significance when motivation to mentor was included in the regression. Locus of control continued to be significantly related to job satisfaction pay/promotion ($\beta = .52$, $\underline{p} < .01$). The final step was to test the mediating relationship of motivation to mentor with locus of control and the nature of work subscale of job satisfaction. On its own, locus of control is significantly related to this component of job satisfaction ($\beta = .45$, $\underline{p} < .01$). Finally, I regressed job satisfaction nature of work onto locus of control and motivation to mentor and found no support for its mediating role. Although the variance decreased, the level of significance remained the same ($\beta = .39$, $\underline{p} < .01$). Overall I found partial support for hypothesis five, that motivation to mentor will mediate the relationship between

individual characteristics (altruism, positive affectivity, and locus of control) and job satisfaction. It did mediate the relationship between altruism and job satisfaction but not positive affectivity or locus of control. Table 4 provides results for all of the regression analyses.

Table 4

Results of Regression Analyses

Variable	B	R^2
Hypothesis 1, 2, 3: Motivation to Mentor		.29*
Altruism	.28**	
Positive Affectivity	.27**	
Locus of Control	.21**	
Hypothesis 4: Job Satisfaction		
Pay/Promotion		
Motivation to mentor	.21**	.04*
Benefits		
Motivation to mentor	.12	.01
Nature of work		
Motivation to mentor	.31**	.09*
Hypothesis 5: Mediation		
DV: Job Satisfaction Pay/Promotion		
Altruism	.17**	
Step 3: Mediator: Motivation to Mentor		
Altruism	.11	
Motivation to Mentor	.17*	
DV: Job Satisfaction Nature of Work		
Altruism	.17*	
Step 3: Mediator: Motivation to Mentor		
Altruism	.08	
Motivation to Mentor	.28*	
DV: Job Satisfaction Pay/Promotion		
Positive Affectivity	.38**	

Step 3: Mediator: Motivation to Mentor	
Positive Affectivity	.36**
Motivation to Mentor	.04
DV: *Job Satisfaction Nature of work*	
Positive Affectivity	.54**
Step 3: Mediator: Motivation to Mentor	
Positive Affectivity	.49**
Motivation to Mentor	.10
DV: *Job Satisfaction Pay/Promotion*	
Locus of Control	.53**
Step 3: Mediator: Motivation to Mentor	
Locus of Control	.52**
Motivation to Mentor	.02
DV: *Job Satisfaction Nature of work*	
Locus of Control	.45**
Step 3: Mediator: Motivation to Mentor	
Locus of Control	.39**
Motivation to Mentor	.17*

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$
** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

Table 5

Mean Differences between Mentors and Non-Mentors

		N	Mean	t	p
Altruism	Mentors	160	3.50	2.09	.04
	Non-Mentors	41	3.30		
Negative Affectivity	Mentors	155	1.55	-1.63	.11
	Non-Mentors	39	1.67		
Positive Affectivity	Mentors	155	4.12	3.37	.001
	Non-Mentors	39	3.82		
Locus of Control	Mentors	160	2.98	.36	.72
	Non-Mentors	41	3.01		
Motivation to Mentor	Mentors	160	4.17	4.20	.000
	Non-Mentors	36	3.66		
Job Satisfaction: Pay/Promotion	Mentors	155	3.67	2.23	.03
	Non-Mentors	38	3.30		
Job Satisfaction: Benefits	Mentors	156	3.88	1.56	.12
	Non-Mentors	39	3.62		
Job Satisfaction: Nature of work	Mentors	158	4.50	2.49	.01
	Non-Mentors	39	4.22		
Age	Mentors	159	3.57	1.95	.05
	Non-Mentors	41	3.27		

Although the above analyses were conducted in order to see the differences between mentors and non-mentors, it must be kept in mind that sample sizes are not equal between the two groups (approximately 158 mentors vs. approximately 38 non-mentors) and therefore caution must be taken in the interpretation of these results. Based on the t-tests that were conducted with regards to mentors vs. non-mentors, it is clear that there is a significant difference between the two groups in the personality dimensions of altruism

and positive affectivity where p-values are 0.04 and 0.001 respectively. Means for both of these dimensions are lower for non-mentors than for mentors indicating that non-mentors reported lower altruism and lower positive affect than mentors. These findings are interesting and although they must be interpreted carefully due to small sample size of non-mentors, they do support the notion that mentors possess certain personality characteristics that non-mentors do not possess as strongly. Altruism is a form of helping behaviour and therefore it seems quite reasonable that mentors, who base their role on the idea of helping junior employees, would report higher means of altruism than non-mentors. Similarly, positive affect has been linked to conducting OCBs and with mentoring being an OCB, it is logical that mentors would report higher levels of positive affect than non-mentors. No significant differences were found between the two groups with respect to locus of control ($p = .72$) and the means were very close to each other, although it is interesting to note that non-mentors report a higher mean for locus of control (reflecting a more internal LOC) than mentors.

