Motivational Factors to be a Mentor in Formal Mentoring in Organisations. The Role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation in the Propensity to Mentor

Wioletta Małota

Submitted: 26.06.2017. Final acceptance: 17.10.2017

Abstract

Purpose: The purpose of the study was to examine the motivational factors of propensity to be a mentor by managers in a formal mentoring in organisations. The author addresses the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and examines their relation to the propensity to mentor. The second objective was to critically analyse whether managers deciding to mentor do so for egoistic or altruistic reasons – for self-benefits or others' benefits. The third task concentrates on the role of extrinsic motivational factors, especially additional remuneration on the propensity to mentor.

Methodology: For this study, the author applied quantitative research among Polish managers working in medium and large size organisations. The author examines the correlation between dependent and independent variables and addresses the impact of control variables as moderators.

Findings: First, the results support managers' high propensity to mentor in a formal mentoring programme. Second, the study finds that intrinsic motivation was the salient factor taken into consideration in the propensity to mentor, whereas extrinsic motivation exerted very little influence. Third, the study confirms a pattern of motivational pluralism based on the fact that both kinds of intrinsic motivators in the propensity to mentor – for the benefit of oneself or others – appear equally significant. Fourth, the research finds that additional remuneration does not motivate managers to mentor.

Research implications: The confirmation of Polish managers' high propensity to mentor contradicts conventional wisdom in some organisations that managers overloaded with work are unwilling to mentor. The finding that managers want to be mentors may encourage organisations to implement mentoring programmes without fear of a shortage of prospective mentors. Based on observed behaviour and the importance of motivational factors, this study delivers valuable guidelines on the recruitment and selection of mentors for HR departments. The results that managers exclusively follow intrinsic motivation in the propensity to mentor should be considered in designing the methodology of mentors' selection.

Keywords: organizational mentoring, propensity to mentor, motivational pluralism, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, mentoring culture

JEL: D23

1 Collegium Civitas
Correspondence address: Collegium Civitas, Defilad Square, Warsaw 00-901, Poland, Palace of Culture and Science, 12 floor, e-mail: wmalota@civitas.edu.pl.
Introduction

The purpose of this study was to contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the propensity to mentor by examining motivational factors influencing it from the point of view of the managers. The author addresses the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation influencing the propensity to mentor and examines their relations between them. The study has three main objectives which build on the motivational and social behaviour theories.

The first was to answer what type and extent of motivation – intrinsic or extrinsic – influences the propensity to mentor. The second objective was to examine whether managers who decided to mentor do so for egoistic or altruistic reasons, for the benefit of oneself or others. The third objective was to assess the role of extrinsic motivational factors, especially additional remuneration for the propensity to mentor.

Furthermore, the article addresses the role of gender, age, level of career, and organisation size in preference of given motivational factors. The author assessed the propensity to mentor in formal organisational mentoring, among managers working in organisations that employ more than 250 employees.

Theoretical background

Motivation is an abstract notion that one cannot observe directly. We can observe the motivation to work through its manifestation in employees’ attitude, kind and level of engagement or the results of their work (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999). To understand the behaviour of employees in an organisation, we should analyse their motivation, that is, the internal motives, which make them behave in a certain way, and the situational factors within an organisation that influence their behaviour. The study examines the internal motives of managers, called intrinsic motivation, and the organisational factors, called extrinsic motivation, to determine the motivational factors to mentor.

Ryan and Deci define intrinsic motivation as “doing something for its own sake because it is interesting and enjoyable” (2000, p. 56). Gagne et al. characterise extrinsic motivation as doing something for instrumental reasons (2000). Extrinsic motivation constitutes HR tools that motivate managers to undertake the role of a mentor. Mentoring others is a “volitional activity, going beyond the mentor’s formal job requirements” (Allen, 2003, p. 136). This is why HR departments try different tools to motivate managers to mentor.
The mentoring process in an organisation consists of two components: participants, namely the mentor and mentee, and processes and procedures which enable the practice of mentoring. Chandler and Kram call the two components the human and the situational factor (2004). The study below examines the propensity to mentor and searches for relations between the human and situational factor, that is the mentors’ motivation and the HR tools offered to managers which are to foster their willingness and engagement in mentoring.

In her seminal research on mentoring relationships, Kram observes that mentors’ motivation to develop others “is stimulated by both instrumental and psychological needs” (1985, p. 89). In 1992, Newby and Heide discussed the intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcements that influence propensity to mentor; that is, cooperation, challenge and increased competence versus monetary gains, assistance with job-related tasks and enhanced organisational reputation. Developing upon Kram’s categorisation and the Self Determination Theory (Gagne and Deci, 2005), the current study categorises motivational factors into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

**Intrinsic motivation**

Allen et al. identify two overall motivational factors with thirteen dimensions (1997) which explain the motivation to mentor as either “self-focused” or “other focused.” The first factor, “self-focused,” includes gratification at seeing others grow, free time for other pursuits, increased personal development, pride, respect, the desire to work with and influence others. The dimensions associated with the second factor, “other focused,” include the desire to pass information to others, build a competent workforce, help others, help others succeed, help the organisation and promote minorities and women in the organisation. Based on this construct, the current study divides intrinsic motivation into self-benefits and others’ benefits with six factors. Self-benefits comprise the development of professional competencies, network, satisfaction and personal learning. Others’ benefits consist of the contribution to people’s lives and an organisation.

To undertake the role of a mentor driven by self-benefits is consistent with the Human Capital Theory, which states that people invest their time, resources and energy in the activities that enhance their competencies, with the aim of achieving a competitive edge in the job market (Becker, 1975). To undertake the role of a mentor motivated by others’ benefits is in line with the Generativity Theory (Erikson, 1963, p. 267), which assumes that the motivation of human behaviour is to help others and to leave a legacy. Allen and Eby (2007) argue that generativity comes from human needs.
Extrinsic motivation

An organisation’s culture may facilitate or hinder learning (Chandler and Kram, 2005). One of the goals of the study at hand was to examine how HR activities foster a mentoring culture and motivate managers to become mentors. The author divided the activities into two categories: HR strategy with six factors and administrative support with four factors. These factors constitute extrinsic motivation in the process of deciding on mentoring.