Motivation to mentor had a p-value of 0.000, demonstrating again that there is a significant difference between mentors and non-mentors with respect to motivation to mentor. This finding can be difficult to interpret since mentors can easily answer the motivation to mentor items (Section III of mentoring survey), while non-mentors cannot do this as easily. Although non-mentors did attempt to answer survey items relating to motivation to mentor, because they have never actually assumed a mentoring role, they do no know for certain that they would or would not feel rewarded by the scenarios in the items. Non-mentors likely answered the items in Section III of the mentoring survey by

considering how they would feel, had they been in a mentoring relationship. However, by looking at the means for both groups, it is clear that non-mentors are less motivated to mentor than their counterparts. This finding can be justified using the idea that if an individual reports that he or she is a mentor, he or she has sought out a mentoring relationship to fulfill his or her motivation. On the other hand, one who has not reported engaging in such an activity has also not reported being motivated to take on a mentoring role.

In the area of job satisfaction, significant differences were found between the two groups in the job satisfaction subscales of satisfaction with pay and promotion opportunities as well as satisfaction with nature of work, where p-values were 0.03 and 0.01, respectively. Means were lower for non-mentors than for mentors in both of these areas, supporting the idea that mentors report higher job satisfaction than non-mentors. Mentors report higher levels of job satisfaction with pay and promotion opportunities, which can be considered an extrinsic form of job satisfaction. They also report higher levels of job satisfaction with the nature of the work, an intrinsic form of job satisfaction. This finding leads us to believe that the outcome of job satisfaction can be both intrinsic and/or extrinsic. It is interesting to note that the differences with respect to mentors vs. non-mentors in this case, could be due to personality differences or to mentoring experience. It is not clear that one is more relevant than the other in this case.

A final difference that was examined between mentors and non-mentors was age. A p-value of 0.05 was found indicating mild support for age differences between the two

groups. Non-mentors reported a slightly lower mean age than mentors. This can be explained by the fact that an older person may have had the opportunity to take on a mentor role because of more experience and more years on the job, whereas a younger person may have not reached that point in his or her career yet. The difference in age is very slight however.

4. DISCUSSION

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The present study makes a number of theoretical and practical contributions on the nature of the construct called 'motivation to mentor', its antecedents and its consequences. First I examined the antecedents of motivation to mentor to verify whether or not it was influenced by individual personality characteristics, namely altruism, locus of control and positive affectivity. I then looked at the outcomes of motivation to mentor to see if the proposed outcome of job satisfaction was a true outcome of motivation to mentor. Finally, I looked at the possibility that motivation to mentor was a mediating variable between the individual personality characteristics, and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis one, two and three tested the relationship between the individual personality characteristics of altruism, positive affectivity, and locus of control on motivation to mentor. It was hypothesized that each of the three characteristics would influence motivation to mentor and support for these three hypotheses was found.

Altruism is defined as an "action carried out with the intent to benefit others without the desire to receive benefits from others in return" (Romer, et al., 1986, p.1001). The definition of altruism is one that is very closely related to intrinsic motivation. The desire to help *without receiving benefits from others* indicates that altruists do not seek external rewards; similarly, intrinsically motivated people do not seek them either.

Altruism is a quality that is much needed in organizations. New employees often require a hand in feeling comfortable in a new company and will often seek out a friendly and willing individual to help orient them to the organization. Without altruistic individuals who are willing to selflessly help those in need, companies would suffer. Employees often learn the informal ways in which the company operates, including company history and culture as well as informal expectations from an individual who is willing to take that new person under his or her wings. Altruists are essential to organizations and should be sought out.

Positive affectivity and locus of control were also found to positively influence motivation to mentor. This can be explained with the understanding that those who experience positive feelings will enjoy the interaction that a mentoring relationship can provide. And since the interaction will tend to bring them joy as well, the circle continues and those with high PA remain motivated to mentor. PA has been associated with organizational citizenship behaviours (Williams and Shiaw, 1999), and if mentoring can be considered an OCB then those with PA are naturally motivated to mentor. Locus of control can be seen in a similar manner. Those with an internal LOC believe that they have control over the events that take place in their lives. Mentoring is a function that will only succeed if the mentor feels that he or she is in control of the outcomes of the relationship. A mentor (with effort from his or her protégé) can see to it that the protégé is afforded certain opportunities such as exposure to key players within the organization, but a considerable amount of effort must be made to see to it that this occurs. Someone with an internal LOC will understand that he or she has the power to make these events

happen and will not solely rely on chance or fate. In addition, those with internal LOC will be motivated by the opportunity to validate their feelings of competence and self-determination and mentoring is one such opportunity.

Hypothesis four tested the relationship between motivation to mentor and job satisfaction. It was hypothesized that motivation to mentor would be positively related to overall job satisfaction. This hypothesis was tested on each of the three subscales of job satisfaction that were determined earlier. They are: satisfaction with pay and promotion, satisfaction with benefits, and satisfaction with the nature of work. It was found that motivation to mentor was significantly related to both the pay/promotion and nature of work subscales of job satisfaction, but not the benefits subscale. One reason to justify this finding is in the importance that employees associate with these three subscales of job satisfaction. An employee who will willingly takes on a mentoring role must be prepared to put forth a positive view of the organization and of his or her role in it. On the other hand, an individual who is motivated to mentor should naturally be someone who will report being content with his or her position within the organization and is delighted to pass on industry knowledge and wisdom to a more junior employee. A motivated mentor is someone who is genuinely proud and sincerely interested in his or her work. Such a person will no doubt report being satisfied with the nature of his or her work. Nature of work is an intrinsic form of job satisfaction and therefore it seems natural that an individual who is intrinsically motivated to mentor would report intrinsic job satisfaction.

The second aspect of job satisfaction that motivation to mentor was significantly related to was satisfaction with pay and promotion. An individual who is motivated to mentor should be satisfied with aspects such as pay as well as with opportunities for promotion. As I mentioned, a mentor is someone who will be an ambassador for his or her organization and who will stand behind it and promote it to his or her protégé. It seems natural that motivated individual would be someone who reports feelings of job satisfaction. Although pay and promotion are extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction, it is still reasonable to believe that someone who is motivated to mentor will report feelings of both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

The final aspect of job satisfaction that was examined was satisfaction with benefits and no relationship was found between motivation to mentor and this subscale of job satisfaction. One reason to justify this lack of relationship is that benefits tend to be the same for everyone. Unlike pay, promotion and nature of the work, which may differ at the individual level, fringe benefits such as health insurance plans and vacation time can be considered as more of a universal occurrence, something that is organization-wide rather than applicable at the individual level. Packages are put into place at the organizational level and in general, every employee is afforded the same benefits. Satisfaction with benefits therefore, becomes a less salient aspect in mentoring. Motivation to mentor implies satisfaction with pay, promotion and nature of the work, which are interpreted personally by each employee. Those who are motivated to mentor are therefore satisfied with aspects of their jobs that are understood at the individual level. Motivation to mentor therefore does not imply that satisfaction with benefits must

be present. The fact that motivation to mentor is not related to job satisfaction with benefits may be helpful since it eliminates the single source bias and indicates that participants did not use inflated ratings and that they were in fact discriminating among the job satisfaction items.

The final hypothesis that was tested was that of motivation to mentor as a mediator in the relationship between the individual characteristics and job satisfaction. Support was found for mediation in the relationship between the individual characteristic of altruism and both the pay/promotion and nature of work subscales of job satisfaction. This means that although altruism is significantly related to job satisfaction (all three subscales), when job satisfaction is regressed on both altruism *and* motivation to mentor, altruism is no longer significantly related to job satisfaction. The same does not hold true for positive affectivity and locus of control. These characteristics remain significantly related to job satisfaction demonstrating no support for mediation, which means that they directly affect satisfaction.

A possible reason to explain why mediation is supported with altruism and not with the other two individual characteristics is because by definition, altruism is a helping behaviour (Romer, Gruder & Lizzadro, 1986; Aryee, et al., 1996), and mentoring is an act where helping behaviours are necessary. Positive affectivity and locus of control are conditions that will lead to motivation to mentor but the definition of mentoring does not absolutely require that these characteristics hold true. Altruism and motivation to mentor are so closely intertwined that if they are together in a relationship where job satisfaction

is the outcome, then it is likely that only one of the two components will remain significantly related to job satisfaction. In other words, the altruism is manifesting itself through mentoring, which leads to job satisfaction. Therefore when motivation to mentor is regressed on the relationship between altruism and job satisfaction it is not surprising that motivation to mentor becomes even more significant while altruism loses significance to the point that a relationship no longer exists. Positive affectivity and locus of control, on the other hand may simply manifest themselves through other outlets, which also lead to job satisfaction. Things such as being effective leaders or role models may be examples of such outlets.

These findings add value to the current research on mentoring in a number of ways. Most of the research that has been done in the past has focused on mentoring from the point of view of the protégé (Kram, 1985; Noe, 1988; Chao et al., 1992; Allen, Russell & Maetzke, 1997; Ragins et al., 2000). Little has been done examining the mentor and the reasons as to why one would agree to take on such a role. My research shows that intrinsic and/or extrinsic motivation can both be factors in becoming a mentor. Past research has shown that that various individual personality characteristics are significantly related to motivation to mentor. Aryee, et al. (1996) found that altruism and positive affectivity influenced motivation to mentor. Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins (1997), found that locus of control was significantly related to intention to mentor. These three individual difference characteristics were examined as a cluster as well individually and in the context of the current study on motivation to mentor among MBA alumni, they were found to be significantly related to motivation to mentor individually and as a

cluster. Although it has been shown in the past that these characteristics did influence mentoring intentions, they had never been looked at together and had not been examined in a North-American context, across organizations, rather than among managers of the same organization (i.e., Aryee et al.'s (1996) study of Singaporean managers)