Ethical aspects of mentoring

In formal mentoring, the organisation monitors and evaluates the effects of a mentoring relationship to realise organisational goals. A recent study identified a wide range of problems reported by managers and caused by mentees. One of the problems was mentees’ unwillingness to learn (Eby and McManus, 2004, Eby and Ragins, 2008), another was the development of a destructive relationship (Feldmann, 1999). The consequence of mentees’ poor performance may put the perceived competence of a mentor at risk (Allen, 2003; Mullen, 1994; Ragins and Scandura, 1994; 1999). The current study examines whether managers care about such risk and consider tools that safeguard their reputation regardless of the mentee’s failure, for example, guidelines for mentoring programmes and whether this issue influences their propensity to mentor.

In formal mentoring, HR departments profoundly care to ensure constructive mentoring relationships due to significant ethical aspects. Only recently did scholars observe that a new regulation appeared in many codes of conduct which reads “leaving a mentoring relationship with no guilt” and aims at preventing the development of destructive mentoring. As the study considers below, this regulation is of great importance to managers.

Additional remuneration

In traditional mentoring, scholars regarded engagement in mentoring as altruistic behaviour (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee, 1978). The development of formal mentoring which requires proficiency, time and energy (Allen, Lenz and Day, 2006) led to the discussion about the gratification of a mentor’s work. Additional remuneration for being a mentor remains controversial. Neither the number of supporters nor opponents diminish. In his essay “Rewards make the mentor,” Jacoby (1989) supported the idea of additional remuneration under the condition that the rules of financial rewarding and criteria of additional remuneration should be standardised.
As there is little empirical evidence about the influence of financial rewards on the propensity to mentor, one of the goals of the current study was to define this relation. The hypothesis that remuneration does not motivate to mentor bases on two theories: the Theory of Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943) and the ERG Theory (Alderfer, 1972). Additional remuneration was regarded by the author of the study as a need from the second level of needs. In turn, the mentor’s role represents a pro-social activity undertaken to build social relations which satisfy the need for belonging to a group from the third level of Maslow’s pyramid. Many assumed, however, that managers’ motivation to mentor comes from the two highest levels of need, self-development and self-actualisation, activated after they have already realised their lower level needs – financial security.

Nevertheless, in the opinion of many scholars, Maslow’s theory has little support in empirical studies (Tay and Diener, 2011). Hence, the ERG theory stemmed from the theoretical approach of Maslow and was applied to formulate the fifth hypothesis, as explained below. In the ERG theory, there are three categories of needs: existence, relatedness and growth. The three categories answer to Maslow’s levels of need respectively, beginning with physiology and security to belonging and respect to, finally, self-actualisation. In contrast to Maslow’s theory, however, the ERG theory holds that higher needs may be activated before the lower needs are realised, and a person’s motivation may emerge from the willingness to realise more needs than from just one category (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999). Research beyond Maslow’s theory supports this premise of the ERG theory (Waha and Bridwell, 1976).

**Matching system**

A number of mentoring scholars explore systems for matching mentors and mentees and recommend different methods (Beddoes-Jones and Miller, 2006, Daresh, 2004, Finkelstein and Poteet, 2007). The current study examined whether this organisational factor has any importance for managers and influences their propensity to mentor.

**Training for mentors**

Scholars regard training for mentors as the success factor of mentoring programmes (Ramaswami and Dreher, 2007). The subject of training for mentors should be to understand the goals of mentoring and the development of mentoring attitudes and skills in the application of tools (Finkelstein and Poteet, 2005). Furthermore, the author of the current study applies importance to understanding how the learning of mentoring skills is crucial for managers and how access to training influences their propensity to mentor.
Support in the administration of mentoring process

Some mentoring scholars argue that mentoring programmes constitute a valuable tool in an organisation’s development but only on condition that the evaluation of mentoring results is part of the mentoring process (Cranwell-Ward, Bassons and Gover, 2004; Stokes and Merrick, 2013). Undeniably, the evaluation of mentoring programmes is vital for organisations but do mentors see evaluation the same way? The current study examined the importance of the administrative support of the mentoring process, also in the evaluation, the level of managers appreciation for this help and whether the support impacts their decisions to become mentors.

Methodology

To examine the importance of different motivational factors on the propensity to mentor, the author formulated five hypotheses.

**H1:** Intrinsic motivation influences manager’s propensity to mentor more than extrinsic motivation. This hypothesis bases on the fact that mentoring others is a voluntary activity.

**H2:** Managers’ propensity to mentor is to a larger extent influenced by intrinsic motivation than extrinsic motivation regardless of gender, manager’s age, career level and organisation size. This hypothesis states that intrinsic motivation is dominant both for men and women; neither age nor career level change this preference. This position assumes that managers decide to mentor driven mostly by intrinsic motivation even in larger organisations which may offer more extrinsic motivators than small ones.

**H3:** Self-benefits motivate managers to be mentors more than others’ benefits. This hypothesis examines which of the two intrinsic motivations influenced the propensity to mentor more.

**H4:** Type of intrinsic motivation to mentor change with age and the advancement of career. Early career and age dominate self-benefits of intrinsic motivation while, later, others’ benefits prevail.

The author of the current study deems it is reasonable to expect that managers in the early stage of their career focus more on own development than at an advanced stage.
Instead, experienced managers may be more willing to share knowledge with others as their position in the organisation is secure. They may exhibit more pro-social behaviour and want to share the experience they have received over the years. Life stage theories support the claim that willingness to undertake the role of mentor at the mature career stage is growing. (Erickson, 1963; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee, 1978).

**H5:** Additional remuneration for mentoring does not motivate managers to mentor. As the role of the mentor is by its nature a volitional activity, which answers to the needs of belonging and self-actualisation, additional remuneration does not enhance the propensity to mentor.