A second way in which the current study contributes to research on mentoring is in examining the outcomes of such a relationship on the mentor. Although much of the research has examined the outcomes of mentoring on the protégé (Kram, 1985; Noe, 1988; Chao et al., 1992; Allen, Russell & Maetzke, 1997; Ragins et al., 2000), little research exists which examine such effects on the mentor. And since a mentor voluntarily engages in such a role, it seems that the outcomes of such a relationship on the mentor warrant attention. There exist significant outcomes of mentoring relationships on the mentor, specifically job satisfaction. An individual who is motivated mentor will ultimately be someone who will report satisfaction with certain aspects of his or her job, namely satisfaction with pay and promotion as well as satisfaction with the nature of the work.

Theoretically, the current study offers motivation to mentor as an intrinsic or extrinsic form of motivation. Mentoring is not commonly associated with tangible rewards such as pay. It is also a role that is taken on voluntarily, rather than an assigned role, in most cases. Those who take on this role do so because of the innate satisfaction that they receive, rather than for some outside consequence or reward. Mentoring is also an activity that is associated with an employee's 'free time,' that is, they are doing it

outside of normal work hours, on their own time. Although these circumstances may be more commonly associated with intrinsic motivation, motivation to mentor can also be extrinsic in nature. The mentor may take on his or her role with a sense of volition and engage in the act above and beyond his or her normal job description, however, if the organization is monitoring his or her performance and rewarding the mentor accordingly, and the reward is of interest to the mentor, motivation to mentor shifts to extrinsic. The inner acceptance of the task is met with an interest in the associated rewards and therefore it is an extrinsic form of motivation, nonetheless. There was a question in the survey asking participants to indicate if their organizations provided rewards or incentives for engaging in a mentoring relationship (Part VI of mentoring survey). The results of this question were analyzed to see if perhaps those who indicated that they were given rewards would also report lower level of motivation to mentor. 88% of respondents indicated that they were not provided with a reward, while only 10% respondents reported receiving rewards (2% did not answer). A t-test was conducted and was found to be non-significant ($p > 0.05$). Therefore I cannot draw a conclusion that organizational rewards impede motivation to mentor.

The current research on motivation to mentor has many practical implications on top of its theoretical implications. The contributions that the study has to offer are ones from a human resources perspective. Mentoring programs are generally established and maintained within the human resources department. HR practitioners are the ones who are responsible for implementing these programs and seeing them through. In terms of the many human resources functions that exist, perhaps the most practical contribution

that this study makes is one that impacts promotion and selection functions. If mentoring exists within an organization formally or informally, or if plans are in place to implement such a program in the future, those who will serve as worthy mentors must be identified. The current research identifies three personality characteristics that human resources professionals may want to look out for when making promotion or selection decisions. Personality tests can be administered testing for the presence of these traits. If this is done properly, then there will be no doubt that qualified mentors will be readily available when the need arises down the road. Job knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) are key aspects that must be sought out as well, but it should be kept in mind that KSAs can be trained for, while personality traits are fairly stable. In the long run, human resources professionals must ensure that the right people are in place to fill the needs that arise. It is true that not everyone should be considered a potential mentor, and organizations may not want to have all senior employees serve as mentors. Finding the right balance is key and identifying the potential in someone to eventually take on a mentor role is important in the long run.

A second practical contribution to the topic of mentoring by reinforcing the fact that mentoring is an organizational occurrence that is extremely popular and sought after. Although past research has looked at the outcomes of mentoring on the protégé, clearly there are important outcomes of a mentoring relationship on the mentor, especially in the area of job satisfaction. Satisfaction with pay and promotion opportunities as well as satisfaction with the nature of work has been reported by those who are motivated to mentor. In order to maintain an atmosphere of job satisfaction, an organization should

keep in mind that those who are motivated mentors are also those who report being satisfied with compensation and job descriptions. Human resources practitioners should remember that maintaining an atmosphere fostering motivation to mentor will result in satisfied mentors.