**The Respondents**

166 managers, eighty women (48%) and eighty-six men (52%) have responded the questionnaire. Ninety-five of them (57,3%) are line managers, fifty-three (31,9%) manage other managers, and eighteen (10,8%) are general directors. All worked in organisations that employed more than fifty employees as this was the selection criterion. Thirty managers (18,1%) worked in an organisation employing 50–149 people, 22 (13,3%) employing 150–249 people and 114, the majority (68,8%), in companies employing more than 250 people. Sixty-five of the managers have previous experience as a mentor (39,2%) and, among them, sixty-four (98,5 %) were satisfied with this role. Sixty-one managers (36, 7%) experienced the role of a mentee, and 90,2% (n=55) were satisfied with this experience. Previous experience as a mentor was not a condition to participate in the survey because it measured the declared willingness to mentor.

**The Procedure**

The author gathered the surveys in September and October of 2014. Business organisations received emails with a request for their members’ participation in a research. Information about it also appeared in an online HR magazine. Parallel the author gathered data from a paper version of the survey that was filled in a face-to-face interview. To ensure common understanding of the research questions, in the introduction of the survey the definitions of organisational mentoring, formal mentoring, mentoring process, and lack of reporting dependency between the mentor and mentee were explained.
The Measures

Dependent variables

The author measured the propensity to mentor with two variables: the willingness to mentor and declared engagement in mentoring. The study offered this construct to check the congruity of the propensity to mentor and eventually track the bias of positive declaration of willingness compared with the second variable – engagement in the mentoring process.

The willingness was measured with one item: “What would be your answer if you would be offered the role of mentor in a formal mentoring process?” The responses were gathered on a 5-point Likert-type response scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and this item was first in the survey. The higher the score, the higher the readiness to mentor.

The engagement was measured with four items: 1. “As a mentor, I am ready to spend at least four hours a month with my mentee;” 2. “I am ready to be a mentor for two mentees at the same time;” 3. “I am ready to mentor an employee whom I do not know;” 4. “I am ready to share knowledge I am one of the few experts;” α=0,74.

The responses were recorded on a similar scale as the willingness item. The questions about willingness appeared at the end of the survey intentionally, following the assumption that after answering questions regarding cost of mentoring, answer on willingness would be more conscious.

Independent variables

Intrinsic motivation

The study examined the relationship between two kinds of motivation – the extrinsic and intrinsic and propensity to mentor – with 59 items. Respondents answered on a 5-point response scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 5 (very important). The author divided intrinsic motivation (α=0,93) into self-benefits (α=0,90) and others’ benefits motivation (α=0,83). Self-benefits motivation included four factors: development of professional competencies (α=0,75), personal learning (α=0,80), development of network (α=0,81), and satisfaction (α=0,77). Others’ benefits motivation consisted of two factors: contribution to people’s lives (α=0,78) and contribution to an organisation (α=0,70).

Extrinsic motivation

The extrinsic motivation was divided (α=0,91) in two categories: HR strategy (α=0,86) and administrative support (α=0,90). HR Strategy included six factors: mentor’s gra-
tification ($\alpha=0.87$), high mentor’s position of a mentor in the organisation ($\alpha=0.68$), mentor’s competency as leadership skills ($\alpha=0.69$), strategic importance of mentoring in the organisation ($\alpha=0.84$), additional remuneration ($\alpha$ not measured), and ethical aspects of mentoring ($\alpha=0.83$).

The study measured the ethical aspects of mentoring with two items: 1. “How important for your decision to mentor is the organisation’s recognition that the mentee’s failure will influence your reputation as the manager?” 2. “How important for your decision to mentor is the possibility that both the mentor and the mentee may exit the mentoring relationship with ‘no guilt’?”

The administrative support ($\alpha=0.90$) consisted of four factors: mentors’ selection system ($\alpha=0.86$), mentor-mentee matching system ($\alpha=0.52$), trainings for mentors ($\alpha=0.86$), and support in the administration of the mentoring process ($\alpha=0.71$).

**Control variables**

The demographic and organisational variables associated with the propensity to mentor were included as covariates: gender, age, career level, and organisation size.

**Findings**

**Propensity to mentor and types of motivations**

166 respondents took part in the research in which 83.7% declared willingness to mentor, of whom 90% women and 77.9% men.

Hypothesis 1 stated that managers’ propensity to mentor is to a higher extent influenced by intrinsic than extrinsic motivation.

Results in Table 1, Graph 1 indicate significant differences in the correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation both for the willingness to mentor and engagement in mentoring.

To determine the correlation between each factor of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the willingness to mentor and engagement in mentoring, the author calculates the $\rho$ Spearman coefficient, Pearson correlations coefficient, and one-sided statistical relevance respectively (Table 2).
Table 1. Correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the level of willingness to mentor and engagement in mentoring

|                  | Intrinsic motivation | Extrinsic motivation | Test   |
|------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------|
|                  | r/ρ                  | p                    | r/ρ    | p   | Z    | p     |
| Willingness to mentor | 0.434**              | 0.001                | 0.189**| 0.007| 3.10**| 0.002 |
| Engagement in mentoring | 0.518**              | 0.001                | 0.251**| 0.001| 3.52***| 0.001 |

r – correlation coefficient r Pearson; ρ – correlation coefficient ρ Spearman; p – one sided statistical relevance; ** – p<0.01; *** – p<0.001

Table 2. ρ Spearman correlation between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the willingness to mentor as well as Pearson correlations coefficient between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the engagement in mentoring

| Variable                                | Willingness | Engagement |
|-----------------------------------------|-------------|------------|
|                                        | r/ρ         | p          | r/ρ    | p   |
| Development of professional competencies | 0.310**     | 0.001      | 0.358**| 0.001 |
| Learning                                | 0.338**     | 0.001      | 0.390**| 0.001 |
| Networking                              | 0.257**     | 0.001      | 0.246**| 0.001 |
| Satisfaction                            | 0.352**     | 0.001      | 0.372**| 0.001 |
| Intrinsic self-benefits motivation      | 0.411**     | 0.001      | 0.421**| 0.001 |
| Contribution to other’s life            | 0.374**     | 0.001      | 0.404**| 0.001 |
| Contribution to an organization         | 0.368**     | 0.001      | 0.249**| 0.001 |
The author observes a significant statistically positive correlation between the willingness to mentor and all the factors of intrinsic motivation and engagement in mentoring. Weak positive correlation of most of the extrinsic factors correlates with the willingness to mentor, except for the existence of an ethical code of conduct – a factor of HR strategy– which correlates negatively. No significant correlation appears for additional remuneration and administrative support.

The inspection of correlation levels between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the willingness ρ (0,434 vs. 0,189, p<0,01) and engagement in mentoring r/ρ (0,518 vs. 0,251, p<0,001) clearly supports hypothesis 1.

To examine how both motivations relate to two aspects of propensity to mentor, an ad post path analysis was performed (Figure 2).
We observe no statistically significant differences between the analysed model and the study results: $\chi^2(7) = 5.43$, $p > 0.05$. The value of adjustment ratios is respectively high and confirms the optimal adjustment of the model to the results. The comparative fit index (Bentler, 1990) was used. The values between 0.90 and 0.94 for the CFI indicate adequate fit, whereas the values of 0.95 and higher indicate excellent fit. The value of CFI was 0.99 and overpassed the critical value of 0.95.

The values smaller than 0.10 for RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) indicate acceptable fit, smaller than 0.08 indicate good fit, and lower than 0.05 – excellent fit (Steiger, 1990). The value of RMSEA in the study was 0.01 and lied below the critical value of 0.05 which indicates excellent adjustment of the model to the data.

Hence, a statistically significant positive correlation of intrinsic motivation with all the analysed variables was observed. Furthermore, there appears positive correlation between the two factors of extrinsic motivation: HR strategy and administrative support. Moreover, there is a positive interrelation between these factors and the two aspects of propensity: the willingness to mentor and engagement in mentoring. It should be noted that only intrinsic motivation was a statistically significant predictor of the willingness to mentor, which explains 21.8% of its variance. Despite results in the model of regression analysis Figure 2, we observe no significant statistical relation between the external motivation and willingness to mentor. Both kinds of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic, are quite highly correlated $r(164) = 0.410$, $p < 0.001$. Statistical
significance of the correlation between the extrinsic motivation and willingness to mentor is the effect of correlation between the willingness to mentor and intrinsic motivation along with its correlates. In the model of regression analysis, we observe no significant relation between the extrinsic motivation and willingness to mentor. Thus, the results of the path analysis also support hypothesis 1.

What supports hypothesis 1 as well is a ranking done by the respondents of the four most important motivational factors among the ten randomly placed. The four highest ranked factors belong to intrinsic motivation; the first two are self-benefits’ factors while the third and fourth are others’ benefits factors. None of the extrinsic motivation factors come from the four most important factors. Table 3 presents the percentages of the respondents’ selection of the most important motivational factors.

Table 3. Most important factors relating to the propensity to mentor

| Preferance of the most important motivational factors |    |
|------------------------------------------------------|--|---|
| Development of professional competencies            | 72,9% |
| Satisfaction being a mentor                          | 59,6% |
| Contribution to other’s life - development of others’ skills | 54,8% |
| Contribution to an organization - sharing its own experience | 41,6% |
| Prestige to be a mentor                              | 22,3% |
| Non financial rewards (promotion, other benefits)    | 18,1% |
| Additional remuneration                              | 16,3% |
| No additional working hours caused by mentoring      | 9%   |
| Administrative support for mentor                    | 4,8% |

Gender, age, career level, and type of the preferred motivation to mentor

Hypothesis 2 states that intrinsic motivation influences the managers’ propensity to mentor more than extrinsic motivation, regardless of the manager’s gender, age, career level, and organisation size. Hierarchical regression allows one to analyse the impact
of control variables as moderators of relation on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as the propensity to mentor (willingness and engagement) respectively. We see the results of the examination of gender as the moderating factor of the propensity to mentor in Table 4, age in Table 5, and the level of career in Table 6. The results of the moderation effect of organisational control variable – organisation size – appear in Table 7.

Table 4. Regression coefficient in gender as the moderator between the motivation and level of willingness to mentor and gender as the moderator between the motivation and level of engagement

| Coefficient          | Willingness | Engagement |
|----------------------|-------------|------------|
|                      | B | Beta  | t    | p   | B | Beta  | t    | p   |
| Intrinsic motivation | 0.04 | 0.45  | 5.84*** | 0.001 | 0.12 | 0.50  | 6.70*** | 0.001 |
| Extrinsic motivation | 0.01 | 0.05  | 0.69  | 0.492 | 0.01 | 0.05  | 0.69  | 0.494 |
| Gender               | -0.09 | -0.04 | -0.57 | 0.570 | 0.08 | 0.01  | 0.19  | 0.851 |
| Intrinsic motivation x gender | 0.09 | 0.08  | 1.09  | 0.277 | -0.20 | -0.06 | -0.84 | 0.405 |
| Extrinsic motivation x gender | -0.05 | -0.04 | -0.55 | 0.586 | -0.05 | -0.01 | -0.19 | 0.852 |

B – non-standardised coefficient of regression; Beta – standardised coefficient of regression; t – value of statistical relevance of predictor; p – statistical relevance; *** – p<0.001.

Table 5. Regression coefficient in age as the moderator between the motivation and level of willingness to mentor

| Coefficient          | Willingness | Engagement |
|----------------------|-------------|------------|
|                      | B | Beta  | t    | p   | B | Beta  | t    | p   |
| Intrinsic motivation | 0.04 | 0.45  | 5.84*** | 0.001 | 0.12 | 0.50  | 6.70*** | 0.001 |
| Extrinsic motivation | 0.01 | 0.05  | 0.69  | 0.492 | 0.01 | 0.05  | 0.69  | 0.494 |
| Gender               | -0.09 | -0.04 | -0.57 | 0.570 | 0.08 | 0.01  | 0.19  | 0.851 |
| Intrinsic motivation x gender | 0.09 | 0.08  | 1.09  | 0.277 | -0.20 | -0.06 | -0.84 | 0.405 |
| Extrinsic motivation x gender | -0.05 | -0.04 | -0.55 | 0.586 | -0.05 | -0.01 | -0.19 | 0.852 |

B – non-standardised coefficient of regression; Beta – standardised coefficient of regression; t – value of statistical relevance of predictor; p – statistical relevance; * – p<0.05; *** – p<0.001.
Motivational Factors to be a Mentor in Formal Mentoring in Organisations...