This study makes a final practical implication in the area of motivation. If motivation to mentor is intrinsic, it may decrease when tangible rewards such as pay for outstanding mentoring or when punishment for negative mentoring is administered. Although it might be the tendency for an organization to want to reward mentors for their performance, it must be kept in mind that if motivation to mentor is intrinsic, rewards associated with mentoring may decrease motivation. Human resources professionals must be innovative in their attempts to reward outstanding performance among mentors by using things such as verbal reinforcements, or by using non-contingent rewards. The tendency in many organizations is to reward employees with tangible things such as pay or other non-monetary incentives, however where motivation is concerned, extra attention must be given. In order to continue to maintain an environment that fosters motivated people who will willingly take on a mentor role, rewards must be administered very cautiously. If motivation shifts from intrinsic to extrinsic, rewards will not necessarily decrease motivation, although attention must still be paid to their administration since it becomes possible that some mentors are engaging in mentoring relationships purely for the rewards associated with it. This in turn may decrease the impact of the mentoring relationship for the protégé. For example, Upton (1974) demonstrated that committed blood donors who were rewarded were subsequently less

likely to donate compared to committed donors who were not rewarded. The current study is not conclusive regarding this matter ($p > 0.05$) and only 10% of respondents indicated receiving rewards for mentoring.

The survey that was distributed to mentors included one open-ended question, asking for additional comments and feedback. Some interesting qualitative responses were given by mentors, which add practical value for human resources practitioners as well. For example, one mentor writes: "It is highly rewarding to see people learn from my experiences and grow professionally." This comment reflects the feelings of many mentors who are rewarded by the opportunities that they have afforded to others. A similar mentor commented, "The greatest sense of accomplishment comes from letting people become more that they thought themselves possible and making a long term positive impact in their careers and lives." Clearly mentoring has personal intangible rewards that far outweigh the tangible ones that an organization may provide. Personal satisfaction that is a result of being a mentor was not measured. An assumption can be made to say that the personal satisfaction that mentors receive from performing a mentoring function and from having the opportunity to watch their protégé learn and grow, provide a reward that cannot be compared to anything tangible or external that the organization could possibly provide. This adds to the notion that motivation to mentor is intrinsic to a certain extent, and the motivation for taking on the role is in part due to the task of mentoring itself.

A number of mentors who completed the survey also added that they had been protégés in the past and found mentoring to be a valuable tool for them. One mentor writes, "I have been the beneficiary of a great mentor..." Another mentor, who was a protégé in the past writes, "In my opinion, all managers and supervisors should be trained as mentors to their employees." Although this was not examined, it is possible that having been a protégé in the past will lead to motivation to mentor as well. Another mentor writes: "Mentoring is the best way to train people for a job. [...] As a conservative person who does not take many chances, and who would rather be sure before proceeding, I always liked having a mentor." Clearly the value of having been mentored has impacted many people and perhaps has played a role in them becoming mentors themselves. This is yet another occurrence that human resources practitioners must consider. Personality, although a strong indicator of motivation to mentor, may not be the only predictor. Having been mentored in the past may have a significant impact on deciding to mentor later on in one's career. This is an area that human resources professionals may want to research. The human resources function of training and development should be involved in any mentoring program that may be implemented within an organization. Although recruiters will be selecting the right people to carry out mentoring functions, they are selecting people based on personality traits such as altruism, positive affectivity and locus of control. As mentioned, personality characteristics are fairly stable and selecting individuals who possess these traits is paramount, however, training them on the KSAs required to fulfill the mentoring function is an important next step. Mentors are not only senior members of organizations who provide such things as industry knowledge and challenging assignments, but they are

coaches, counsellors and friends. Training must be done in order to ensure that mentors are not only motivated to take on the role, but that they are properly trained to carry it out. The comment raised above indicates that positive mentoring experiences foster more mentoring. Protégés who felt that their mentoring experiences were beneficial seem to want to continue the cycle by becoming mentors themselves. Training potential mentors on the functions that they may provide protégés with is very important.

Alternative Explanations

Alternative explanations that may exist to justify my findings are in the area of motivation theory. Currently I propose Self-Determination theory to explain intrinsic motivation. Other motivation theories exist that explain motivation and although I believe that Self-Determination theory explain it best. Goal setting theory (Locke, 1990b) explains that some people perform better on a given task than others because of cognitive factors such as beliefs about what one can achieve and because of motivation. Goal setting theory assumes that human activity is directed by conscious goals and intentions. The goals that people have will affect the decision they make and how well they will perform. Goal setting theory affirms that a goal be self generated and should have value and significance to the organization. The desire to reach a goal will fuel the behaviour to accomplish that goal. Individuals, who have, as a goal, the desire to develop the career of a junior employee will, according to goal-setting theory, behave in a way as to accomplish his or her goal (Locke, 1990b). This may mean learning behaviours such as how to coach and counsel junior members. If the individual believes that mentoring and developing the career of new employees is valuable to the organization, he or she

may begin developing the need and drive to accomplish this goal. When the attainment of the goal becomes more powerful, the individual will become more committed to it.

A second theory of motivation that was not currently explored was Vroom's Expectancy theory (1964). Vroom contends that an individual's exertion of effort will depend on the expected outcomes associated with that effort. An individual will exert effort if it will lead to a certain level of performance (expectancy), which in turn will lead to a desired outcome (instrumentality). If the outcome is not one that the individual places much value on (valence), then effort may not be exerted at all. It is a combination of all three (valence, instrumentality, expectancy), which make up the foundation of Vroom's Expectancy or VIE model (Vroom, 1964; Isaac, Zerbe & Pitt, 2001). This theory can be applied to the current research. Someone contemplating taking on a mentor role should be confident that he or she has the abilities to perform his or her role well. When potential mentors understand that taking on a mentor role is something that they can do well and that their talented performance will lead to desired outcomes, they become motivated. If the individual is a good mentor and conducts him or herself to the best of his or her ability then there will no doubt be outcomes associated with the positive mentoring. As long as the outcomes are salient to the individual, effort will be exerted.

Limitations

The current research explored the construct of motivation to mentor, its antecedents as well as its consequences, however a number of limitations do exist. The first limitation exists because this survey was distributed via email and mail, and

therefore, participants were on their own to interpret the contents of the survey. Although contact information was given, only one participant called for clarification. For example, section V of the survey asked participants to indicate how they felt *on the average*. This may have been interpreted as how they felt in general at work or in everyday life. Although the intention was for participants to indicate how they felt in general in their everyday lives, it is possible that some answered based on their feelings at work. A second example is in section III of the survey where participants are asked to indicate the extent to which various activities are rewarding to them. It may be vague as to what 'rewarding' means in this case. Some people may answer in terms of concrete, tangible things and others may answer in terms of an intrinsic satisfaction. Similarly, there may have been some confusion in the demographic question asking participants if they were being rewarded for the mentoring that they performed. Some understand that praise is a form of reward and others consider rewards as tangible only. Clarifications were not made, but based on some of the comments received; it is possible that there may have been some confusion.

Similarly, the conditions under which the surveys were completed were not controlled for and therefore some participants may have been distracted, meaning that they were not completely focused on completing the survey. As well, those who completed the survey at work or other distracting environments may have been rushed or may have been in a different mindset than those who answered from a more relaxed environment with adequate time to stop and reflect on the items.

A second limitation is that in some instances in my analyses, a p-value of 0.001 was obtained. Although this p-value may indicate that a given relationship is highly significant, it may also point out a single-source bias, meaning that participants did not differentiate among various items and instead, considered them to be alike, resulting in inflated relationships and therefore smaller p-values. As mentioned above, because participants did not ask for clarification, there is no way to know for certain whether they distinguished among the items or not.

A third limitation is that there are a number of constructs that were not considered in this study. It is highly possible that motivation to mentor is affected by more than personality however, organizational factors were not considered. Factors such as organizational support of a mentoring program and rewards for a mentoring program may influence one's motivation to mentor. In this case the scenario may exist where motivation shifts to extrinsic, however, because participants were not from the same organization, I did not look at organizational constructs and focused on personality differences instead. Another interesting construct which was not examined was whether a mentor had received mentoring in the past, that is, had they been a protégé. Based on a number of comments it is likely that having been a protégé in the past may lead to motivation to become a mentor.

The fourth limitation in my study concerns the idea that there may be a reverse direction between motivation to mentor and job satisfaction. Currently the argument is made to support the idea that motivation to mentor affects job satisfaction. An individual

who is motivated to take on a mentor role will also report feelings of job satisfaction with pay and promotion opportunities as well as with the nature of work. Although this claim has been supported in the current study, it remains a possibility that the reverse may hold true as well. Feelings of job satisfaction may then influence one's motivation to engage in mentoring. A motivated mentor should to be someone who is truly satisfied with the opportunities that the company provides him or her with. A mentor must be someone who is seen as sincere and trustworthy and if he or she is truly satisfied with his or her pay and opportunities for advancement, as well as the nature of his or her work, then that sincerity will show through. Therefore, it is possible that the case may exist whereby the direction if the argument is reversed and job satisfaction causes motivation. Job satisfaction with pay and promotion are extrinsic forms of job satisfaction and the idea that these extrinsic factors will cause motivation to mentor remains a strong possibility. An individual who is extrinsically motivated is interested in the rewards associated with a task. If that person is satisfied with his or her compensation as well as his or her advancement opportunities, then these organizational rewards may become factors that lead to motivation to mentor, showing a reverse causality of my original argument that motivation leads to job satisfaction. It is clear that there is a significant link between motivation to mentor and job satisfaction, however, the causal direction is not completely clear. I cannot currently conclude that one or the other holds true. One way to satisfy this argument would be to conduct a longitudinal study where mentors are surveyed over time.

A final and very interesting limitation of this study concerns the idea that although mentors may possess the necessary personality characteristics to lead them to be motivated to mentor, the present study did not analyze whether they are actually good mentors who perform their roles to the ultimate benefit of the protégé in question. That is, has the mentor provided his or her protégé with the necessary information and guidance to ensure that the protégé has a positive experience? This could be addressed through an assessment of the protégé's satisfaction with his or her mentor, or through an examination of such things as promotion and compensation rates of those who were mentored vs. those who were not.