Table 6. Regression coefficient in career stage as the moderator between the motivation and level of willingness to mentor

| Coefficient            | Willingness          | Engagement         |
|------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
|                        | B        | Beta     | t     | p     | B        | Beta     | t     | p     |
| Intrinsic motivation   | 0.04     | 0.45     | 5.84*** | 0.001 | 0.12     | 0.50     | 6.70*** | 0.001 |
| Extrinsic motivation   | 0.01     | 0.05     | 0.69   | 0.492 | 0.01     | 0.05     | 0.69   | 0.494 |
| Gender                 | -0.09    | -0.04    | -0.57  | 0.570 | 0.08     | 0.01     | 0.19   | 0.851 |
| Intrinsic motivation x gender | 0.09 | 0.08     | 1.09   | 0.277 | -0.20    | -0.06    | -0.84  | 0.405 |
| Extrinsic motivation x gender | -0.05 | -0.04    | -0.55  | 0.586 | -0.05    | -0.01    | -0.19  | 0.852 |

B – non-standardised coefficient of regression; Beta – standardised coefficient of regression; t – value of statistical relevance of predictor; p – statistical relevance; * – p<0.05; *** – p<0.001.

Table 7. Regression coefficient in organisation size as the moderator between the motivation and level of willingness to mentor and regression coefficient in organisation size as the moderator between the motivation and level of engagement to mentor

| Coefficient                     | Willingness          | Engagement         |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
|                                  | B        | Beta     | t     | p     | B        | Beta     | t     | p     |
| Intrinsic motivation            | 0.02     | 0.29     | 1.94  | 0.059 | 0.14     | 0.59     | 4.42*** | 0.001 |
| Extrinsic motivation            | 0.02     | 0.21     | 1.37  | 0.177 | 0.00     | 0.02     | 0.12   | 0.901 |
| Organisation size               | -0.07    | -0.06    | -0.48 | 0.635 | 0.27     | 0.08     | 0.68   | 0.503 |
| Intrinsic motivation x Organisation size | 0.22 | 0.22    | 1.44  | 0.156 | 0.10     | 0.03     | 0.23   | 0.823 |
| Extrinsic motivation x Organisation size | -0.14 | -0.15    | -0.98 | 0.332 | 0.07     | 0.02     | 0.18   | 0.860 |

B – non-standardised coefficient of regression; Beta – standardised coefficient of regression; t – value of statistical relevance of predictor; p – statistical relevance; * – p<0.05; *** – p<0.001

No statistically significant interaction effects between gender, both kinds of the motivation and propensity to mentor – in both aspects – support the hypothesis that gender is not a moderator of the relation between them and the propensity to mentor. Gender does not influence the preferred kind of motivation to mentor.
The age as moderator was tested in two groups: managers below forty and above forty years old. As well as in the case of gender, no statistically significant interaction effects between age, both kinds of the motivation and propensity to mentor were observed. No support of the hypothesis that age is a moderator of the relation between them and the propensity to mentor was found. Yet, the results reveal a positive correlation between age and the engagement in mentoring.

Furthermore, the study tested career level in two groups: the first gathered line managers while, the second, general directors, and CEO. Similarly to other controls, no moderation effect of career level on the kind of motivation and propensity to mentor, in both aspects was observed. However, the results indicate a statistically significant positive correlation between the career level and willingness to mentor.

The examination of the moderation effect of organisation size and preferred motivation was carried out – in two groups of respondents: the first consisted of members of organisations with up to 250 employees while, the second, managers from organisations with more than 250 employees. In this case no moderation effect of size of organisation was observed as well.

### Self-benefits and others’ benefits motivation and the propensity to mentor

**Table 8.** Correlation coefficient between the level of intrinsic self-benefits motivation, intrinsic others’ benefits motivation, willingness to mentor, and engagement in mentoring

|                      | Self-benefits Motivation | Other’s benefits Motivation | Test     |
|----------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|----------|
|                      | r/ρ                       | P                          | r/ρ      | p        | Z        | p        |
| Willingness to mentor| 0,411**                  | 0,001                      | 0,409**  | 0,001    | 0,03     | 0,974    |
| Engagement into mentoring | 0,421**                  | 0,001                      | 0,359**  | 0,001    | 1,13     | 0,257    |

r – correlation coefficient Pearson; ρ – correlation coefficient ρ Spearman; p – one sided statistical relevance; ** – p <0,01; *** – p < 0,001.
Table 9. Regression coefficient in age as the moderator between the two kinds of intrinsic motivation and propensity to mentor (willingness and engagement)

| Predictors                        | Willingness       | Engagement        |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
|                                   | B     | Beta  | t    | p     | B     | Beta  | t    | p     |
| Self-benefits motivation          | 0.03  | 0.22  | 2.20*| 0.029 | 0.12  | 0.35  | 3.66**| 0.000 |
| Others benefits motivation        | 0.07  | 0.30  | 3.00**| 0.003 | 0.12  | 0.19  | 1.99* | 0.049 |
| Age                               | -0.04 | -0.03 | -0.47| 0.642 | 0.50  | 0.16  | 2.31* | 0.022 |
| Self-benefits motivation x age    | 0.03  | 0.03  | 0.28 | 0.777 | 0.05  | 0.02  | 0.17  | 0.868 |
| Others benefits motivation x age  | -0.04 | -0.04 | -0.36| 0.722 | -0.24 | -0.07 | -0.77 | 0.441 |

B – non standardised coefficient of regression; Beta – standardised coefficient of regression; t – value of statistical relevance of predictor; p – statistical relevance; * – p < 0.05; ** – p < 0.01.

Table 10. Regression coefficient in career level as the moderator between the two kinds of intrinsic motivation and propensity to mentor (willingness and engagement)

| Predictors                        | Willingness       | Engagement        |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
|                                   | B     | Beta  | t    | p     | B     | Beta  | t    | p     |
| Self-benefits motivation          | 0.03  | 0.22  | 2.20*| 0.029 | 0.12  | 0.35  | 3.66**| 0.000 |
| Others benefits motivation        | 0.07  | 0.30  | 3.00**| 0.003 | 0.12  | 0.19  | 1.99* | 0.049 |
| Age                               | -0.04 | -0.03 | -0.47| 0.642 | 0.50  | 0.16  | 2.31* | 0.022 |
| Self-benefits motivation x age    | 0.03  | 0.03  | 0.28 | 0.777 | 0.05  | 0.02  | 0.17  | 0.868 |
| Others benefits motivation x age  | -0.04 | -0.04 | -0.36| 0.722 | -0.24 | -0.07 | -0.77 | 0.441 |

B – non standardised coefficient of regression; Beta – standardised coefficient of regression; t – value of statistical relevance of predictor; p – statistical relevance; * – p < 0.05; ** – p < 0.01.

Hypothesis 3 concerns both kinds of intrinsic motivation – self-benefits and others’ benefits motivation – with their relation to the propensity to mentor, and the assumption that self-benefits motivate managers to mentor more than others’ benefits. However, the examination of the results in Table 8 does not confirm hypothesis 3.
Hypothesis 4 assumed that with age and career level, managers’ motivation to mentor inclines more toward others’ benefits and away from self-benefits. That is, because in early age and career stage managers focus more on their own development, and they give back to others – their experience and knowledge gained with the flow of time and development of career.

The results (Table 8) do not support hypothesis 4, which states that the two kinds of intrinsic motivation have the same importance for the propensity to mentor; hence, egoistic and altruistic motivation have equal importance regardless of age (Table 9) and career level (Table 10). Thus, we find no confirmation of hypothesis 4 for both aspects of the propensity to mentor – willingness and engagement.

**Extrinsic motivation**

Hypothesis 5 states that additional remuneration for mentoring does not motivate managers to mentor. We observe no significant statistical correlation between the additional remuneration for mentoring and willingness to mentor $\rho(166) = 0.024$, $p > 0.05$ and the engagement in mentoring $\rho(166) = -0.019$, $p > 0.05$. As the results supported hypothesis 5 it was confirmed that additional money does not motivate managers to take a role of a mentor.

**General discussion of the results**

Organisational practice and scientific research confirm that formal mentoring programmes are beneficial for mentees, mentors, and organisations. The latter apply mentoring programmes on a larger scale as an HR tool for employees’ development. One of the success factors of mentoring programmes is the knowledge what motivates managers to mentor.

The results of the current study enable a more comprehensive insight into the motivational factors to mentor others. First, the results provide support for managers’ high propensity to mentor in formal mentoring programmes. This contradicts conventional wisdom that managers overloaded with work are unwilling to mentor.

Second, the study finds that intrinsic motivation is the salient factor in the manager’s propensity to mentor, whereas extrinsic motivation exerts very little influence. Examination of control variables revealed that both men and women, managers of all ages,
at early and advanced stage of their career, when deciding to be a mentor, were directed only by intrinsic motivation.

Third, the results indicated that two kinds of intrinsic motivation – self-benefits motivation (development of professional competencies, learning and satisfaction of being a mentor) and others’ benefits motivation (contribution to other's life and to an organisation) are of similar importance when deciding to mentor throughout career development and regardless of the age of a manager. Aryee, Chay and Chew (1996) found that altruism is related to motivation to mentor others, while a study of Dutch managers suggests that “self serving drive” is a motivation to mentor (Emmerik, Baugh and Euwema, 2005, p. 320). Other researchers confirm that mentoring others is a pro-social attitude (Allen, 2003; Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994).

The current study reveals a new motivational pattern in decisions to mentor, which appears to be driven by both the egoistic “self-benefits” motivation and altruistic “others’ benefits “motivation to the same extent. It seems that managers regard mentoring others as a self-development tool and as well an expression of pro-social behaviour. Moreover, the results indicate that both kinds of intrinsic motivation are equally important in terms of the propensity to mentor for managers of every age and career stage.

The shift in the perception of a mentor’s role from altruistic attitude to the one serving also its own benefits is a reflection of the changing workplace. In modern times of turbulent organisational changes, when managers must change workplace more frequently, or work on contract basis as external specialists, they have to build relations by themselves, and thus continually develop their skills (Chandler and Kram, 2005, Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). As the mentor position offers opportunities for development, managers who decide to mentor may value this factor higher than before. This contention support 73% of the respondents, who ranked the development of their competencies among the top ten motivational factors to mentor. The new mentors’ motivational pattern confirmed in author’s research is congruent with Chandler and Kram’s concept of the new career context (2005).

The results support the Human Capital Theory, Generativity Theory (Becker, 1975, Erikson, 1963), and the conjecture of motivational pluralism (Batson and Show, 1991) that motivation to act may include self-benefits alongside others’ benefits.

Fourth, we observe that extrinsic motivation, HR strategy, and administrative support are not significant for managers when they take a decision to mentor, but the organisational factors gain in importance during mentoring process. In other words, external
motivation is a derivative of intrinsic motivation. The Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000) explains the mechanism of the transformation of motivation from extrinsic to intrinsic one. Extrinsic motivation may be internalised into intrinsic when a person acknowledges the external factors as crucial and integrates them into intrinsic motivation.

Fifth, the research finds that additional remuneration does not motivate managers to mentor because we observe no relation between extra money for mentoring and the propensity to mentor. Remuneration was ranked in the seventh position as one of the least significant of the ten motivational factors, thus supporting the results which suggest that financial motivation is unimportant. The current study provides no evidence to support the findings of Aryee et al. (1996) about the positive correlation between additional remuneration and the propensity to mentor.

The results of the study can be explained both by Maslow theory and the ERG theory. When mentoring others is regarded as an activity meeting the needs of belonging and self-actualisation, it will be undertaken – according to Maslow’s theory – only after the needs at the fundamental level are met. In this sense, the results of the study – no importance of financial reward on propensity to mentor – are consistent with Maslow theory and can be interpreted this way: a manager takes a role as a mentor that meets his higher needs after his fundamental need – financial security – is met. When this happens, initiation of new activities is not motivated by financial motives, as they no longer have importance.

In turn, the ERG theory states that people may realise the higher needs even without satisfying the existence needs. In the current study, managers declared the propensity to mentor driven by the higher needs (intrinsic motivation) but disinterested in extra financial rewards. The results of the current study are consistent with the results of the study at Illinois University proving that the realisation of belonging and growth’s needs is vital even if one has not satisfied the existence needs (Tay and Diener, 2011, p. 364).

Sixth, the ethical aspects of mentoring are the only motivational factor which relates negatively to both the willingness and engagement in mentoring. This indicates that the higher is the propensity to mentor, the regulations of code of conduct of mentoring relationship are regarded as less important. It suggests that motivated mentors do not bother about possibly risk connected with the adverse effects of serving as a mentor.
Organisational implications

Apart from theoretical implications, the results of the current study have practical implications in the area of organisational behaviour and mentoring practice. The finding that managers want to be mentors should encourage organisations to implement mentoring programmes without the fear of a shortage of prospective mentors.

The research delivers valuable guidelines for HR departments about the recruitment and selection of mentors. While previous investigation (Allen et al., 1997, Aryee et al., 1996) examined the propensity to mentor in relation to personality, the current study examine the propensity to mentor in relation to the behaviour of prospective mentors.

Should organisations learn about the results of this study, they may avoid appointing mentors and choose them from among the volunteers instead. According to the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), a declaration to participate in an activity is a good predictor that one will fulfil the commitment in the future. The results of the current study confirm that a strong declaration of willingness to mentor translates into a high level of declared engagement in mentoring.

The results that managers are directed uniquely by intrinsic motivation in propensity to mentor may be considered in designing the methodology of mentors’ selection. Planning HR tools appealing both to self-benefits and others’ benefits motivation of managers may help organisations to secure a pool of highly motivated mentors engaged in mentoring.

HR departments should perceive mentoring programmes as an HR tool that develops managers’ skills because the latter perceive mentoring as an excellent opportunity to enhance their competencies. The knowledge that managers see mentor’s role as helping others as well as the organisation may be used by HR practitioners to promote organisational citizenship behaviour and create an organisation with pro-social employees’ attitude.

The results indicate that managers at the advanced stage of their career – directors and CEOs – engage in mentoring more than line managers, which should encourage HR specialists to offer them the opportunities to mentor while recognising that some may not participate due to heavy workload and many responsibilities.

HR practitioners should recognise that intrinsic motivation is the unique driver to mentor others. Nevertheless, they should not neglect to offer organisational support.
to mentors. That is because the study reveals organisational factors may not be considered to be important when taking a decision to mentor but during a mentoring process they gain on importance. What managers value in HR strategy is the recognition of mentor’s competencies as leadership abilities and the assurance of the strategic importance of mentoring in an organization. HR departments should, thus, make proper arrangements for mentoring, which guarantee an ethical code of conduct and create an environment that supports the development of a mentoring culture.

**Research limitations**

There are limitations to the present research. First, the author collected all the data using self-reports and cross-sectionally, which makes the common method bias a concern. The research used convenience samples of Polish managers so further work must validate the results for other cultures as well as for different managerial functions such as marketing, sales, or finance. As the majority of the respondents (68.7%) work in organisations employing more than 250 employees, one should be cautious when transposing the conclusions of this research on smaller organisations.

**Originality/value**

The present study contributes to the existing research, theory, and practice of mentoring and ensures a better understanding of the motivational factors to mentor. Most previous studies analysed the mentee’s perspective (Allen, Russel and Maetzke, 1997, Chao et al., 1992; Kram, 1985; Noe, 1988; Ragins et al., 2000). The current study is one of the few conducted from the mentor’s perspective (Allen et al. 1997; 1997a; Ayree et al., 1996).

Moreover, the current study provides detailed information on the importance of motivational factors to mentor and comprehensively examines the intrinsic motivation responsible for the propensity to mentor. Finally, the author identifies the importance of different motivational factors for the propensity to mentor and finds a new pattern of motivational pluralism regarding the propensity to mentor.
References

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*: 179–211, https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T

Alderfer, C.P. (1972). *Existence, relatedness and growth*. New York: Free Press.

Allen, T.D. (2003). Mentoring others: A dispositional and motivational approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62*: 144–154, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00046-5

Allen, T.D. (2007). Mentoring relationships from the perspective of the mentor. In: B.R. Ragins and K.E. Kram (eds.), *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work: Theory, Research and Practice*: 123–147. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Allen, T.D., Lentz, E. and Day, R. (2006). Career Success Outcomes Associated With Mentoring Others. *Journal of Career Development, 32*(3): 272–285, https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845305282942

Allen, T.D. and Eby L.T. (eds.) (2007). *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring. A Multiply Perspectives Approach*. Blackwell Publishing, Malden, USA.

Allen, T.D. and Poteet, M.L. and Burroughs, S. (1997). The mentor’s perspective: A qualitative inquiry and agenda for future research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51*: 70–89.

Allen, T.D., Russel, J.E. and Maetzke, S.B. (1997a). Formal Peer Mentoring: Factors Related to Protages’ Satisfactions and Willingness to Mentor Others. *Group and Organizational Management, 21*: 488–507, https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601197224005

Ambrose, M.L. and Kulik, C.T. (1999). Old Friends, New Faces: Motivation Research in the 1990s, *Journal of Management, 25*(3): 231–292, https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639902500302

Aryee, S., Chay, Y.W. and Chew, J. (1996). The motivation to mentor among managerial employees. *Group and Organization Management, 21*(3): 261–277, https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601196213002

Batson, C.D. and Show, L.L. (1991). Encouraging words concerning the evidence for altruism. *Psychological Inquiry, 2*: 159–168, https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327965pi0202_17

Becker, G.S. (1975). *Human capital*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Beddoes-Jones, F. and Miller, J. (2006). ‘Virtual’ mentoring: can the principle of cognitive pairing increase its effectiveness? *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 4*(2): 54–60.

Bentler, P.M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*: 497–529, https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.107.2.238

Chandler, D.E. and Kram, K.E. (2005). Mentoring and Developmental Networks in the New Career Context. In: H. Gunz and M. Peiperl (eds.), *Handbook of Career Studies*. Sage Publications.

Chao, G.T., Walz, P.M. and Gardner, P.D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with non mentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology, 45*: 619–636, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1992.tb00863.x

Cranwell-Ward, J., Bassons, P. and Gover, S. (2004). *Mentoring. A Henley Review of Best Practice*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Daresh, J.C. (2004). Mentoring school leaders: Professional promise or predictable problems? *Educational Administration Quarterly, 40*(4): 495–517, https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X04267114

Deci, E.L., Koestner, R. and Ryan, R.M. (1999). A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*: 627–668, https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.6.627

Eby, L.T. and McManus, S.E. (2004). The protégé’s role in negative mentoring experiences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*: 255–275, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2003.07.001
Eby, L.T. and Ragins, B.R. (2008). Mentors' Perceptions of Negative Mentoring Experiences: Scale Development and Nomological Validation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(2): 358–373, https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.2.358

Ehrich, L.C. and Hansford, B. (1999). Mentoring: pros and cons for HRM. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 37*(3): 92–107. Obtained from: eprints.gut.edu.au (12.03.2014).

Emmerik, H.V., Baugh, S.G. and Euwema, M.C. (2005). *Career Development International, 10*(4): 310–324, https://doi.org/10.1007/13620430510609145

Erikson, E.H. (1963). *Childhood and society* (2 ed.). New York: W.W. Norton.

Feldman, D.C. (1999). Toxic mentors or toxic protégés? A critical re-examination of dysfunctional mentoring. *Human Resource Management Review, 9*: 247–278, https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(99)00021-2

Finkelstein, L.M. and Poteet, M.L. (2007). Formal Mentoring Programs. In: T.D. Allen and L.T. Eby (eds.), *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring. A Multiply Perspectives Approach*. Blackwell Publishing, Malden, USA.

Gagne, M., Forest, J., Gilbert, M.-H., Aube, C., Morin, E. and Malorni, A. (2010). *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 70*(4): 628–648, https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164409355698

Higgins, M.C. (2001). Career change: a social influence perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*: 595–618.

Higgins, M.C. and Kram, K.E. (2001). Reconceptualizing Mentoring at Work: A Developmental Network Perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 26*(2): 264–288, https://doi.org/10.1002/job.104

Jacoby, D. (1989). Rewards make the mentor. *Personnel, 66*(12): 10–14.

Kram, K.E. (1985). *Mentoring at Work*. Maryland: University Press of America.

Maslow, A.H. (1943). *Theory of Human Motivation*, *Psychological Review, 50*: 372–383, https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054346

Mckinnon, J., Jollie, C. and Hatter, M. (2007). *Mentoring: Theory and Practice*. Obtained from: http://www.faculty.londondeanery.ac.uk (19.07.13).

Meggison, D., Chatterbuck, D., Garvey, B., Strokes, P. and Garrett-Harris, R. (2006). *Mentoring In Action: A Practical Guide for Managera*. Kogan Page.

Mullen, E. (1994). Framing the mentoring relationship in an information exchange. *Human Resource Management Review, 4*: 257–281, https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(94)90015-9

Newby, T.J. and Heide, A. (1992). The value of mentoring. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 5*(4): 2–15, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1937-8327.1992.tb00562.x

Noe, R.A. (1988). An investigation of the determinants of successful assigned mentoring relationships. *Personnel Psychology, 41*: 457–479, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1988.tb00638.x

Levinson, D.J., Darrow, C.N., Klein, E.B., Levinson, M.A. and McKee, B. (1978). *Season's of a man's life*. New York: Knopf.

Passmore, J., Peterson, D.B. and Freire, T. (eds.) (2013). *The Wiley-Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Coaching and Mentoring*. The Wiley-Blackwell, Malden, USA.

Ragins, B.R., Cotton, J.L. and Miller, J.S. (2000). Marginal Mentoring: The Effects of Type of Mentor, Quality of Relationship, and Program Design on Work and Career Attitudes. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*: 1177–1194, https://doi.org/10.2307/1556344

Ragins, B.R. and Kram, K.E. (eds.) (2007). *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work: Theory, Research, and Practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Ragins, B.R. and Scandura, T.A. (1994). Gender differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*: 957–971, https://doi.org/10.2307/256606
Ragins, B.R. and Scandura, T.A. (1999). Burden or blessing? Expected costs and benefits of being a mentor. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*: 493–509, https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199907)20:4<493::AID-JOB894>3.0.CO;2-T

Ramaswami, A. and Dreher, G.F. (2010). The benefits associated with workplace mentoring relationships. In: T.D. Allen and L.T. Eby (eds.), *Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach*. London: Blackwell.

Ryan, R. and Deci, E.L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*: 54–67, https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020

Scandura, T.A. and Schriesheim, C.A. (1994). Leader–member exchange and supervisory career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*: 1588–1602, https://doi.org/10.2307/256800

Steiger, J.H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 25*: 173–180, https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr2502_4

Stokes, P. and Merrick, L. (2013). Designing Mentoring Schemes for Organizations. In: J. Passmore, J. Peterson and D.B. Freire (eds.), *Handbook of the Psychology of Coaching and Mentoring*. The Wiley-Blackwell, Maiden, USA.

Sullivan, R. and Baruch, Y. (2009). Advances in Career Theory and Research: A Critical Review and Agenda for Future Exploration. *Journal of Management, 35*(6): 1542–1570, https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309350082

Tay, L. and Diener, E. (2011). Needs and Subjective Well-being Around the World. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 101*(2): 354–365, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023779

Waha, M.A. and Bridwell, L.G. (1976). Maslow Reconsidered. A Review of Research on the Need Hierarchy Theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 15*: 212–240, https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(76)90038-6