Future Directions

The first future research area should involve an examination of the conditions under which motivation may shift from intrinsic to extrinsic. Self-Determination theory takes the idea of extrinsic motivation and breaks it down into four components, identified by Ryan and Deci (2000). The first form of extrinsic motivation is called *external regulation* and it is the least autonomous form of extrinsic motivation. People who are external regulators will perform a task to satisfy an external demand or to receive a reward that is contingent on completing the task. In the second form of extrinsic motivation, labeled *introjected regulation*, actions are performed out of feelings of pressure or anxiety. Activities are performed in order to maintain self-esteem and to protect the ego. In the third form of extrinsic motivation, *identification*, a person is beginning to internalize and value the importance of the activity. The task begins to become autonomous and volitional, that is, the individual is choosing to engage in it. The

final form of extrinsic motivation is called *integrated regulation*, and here the new regulations are internalized and brought together with one's own values and needs. There is still the idea that a tangible outcome, separate from the task exists, and therefore I still consider integration to be a form of extrinsic motivation.

Although the present study is one that asserts that motivation to mentor may be more intrinsic, it is possible that the scenario exists whereby motivation may shift to extrinsic. The four components of extrinsic motivation cover the range from completely controlled extrinsic motivation (external regulation) to fully autonomous extrinsic motivation (integrated regulation) where, although there is a separate and tangible outcome associated with the task, the individual identifies with and believes in the task at hand. In the current study, organizational rewards for engaging in mentoring are not considered. In a study where only one organization is surveyed and rewards are given for engaging in a mentoring relationship, it may become apparent that some mentors are extrinsically motivated through a state of integrated regulation, where they may identify with the task and feel a sense of desire to engage in it because of the value that they associate with mentoring. The tangible reward that is given to them, however, may distort the mentor's reasons for agreeing to engage in the role. Some mentors, on the other hand, may admit to engaging in the task because of pressure from superiors or concern about the consequences of not participating. Such individuals are in a state of introjected regulation and are mentoring out of a desire to protect their ego. Mentors in this state of motivation are performing a disservice to their protégés since they are

involved in the relationship for the external rewards that will be afforded to them and the need to maintain their sense of worth.

A second area for future research is in the survey design. Currently, there exists an issue where a single source bias may have come into play. The survey that was distributed can perhaps be redesigned to eliminate this bias. One way to eliminate the single source issue would be to distribute the survey not only to mentors, but to their protégés as well. By having protégés respond to survey items regarding their opinions of various aspects of their mentors' behaviour such as enthusiasm and approachability, the findings of the research become stronger and more valuable. A second suggestion would be to survey more non-mentors since currently only 25% of the respondents were non-mentors leading to cautious interpretations. This would have enabled me to better compare the two groups.

The final area that I suggest for future research is on the topic of personality and motivation. There exists much research on personality; however, there is little linking it to motivation. I attempted to make as strong links between the two topics, however it was not an effortless task. The current study hypothesized that personality would influence motivation to mentor and links were established, however the literature to back up such a link were difficult to come by. Future research in this area is clearly needed.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this research examined the construct of motivation to mentor, its antecedents, and its consequences. The personality characteristics of altruism, positive affectivity and locus of control were hypothesized to influence motivation to mentor. These hypotheses were supported and significant relationships were found between all three individual characteristics and motivation to mentor. The outcome of motivation to mentor that was examined in this study was job satisfaction, specifically satisfaction with pay and promotion, satisfaction with benefits and satisfaction with the nature or work. Motivation to mentor was hypothesized to influence job satisfaction and as hypothesized, it was found to be significantly related to two out of three subscales of job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and promotion and satisfaction with the nature of work. Finally, motivation to mentor was proposed to be a mediating variable between motivation to mentor and job satisfaction and only partial support for this was found, motivation to mentor was found to be a mediator between altruism and job satisfaction but positive affectivity and locus of control were not supported in the mediation hypothesis.

Perhaps the most significant conclusion that this study makes is that it furthers the concept of motivation to mentor, which has not been previously explored in depth. Previous research has been done regarding the factors that lead mentors to become motivated, but the concept of motivation to mentor was not examined in terms of its intrinsic or extrinsic nature (Aryee, et al., 1996; Allen, Poteet, Russell & Dobbins, 1997). Mentoring is a function that senior organizational members willingly take on based on a desire to help junior employees grow and develop within an organization. Although this

may indicate that motivation to mentor is intrinsic in nature, certainly the scenario can be created whereby it is extrinsic, such as the case where someone is in a state of integrated regulation. Furthermore, outcomes of mentoring on the mentor have not been looked at in past research. This is the first study that has shown a relationship between motivation to mentor and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction that mentors later experience is both intrinsic (satisfaction with the nature of work) and extrinsic (satisfaction with pay and promotion opportunities).

Mentoring programs exist in many organizations today and are implemented in different ways. Some organizations choose to implement informal mentorship programs where mentor and protégé choose who they want to engage in a relationship with and others implement formal mentorship programs where mentor and protégé are assigned to one another. It is up to human resources professionals to make the right decisions when selecting the appropriate mentorship program to implement. Whether it is a formal or an informal program, organizations must ensure that they have the right people in place to perform mentor function to the best of their ability, in ways that will benefit the protégé, and ultimately, the organization at large. Personality is one of many domains that must be kept in mind. Selecting people who are altruistic, have positive affectivity and an internal locus of control, are three of the many things that should be sought out in potential mentors. These personality characteristics will influence one's motivation to mentor and the outcome will be job satisfaction for the mentor along with many positive outcomes on the protégé. Having a mentor who is intrinsically motivated to take on this exciting and challenging role will be extremely beneficial to an organization. They will

now have a person in place as a mentor who is motivated by the task of mentoring and chooses to engage in this exciting role because of the reward of the task at hand rather then for some external tangible outcome that the organization may provide. These are the types of mentors that are desperately needed in organizations today and this study has brought us one step closer to determining the qualities that a motivated mentor will possess.

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Appendix: Mentoring Survey

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I. INSTRUCTIONS:

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following items:

1 Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree/ Somewhat Agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Agree

A job is what you make of it.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Getting a job that you want is mostly a matter of luck.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
In order to get a really good job you need to have family members or friends in high places.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

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II. INSTRUCTIONS:

Please indicate the frequency with which you have carried out the following acts.

1 Never	2 Once	3 More than once	4 Often	5 Very often

I have helped push a stranger's car out of the snow.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have given directions to a stranger.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have given money to a charity.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have given money to a stranger who needed it (or asked me for it).	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have done volunteer work for a charity.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have donated blood.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have delayed an elevator and held the door open for a stranger.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have allowed someone to go ahead of me in a lineup (at Xerox machine, in the supermarket).	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have pointed out a clerk's error (in a bank, at the supermarket) in undercharging me for an item.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have let a neighbour whom I didn't know too well borrow an item of some value to me (e.g., a dish, tools, etc.).	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have offered to help a handicapped or elderly stranger cross the street.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have offered my seat on a bus or train to a stranger who was standing.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I have helped an acquaintance to move household	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

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III. INSTRUCTIONS:

Please indicate the extent to which you have carried out the following acts.

1 Not at all	2 A little	3 Moderately	4 Quite a bit	5 To a very large extent

To what extent is helping junior employees to understand the organization's business and the skills and competencies required rewarding to you?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
To what extent is developing a managerial potential for junior employees rewarding to you?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
To what extent is identifying and nurturing managerial potential rewarding to you?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
To what extent is arranging for junior employees to attend job-related training sessions rewarding to you?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
To what extent is succession planning so that junior employees may some day assume higher-level responsibility in the organization rewarding to you?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
In general, to what extent do you feel rewarded by helping in the developing of junior employees?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
To what extent is helping recent graduates in your industry rewarding to you?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
To what extent is sharing industry wisdom and knowledge with junior employees rewarding to you?	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

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IV. INSTRUCTIONS:

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following items:

1 Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree/ Somewhat Agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Agree

I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
There is really too little chance for promotion in my job.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Raises are too few and far between.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I like doing the things I do at work.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
The benefit package we have is equitable	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
My job is enjoyable.	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

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V. INSTRUCTIONS:

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to the word. Indicate to what extent you *generally* feel this way, that is, *how you feel on the average*. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1 **Very slightly or not at all**	**2** **A little**	**3** *Moderately*	**4** **Quite a bit**	**5** **Extremely**

Interested	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Irritable	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Distressed	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Alert	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Excited	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Ashamed	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Upset	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Inspired	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Strong	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Nervous	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Guilty	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Determined	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Scared	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Attentive	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Hostile	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Jittery	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Enthusiastic	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Active	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5
Proud	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	Afraid	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5

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VI. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:

Please fill in the following information about yourself:

1. Gender ☐Male ☐Female

2. Age
☐18-25
☐26-35
☐36-45
☐46-55
☐over 55

3. Race/Ethnicity ☐White ☐Black ☐Aboriginal
☐Hispanic ☐Asian ☐Other _____

4. Do you work?
☐Yes, I work full-time (32-40 hours a week)
Occupation: _____

☐Yes, I work Part-time (1-31.9 hours a week)
Occupation: _____

☐No, I do not currently work.

5. Year of graduation from MBA program: _____

6. Have you mentored someone:
☐Within your organization
☐Outside of your organization
☐I have never mentored anyone

7. Does your organization provide any rewards or incentives to mentors?
☐Yes ☐No

VII. ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

Please feel free to provide us with any additional comments in the space provided: