MENTORING IN THE PUBLIC AND NONPROFIT SECTORS

by

MARY KATHLEEN FEENEY

(Under the Direction of Barry Bozeman)

ABSTRACT

Despite the largess of mentoring literature, there is little research investigating mentoring in the public and nonprofit sectors and even less research comparing mentoring in the two sectors. Mentoring programs have become increasingly popular in both sectors, making it more important to understand how mentoring affects career outcomes in each sector. This dissertation investigates two research questions related to mentoring outcomes in the public and nonprofit sectors. (1) Does mentoring affect protégé time spent at work and organizational involvement? (2) How do protégé time spent at work and organizational involvement vary by sector? By investigating these two research questions and focusing on protégé career outcomes and variation in mentoring outcomes, by sector, this research addresses two significant limitations of the current mentoring literature. First, this dissertation compares work behavior outcomes for mentored and nonmentored individuals. Second, it tests for sectoral differences in mentoring outcomes by first comparing a split sample of public and nonprofit sector employees and second, using multilevel modeling to isolate the relationships between individual-level and group-level factors that affect the career outcomes of mentoring.

The results indicate that having had a mentor has a significant affect on the amount of time a protégé spends at work and the protégé's organizational involvement. Second, the affect

of mentoring on time spent at work and organizational involvement significantly varies by sector, producing larger effects for protégés in the nonprofit sector compared to public sector. Third, the results of the multilevel models indicate that, for mentored respondents, a larger proportion of the variance in time spent at work and organizational involvement is explained by the group level factors of organization age, size, and sector than the individual level factors of work motivation, job history, current job characteristics, mentorship type, and demographic characteristics.

INDEX WORDS: Mentor, Mentoring, Public Sector, Nonprofit sector, Organizational Involvement, Time at work

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DEDICATION

To my mom

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring is a relationship where a more experienced, skilled, or knowledgeable person (the mentor) provides a junior person (the protégé) with intense support including career and personal advice, modeling about career development behaviors, and personal psychosocial support such as friendship and emotional support in order to improve work skills, enhance understanding of the organization, expand networks, and provide support and advice to get ahead in the job or profession (Clawson & Kram 1984; Eby 1997; Eby *et al.* 2004; Hunt & Michael 1983; Kram 1980; 1983; 1985; Ragins 1997). In a mentorship, both the protégé and the mentor can contribute to and benefit from the relationship. Mentoring has long been of interest to scholars and considered an important human resource tool in organizations. Having a mentor has been associated with increased salary, promotion, and performance of protégés, accelerated learning, an expansion of skills and knowledge, strengthened social and professional networks and collaborations, and increased organizational flexibility, transfer of knowledge, and organizational loyalty and commitment. In response to these findings, many organizations of all types have sought to promote mentoring among employees. Indeed, mentoring programs abound.

Government agencies, at all levels, and many nonprofit organizations have adopted mentoring programs. These programs range from encouraging mentorships to intentionally matching protégés and mentors based on similar interests and professional goals. For example, since 2002, the Academy for Education Development, a large nonprofit dedicated to social change, has been implementing a mentoring program based

on formal mentor and protégé matching (Williams 2005). The Coro Fellows Program in Public Affairs and the Frances Hesselbein Community Innovation Fellows Program, include formal mentorships as a component of their nonprofit leadership development programs. In 1990, the U.S. Coast Guard established a mentoring program which promotes diversity by using a computer program to assign mentors and protégés who differ from one another by race and ethnic origin among other factors. The National Institutes of Health (NIH) promote mentoring of junior employees through four programs and contracted the consulting firm Total Learning Solutions to design a formal mentoring program to help employees in positions below GS-8 advance in government, not necessarily the NIH (Garnett 2003). Meanwhile, the federal Departments of Transportation and Energy publish mentoring guides. These are just a few examples that mentoring is a ubiquitous concern which can be found in many public and nonprofit organizations.

Mentoring has become an increasingly important tool to attract a new generation of talent and mid-career experienced personnel to the government workforce (Partnership 2005a) and the nonprofit sector workforce (Halpern 2006). Nonprofit organizations have encouraged mentoring programs to increase the retention of talent (Stannard-Friel 2007) and develop new leaders within the sector and encourage individuals to transition into executive leadership positions (Halpern 2006, 5). Government mentoring programs are credited with attracting new talent to the public sector, enabling agencies to identify talented potential hires, reducing job turnover, increasing productivity and satisfaction, and furthering professional development and knowledge transfer (NIST 2002; GAO 2005b). Mentoring is also believed to increase morale among mentors and protégés (DOT

2006); further agency missions, values, programs, and goals (NIST 2002; DHHS 2005; DOT 2006); enhance protégé exposure to organizational culture and acculturation into public service; and develop protégé understanding of public sector career opportunities (DHHS 2005). Government agencies use mentoring as a means of promoting diversity (GAO 2005a, 21). For example, the Oklahoma Office of Personnel Management offers a mentoring program to develop the skills of women, racial minorities, and individuals with disabilities, while the Department of Energy reports that about 60% of the participants in its mentoring program are women (OPM 1998, 15).

Despite increasing research on the possible dark sides of mentoring and dysfunctional mentorships (Eby & Allen 2002; Eby *et al*. 2000; Feldman 1999; Scandura 1998; Simon & Eby 2003), many organizations pursue mentoring as a fully positive human resource tool. Government agencies have adopted mentoring as a method for training and retaining talent and increasing representative bureaucracy (GAO 2005b; OPM 1998; Partnership 2005a). Nonprofit organizations have adopted mentoring programs to develop volunteers and managers (Hartenian 2007); transfer knowledge from founder-executives to the next generation of managers; retain diverse and creative talent dedicated to nonprofit missions; and further staff development to expand organizational capacity (Williams 2005, 3). Unfortunately, nonprofit and government organizations have developed mentoring programs and encouraged mentoring among their employees with little to no understanding of how mentorships may be distinct in government and nonprofit organizations. This research seeks to expand our understanding of mentoring in the public and nonprofit sectors.

Public and Nonprofit Mentoring Research

Although there are over 30 years of mentoring research, including dissertations, research articles, books, training manuals, and normative accounts about mentoring, there is little academic research focusing on mentoring in the public and nonprofit sectors. For example, a search of the terms "mentor" and "mentoring" in major public administration, public management, and nonprofit management journals between 1995 and 2005 turned up a paltry number of mentoring research articles compared to the number of mentoring research articles in generic management, business, and human resources journals.

For example, I searched for mentoring studies in major nonprofit journals. I focused this search on the three most prominent general purpose journals in the field of nonprofit sector studies: Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, Nonprofit Management and Leadership, and Voluntas – International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations (Brudney & Herman 2004). A search for the terms "mentor" and "mentoring" in these journals resulted in two mentoring research articles. The terms mentor and mentoring do not appear in any articles in Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly nor in Voluntas. The terms appear in two articles in Nonprofit Management and Leadership. The first article finds that alumni donors are more likely to have had a mentor in college, compared to alumni who do not donate (Clotfelter 2001). The second article finds that role playing and mentoring is an effective human resource strategy for training direct (point-of-service) volunteers (Hartenian 2007).

I then searched for mentoring research articles in four top public administration journals: Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory, Public Administration Review (PAR), Public Administration, and American Review of Public Administration,

which were selected due to their 2005 journal impact factors[1] (Thomson Scientific 2005). Between 1995 and 2005, there were a total of six articles in these public administration journals which have the terms mentor or mentoring in the text. However, two of those articles (Slack *et al*. 1996 and Schroeder *et al*. 2004) which appear in PAR were concerned with mentoring public administration scholars and not mentoring government employees or managers in the public sector, leaving a total of four mentoring research articles published between 1995 and 2005 which investigate mentoring in the public sector (Crewson & Fisher 1997; Kelly 1998; Fox & Schuhmann 2001; Hale 1995). The limited amount of mentoring research focusing on the public and nonprofit sectors is striking compared to the number of research articles in generic business, management, and human resources journals.

Research Questions and Data

Mentor programs in the public and nonprofit sectors abound, while the academic research on mentoring in these two sectors, does not. In addition to contributing to the mentoring research focusing on the public and nonprofit sectors, this research investigates how mentoring is related to work behavior. In general, empirical mentoring research focuses on (1) career outcomes such as increases in salary (Scandura 1992; Ng *et al.* 2005), job mobility (Scandura 1992), turnover (Scandura & Viator 1994), and promotion and career progress (Bozionelos 2004; Fagenson 1989; Allen *et al.* 2004); (2) perceptual outcomes such as satisfaction with the mentorship (Eby *et al.* 2000; Ragins *et*

[1] According to Thomson Scientific the journals had the following journal impact scores in 2005: *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory* (Impact Factor 1.451, 2005 Total Cites 416; 2005 Articles 28); *Public Administration Review* (PAR) (Impact Factor 1.099, 2005 Total Cites 1197; 2005 Articles 56); *Public Administration* (Impact Factor 0.924, 2005 Total Cites 580; 2005 Articles 43);, and *American Review of Public Administration* (Impact Factor 0.615, 2005 Total Cites 120; 2005 Articles 23).

al. 2000), and career satisfaction (Aryee & Chay 1994; Chao 1997; Heimann & Pittenger 1996) and the expansion of professional networks (Friedkin 1978); and (3) the composition and characteristics of mentorships, including investigations of the gender or racial match in mentorships (Baugh *et al.* 1996; Burke *et al.* 1990; Clawson & Kram 1984; Kelly *et al.* 1991; Thomas 1990), the formal or informal matching of mentors and protégés (Chao *et al.* 1992;), and whether or not the mentor is the protégé's supervisor (Burke *et al.* 1991; Scandura & Schriescheim 1994; Tepper 1995). To a lesser extent, mentoring research investigates how engaging in mentoring relationships alters work behavior. For example, Aryee and Chay (1994) researched how mentoring affects work commitment and Tepper (1995) investigated how having a mentor serves as a socialization tool to enhance a protégé's ability to communicate with superiors.

This study is concerned with increasing our understanding of the affects of mentoring on work behavior, while accounting for career and perceptual factors and controlling for mentorship characteristics. I utilize two dependent variables to measure work behavior: time spent at work and organizational involvement. These work behavior outcome measures are important because they indicate a change in behavior which is important to both public and nonprofit organizations. An individual's organizational involvement can have long term affects on the organization and sector through participation, socialization, and possible relationships to job turnover and tenure. Likewise, time spent at work, whether interpreted as a positive or negative work behavior the individual, greatly affects the ability of organization's to achieve their missions and helps to define the expectations of colleagues, subordinates, and superiors and work life in the sector. Finally, these two outcomes measures are important because they are not

typical reasons for why a person would enter into a mentorship. Most protégés and mentors would not engage in mentorships in order to affect time spent at work or organizational involvement, but these two outcomes could provide significant affects on an organization's daily operations, quality of work life, and ability to attract and retain employees. Because public and nonprofit organizations have adopted mentoring programs with the intention of increasing attraction and retention to their respective organizations and sectors, it is important to empirically measure if having a mentor affects organizational involvement and time spent at work and how these relationships may or may not vary by sector.

This research seeks to investigate whether or not mentoring affects protégé time spent at work and organizational involvement and how those affects vary by sector, using traditional ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to compare mentored individuals to nonmentored individuals and then to compare mentored individuals in the public sector with those in the nonprofit sector. This research also uses multilevel modeling techniques to investigate the variance in mentoring outcomes, by sector. The multilevel models illustrate sector distinctions in mentoring by allocating variance in time spent at work and organizational involvement to individual and group level factors. By investigating these two research questions with OLS and multilevel models this research will expand our understanding of tangible work behavior outcomes of mentoring and more important, this research will demonstrate how work behavior outcomes vary due to individual and sector factors. This research brings together the mentoring and sector distinction literatures to better understand how mentoring, an important human resource tool, shapes work

behavior which may be an antecedent to retention for both public and nonprofit organizations and sector.

The hypotheses are tested with variables developed from the NASP-III questionnaire which investigates work perceptions, job history, and mentoring among public and nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois. The NASP-III survey was administered to a sample of public and nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois from multiple agency and department functions. The NASP-III survey was closed in January 2006 with 1220 responses and a response rate of 39% percent. More than half of the respondents report having had a mentor.

This study addresses the primary research questions (1) how does mentoring affect protégé time spent at work and organizational involvement and (2) how does time spent at work and organizational involvement vary by sector, in the following format. In Chapter Two, I present a set of generic hypotheses and a model about the role of mentoring in shaping protégé outcomes. I then present the public management and nonprofit management literatures which lead me to expect that mentoring outcomes will vary by sector. In Chapter Three, I present a set of sector specific mentoring hypotheses and a sector specific model of mentoring within the context of the relevant literature. Chapter Four presents the sector specific models using multilevel modeling techniques in order to determine what proportion of the relationships between mentoring and mentoring outcomes are related to individual and group (sector) factors. I conclude with a summary of findings and a discussion of future sector based mentoring research in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 2

MENTORING OUTCOMES: GENERIC MODEL

Research and Theory on Mentoring Outcomes

Although researchers have long been interested in mentoring (Cameron 1978; Collins 1978; Levinson *et al*. 1978; Clawson 1979; Roche 1979), the popularity of modern mentoring research can be attributed to Kathy Kram (1980; 1985). Kram defined mentoring as an intense relationship whereby a senior or more experienced person (the mentor) provides two functions for a junior person (the protégé), one function being advice or modeling about career development behaviors and the second function being personal psychosocial support such as friendship and emotional support.

Researchers have continued to work with and extend Kram's definition. Eby (1997: 126) defined mentoring as "an intense developmental relationship whereby advice, counseling, and developmental opportunities are provided to a protégé by a mentor, which, in turn, shapes the protégé's career experiences." Many researchers (Chao 1997; Ragins 1997b) use close variants of this definition or have distinguished among types of mentoring such as "primary mentoring" and "secondary mentoring" (i.e. less intense and shorter duration) (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher 1991). Other researchers have proposed alternative forms of mentoring such as peer and group mentoring (Bozionelos 2004; Eby 1997; Dansky 1996), lateral mentoring among individuals who are at comparable organizational levels in regard to pay, status, and authority (Eby 1997), and diversified mentoring, relationships where individuals of different racial, ethnic, or gender groups engage in mentoring (Ragins, 1997a, 1997b). The wide array of mentoring definitions and type found in the literature requires the specification of this important

term. Drawing from previous mentoring research, for the purposes of this study, I use the following definition:

> *Mentoring is a developmental relationship between two colleagues where one person has more experience or authority than the other. Mentoring may include helping another person with improving work skills, understanding the organization, providing information about "getting ahead" in the job or profession, and giving personal or emotional support.*

Using the above definition, in the next section with the support of the relevant academic literature on career outcomes and mentoring, I propose hypotheses related to mentoring and the following protégé career outcomes: time spent working and organizational involvement.[2]

Hypotheses and Literature: Generic Mentoring

Time Spent at Work

There are various factors, both positive and negative, which may drive an individual to work longer or shorter hours. First, an employee may feel pressure from colleagues to work after 5 pm or she may believe that her ability to get a promotion rests on the perception that she is dedicated to her work and willing to put in extra time in the office. Second, an individual may work long hours over the weekend because he is overloaded with tasks which must be completed before a particular date. A third employee may work extended hours because it takes him a longer number of hours to complete tasks that others do in a shorter time period. Likewise, there are numerous reasons why an individual may spend less time at work. An employee may leave work

[2] This definition implies that the mentorship is an inherently positive experience. While there is research investigating the negative outcomes of mentoring, this definition asks individuals if they have had mentorships which result in "improving work skills, understanding the organization, providing information about "getting ahead" in the job or profession, and giving personal or emotional support." This definition

early each day to fulfill family commitments. A second employee may be an efficient worker who is able to complete tasks ahead of schedule and rewards herself by leaving work early. It is intuitive that the decision to work extended hours or less than average hours is related to personality, individual commitments, career expectations, and personal choice.

Just as there are many reasons why an individual may spend more or less time at work, there are a variety of outcomes which can emerge from the number of hours an individual works. These outcomes could be positive or negative for the individual, the organization, or both. Spending less time at work may be an indication of healthy life-work balance. It is possible that individuals who spend an excessive amount of time at work do so at the expense of leisure and family, thus penalizing their loved ones in favor of the workplace. On the other hand, working longer hours could be an indication of strong commitment to the organization, its mission, and one's colleagues.

The literature investigating the number of hours individuals dedicate to work identifies both positive and negative outcomes from working longer than average hours. Researchers typically investigate the number of hours worked through the lens of workaholism or overworking. Workaholics, a term first coined by Oates (1971), are defined as individuals who are driven by an inner motivation, or over-commitment, to work (Seybold & Salomon 1994; Spence & Robbins 1992). Researchers (Machlowitz 1980; Snir & Zohar 2002) describe workaholism as an approach or attitude to work, characterized by the steady allocation of time and thoughts to work-related activity, rather than hours worked alone. Although Oates characterized workaholism as a negative

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precludes negative mentoring, since a relationship which results in negative outcomes and career sabotage would not qualify as a mentorship.

behavior which could be detrimental to an individual's health, relationships, and happiness, more recent research (Machlowitz 1980; Scott *et al.* 1997) argues that overworking, defined as extra hours on the job, can be related to both positive and negative outcomes such as increased performance, job satisfaction, turnover, and personal satisfaction.

Overworking generally includes working more than 40 hours a week, sometimes in order to do the work of others. However, Mosier (1983) defined overworking as working more than 50 hour a week, while Grosch and colleagues (2006) developed categories of over-working ranging from lower overtime (41-48 hours) to higher overtime (70+ hr/week). Overtime work is related to increased job stress and increased participation in work-related decision making (Grosch *et al.* 2006). The research on overworking (Fassel 1990; Garfield 1987; Kiechel 1989a; Killinger 1991; Klaft & Leriner 1988; Machlowitz 1980; Spruel 1987; Weddell 1993) has found that the number of hours worked affects health (Grosch *et al*. 2006), occupational health (Jeffrey & Lipscomb 2006), leisure time, daily moods, alcohol consumption (Jones *et al*. 2006), and family relationships (Robinson 2001). Research also shows that overworking is related to individual demographics, personal beliefs and fears, work situation characteristics, and perceptions of organizational support of work-personal life imbalance (Burke 2001). For example, overtime workers compared to full-time workers are more likely to be white, male, and middle-aged, with higher levels of education (Grosch *et al.* 2006).

Even though research indicates that increases in hours worked results in lower time and energy given to families (Blair-Loy & Jacobs 2003) and affects men and women in different ways (Harpaz & Snir 2003), work hours alone do not necessarily indicate

negative or positive outcomes for workers (Bonebright *et al.* 2000). Excessive work behavior can result in positive outcomes such as personal happiness (Machlowitz 1978; 1980, Peiperl & Jones 2001). Furthermore overtime work is associated with increased levels of participation in decision making and opportunities to develop special abilities in the work place (Friedman & Lobel 2003). In addition, individuals who happily overwork can serve as role models for balancing work and personal life and help to develop committed people in the organization and encourage employees to realize the company's goals (Friedman & Lobel 2003).

This research is concerned with investigating the time spent at work as a behavioral outcome of mentoring relationships, regardless of whether or not working longer hours is a positive or negative outcome for the individual, the organization, or both. As an analogy, consider a research project which investigates how organization size and structure affect profits, management techniques, processing systems, and other outcomes. One can accept that organization size and structure have important effects without necessarily encouraging organizations to be larger or to be more or less hierarchical. To develop those types of recommendations, one would require a contingency theory of organization size and structure. Returning to the importance of understanding the relationship between mentoring and time spent at work, before developing a contingency theory of time spent at work, it is critical to first understand aspects, causalities, and various factors related to time spent at work – such as mentoring.

To date there is no mentoring research investigating the relationship between having had a mentor and time spent at work. Previous mentoring research has focused on outcomes such as managerial career aspirations and expectations (Baugh *et al.* 1996;

Godshalk & Sosik 2003; Scandura 1997); job and career satisfaction (Baugh *et al.* 1996; Chao 1997; Chao *et al.* 1992; Eby *et al.* 2000; Eby & Allen 2002; Scandura 1997; Scandura & Viator 1994; Whitely & Coetsier 1993); advancement and performance (Eby *et al.* 2000; Scandura & Viator 1994); organizational socialization and commitment (Baugh *et al.* 1996; Chao 1997; Chao *et al.* 1992; Scandura, 1997); salary (Chao 1997; Chao *et al.* 1992; Scandura & Viator 1994); and workplace stress and depressed moods (Eby & Allen 2002; Eby *et al.* 2000). Mentoring studies (Eby & Allen 2002; Scandura 1998) have also found that having a mentor is associated with reduced absenteeism and turnover.

Since mentoring is related to increased organizational commitment and reduced absenteeism, it follows that having a mentor may be related to the amount of time the protégé spends at work each week. The reasoning here is that having a mentor results in increased organizational commitment for the protégé which in turn enhances the protégé's desire to work hard to achieve the organization's goals. Moreover, the personal relationship between the mentor and protégé may increase the protégé's desire to meet the expectations of the mentor, which most likely include working hard and when necessary, working longer hours. In essence, mentors act as a personal reason to spend time at work, as a protégé does not want to let down the mentor. I predict that respondents who have had a mentor will report spending more time at work, compared to those without a mentor.

> *H_1: Having had a mentor will positively affect the amount of time an individual spends at work.*

Organizational Involvement

Mentoring research has identified numerous ways in which organizations benefit from successful mentoring. Research also indicates that mentoring can benefit organizations by developing managerial skills among junior members (Ragins & Scandura 1994) including increasing interpersonal skills, productivity, and networks among employees (Willbur 1987). Mentoring can include the transmission of tacit knowledge and encourages the growth of social and emotional support in the workplace by furthering a sense of community and shared experience among mentors and protégés (Busch 1985; Olian *et al.* 1993; Ragins & Scandura 1994; 1999) and creating an organization-wide mentoring culture (Bozionelos 2004; Ragins & Scandura 1999). Mentoring can serve as a support network within organizations by furthering a sense of community and shared experience among mentors and protégés. Managers who are both mentors and protégés report that mentoring is an investment in the development of future managers within the organization and a useful tool for transferring knowledge and networking within the organization (Singh *et al*. 2002). In summary, effective mentoring can simultaneously produce positive outcomes for individuals and organizations.

Involvement in the organization is an important measure of work effort and dedication and commitment to the organization. For example, an employee that puts forth her best effort to get the job done, regardless of the difficulties, and another employee that does extra work for his job that is not really expected of him, both contribute to the organization through not only their work, but through their dedication and commitment. Because a great deal of mentoring research focuses on self-reported satisfaction with the mentorship, there remains a need for research on non-perceptual mentoring outcomes, in

particular outcomes for the organization such as research investigating the impact of mentoring on career advancement and organizational citizenship (Green & Bauer 1995; Russell & Adams 1997). The research proposed here begins to fill this gap in the mentoring literature by investigating organizational involvement as an outcome of mentoring relationships.

Previous public administration research investigating organizational commitment and involvement has produced mixed and inconclusive results (Balfour & Wechsler 1990; 1991; 1996; Hoy & Sousa 1984; Kline & Peters 1991; White 1995). These mixed results are most likely related to the a variety of definitions of the terms "public" and "private" and variations in scales used to operationalize organizational commitment and involvement. While organizational commitment and involvement have been measured in a great many ways (Balfour & Wechsler 1990; 1996; Mowday *et al.* 1979; Steinhaus & Perry 1996; White 1995) and often with overlapping meanings, my own measure of organizational involvement draws items from the scales developed by Lodahl & Kejnar (1965), Mowday and colleagues (1979), and Balfour and Wechsler (1996).

The measure of organizational involvement used here is built from fewer items than traditional measures of job involvement (Lodahl & Kejnar 1965; Brown 1969; Brown 1996; Blau & Boal 1987; 1989) and organizational commitment (Blau & Boal 1987; 1989; Penley & Gould 1988; Thornton 1970; Romzek & Hendricks 1982). Job involvement is typically measured by asking respondents various items about the importance of work as a source of personal satisfaction, the level of personal involvement at work, and the importance of work in the individual's life. For example, Lodahl and Kejnar (1965) use 20 items to develop their scale of job involvement (See Appendix A).

Organizational commitment, on the other hand, has both instrumental and affective elements and is typically measured by asking respondents about the individual's dedication to the organization and feelings of personal responsibility for the organization's success. Organizational commitment scales typically contain multiple items, for example both Penley & Gould (1988) and Mowday and colleagues (1979) developed 15 item scales. Meanwhile, Balfour and Wechsler (1996) developed a typology of organizational commitment and found that government employees exhibit different types of organizational commitment, including (1) exchange commitment; (2) affiliation commitment; (3) identification commitment; (4) direct service to the public/customer; (5) political interference; and (6) participation in decision-making. Given this variation in organizational commitment and job involvement scales, this research draws from a few select items to capture organizational involvement.

The NASP-III questionnaire asked respondents to respond to a series of items similar, but not identical to Lodahl and Kejnar's job involvement scale and Mowday and colleagues' and Balfour and Wechsler's organizational commitment scale. The organizational involvement scale used in this research is built from a series of items related to the individual's involvement at work and views of the organization, thus capturing both job and organizational involvement. Organizational involvement is distinct because it accounts for commitment to and pride in the organization and its mission. Research (Brown 1969) indicates that an individual identifies with an organization when she perceives that the organization provides opportunities for personal achievement and when individual workers have power within the organization. In this research, organizational involvement, aims to capture this mixture of personal

achievement and job involvement and a desire to advance the organization, which is most likely tied to the types of personal relationships within the organization that typically develop through mentoring.

Understanding the relationship between mentoring and organizational involvement is important because organizational involvement can affect turnover and absenteeism in organizations (Blau & Boal 1987; 1989; Huselid & Day 1991). If mentoring plays a role in increasing individual protégés' organizational involvement, it follows that mentoring can result in positive outcomes for organizations such as reduced absenteeism and turnover. Furthermore, organizational involvement can also affect organizational performance since increased strategic involvement among middle managers is positively associated with organizational performance (Wooldridge & Floyd 1990). Given previous findings from mentoring research linking mentoring to organizational commitment (Chao 1997; Chao *et al.* 1992; Scandura 1997), I predict that respondents who have had a mentor will report higher organizational involvement than nonmentored respondents.

> *H_2: Having had a mentor will positively affect individual organizational involvement.*

Figure 1 illustrates the investigation of mentoring outcomes among all NASP-III respondents, showing that those who have had a mentor will report increased outcomes compared to those without a mentor.

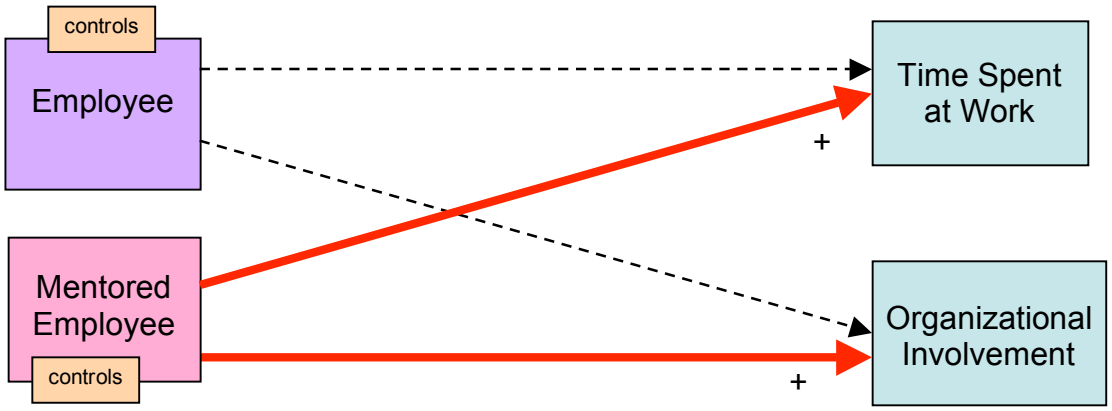

Figure 1: Generic Concept of Mentoring Outcomes

The individual employees, at the left side of the diagram, and the individuals' demographic characteristics such as race, gender, and age influence the outcomes of time spent at work and organizational involvement. Mentoring theory and research lead me to expect that outcomes will vary for those employees who have had a mentor. More specifically, the diagram illustrates the hypotheses that having had a mentor, compared to not having had a mentor, will result in increased organizational involvement and time spent at work.

Data and Methods: Generic Mentoring

The generic mentoring hypotheses (H_1 and H_2) are operationalized with variables developed from the NASP-III questionnaire, a survey of 1849 public managers and 1307 nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois from organizations of numerous functions. The predecessors to NASP-III focused on work perceptions and sector differences between state managers and between public and private managers. In 1992, NASP-I compared state managers in New York, Colorado, and Florida. In 2003, NASP-II expanded to include managers in 50 states but focused on state health policy and was

limited to managers in state departments of health and human services. This newest version, NASP-III, closed in January 2006, continues to expand our empirical knowledge of public management.

The NASP-III survey was administered to a sample of public and nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois from multiple agency and department functions. These two states were selected because both Georgia and Illinois are strong representatives of the U.S. at large. According to the Associated Press, which ranked Census data from each state and the District of Columbia on how closely it matched the national averages on 21 factors such as age, race, education, income, industrial mix, immigration, and proportion of people living in urban and rural areas, Illinois ranked first as the most representative of the nation and Georgia ranked sixth. Illinois and Georgia are similar in industrial mix, education levels, and migration (National Public Radio 2007) and both states are generally representative of the U.S. population. However, although Georgia and Illinois both have large urban and rural communities and are similar in geographic area (Illinois is 55,583 square miles and Georgia is 57,906 square miles), they have strikingly different cultural, political, and bureaucratic environments. Nationwide, Georgia is one of the leading states for government human resources reform including the dissolution of civil service and the expansion of at-will-employment, while Illinois has a history of strong unions and centralized human resource management.

Georgia and Illinois, though largely representative of the nation on demographic characteristics, are distinct in their representation of nonprofit organizations. According to the Urban Institute's National Center for Charitable Statistics (2007) summary of nonprofit organizations in the states, Illinois is a popular location for nonprofit

organizations. For example, in 2006, there were 59,807 nonprofit organizations in Illinois, compared to only 33,017 in Georgia. In a ranking of the number of nonprofits, by state, Illinois ranks sixth in the nation and Georgia number fourteen. Nonprofits in Illinois report a total revenue of about 71 billion, a little more than twice as high as Georgia. Illinois ranks third in total nonprofit assets compared to Georgia which ranks seventeenth out of all 50 states and the District of Columbia. Compared to the overall distribution of nonprofit organizations in the U.S., Illinois is home to 4.4% and Georgia is home to 2.4% of all nonprofit organizations in the U.S. (National Center for Charitable Statistics 2007).

Although Illinois is the home to more nonprofit organizations than Georgia, the distribution of nonprofit organizational types in Georgia is more representative of the national numbers on nonprofit organizations. For example, nationwide 23.5% of public charities registered with the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) are reporting public charities, 20% are operating public charities, and 3.5% are supporting public charities, compared to 23.4%, 20.2%, and 3.2% in Georgia, respectively. Looking at other 501(c) nonprofit organizations nationwide, the most common type is civic leagues (7.9%) followed by fraternal beneficiary societies; business leagues; labor, agricultural, and horticultural organizations; social and recreational clubs; post or organization of war veterans; and other nonprofits. The order of 501(c) nonprofit organization types in Georgia is the same as the national rankings, however, in Illinois the most common nonprofit type is fraternal beneficiary societies (9.9%) followed by business leagues (7.1%) and civic leagues and social welfare organizations (6.6%). The distribution of public charities, private foundations, and other nonprofits in Georgia and Illinois are also distinct from one

another. A lower percent of nonprofits in Illinois are public charities (53.9%) compared to the percent of public charities in Georgia (66.7%) and the US (61.2%). Meanwhile 8.3% of Illinois nonprofit organizations are private foundations, compared to 7.1% in Georgia and 7.4% in the US (National Center for Charitable Statistics 2007). Although Georgia and Illinois are closely matched to the national averages on 21 demographic factors (National Public Radio 2007) they remain distinct in the concentration and type of nonprofit organizations within their borders. The similarities of these two states and their relative representativeness of the US population in conjunction with their distinctiveness in state government and nonprofit organizations make them useful cases for comparing public sector and nonprofit sector managers.

The NASP-III survey of 1849 public managers and 1307 nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois was closed in January 2006 with 1220 respondents (790 public sector; 430 nonprofit sector). The overall response rate was 39% percent (43% response rate for the public sector sample and 33% from the nonprofit sector sample). Six hundred and eighty-one of the respondents work in Illinois and 790, or 65%, of the respondents work in the public sector. Fifty-five percent of the public sector respondents and one quarter of the respondents from the nonprofit sector work in Georgia. Details about the study approach and relevant procedures can be found in Appendix E.

Dependent Variables: Generic Mentoring

The first dependent variable, **Time at Work**, is the self-reported number of hours worked during a typical work week (including work done away from the office but as part of the job). This variable ranges from 20 to 90 for all respondents, with a mean of 47

and a mode of 50 hours.[3] Although it is possible that respondents exaggerate the number of hours spent at work each week, this is a common self-reported measure in social science research (Peiperl & Jones 2001). Numerous studies assess self-reported work hours instructing respondents to report the number of hours worked each week (Burke 1999a; 1999b; Bonebright *et al.* 2000), the number of hours normally worked in a week including overtime and excluding travel time (van Echtelt *et al.* 2006, 498), or the number of hours worked in the previous week. For example, Grosh and colleagues (2006) asked respondents to indicate ''How many hours did you work last week, at all jobs?'' (944). Furthermore, national and international studies of time spent at work regularly rely on self-reported data. For example, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) relies on self-reported data to measure changes in per capita work hours across nations (OECD 1998; 2004), the Australian Survey of Social Attitudes 2003 provides self-reported data on respondents' usual number of hours worked (van Echtelt *et al*. 2006), and the U.S. Census Bureau collects self-reported data on time spent at work. Although it remains possible that there are reporting biases associated with these self-reported data, it is unlikely that individuals will be highly motivated to misrepresent hours worked on a confidential survey for which the individual data results will not be available to the employing organization. Furthermore, any tendency to over or under report working hours should be random and just as likely to occur among employees in both sectors.

[3] In addition to testing the continuous variable, I will test hours worked per week as a categorical variable with the following five categories: part-time (1-34 hr/week), full-time (35-40 hr/week), lower overtime (41-48 hr/week), medium overtime (49-69 hr/week), and higher overtime (70+ hr/week) (Grosch et al. 2006).

The second dependent variable is **Organizational Involvement**. This variable is constructed from the following five questionnaire items:[4]

1. *Time seems to drag while I am on the job (reverse)*
2. *It has been hard for me to get very involved in my current job (reverse)*
3. *All in all, I am satisfied with my job*
4. *I would rate the overall quality of work being done in my organization as very good*
5. *I feel a sense of pride working for this organization*

The correlations between the items range from .286 to .605. **Organizational Involvement** is the sum of responses to the five questionnaire items and ranges from five (low organizational involvement) to 20 (high organizational involvement), with a mean of 17 and a median of 18. A test of the scale's reliability resulted in a Cronbach's Alpha of .802 (See Appendix E for scale statistics and correlations).

Scale Statistics for Organizational Involvement

Reliability Statistics		Scale Statistics				
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items	N of Cases
.802	.802	17.08	7.916	2.814	5	1220

Independent Variables: Generic Mentoring

The primary independent variables of interest are the dummy variables, **Mentor** and **Nonprofit**, which are coded one if the respondent has ever had a mentor and one if the respondent works in the nonprofit sector, respectively.

The variable, **Mentor**, indicates response to the questionnaire item "Have you ever had a mentor?" Six hundred and twenty-five respondents report having had a mentor. A little more than half of the public sector respondents (52%) and of the nonprofit sector respondents (57%) report having had a mentor. The average duration of

[4] Response categories are four point likert scales of agreement.

reported mentorships is 48 months, ranging from one month to 412 months (34 years and 4 months) with a standard deviation of 72 months. The most commonly reported mentorship duration is one year, reported by 36 individuals. There is a slight, significant correlation between having had a mentor and the two dependent variables: Time Spent at Work (0.136) and Organizational Involvement (0.089).

Two statistical concerns emerge with regards to the variable **Mentor**, which asks respondents if they have ever had a mentor. First, it is possible that having had a mentor in the past is qualitatively different from currently having a mentor. Second, it is possible that a certain type of employee seeks out mentorships and that the characteristics driving this self-selection are also related to the outcomes of time spent at work and organizational involvement. I conducted a comparison of previously and currently mentored individuals to address the first concern and analyses to test for the second endogeneity concern.

Among those who report having had a mentor, 150 are still engaged in those mentoring relationships. Among the 219 individuals in the nonprofit sample 63 (29%) report that they are still engaged in the mentorship and 22% of the mentored public sector respondents report that their mentorships have not ended. It is possible that those who currently have a mentor significantly differ in outcomes from those who report having had a mentor. In order to determine whether having had a mentor is significantly different from currently having a mentor, I tested for significant differences between currently and previous mentored respondents and relationships between currently having a mentor and the dependent variable. First, a correlation analysis indicated that currently having a mentor is not significantly correlated with time spent at work or organizational

involvement (Pearson correlation 0.052; Sig. (2-tailed) .193) though having had a mentor (current or not) is significantly correlated with the dependent variables. Second, an ANOVA test indicates that currently mentored individuals do not significantly vary from currently mentored individuals in time spent at work and organizational involvement (see Appendix B for full results).[5]

To test the direction of the causal relationship between having had a mentor and the outcome variables I ran a logistic regression model using time spent at work and organizational involvement to predict having had a mentor. The model indicated that time spent at work (Beta 0.35; significance .003) and organizational involvement (Beta .062; significance .049) are both significant predictors of having had a mentor (See Appendix C for endogeneity tests). Although there appears to be an endogenous relationship between having had a mentor and the outcome variables, there are statistical and logical arguments which lead me to conclude that this is not a major concern and that having had a mentor is indeed a predictor of the outcome variables and not vise versa. First, because the measure for having had a mentor includes mentorships which may have occurred prior to the current position or earlier in the respondent's career, it is not likely nor logical that current levels of time spent at work and organizational involvement are predictors of having had a mentor in the past. Second, including a measure for whether or not the mentorship formed organically or was formally arranged by the employing organization eliminates the significant affect of time spent at work and organizational involvement on having had a mentor (See Appendix C). The measure for organic versus formal mentorships controls for self-selection into mentorships and includes randomly

[5] I also ran all of the models in this study with a control variable for "Currently mentored" individuals. The variable, currently mentored, is not significant in any of the models predicting time spent at work and

assigned mentors and protégés, thus reducing the threat of high achieving protégés selecting into mentorships or mentors selecting high achieving protégés. Given the results of the backward model, predicting having had a mentor, and the effect of including a variable controlling for organic and formally assigned mentors, there is little statistical and even less logical reason to believe that the direction of the causal model predicting time spent at work and organizational involvement has been misspecified.

The variable, **Nonprofit**, is included to test whether or not mentoring outcomes vary by sector. Respondents are considered nonprofit employees if they work in organizations registered with the Internal Revenue Service as title holding corporations for exempt organizations 501(c)(2), pubic charities 501(c)(3), civic leagues and social welfare organizations 501(c)(4), labor, agricultural, and horticultural organizations 501(c)(5), business leagues and Chambers of Commerce 501(c)(6), and fraternal beneficiary societies and associations 501(c)(8). The variable, Nonprofit, is significantly correlated with Time Spent at Work (0.326) and Organizational Involvement (0.179). The two primary independent variables of interest, Mentor and Nonprofit, are not correlated with one another.

Table 2.1.: Correlations of Primary Independent and Dependent Variables

	Time Spent at Work	Organizational Involvement
Have you ever had a mentor?	0.136**	0.091**
Nonprofit Sector	0.326**	0.303**

** Pearson Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

organizational involvement for both the full sample and the mentored sample.

Control Variables

Motivation Control Variables. This research includes four controls variables related to protégé work motivation: Career Advancement Motivation, Financial Motivation, Job Security Motivation, and Public Service Motivation. NASP-III asks respondents to respond to the following directive, *"We are interested in the factors that motivated you to accept a job at your current organization. Please indicate the extent to which the factors below (some personal, some family, and some professional) were important in making your decision to take a job at your current organization."* Response options were a four point likert scale: very important, somewhat important, somewhat unimportant, and not at all important. The variables **Financial Motivation** and **Public Service Motivation**[6] are responses to the questionnaire items *Salary* and *Ability to serve the public and the public interest*, respectively. **Security Motivation** and **Advancement Motivation**[7] are scales from a factor analysis of the following items:

Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy
The organization's pension or retirement plan
Desire for increased responsibility
Benefits (medical, insurance)
Few, if any, alternative job offers

The factor analysis using an orthogonal solution and Varimax rotation of the five items above resulted in an optimized distribution of variance along two dimensions: security and advancement. The security and advancement dimensions represent 63% of

[6] I also tested PSM (*Ability to serve the public and the public interest*) as a dichotomous variable (0=not important, 1=important). The four category PSM variable, compared to the dichotomous version, is more strongly correlated with the dependent variables and offers a more detailed understanding of PSM, so I retained the four point scale.
[7] These scales have been used in several other papers including Bozeman & Feeney (R&R); Bozeman & Murdock (in press); Bozeman & Ponomariov (under review).

the common variance in the initial correlation matrix. The saved factor scores make up the independent variables, Security Motivation and Advancement Motivation. The factor loadings matrix is presented in Table 2.2. The motivation measures help to capture the relationship between personality and work behavior, which is relevant to this study since previous research (Scott *et al.* 1997) indicates that work behavior is related to personality types such as being compulsive-dependent, achievement oriented, and a perfectionist.

Table 2.2: Factor Analysis for Security and Career Advancement Motivation Items in Generic Mentoring Model

	Security	Advancement
Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy	.462	**.600**
The organization's pension or retirement plan	**.871**	.048
Desire for increased responsibility	.004	**.837**
Benefits (medical, insurance)	**.879**	.046
Few, if any, alternative job offers	.408	-.437

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
Dimensions represent 63.351% of the common variance in the initial correlation matrix

Work-Related Control Variables. The models include a series of variables related to the respondent's previous and current work experience. Since research indicates that the nonprofit sector is closely tied to the private sector as a source for management personnel (Odendahl *et al.* 1985) and that nonprofit and public sector managers are increasingly moving between the sectors (Ott 2001, 241; Ott & Dicke 2006), I include a binary variable **Private** which indicates if the respondent's previous job was in the

private sector.[8] This variable serves as a control for work behavior which may be related to previous work experience and habits shaped by working in the private sector.

Because research indicates that workplace experiences and job tenure shape commitment and attitudes, in particular women's organizational commitment (Dodd-McCue and Wright 1996) and early career commitment (Buchanan 1974), I include the following variables which are related to the respondent's current position: Current Job Tenure, Job Position: Manager, Number of Employees supervised, Promotion, and Manager*Tenure. **Current Job Tenure** is a continuous variable measuring the number of years the respondent has worked in her current position.[9] I expect that longer job tenure will be associated with working longer hours and reporting higher organizational involvement since a longer job tenure implies satisfaction with the job and organization.

The dummy variable, **Job Position: Manager**, is coded one if the respondent is a manager. Although the NASP-III study targeted managers and high ranking employees, it is possible that some of these individuals do not identify themselves as managers, but instead as professionals (e.g. accountants or lawyers) or technicians (e.g. engineers). Seventy percent of the respondents indicated that their primary responsibility is managerial, followed by 19% who report working as professionals, and 6% as technicians (See table 2.3). Because research indicates that professionals and managers are more likely than non-managers to work long hours (Harpaz and Snir 2003), I expect that being a manager variable will be positively related to the dependent variables.

[8] I will also test variables which indicate if the respondent's previous job was in private, nonprofit, and public sectors, tenure in the private sector, nonprofit, and public sectors, and if the current job was a sector switch.

[9] I will also test a variable for tenure at the current organization (including previous jobs at the current organization).

Table 2.3: Comparison of Job Position, by Sector

	NonProfit Sector	Public Sector	Total
Main Responsibility: Manager	507	331	838
Main Responsibility: Professional	188	42	230
Main Responsibility: Technical	64	3	67
Main Responsibility: Other	25	7	32
Total	794	396	1190

Since the NASP-III dataset does not have individual salary information, I use the variables **Job Position: Manager** and **Current Job Tenure** and the interaction variable **Manager*Tenure** as proxies for salary and seniority. According to Bridges & Villamez (1994), authority and wage levels in the public-sector reflect the interaction between position and time spent in the personnel system. I also control for individual performance with the variable **Promotion**, which is a dummy variable indicating if the respondent's current job was a promotion.[10] To control for rank, I include an ordinal variable, **Number Employees Supervised**, for the number of employees the protégé currently supervises.[11] I expect that these variables indicating seniority will be associated with increased time spent at work each week, because seniority implies extended work responsibilities.

I also control for the protégé's social capital activities outside of the workplace by including a measure for the protégé's civic activity. The variable **Total Civic** is an additive index of responses to a series of dummy variables listing organizations or groups to which the respondent might belong. **Total Civic** is the sum of all memberships and is a rough indication of the respondent's external social capital and involvement in non-work

[10] Current job is a promotion (=1); Current job was not a promotion (=0). It is possible that in some cases the current job was a demotion. Because demotions are uncommon in the public sector, we did not ask for this information. Furthermore, we felt any small amount of additional information gain would be at too great a price in terms of diminishing rapport with the respondent.

organizations.[12] This variable captures the protégé's tendency to engage in extracurricular activities and seek out commitments outside the workplace. These activities indicate informal and formal social connections and networks. I expect that an individual who is engaged in numerous social and civic activities will be more likely to be engaged and involved at the work place.

Demographic Control Variables. I include a set of demographic variables to control for variation such as family structure, gender, race, and age. I expect that family structure will play an important role in protégé career outcomes since extreme work involvement and long work hours are strongly related to nonwork support and family commitments (Machlowitz 1980). For example, Johnson (2004) finds that increased work hours significantly increase the probability of divorce for both men and women. Research (Harpaz & Snir 2003) also indicates that married women work fewer hours per week than unmarried women, married men work more hours per week than unmarried men, and that among married individuals women with children work less per week than childless married women, while men with children work more hours per week than childless men (Kaufman & Uhlenberg 2000). These findings point to significant interactions between marital status, gender, and work hours, and among married individuals, having children and work hours. I have also included the following two controls for family characteristics: a dummy variable for marriage, **Married**, and a continuous variable, **Children**, which indicates the number of dependent children in the respondent's

[11] Responses to the number of employees supervised were skewed, ranging from zero to 1200, with the highest quintiles starting at less than 100. I created an ordinal variable with the following categories: zero employees supervised, 1-5, 6-10, 11-20, and more than 21 employees supervised.

[12] Group membership response categories included: Church, synagogue, mosque, or religious organization; Political club or political party committees; Professional societies, trade or business association, or labor union; service organizations such as Rotary or Lions; Youth support groups such as the Girl's and Boy's

household. Given previous research, I expect married men to spend more time at work each week and report higher organizational involvement than married women and unmarried men. I also expect that women who have dependent children, due to extra family commitments, will report spending less time at work than women without children.

I include the dummy variable, **Female**, since research has found that women report higher levels of job stress and other factors associated with lower levels of job satisfaction (Burke 1999) and, typically, work shorter hours than men (Harpaz & Snir 2003). Furthermore, current mentoring research indicates that women, like men, benefit from mentoring relationships and that women with mentors report greater job success and satisfaction (Riley & Wrench 1985) and increased self-confidence and use of skills (Reich 1986) compared to women without mentors.

I also include a continuous variable for **age**, and dummy variables for state and race: **Georgia** and **nonwhite**. The variable, age, controls for differences in work hours and organizational involvement due to generational values (Jurkiewickz *et al.* 1998) and job experience and tenure. The variable, Georgia, controls for variation by state which may occur due to variation in state government personnel restrictions. For example, according to Hays and Sowa's (2006) analysis of human resource reforms in the states, about 72% of Georgia state government employees are at-will-employees and Georgia offers a restricted number of issues open to grievances. Illinois' public sector has not expanded its at-will-employment beyond its standards 20% and continues to offer a wide range of issues open to grievances. Hays and Sowa (2006) report a decline in job security

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Club, Little League Parents Association; Neighborhood or homeowners' associations; PTA, PTO, or school support groups; Groups sports team or club (e.g. softball team, bowling league); Other.

in both Georgia and Illinois. The state control will also be important for identifying and variation in nonprofit organizations by state because the regulation of nonprofit organizations in states can vary due to state laws, tax codes, tort law, and regulations for nonprofit organizations (Harvard Law Review 1992, 1636). Since the regulation of nonprofit organizations in Georgia and Illinois may play a role in shaping employees' behavior and perceptions it is important to include this control.[13]

Institutional Control Variables. In addition to controlling for individual motivation and work characteristics, I include controls for organizational characteristics, because, first, there is disagreement about whether work behavior is related to personality (Scott *et al.* 1997) or situation dependent (Machlowitz 1980) and, second, mentoring studies regularly include organizational control variables (Chao *et al.* 1992). **Org Size**, is a continuous variable indicating the number of full time employees in each respondent's organization and **Org Age** indicates the year the organization was established. I predict that respondents working in larger organizations will work fewer hours and report lower organizational involvement than those in smaller organizations because these larger organizations will provide less personal environments while smaller organizations will include more personal relationships and heightened commitment among employees.

The OLS regression models testing for mentoring affects among all respondents are operationalized as follows:

$$\text{Time spent at work} = B_0 + B_1(\text{mentor}) + B_2(\text{sector}) + B_3(\text{M1}) + B_4(\text{M2}) + B_5(\text{M3}) + B_6(\text{M4}) + B_7(\text{SAC}) + B_8(\text{WRC}) + B_9(\text{DC}) + E.$$

$$\text{Organizational Involvement} = B_0 + B_1(\text{mentor}) + B_2(\text{sector}) + B_3(\text{M1}) + B_4(\text{M2}) + B_5(\text{M3}) + B_6(\text{M4}) + B_7(\text{SAC}) + B_8(\text{WRC}) + B_9(\text{DC}) + E.$$

[13] I tested a control variable for education. However, because 86.5% of the respondents have a college degree there is a lack of variance in this measure.

Where mentor and sector are the primary independent variables of interest; M1 through M4 are the work motivation items; SAC is the social activities control; WRC are the work-related controls; and DC are the demographic controls. Table 2.4 lists all controls in the models of generic mentoring.

Table 2.4: Variables in Generic Models

Dependent Variables	**Work-Related Controls**
(1) Time Spent at Work (2) Organizational Involvement	1. Current Job: Tenure 2. Current Job: Manager 3. Previous Job: Private 4. Current Job: Promotion 5. Current Job: # Employees supervised 6. Manager*Job Tenure
Mentor Characteristics	
(1) Internal / External Mentor (2) Organic / Formal Mentor (3) Female Mentor (4) Duration of Mentorship (5) End-Year of Mentorship	**Organizational Controls**
	1. Org Size 2. Org Age
Work Motivation Controls	**Demographic Controls**
(1) Security Motivation (2) Public Service Motivation (3) Financial Motivation (4) Career Advancement Motivation	1. Age 2. Female 3. Georgia 4. Nonwhite 5. Number Children 6. Married
Social Activity Control	
Total Civic Activities	

Findings: Generic Mentoring

Time Spent at Work

The results for the model predicting time spent at work for all NASP-III respondents are found in Table 2.5. The model indicates that individual demographic characteristics, work motivation, and job characteristics play a significant role in

predicting the amount of time that public and nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois spend at work each week. First, as the literature indicates (Harpaz & Snir 2003), women report fewer hours worked per week. Second, having children decreases the number of hours worked per week for both men and women (Kaufman & Uhlenberg 2000).[14] I find no support for previous research indicating that being married affects time spent at work each week or differently affects hours worked for men and women in Georgia and Illinois public organizations.

Table 2.5: Model Predicting Time Spent at Work among all Respondents

Variables	Unstandardized Beta	Std. Error	Standardized Beta
Nonprofit	**5.491**$^{+}$	**0.68**	**0.341**$^{+}$
Have you ever had a mentor?	**1.724**$^{+}$	**0.50**	**0.112**$^{+}$
Financial Motivation	0.248	0.37	0.023
Public Service Motivation	**0.536***	**0.29**	**0.063***
Security Motivation	**-0.671****	**0.28**	**-0.087****
Advancement Motivation	0.089	0.26	0.012
Current job: Manager	**1.732***	**0.94**	**0.096***
Current job: Promotion	-0.554	0.55	-0.036
Last job: Private organization	-1.038	0.76	-0.047
Current job: Tenure	**-0.177****	**0.09**	**-0.149****
Manager*Tenure	0.144	0.10	0.124
# of employees supervised	**0.008**$^{+}$	**0.00**	**0.085**$^{+}$
Female	**-1.624**$^{+}$	**0.54**	**-0.105**$^{+}$
Married	-0.108	0.65	-0.006
Nonwhite	0.682	0.76	0.030
Georgia	**1.950**$^{+}$	**0.55**	**0.127**$^{+}$
#Children	**-0.653****	**0.26**	**-0.091****
Age	**0.074****	**0.03**	**0.083****
Total Civic Activities	**0.603**$^{+}$	**0.19**	**0.112**$^{+}$
Org Size	**0.000****	**0.00**	**0.086****
Org Age	0.000	0.01	-0.002
(Constant)	36.616	14.17	

$p<.10^{*}$, $p<.05^{**}$, $p<.01^{+}$ two tailed test of significance
R=0.495
R^2=0.245
Adjusted R^2=0.224

[14] I did test the interaction variable female*children. It was not significant.

Individual work motivation is a significant predictor of the amount of time spent at work. Respondents who chose their current job in order to serve the public interest report working more hours per week than those who did not indicate that public service motivation was an important reason for choosing the current position. This finding supports the literature indicating that public service motivation can lead to significant work outcomes (Crewson 1997; Perry & Wise 1990; Naff & Crum 1999). In contrast, reporting a high desire for job security is negatively associated with time spent at work. This may be explained by the predominant desire for job security among public sector employees, who, according to this model work spend less time at work each week than nonprofit workers. It may also simply be that the desire for job security is a poor motivator for working extra hours.

I find that previous work experience is not related to time spent at work,[15] nor is being a manager or reporting that the current job was a promotion. Although being a manager is not significantly related to increased time spent at work, supervising more employees is significantly related to reporting an increase in the number of hours worked each week. If the number of employees supervised is an indication of rank and increased responsibility in the workplace, the model indicates that that individuals with supervisory responsibilities in the public and nonprofit sectors work more hours per week, on average, than those who do not supervise others or supervise fewer employees.

Although current job tenure is a negative predictor of hours worked, this should not be interpreted as an indication of an aging work force, since age is a positive

[15] I also tested sector switching, time in each sector, and number of jobs in each sector. None of these were significant.

predictor of hours worked. Older respondents spend more time at work each week, on average, but increased job tenure reduces time spent at work.

I also find that respondents who work in Georgia report working, on average, 1.950 more hours per week than those in Illinois. It is possible that the significant difference in time spent at work, by state, is related to personnel constraints and state laws in the public sector. Recent reforms in human resource practices in Georgia, including the expansion of at-will-employment may result in more time spent at work among public sector employees in Georgia compared to Illinois. It may also be the case that employees in the nonprofit sector in Georgia spend more time at work than those in Illinois. However, because sector is an independent variable in the model, it is impossible to attribute the difference in work hours to public sector work norms, since this model combines public and nonprofit respondents. The sector specific models in Chapter Three will enable me determine if these differences in work hours rest with social and cultural norms in Georgia and Illinois, or state personnel laws.

Respondents who work in the nonprofit sector spend more time at work per week than public sector employees. In fact, workers in the nonprofit sector, holding all else constant, work about five hours more per week than those in the public sector. Most important, having a mentor is significantly related to spending more time at work. Having a mentor, increases hours worked by approximately 1.5 hours per week, holding all else constant. This finding supports the first hypothesis (H_1). I find that having or having had a mentor affects protégé work hours and that those who have had a mentor report spending more time at work each week than those without a mentor.

Organizational Involvement

The results for the general model predicting organizational involvement as an outcome of mentoring are presented in Table 2.6. The results indicate that organizational involvement is significantly related to work motivation, current job characteristics, and demographic characteristics. The model for organizational involvement indicates that those who report taking their current job with a desire to serve the public interest or for career advancement reasons report higher organizational involvement than those who reported lower public service motivation and career advancement motivation. Increased security motivation is a negative predictor of organizational involvement. Women, compared to men report higher organizational involvement. In addition, respondents who work in Georgia report significantly higher organizational involvement than those in Illinois. Organizational involvement increases with age and being married.

Turning to the primary independent variables of interest, the model indicates that having had a mentor is a significant positive predictor of organizational involvement among all respondents. These findings support the second hypothesis that having had a mentor affects protégé organizational involvement. Individuals who have had a mentor report higher organizational involvement that those without a mentor. Finally, compared to public sector respondents, nonprofit workers report higher organizational involvement. The models presented in Chapter Three will further investigate how mentoring outcomes vary by sector.

Table 2.6: Model Predicting Organizational Involvement among all Respondents

Variables	Unstandardized Beta	Std. Error	Standardized Beta
Nonprofit	**1.664**$^{+}$	**0.24**	**0.288**$^{+}$
Mentor	**0.433**$^{+}$	**0.18**	**0.079**$^{+}$
Financial Motivation	-0.162	0.13	-0.043
Public Service Motivation	**0.223****	**0.10**	**0.073****
Security Motivation	**-0.190***	**0.10**	**-0.070***
Career Advancement Motivation	**0.437**	**0.09**	**0.162**$^{+}$
Current job: Manager	**0.825****	**0.33**	**0.128****
Current job: Promotion	**0.466****	**0.20**	**0.085****
Last job: Private organization	0.074	0.27	0.009
Current job: Tenure	0.034	0.03	0.080
Manager*Tenure	**-0.057***	**0.03**	**-0.137***
Current job: # of employees supervised	**0.004**$^{+}$	**0.00**	**0.102**$^{+}$
Female	**0.520**	**0.19**	**0.094**$^{+}$
Married	**0.501****	**0.23**	**0.075****
Nonwhite	0.365	0.27	0.044
Georgia	**0.856**$^{+}$	**0.19**	**0.156**$^{+}$
#Children	0.151	0.09	0.058
Age	**0.056**$^{+}$	**0.01**	**0.178**$^{+}$
Total Civic Activities	0.063	0.07	0.033
Org Size	0.000	0.00	-0.059
Org Age	-0.004	0.00	-0.055
(Constant)	18.866	4.98	

$p<.10^{*}$, $p<.05^{**}$, $p<.01^{+}$ two tailed test of significance
R=0.506
R^2=0.256
Adjusted R^2=0.235

The generic models of mentoring indicate that having a mentor is significantly related to the amount of time spent at work and organizational commitment. Among all respondents, having had a mentor significantly increases the number of hours spent at work each week and organizational involvement. Furthermore, respondents that work in the nonprofit sector report spending more time at work and higher organizational involvement compared to public sector respondents. These models provide support for the first set of hypotheses:

H_1: Having had a mentor significantly positively affects the amount of time an individual spends at work.

H_2: Having had a mentor significantly positively affects individual organizational involvement.

CHAPTER 3

MENTORING OUTCOMES, BY SECTOR

Research overwhelmingly finds that mentoring is a critical component in the development of individual careers. Unfortunately, mentoring research is generic in nature and typically focuses on mentoring in the private sector. Research investigating mentoring outcomes for protégés, mentors, and organizations is predominately found in disciplines such as business, vocational training, management, and education studies, which helps to explain its generic focus. By one count, more than 500 articles on mentoring were published in management and education literatures during the ten years leading up to 1997 (Allen & Johnston 1997). My own scan of four major journals in public administration and public management found only four mentoring research articles published between 1995 and 2005 (See table 3.1).[16] In addition, though nonprofit organizations are increasingly concerned with using mentoring as a tool to increase retention and promotion (Williams 2005) and develop volunteerism (Hartenian 2007), a search of the three leading nonprofit sector studies general purpose journals turned up two mentoring research articles which investigate university alumni giving as an outcome of student mentoring (Clotfelter 2001) and mentoring as a tool for training direct (point-of-service) volunteers (Hartenian 2007).

[16] I searched for the keywords "mentor" and "mentoring" in the following journals: Public Administration Review (4 articles; 2 focus on mentoring PA scholars and 2 mentoring in the public sector), American Review of Public Administration (2 articles), Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory (0), Public Administration (0). I searched the following databases: Social Science Citation Index, JSTOR, EbscoHost, ProQuest, and GaleGroup Business and Company Resource.

Table 3.1: "Mentor(ing)" Term Search Results and Journal Impact Factors

Journal Title Public and Nonprofit Sector	Mentor Search	2005 Total Cites	Impact Factor	Immediacy Index	2005 Articles	Cited Half-life
Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory	0	416	1.451	0.214	28	5.8
Public Administration Review	4*	1197	1.099	0.143	56	8.7
Public Administration	0	580	0.924	0.140	43	7.1
American Review of Public Administration	2	120	0.615	0.000	23	5.4
Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly	0	253	0.408	0.000	21	5.9
Nonprofit Management and Leadership	2	-	-	-	-	-
Voluntas – International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations	0	-	-	-	-	-
Journal Title Generic	**Mentor Search**	**2005 Total Cites**	**Impact Factor**	**Immediacy Index**	**2005 Articles**	**Cited Half-life**
Academy of Management Journal	5	6944	2.200	0.500	60	>10.0
Academy of Management Review	2	6387	4.254	1.243	37	>10.0
Journal of Applied Psychology	5	8685	2.892	0.233	103	>10.0
Journal of Management Studies	2	1622	1.326	1.182	66	7.9
Journal of Organization Behavior	12	1816	1.388	0.200	50	7.5
Journal of Vocational Behavior	40	1986	1.518	0.316	57	9.2
Personnel Psychology	4	2288	2.094	0.308	26	>10.0

*Two of the four focus on mentoring scholars and students in public administration.

Most mentoring studies sample private sector employees, focusing on samples of executives in private organizations (Collins 1978; Roche 1979), managers in high-technology manufacturing firms (Scandura 1992; Scandura & Schriesheim 1994), university alumni (Chao *et al.* 1992), professional association members (Ragins *et al.* 2000), and accountants (Scandura & Ragins 1993; Eby & Allen 2002; Scandura & Viator 1994). There are also numerous studies assessing mentoring in academic settings with samples of graduate students in business administration (Godshalk & Sosik 2003; Tepper 1995) and university faculty and administrators (Bozionelos 2004; Green & Bauer 1995; Neumark & Gardecki 1998; Young & Perrewe 2000). Few studies investigate mentoring among public or nonprofit managers (Fox & Schuhmann 2001; Kelly *et al.* 1991), though

a more recent study (Smith *et al.* 2005) uses a sample of military armed forces and military academic organizations to investigate mentoring characteristics in government and non-governmental organizations. In summary, although mentoring research has made a great deal of progress in a relatively short period of time, samples tend to come almost exclusively from business employees and in many instances business students, leaving large segments of the workforce, especially the public and nonprofit sector workforce, unexamined.

Although no broad-based aggregate empirical study comparing mentoring of public and nonprofit managers has heretofore been conducted, a great deal of research has been dedicated to identifying how workers, work life, and organizations in the nonprofit and public sectors are distinct. Public organizations are operated by the state on behalf of the public in order to provide public goods and services, monitor and regulate industrial activities, and protect the public interest. Public organizations can operate for profit, not for profit, or somewhere in between. The nonprofit sector, a term first coined in the 1970s (Filer Commission Report 1977; Himmelstein 1993), refers to organizations which are not operated by the state that provide goods and services without making a profit and qualify for tax-exempt status under the Internal Revenue Code because they are organized for the specific purposes stated in the IRS Code. Although there can be great variation among nonprofit organizations, including different reporting requirements, all are exempt from paying federal income taxes. In the case of mentoring, the distinctiveness of nonprofit and public organizations is important because mentorships can play a critical role in ensuring that protégés have the necessary skills to navigate organizational and sector norms conditioned by relationships to organizational mission,

the state and various government agencies, charitable funders, volunteers, and various regulatory structures (e.g. tax exemption).

Sector Distinctions

I now briefly review the literature on sector distinctions in order to demonstrate why I expect that mentoring will vary by sector. Early theories of public organizations support Wallace Sayre's argument that public organizations are distinct from private organizations in all important aspects (Allison 1992) including leadership and management practices, scope, influence, and impact (Appleby 1945), authority (Allison 1992; Rainey 2003), public accountability (Appleby 1945), and external scrutiny (Allison 1992; Rainey 2003). Research supports the distinctions between public and private organizations regarding decision-making processes (Coursey & Bozeman 1990; Nutt 2006), risk-taking (Bellante & Link 1981; Bozeman & Kingsley 1998), work-related behavior (Rainey 1989; Rainey *et al.* 1976), civil service and personnel constraints (Allison 1992; Rainey 2003), red tape (Bozeman 1993; Buchanan 1975; Bozeman *et al.* 1992; Rainey *et al.* 1995), and environmental factors (Rainey 2003). The distinction of government agencies as public bodies can provide increased influence and legitimacy for government organizations compared to the nonprofit sector (Marwell & McInerney 2005). This legitimacy distinction can result in widespread influence and access to extensive public resources. However, research also finds that government organizations are more vulnerable to institutional pressure and less likely to suffer from changes in funding than private organizations (Frumkin & Golaskiewitcz 2004). In sum, research supports the general distinction between public and private organizations (for reviews see Perry & Rainey 1988; Rainey 1989; and Rainey & Bozeman 2000).

Public administration researchers note that the differences between public and private organizations can be illustrated in various ways. A typical method is to distinguish between the two sectors by whether they benefit the general public or private owners, respectively (Blau & Scott 1962). However, this straightforward distinction leaves many difficulties in identifying benefits and recipients of those benefits. Others propose that organizations can be organized (1) along a continuum from those which use economic markets to determine the pricing of products and services sold (enterprises) to organizations which have public goals set by legislatures (agencies) (Dahl & Lindblom 1953); (2) in discrete groups categorized by ownership and funding (Wamsley & Zald 1973) or ownership, funding, and mode of social control (Perry & Rainey 1988); or (3) along two continuums indicating the extent of an organization's political authority and economic authority (Bozeman 1987). Despite the inability of public administration scholars to agree on one method for differentiating between government and private organizations there remains widespread support for the separate treatment of these sectors.

Public organizations function under multiple layers of accountability and authority which can include: the executive, legislatures, courts, clientele, voters and constituents, media, and the general public interest. In general, public organizations exhibit a high level of control by external authorities (Pugh *et al.* 1969). Of course, not all public organizations are the same. Factors such as organization size, function, task, leadership, and technology can play a significant role in organization differences regardless of sector and the differences between sectors can be blurred by functional analogies and complex interrelations between organizations. Notwithstanding the

blurring of sectors and the difficulty in distinguishing between hybrid organizations, in general, public organizations are distinct in many aspects and generic organization and management theory does not provide a complete analysis of the internal and external environments of public organizations (Perry & Kraemer 1983; Pitt & Smith 1981).

Similar to the public and private sectors, the nonprofit sector, also known as the independent, voluntary, or third sector, consists of various types of organizations which fulfill numerous functions including healthcare, education, research, civic action, fine arts, and social services (Salamon 1998; Steinberg 1987, 120). For the purpose of this research, nonprofit organizations are defined as structured, formal organizations and institutions which serve a public purpose and are nongovernmental, nonprofit distributing, and self-governing (Salamon 1998; Hall 1992).[17] Nonprofit organizations can operate alone or work in partnerships to supplement and support government and private organizations (Shaw 2003). Because nonprofit organizations are tax-exempt and not-for-profit, they often depend on donations and charitable grants from individuals, corporations, and governments to fund their operations, however, they are not owned by and do not create wealth for their investors or members and their missions are not served by meeting the consumption needs of consumers (Dees & Anderson 2003; Frumkin & Golaskiewitcz 2004; Weisbord 1997).

[17] In addition, nonprofit organizations can be categorized as being member-serving (e.g. labor organizations or social clubs) or public-serving (grant-making foundations or charitable organizations). Though both member- and public-serving nonprofits are tax exempt, public-serving nonprofits, classified under Section 501(c)(3) of the U.S. tax code, are exempt from tax-deductible gifts. For this research, I include organizations that qualify for tax-exemptions under Internal Revenue Service tax code sections 501(c)2,3,4,5,6, and 8 for nonprofit organizations, which includes: 501(c)(2) Title Holding Corporation for Exempt Organization; 501(c)(3) Public Charity: Religious, Educational, Charitable, Scientific, Literary, Testing for Public Safety, Organizations to Prevent Cruelty to Children or Animals; 501(c)(4) Civic Leagues and Social Welfare Organizations, and Local Associations; 501(c)(5) Labor, Agricultural, and Horticultural Organizations, 501(c)(6) Business Leagues, Chambers of Commerce, Real Estate Boards; and 501(c)(8) Fraternal Beneficiary Societies and Associations.

Even though some researchers (Hall 1992, 244; Karl 1987) argue that using the term "nonprofit" obscures the private interests affiliated with philanthropic organizations, it is useful for combining philanthropies, religious-based, voluntary, and charitable organizations into a single sector which serves public missions and represents civil society, apart from the control of the market and the state (Anheier & Seibel 1990; Sievers 2006). Nonprofits play an important role in American society by organizing individuals through service and volunteerism to meet public needs and provide public goods such as health care, education, disaster relief, and arts and entertainment. The nonprofit sector is continually growing, largely due to the increase in partnerships between the government and nonprofit sectors (Salamon 1998). Today, nonprofit foundations make up nearly 10% of the U.S. gross domestic product, worth more than one trillion dollars (Ryssdal 2007). In addition, recent studies report that public-spirited young Americans and people who want to serve the public interest and their communities are more likely to be attracted to the nonprofit sector than government jobs (PPS 2005; Light 2002).

Similar to the public administration literature, nonprofit theory and research investigates the distinctions between the sectors. Nonprofit theory and research outlines the distinctions between the nonprofit sector and the for-profit sector, and to a lesser extent the distinction between nonprofit and public organizations. Nonprofit researchers define the distinctions between sectors along continuums of interests, mission, and ownership, and relationships to economic markets and the state (Salamon 1977; Marwell & McInerney 2005). Although nonprofits share some similarities with public agencies, such as dependence on external sponsors (Corder 2001), level of managerial

professionalism (Berman 1999), and a workforce that is made up of public service-minded workers (Rotolo & Wilson 2006), Salamon (1977) notes that the nonprofit sector faces fiscal, economic, management, and legitimacy challenges which make it distinct from the government and for-profit sectors. For example, although many nonprofits rely on the government for grants and financial support, they are not solely dependent on legislatures for funding or "their legal existence" (Gates & Hill 1995, 137).

Theories such as contract failure theory, public goods theory, and voluntary theory explain the origins of the nonprofit sector and distinguish between the sectors (Marwell & McInerney 2005). According to contract failure theory (Arrow 1963; Hansmann 1980; Nelson & Krashinsky 1973) nonprofits exist to reduce information asymmetry and supplement relationships between consumers and producers. Public goods theory (Weisbrod 1977; 1988) argues that nonprofits exist to provide public goods when demand is heterogeneous – when groups have preferences that differ from the preferences of the median voter. According to public goods theory, when the government provides public goods to meet the demands of the median voter it leaves gaps for the provision of public goods to meet alternative voter desires and needs. Voluntary failure theory (Salamon 1987; 1995) argues that nonprofits provide public goods whenever possible, while governments supply public goods when they are beyond the scope of the private and nonprofit sectors, for example national defense. Though these theories aim to explain the origins of the nonprofit sector, they do not explain why nonprofit organizations often exist along side public and private markets such as in the case of hospitals and universities.

Nonprofit organizations face many challenges which are distinct from public and private organizations. These distinctions include balancing the desires of leadership, external sponsors, and boards of directors (Corder 2001; Hall 1992; Hansmann 1996; Odendahl 1990; Weisbrod 1998); managing a complex labor force of paid and volunteer staff (Brudney 1998a, 1998b; Carver 1990; Dayton 1987; McCurley 1994; Panus 1992; Watson & Abzug 1994; Weisbord 1997; Wuthnow 1991); pursuing a public mission while relying on a combination of external funding, donations, and earned income (Drucker 1990; Frumkin & Andre-Clark 2000; Grønbjerg *et al.* 2000; Hall 1992; Hills-Bush 1992; Kahn 1992; Kanter & Summers 1987; O'Connell 1988); managing complex rules and external constraints (Weisbord 1997); and establishing accountability and legitimacy with the public, investors, and clients (Chaskin 2003; Frumkin & Golaswkiewicz 2004; Gates & Hill 1995; Irvin 2005; Kearns 1994). Research also indicates that workers in the nonprofit sector compared to public sector workers report stronger values for work that contributes to society and less value for opportunities for advancement and challenging work (Lyons *et al.* 2006). For example, a recent survey found that twice as many college students perceive working in the nonprofit sector as "a form of public service" compared to working for the government (Partnership 2005). Research also finds that nonprofit workers gain more satisfaction from their jobs and trust their management more than public and business sector employees (Mirvis 1992). In summary, there is a great deal of literature pointing to the distinctiveness of the nonprofit sector.

Despite the distinctions between the public and nonprofit sectors, some researchers note that sectoral differences are narrowing as nonprofit and public

organizations become more dependent on revenue generation to meet operational and administrative costs (Salamon 2002) and become increasingly visible, commercial, and businesslike (Cooper 2003; Dees & Anderson 2003; Frumkin & Andre-Clark 2000; Haque 2001; Kearns 1994; Kettl 1993; Weisbrod 1998). Public organizations are facing pressure to do more with less by drawing upon market resources and relationships with the private sector through privatization and outsourcing, which has resulting in some blurring between the private and public sectors (Kettl 1993; Osborne & Gaebler 1993; Cooper 2002; Hood & Peters 2004; Savas 2000). Ott (2001, 216-217) notes that the distinction between nonprofit organizations and private companies is also narrowing as (1) for profit businesses become more involved with nonprofit-type work, (2) nonprofit managers adopt more professional training and practices (Hall 1992, 209), (3) more business executives serve on nonprofit boards of directors, and (4) nonprofits become more involved in ventures and partnerships with for-profit organizations (Ryan 1999; Stone 1996). Likewise, nonprofit organizations are becoming increasingly intertwined with public organizations as they take on government contracts and the public and nonprofit sectors increase their collaborative efforts and interdependence upon one another (Ott & Dicke 2006).

Although some scholars (DiMaggio & Powell 1983) argue that the homogenization of organizations and sectors is inevitable, I am in agreement with those (Schneider 1987; Schneider *et al.* 1995) who argue that different types of organizations attract, select, and retain different types of people, and that these differences can also be found between sectors, thus warranting a separate consideration of these populations (Bozeman & Bretschneider 1994; Hall 1992; Harpaz & Snir 2003; Lyons *et al.* 2006).

Next, with the support of the relevant literature, I present sector specific hypotheses for mentoring work behavior outcomes.

Hypotheses and Literature: Sector Specific Mentoring

Time Spent at Work

There is a great deal of research focusing on hours worked, workaholism, overworking, and absenteeism. Unfortunately, most of this research uses generic theories and approaches to understand how much time individuals spend at work. There remains little sector specific research focusing on the amount of time public and nonprofit sector employees spend working each week.

Public administration research focusing on hours worked, workaholism, and overworking is limited. This is most likely explained by the structure of work in the public sector, including civil service restrictions, position classification, pay grade or pay bands, and the role of unions in some state agencies (see Klingner & Nalbandian 1998; Shafritz *et al.* 1992). Typically, public sector managers are salaried employees who work 35 to 40 hours per week. However, this is changing; especially as states decentralize human resources and expand the number of at-will employees (Hays & Sowa 2006). For example, in Georgia, approximately 72% of state employees are at-will hires. As the number of at-will employees in a state expands, it follows that restrictions on the amount of time an employee will spend at work each week can be weakened, thus encouraging workers to spend more time at work, or enabling them to collect increased compensation for overtime work.

Due to the complex personnel restrictions in the public sector, government employees typically do not receive overtime pay or increased extrinsic rewards for

working overtime. For example, agencies in Illinois may limit the amount of overtime employees work since the Illinois personnel code requires that state employees within the jurisdiction of the Department of Central Management Services (CMS) receive "compensatory time off for overtime or pay for overtime" (Personnel Code, Ch. 127, par. 63b108c). However, for Illinois state employees to regularly spend more time at work than specified by the position the position must be "approved by the [CMS] Director and designated on lists maintained by the Director" (2006, 81). The Personnel Rules go on to specify that "Overtime work shall be distributed as equitably as possible among qualified employees competent to perform the services required, when overtime is required" (2006, 81). Given the specifications required by the Illinois CMS for an employee to be authorized to work and be compensated for extra time, it follows that there are disincentives for state employees to spend extraordinary time at work.

Although research indicates that public sector workers value opportunities for advancement and intellectually stimulating and challenging work more than nonprofit workers (Crewson 1995, 94; Lyons *et al.* 2006) there is no evidence that public sector workers are more likely to work overtime or stay late. In fact, research (Harpaz & Snir 2003) indicates that public sector employees, compared with private sector employees, are less likely to be workaholics or to report working extended hours.

The lack of over time work in the public sector could be explained by the lack of incentives and rewards for working late, or simply an organizational and cultural norm of not working overtime. For example, Izraeli (1990) argues that individuals can be attracted to the public sector because of a high need to control the time they spend at work, since the public sector is known as a place where people can work towards public goals in a

work environment where hours are stable. Second, Buchanan (1974; 1975) notes that people enter management positions in the public sector with specific motives (i.e. public service motivation), but encounter frustrations that reduce their organizational commitment, job involvement, and service ethic. It is possible that public sector workers, despite their desire for challenging and intellectually stimulating work, adopt the work habits of their peers and the organization, which can include not working overtime or outside of the typical work day. Finally, the sectoral norms to not work overtime may be reinforced by stereotypes about public sector workers and the actual hours that many public offices are open. Public perceptions of government workers, or bureaucrats, as "lazy, incompetent, devious, and even dangerous" (Goodsell 2004, 3) coupled with office hours that rarely extend beyond 5pm and sometimes close earlier than that, there is little reason to expect that state government employees will stay late or work extra hours for which there is little to no reward.

Like the public sector, the nonprofit sector is not known for paying workers to stay late. Although unpaid overtime is common in the nonprofit sector, research indicates that a large number of nonprofit managers continue to choose to work overtime (McMullen & Schellingburg 2003). In defiance of the dearth of financial rewards for working overtime, I suspect that workers in nonprofit organizations will be more likely to spend more time at work because of sectoral norms and expectations.

First, nonprofit organizations, in particular those with more than 20 full-time employees, are more likely to offer flexible work hours to both men and women (McMullen & Schellingburg 2003). Working flexible hours serves to expand the typical work day beyond office hours and the physical walls of the organizations. Though an

organization may be open from 8am to 5pm, employees who work flexible hours become more accustomed to working nontraditional hours, working from home, and working on the road, which reduces the stigma of working overtime or spending more time working each week.

Second, I assume that spending more time at work, beyond the typical 40 hour work week, will be more common in the nonprofit sector where there are no civil service restrictions, smaller organizations, and more prevalent role conflict and ambiguous job duties (Mirvis & Hackett 1983). A lack of strict job descriptions and position classification frees nonprofit workers to take on tasks beyond their job descriptions and pay level. Furthermore, working in an environment with high role conflict and ambiguous job duties it is more likely that there will be higher expectations for workers to take on tasks, regardless of role and job duty, so that the organization can achieve its goals. Finally, working in smaller organizations necessitates that workers take on more than their share of work, and helps to ensure that coworkers are keenly aware of the amount of work each individual is completing which adds pressure on employees to work extra hours. Furthermore, given the reliance on volunteer labor in the nonprofit sector, compared to the level of staff available in many public agencies, I assume that salaried nonprofit managers will take on additional duties which require attention beyond the typical day's work hours. I expect that the combination of typically small organizations and role conflict and ambiguous job duties will help to make nonprofit managers more likely to work extra hours to complete tasks that further the organization's mission.

I assume that working in the public sector is associated with stronger social and sectoral norms and expectations to work no more than 40 hours a week. Assuming that

there is a general public sector culture which discourages working excessive hours, either due to civil service restrictions or cultural norms, it follows that having a mentor will ensure the transfer of this sectoral norm to public sector protégés. In addition, for the nonprofit sector - where organizations tend to have fewer full-time, paid workers - there will be a stronger norm for working longer hours per week which will be passed from mentor to protégé. Despite the lack of research investigating time spent at work in the public and nonprofit sectors, given the previous discussion of sectoral differences, the assumptions outlined here, and previous mentoring research which indicates that mentoring can affect absenteeism, socialization, and dedication, I predict that the amount of time protégés spend at work will vary by sector.

H_3: Protégé time spent at work will vary by sector.

H_4: Nonprofit managers who report having had a mentor will report spending more time at work compared to mentored respondents who work in the public sector.

Organizational Involvement

Research indicates that there are significant differences in wages, working conditions, jobs, and work roles for employees in the private, nonprofit, and public sectors (Mirvis & Hackett 1983). In addition, there is an abundance of public and nonprofit sector research investigating worker motivation, incentives, and values (Crewson 1997; Jurkiewickz *et al.* 1998; Lyons *et al.* 2006; Mirvis & Hackett 1983; Schepers *et al.* 2005) though these studies tend to vary widely in method, sample design, questionnaire content, and conclusions (Rainey 2003, 237-247).

Overall, nonprofit and public sector employees report higher intrinsic rewards than those in for-profit organizations and a lower likelihood of receiving extrinsic

rewards such as increased pay or promotion (Mirvis & Hackett 1983; Wittmer 1991). Public and nonprofit sector workers report similar levels of intrinsic gratification at work, however public sector workers report significantly less autonomy and influence in the work place and lower job commitment than nonprofit workers (Mirvis & Hackett 1983). Research (Ruhm & Borkoski 2003) also indicates that nonprofit workers receive similar pay as for-profit workers and that workers in the nonprofit sector, compared to the for profit sector are more people oriented (Rawls & Nelson 1975; Rawls *et al.* 1975) and care more about serving the public interest (Wittmer 1991) and advancing the organization's public service mission (Handy & Katz 1998).

Although there is a great deal of research investigating work life and motivation among public, nonprofit, and for-profit private sector workers, and comparing work life in the public sector with work life in the private sector (for examples see Balfour & Wechsler 1990; 1991; Steinhaus & Perry 1996; White 1995) there is less research comparing organizational involvement between public and nonprofit sector workers. In a meta-analysis of research investigating job involvement by sector, Brown (1996) reports that studies comparing public and private organizations find slightly significant differences in job involvement between public and private sector workers, but, as of 1996, there was no research available comparing job involvement among nonprofit and public sector employees. Brown (1996) concludes that, in general research shows that job involvement is related to personality and situational variables, such as job and work attitudes, but not related to demographic variables, behavioral work outcomes, or role perceptions. In an earlier study of 270 business and government managers, Buchanan (1974) reported that organizational experiences have an impact on managers'

organizational commitment attitudes and that these experiences vary with organizational tenure, particularly at early career stages. Romzek and Hendricks (1982) concluded that organizational involvement and individual employees' allegiance to the government agency is related to representative bureaucracy, concluding that self-reported levels of organizational involvement depend on whether or not the agency has a substantive representation mandate. In addition, Romzek (1989) found that, among public sector workers, employee commitment can result in positive nonwork and career satisfactions, which supports the idea that psychological attachment to the employing organization and high levels of job commitment, or overworking, can result in personal gain.

There is a limited amount of research investigating job involvement and organizational commitment in nonprofit organizations, though there is evidence that nonprofit workers report more job commitment compared to public sector employees (Mirvis & Hackett 1983; Borzaga & Tortia 2006). Notwithstanding the dearth of organizational involvement research among nonprofit workers, there is widespread evidence that the nonprofit sector attracts individuals who have a desire to serve the public interest (Partnership 2005b; Goulet & Frank 2002). For example, individual commitment to an organization or its mission helps nonprofit organizations to recruit and retain volunteer workers, board members, and individual donations (Williams 2005).

Research indicates that personality, situational variables, and job and work attitudes affect job involvement (Brown 1996) and that organizational commitment is positively related to the desire to stay in an organization (Balfour & Wechsler 1991). Given these findings, it follows that sectoral distinctions will attract individuals with values and attitudes that align with a particular sector (Schneider 1987; Schneider *et al.*

1995) and that the convergence of individual characteristics and sectoral values will affect organizational involvement, thus leading me to expect that:

> *H_5: The relationship between mentoring and organizational involvement will vary by sector.*

There are a number of reasons why employees may be attracted to state government work, including public service motivation, a desire for job security, the opportunity to work in a sector known for its equal opportunity hiring, and the need to control the amount of time spent at work (Izraeli 1990). In comparison, workers are typically attracted to the nonprofit sector in order to further the mission of a particular organization, and these organizations are, on average, smaller in size, which requires individual workers to demonstrate commitment by taking on extra work and possibly spending more time at work and working extended hours. Assuming that requirements for organizational involvement are higher in nonprofit organizations than in public organizations, I expect that the relationship between mentoring and organizational involvement will vary by sector. Furthermore, since nonprofit organizations depend on volunteers and paid workers who are motivated by the organizations' mission, I expect that mentoring will play an important role in helping nonprofit organizations to nurture involvement among workers which leads me to predict that mentored nonprofit managers will report higher levels of organizational involvement than mentored public managers.

> *H_6: Mentoring will play a larger role in increasing organizational involvement in the nonprofit sector than in the public sector.*

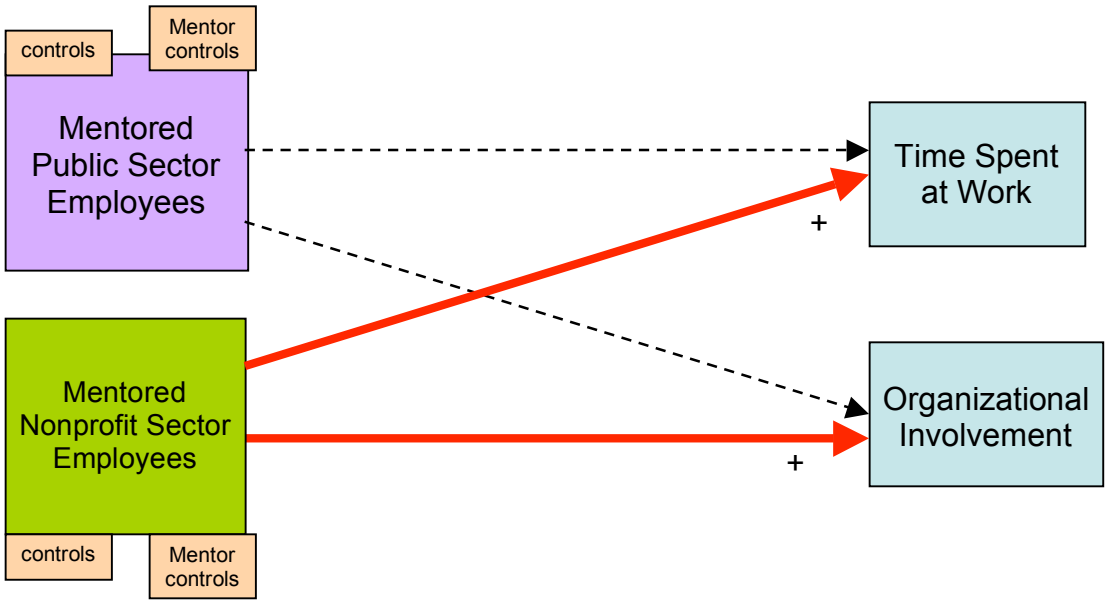

Figure 2: Sector Specific Concept of Mentoring Outcomes

Figure 2 illustrates the investigation of mentoring outcomes with a sector specific model. This figure, compared to Figure 1 has three distinct features. First, this illustration applies to mentored respondents only. Second, the illustration splits the nonprofit and public sector samples, thus eliminating threats of self-selection into sector. Third, the models test for variations in type of mentoring (i.e. formal/informal and gender composition of the dyad). Figure 2 illustrates that having a mentor is expected to differently affect outcomes for public and nonprofit managers. For example, having a mentor is expected to increase time spent at work and organizational involvement, but more so for employees in the nonprofit sector than in the public sector.

Data and Models: Sector Specific Mentoring

The models investigating mentoring outcomes by sector are limited to the portion of respondents from the NASP-III study who report having had a mentor (406 public

sector respondents; 241 nonprofit sector respondents). A little more than half of all respondents report having had a mentor (52% of public sector respondents; 57% of nonprofit respondents). The sector specific models will use the same dependent variables as the generic mentoring models: time spent at work and organizational involvement. However, in addition to the independent variables discussed in the generic mentoring section, the sector specific models will include variables specific to the mentorship which enable the investigation of how mentorship characteristics relate to mentoring outcomes.

Rather than control for sector with a single independent variable, I present separate models on the subpopulations of nonprofit and public sector managers. By splitting the sample, I test whether or not the relationships between the each independent variable and the outcomes vary by sector. A model using a single control for sector would capture all the variance in the intercept. In comparison, the separate models on the nonprofit and public sector subpopulations can provide significantly different beta estimates on the independent variables, giving a more detailed understanding of how the relationships between all of the variables differ by sector. In addition to the subpopulation models, I ran Chow tests to determine if it would be appropriate to rule a pooled regression, combining the public sector and nonprofit sector respondents. The Chow test for the pooled regression on time spent at work was significant at the 0.05 level, suggesting that the pooled model can be used (F (24,319): 1.7863: Prob.=0.05). However, the Chow test for the pooled regression on organizational involvement is not significant, suggesting that a pooled model of all observations disregarding possible differences in variance between the two sectors is not appropriate, because the slope coefficients and intercept of the subpopulation regression are significantly different (F (24,321): 0.8409).

(See Gujarati 2003 or Wooldridge 2003 for additional explanation of Chow tests). A second advantage to running the split sample models is that this eliminates the need to address the threat of self-selection into sector. By splitting the sample into one model for nonprofit respondents and a second model for public sector respondents there is no threat of the variable, sector, acting as a treatment effect.

Mentorship Related Control Variables

Because research indicates that mentoring outcomes vary based on the structure and type of mentoring, I include a series of variables about the mentorship in order to get a more detailed understanding of mentoring outcomes by sector. The mentorship related control variables include: Organic, Internal, Duration, EndYear, and Female Mentor.

Formal mentoring programs, where organizations assign mentors and protégés either randomly or by intentional matching, may not achieve the same outcomes that emerge when mentors and protégés develop organic mentoring relationships. Research indicates that organic mentorships produce more positive outcomes compared to both formally mentored and nonmentored individuals (Chao *et al.* 1992; Eby & Allen 2002; Fagenson-Eland *et al.* 1996; Heimann & Pittenger 1996; Ragins *et al.* 2000; Singh *et al.* 2002). I include the dummy variable, **Organic**, which is coded one if the relationship was initiated by either the mentor or the protégé and zero if the mentorship was the result of a formal organizational mentoring program.[18] The majority of mentorships in this sample are organic (see table 3.2). Among public sector respondents, 73% report engaging in organic mentorships and 55% of those organic mentorships were initiated by the mentor.

[18] The variable, organic, is developed from responses to the questionnaire item asking respondents to *"Please indicate how your relationship with your mentor began."* Organic is coded zero if the mentor was assigned through a formal program and one if the relationship was organic – an informal mentorship initiated by either the mentor or the protégé.

One hundred and seventy one (84%) of the nonprofit respondents report having had an organic mentorship, of which two thirds report that the mentor initiated the relationship. Having an organic mentorship, compared to a formal mentorship is significantly correlated to the amount of time a protégé spends at work (.125 at the 0.01 level).

Table 3.2: Comparison of Mentorship Type, by Sector

	Sector		
Mentorship Type	**Public**	**Nonprofit**	**Total**
Formal Mentorship	104	32	136
Organic Mentorship	285	171	456
The mentor was more active than I was in initiating an informal mentoring relationship	158	109	267
I was more active than the mentor in initiating an informal mentoring relationship	127	62	189
Was/Is your mentor a member of your current organization?	272	85	357

I also include a dummy variable, **Internal**, which is coded one if the mentor currently works in the same organization as the protégé. Though there is little research investigating the variance in mentoring outcomes related to internal mentoring (Eby 1997), since I am interested in how mentoring is related to protégé time spent at work and involvement in the current organization it makes sense that having an mentor in the same organization will affect outcomes for the protégé, compared to having a mentor who works in a different organization. More than half of the mentored respondents (57%) report that the mentor is a member of the organization where the protégé is currently employed (Table 3.2).

Another obvious point about mentorship characteristics is that time and duration of the mentoring relationship will be related to outcomes for protégés. In general, most empirical mentoring research controls for duration of mentoring (Godshalk & Sosik

2003; Ragins & McFarlin 1990) and finds mixed relationships between mentorship duration and outcomes. Given the mixed results related to mentorship duration, I include the variable, **Duration**, which indicates the duration of the mentorship using self-reported responses for the year and month the mentorship began and ended. The average duration of mentorships in the NASP-III sample is 71 months, nearly 6 years, and the mode duration is one year. Duration is significantly correlated with the dependent variable, time spent at work (.093), at the 0.05 level and with organizational involvement (.121) at the 0.01 level. In addition, I include the variable, **EndYear,**[19] which indicates the month and year the mentorship ended.[20]

Researchers have proposed that female-female mentoring relationships are more efficient than cross gender mentorships for advancing women's careers (Scandura & Viator 1994; Ragins 1997a; 1997b) and that women are more likely to have male mentors (Ragins 1989; Ragins & McFarlin 1990; Thomas 1990; Thomas & Alderfer 1989). However, there is little evidence that outcomes for female protégés are related to having a female mentor (Neumark & Gardecki 1998). Given the mixed research about cross-gender mentorships (Clawson & Kram 1984; Noe 1988; Ragins 1989), I include a dummy variable, **Female Mentor**, coded one if the mentor is female and zero it the mentor is male.[21] One third of the mentored respondents reported having a female

[19] For the 155 respondents who indicated that the mentorship had not yet ended, I entered an end date of December 2005, the close of the survey.

[20] It is possible that the variable EndYear indicates something about the time away from the mentorship and may give some indication about the decay of mentoring outcomes. I examined EndYear in connection with both of the dependent variables. EndYear is not significantly correlated with the amount of time a protégé spends at work (.004, sig. .926). EndYear is significant at the .05 level with organizational involvement (-.087, p. <.034). Once age is introduced in a partial correlation, (which is related to how both the duration of mentorships and how recently the relationship may have ended) the correlation between EndYear and organizational involvement vanishes (i.e. not significant).

[21] In previous work I have tested models using the dummy variable, Gender Mix, which indicated if the gender of the mentor and protégé were not the same. This variable did not improve the models or relate to

mentor. One third of the mentored public sector respondents reported having had a female mentor, compared to 28% of mentored nonprofit sector respondents. Among the 205 individuals who reported having a female mentor, 74% were female (see table 3.3). Table 3.4 shows that having a female mentor is significantly negatively correlated with the dependent variable, organizational involvement (-.126 at the 0.01 level).

Table 3.3: Comparing Female Mentors, by Sector and Protégé Gender

	Public Sector	Nonprofit Sector	Total	Protégé Male	Protégé Female	Total
Female Mentor	139	62	201	54	151	205
Total	404	215	619	326	306	632

Table 3.4: Correlation: Mentorship Controls and Dependent Variables

	Internal Mentor	Duration of mentorship	Organic Mentorship	Female Mentor
Time Spent at Work	-.072	.093*	.125**	-.029
Org Involvement	.009	.121**	.035	-.126**

** Pearson Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Pearson Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Control Variables

Similar to the Generic Mentoring Model, I include the four variables related to protégé work motivation: **Advancement Motivation**, **Job Security Motivation**, **Financial Motivation**, and **Public Service Motivation**. Security Motivation and Advancement Motivation are scales from the factor analysis of the same questionnaire items. Since I run separate models for the nonprofit and public sector samples, the saved

outcomes. I will not treat gender in mentorships as a factorial (e.g. male/female, m/m, f/m, f/f) because of the low percentage of female mentors matched with male protégés

factor scores used for Advancement Motivation and Job Security Motivation are drawn from separate factor analyses for each sample. For example, the saved factor scores for Advancement Motivation in the nonprofit sector are derived from a factor analysis of work motivation among nonprofit respondents. The results for the factor analyses of the questionnaire items for the subpopulations of nonprofit and public sector respondents are presented in table 3.5 and table 3.6, respectively.[22]

Table 3.5: Factor Analysis for Security and Career Advancement Motivation Items in Nonprofit Sector Sample

	Security	Advancement
Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy	.442	**.537**
The organization's pension or retirement plan	**.876**	-.001
Desire for increased responsibility	.097	**.764**
Benefits (medical, insurance)	**.889**	-.016
Few, if any, alternative job offers	.270	**-.560**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
Dimensions represent 60.427% of the common variance in the initial correlation matrix

Table 3.6: Factor Analysis for Security and Career Advancement Motivation Items in Public Sector Sample

	Security	Advancement
Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy	.218	**.778**
The organization's pension or retirement plan	**.849**	.199
Desire for increased responsibility	-.023	**.844**
Benefits (medical, insurance)	**.879**	.172
Few, if any, alternative job offers	.421	-.290

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
Dimensions represent 63.816% of the common variance in the initial correlation matrix

[22] For the sector specific mentoring models I include the variables Advancement Motivation and Job Security Motivation which are scales from the factor analysis of the same questionnaire items as the full model. Since I ran separate models for the nonprofit and public sector samples, I saved factors scores from separate factor analyses using an orthogonal solution and Varimax rotation for each sample. See table 3.5

The sector specific models include the same control variables as the generic mentoring model. I expect that the control for state will be particularly important since government workers in Illinois have the option of belonging to unions while in Georgia there are no unions, employees do not have collective bargaining rights,[23] and government employees hired after 1996 do not have civil service protections (Kellough & Nigro 2002; Walters 2002). Furthermore, since direct regulation of nonprofit organizations is primarily the responsibility of state government and state law, I expect that nonprofit organizations will vary by state (Harvard Law Review 1992, 1636).

The models predicting time spent at work and organizational involvement for the mentored respondents include the following variables:

$$\text{Time spent at work} = B_0 + B_1(\text{mentor}) + B_2(\text{MC1}) + B_3(\text{MC2}) + B_4(\text{MC3}) + B_5(\text{MC4}) + B_6(\text{MC5}) + B_7(\text{M1}) + B_8(\text{M2}) + B_9(\text{M3}) + B_{10}(\text{M4}) + B_{11}(\text{SAC}) + B_{12}(\text{WRC}) + B_{13}(\text{DC}) + E.$$

$$\text{Organizational Involvement} = B_0 + B_1(\text{mentor}) + B_2(\text{MC1}) + B_3(\text{MC2}) + B_4(\text{MC3}) + B_5(\text{MC4}) + B_6(\text{MC5}) + B_7(\text{M1}) + B_8(\text{M2}) + B_9(\text{M3}) + B_{10}(\text{M4}) + B_{11}(\text{SAC}) + B_{12}(\text{WRC}) + B_{13}(\text{DC}) + E.$$

Nonprofit remains a primary independent variable of interest along with the variables testing for the effects of various mentorship characteristics (MC1-MC5). M1 through M4 are the work motivation items; SAC is the social activities control; WRC are the work-related controls; and DC are the demographic controls (see table 3.7).

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and table 3.6 for the results from the factor analyses for the public sector sample and nonprofit sample, respectively.

[23] Out of Georgia's 248,900 public sectors employees, 3,000 are eligible for union membership. Metropolitan Rapid Transit Authority (MARTA) employees are the only state workers granted bargaining rights. MARTA employees are not included in the NASP-III sample.

Table 3.7: Variables in Mentoring Models

Dependent Variables	Work-Related Controls
(1) Time Spent at Work (2) Organizational Involvement	Current Job: Tenure Current Job: Manager Previous Job: Private Current Job: Promotion Current Job: # Employees supervised Manager*Job Tenure
Mentor Characteristics	
Internal / External Mentor Organic / Formal Mentor Female Mentor Duration of Mentorship End-Year of Mentorship	**Organizational Controls**
	Organization Size Organization Age
Work Motivation Controls	**Demographic Controls**
Security Motivation Public Service Motivation Financial Motivation Career Advancement Motivation	Age Female Georgia Nonwhite Number Children Married
Social Activity Control	
Total Civic Activities	

Findings: Public and Nonprofit Sector Mentoring

Time Spent at Work

After confirming the first set of hypotheses that mentoring positively affects protégé time spent at work, I ran models predicting time spent at work among mentored respondents, alone. In addition to controlling for protégé demographics, work experiences, and motivations, I control for mentoring type. First I ran the full model of mentored respondents with a single control for sector (see table 3.8). A Chow test indicates that, in this case, a pooled model can be used since the F-statistic (1.7863) is significant at the 0.05 level. The full model indicates that among mentored respondents,

nonprofit sector protégés spend, on average, nearly six more hours at work per week compared to public sector protégés. In addition, protégés with increased public service motivation report spending more time at work than those with low public service motivation. Although current job tenure is negatively related to time spent at work, the interaction variable of job tenure and being a manager is positively related to the amount of time spent at work. Increases in age and civic activities also result in increased time spent at work.

Table 3.8: Time Spent at Work for all Mentored Respondents

	Beta	Std. Error
Nonprofit Sector	**5.766^{+}**	**1.051**
Internal Mentor	1.081	0.870
Organic Mentorship	0.748	0.923
Female Mentor	-0.256	0.889
Mentor Duration	-0.004	0.006
End Year	0.000	0.000
Financial Motivation	0.310	0.567
Public Service Motivation	**0.797***	**0.435**
Security Motivation	-0.596	0.419
Advancement Motivation	0.127	0.378
Current job: Manager	0.258	1.384
Current job: Promotion	-0.407	0.870
Last job: Private organization	-1.900	1.192
Current job: Tenure	**-0.338****	**0.142**
Manager*Tenure	**0.253***	**0.152**
# of employees supervised	0.003	0.004
Female	-0.723	0.841
Married	-0.653	0.993
Nonwhite	0.125	1.074
Georgia	0.633	0.844
#Children	-0.388	0.400
Age	**0.099****	**0.053**
Total Civic Activities	**0.641****	**0.263**
Org Size	**0.000****	**0.000**
Org Age	-0.017	0.011
(Constant)	-27.381	101.923

P<.10=* , p<.05=** , p<.01^{+} *two tailed test of significance*
R: 0.455; R^2: 0.207; Adjusted R^2: 0.149; Std. Error of the Estimate: 6.792

Because the full model results in all the sector variance falling into a single independent variable and the intercept, I ran separate models on the subpopulations of nonprofit and public sector respondents. By splitting the sample into two subpopulations, I am able to test whether or not the relationships between each of the independent variables and time spent at work, vary by sector. The separate nonprofit and public sector models provide significantly different beta estimates on the independent variables, giving a more detailed understanding of how the relationships between the variables differ by sector. Furthermore, the split sample models eliminate the threat of biases caused by self-selection into the public and nonprofit sectors.

Table 3.9 presents the results for the separate regressions predicting protégé time spent at work for the public and nonprofit sector subpopulations. For public sector protégés, an increase in the amount of time spent at work each week is significantly related to job security motivation, having children, civic activities, and the employing organization's size and age. Specifically, public employees who report that job security was an important motivation for taking their current job report working fewer hours per week compared to those who were not motivated by job security. State government employees with dependent children report spending significantly less time at work each week compared to state employees with fewer or no children. The relationship between increased children and time spent at work is not related to respondent gender. The number of full time employees and the age of the employing organization are significantly related to the amount of time state employees spend at work each week. However, the affect of those significant relationships are minimal. Finally, an increase in

civic activities among state employees is significantly related to an increase in the amount of time spent at work.

Table 3.9: Comparing Results for Protégé Time Spent at Work, by Sector

	Nonprofit Sector		Public Sector	
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error
Internal Mentor	1.898	1.669	1.535	1.014
Organic Mentorship	0.871	2.110	0.725	0.991
Female Mentor	-1.922	1.762	-0.023	1.013
Mentor Duration	-0.018	0.011	0.000	0.007
End Year	**0.002**$^{+}$	**0.001**	0.000	0.001
Financial Motivation	1.166	1.136	-0.183	0.638
Public Service Motivation	0.122	0.741	1.112	0.580
Security Motivation	-0.954	0.824	**-0.575**$^{+}$	**0.445**
Advancement Motivation	-0.120	0.678	0.436	0.458
Current job: Manager	-4.524	3.380	1.117	1.494
Current job: Promotion	-1.040	1.708	-0.883	1.012
Last job: Private organization	-3.062	1.948	-1.796	1.646
Current job: Tenure	**-1.122****	**0.502**	-0.216	0.140
Manager*Tenure	**0.952**$^{+}$	**0.504**	0.178	0.152
# employees supervised	-0.011	0.036	0.004	0.004
Female	**-4.133****	**1.745**	0.994	0.943
Married	1.320	2.107	-0.860	1.110
Nonwhite	-0.291	3.457	-0.619	1.054
Georgia	**-4.503****	**2.032**	2.554	0.937
#Children	-0.636	0.844	**-0.442***	**0.443**
Age	0.102	0.113	0.098	0.059
Total Civic Activities	0.261	0.563	**0.816**$^{+}$	**0.284**
Org Size	0.000	0.001	**0.000***	**0.000**
Org Age	-0.011	0.022	**-0.009**$^{+}$	**0.014**
(Constant)	-296.445	207.604	91.895	117.641

P<.10=* , p<.05=** , p<.01^{+} *two tailed test of significance*
Public Model: R^2: 0.240; Adjusted R^2: 0.153; Std. Error of the Estimate: 6.014
Nonprofit Model: R^2: 0.221; Adjusted R^2: 0.046; Std. Error of the Estimate: 7.707

For mentored individuals working in nonprofit organizations, none of the work motivation control variables are significantly related to the amount of time spent at work. The duration of the current position, measured in years, is negatively associated with the

amount of time that a protégé in the nonprofit sector spends at work. However, the interaction variable between job tenure and manager is positively related to time spent at work. For protégés in the nonprofit sector, women report spending significantly less time at work each week than men. Also, nonprofit respondents in Georgia report spending significantly less time at work each week than in Illinois.[24] Nonprofit sector protégés in Georgia, on average, work four and a half fewer hours per week than those in Illinois, holding all else constant.

For mentored public sector respondents, job security motivation is a negative predictor of hours worked per week. Security motivation is not significantly related to time nonprofit managers spend at work. For public sector respondents, security motivation results in an average decrease of only 0.575 hours per week. This finding indicates that job security motivation has significant outcomes for public sector workers, but not for nonprofit workers. However, this finding may also be a result of more widespread security motivation among public sector employees. For example, more than half of the public sector respondents indicate that job security, the organization's pension or retirement plan, and benefits were very important motivations for taking the current position, compared to 38%, 19%, and 35% of nonprofit respondents, respectively (See table 3.10).

[24] It is possible that this state difference in nonprofit respondents is driven by the type of nonprofits based in Georgia and Illinois. However, a correlation analysis found no significant relationships between type of nonprofit and state (-.050) and an Anova test found no significant relationship between type of nonprofit (e.g. 501(c)3) and state.

Table 3.10: Security Motivation Items, by Sector

Job security	Public	Nonprofit	Total
not important	28	33	61
somewhat unimportant	51	44	95
somewhat important	217	165	382
very important	491	149	640
Total	787	391	1178
		Pearson Chi-Square	64.983
		Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	.000

The organization's pension or retirement plan	Public	Nonprofit	Total
not important	41	69	110
somewhat unimportant	74	70	144
somewhat important	271	176	447
very important	402	75	477
Total	788	390	1178
		Pearson Chi-Square	132.223
		Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	.000

Benefits (medical, insurance)	Public	Nonprofit	Total
not important	37	40	77
somewhat unimportant	57	47	104
somewhat important	245	165	410
very important	449	136	585
Total	788	388	1176
		Pearson Chi-Square	54.395
		Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	.000

Among public sector protégés, an increase in civic activities is significantly related to an increase in the amount of time spent at work each week. Although previous research indicates that nonprofit employees report more volunteerism than public sector workers (Rotolo & Wilson 2006). In the case of protégés in the nonprofit sector, the amount of civic activity is not significantly related to time spent at work. It is possible that engaging in social and civic activities helps to empower public sector employees to work longer hours, or is an indication of the type of person who is involved in social and work life.

Gender is a significant negative predictor of time spent at work among protégés in the nonprofit sector but not for public sector protégés. For the nonprofit protégés, women spend an average four hours less per week at work than men, holding all else constant. Previous research indicates that women are less likely than men to work long hours (Harpaz & Snir 2003), but says nothing about how work hours may be related to sector or mentoring. The difference in the relationship between gender and work hours by sector found here could be explained by either over working among male protégés compared to female protégés in the nonprofit sector or the tendency of male protégés in the public sector not to work overtime or to spend the same amount of time at work as female protégés in the public sector. If men in the public sector are not spending more hours at work each week than women, there would be no significant relationship between gender and work hours for public sector respondents.

Since overworking is not common among the public sector workers in this sample and the public sector has a reputation for promoting family-friendly policies (Ban 2006; Riccucci 2006; Shafritz *et al.* 1992), the gender difference in the nonprofit model is most likely driven by male protégés in the nonprofit sector spending more time at work than their female counterparts. The nonprofit sector has become a popular workplace for women (Hall 1992) and is expected to have more family-friendly policies given societal expectations for fairness in the nonprofit sector (see Gonyea 1999 for a review of literature on family friendly policies in the nonprofit sector). Future research should investigate this relationship to determine how time spent at work is related to positive or negative outcomes for female protégés working in the nonprofit sector.

These models are also important for what is not significant. Mentorship type does not significantly affect the outcomes of hours worked per week. I conclude that having a mentor significantly increases the amount of time spent at work each week, in both the nonprofit and public sectors, but that whether or not the respondent has a formal or organic mentorship or whether or not the mentor works in the same organization as the protégé or not, is not a significant factor in predicting time spent at work. This finding indicates the importance of organizational support for mentoring, regardless of mentorship type.

The models investigating time spent at work among protégés in the public and nonprofit sectors support the third hypothesis that protégé time spent at work varies by sector. Having had a mentor in the nonprofit sector, compared to the public sector, also has a significant positive affect on time spent at work. The pooled regression and the separate nonprofit and public sector models indicate support for the fourth hypothesis that nonprofit managers who report having had a mentor report spending more time at work compared to protégés in the public sector.

Organizational Involvement

After confirming the second hypothesis that having had a mentor positively affects organizational involvement, I ran models predicting organizational involvement among mentored respondents, alone, with the goal of investigating if mentoring varies by sector and if so, how mentoring outcomes vary by sector. These models focus on NASP-III respondents who report having had a mentor and controls for protégé demographics,

work experiences and motivations, and mentorship characteristics. Table 3.11 lists the results from the nonprofit and public sectors models on organizational involvement.[25]

Table 3.11: Comparing Results for Organizational Involvement, by Sector

	Nonprofit Sector		Public Sector	
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	Std. Error
Internal Mentor	-0.095	0.398	0.034	0.380
Organic Mentorship	-0.023	0.505	0.165	0.370
Female Mentor	-0.188	0.421	-0.423	0.380
Mentor Duration	0.000	0.003	-0.002	0.002
End Year	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Financial Motivation	-0.134	0.275	-0.116	0.237
Public Service Motivation	0.081	0.178	0.249	0.217
Security Motivation	0.148	0.191	0.024	0.166
Advancement Motivation	**0.350****	**0.162**	**0.380****	**0.170**
Current job: Manager	-0.435	0.808	**1.139****	**0.555**
Current job: Promotion	-0.001	0.408	-0.058	0.379
Last job: Private Org	-0.391	0.469	-0.127	0.617
Current job: Tenure	-0.062	0.120	0.071	0.052
Manager*Tenure	0.047	0.120	-0.085	0.057
# of employees supervised	-0.002	0.009	**0.004****	**0.001**
Female	0.266	0.416	0.050	0.352
Married	0.117	0.506	0.321	0.422
Nonwhite	**-2.013****	**0.835**	0.295	0.394
Georgia	0.098	0.476	**1.218**$^{+}$	**0.352**
#Children	0.243	0.208	-0.056	0.167
Age	**0.104**$^{+}$	**0.026**	**0.069**$^{+}$	**0.022**
Total Civic Activities	0.001	0.134	0.063	0.102
Org Size	**0.000***	**0.000**	0.000	0.000
Org Age	-0.002	0.005	**-0.012****	**0.005**
(Constant)	37.243	48.607	39.600	43.452

P<.10=* , p<.05=** , p<.01^{+} *two tailed test of significance*

Nonprofit Model: R: 0.558; R^2: 0.311; Adjusted R^2: 0.158; Std. Error of the Estimate: 1.847

Public Model: R: 0.499; R^2: 0.249; Adjusted R^2: 0.163; Std. Error of the Estimate: 2.254

[25] Based on the computed F-value (0.8409) from the Chow test, I rejected the null hypothesis of parameter stability and concluded that the pooled regression is not appropriate for investigating the relationship of mentoring and organizational involvement, by sector. The intercept and coefficients of the public sector and nonprofit sector models are significantly different and cannot be pooled into a single regression.

Advancement motivation and age are both significant and positively related to organizational involvement for protégés working in both the nonprofit and public sectors. Besides the motivation for career advancement and protégé age, there are only a few strong significant predictors of organizational involvement for protégés in the nonprofit sector. For example, although the number of employees in the protégé's organization is significantly related to the protégé's organizational involvement, that relationship is negligible. For protégés in the nonprofit sector, being a minority is negatively related to organizational involvement compared to being white.

For mentored individuals in the public sector, being a manager is significantly related to an increase in organizational involvement. Furthermore, an increase in the number of employees supervised by the protégé is also positively related to organizational involvement. These findings point to a significant relationship between protégé rank and higher organizational involvement. Unfortunately, these models do not specify if higher rank, measured as being a manager and supervising more employees, drives organizational involvement or if individuals with increased organizational involvement are more likely to become managers. Finally, working in Georgia, compared to Illinois, is positively related to organizational involvement for public sector protégés.

For both public and nonprofit sector protégés, the variables controlling for mentorship type, duration, and gender composition are not significantly related to organizational involvement. This finding indicates that although having had a mentor is significantly and positively related to organizational involvement, the type of mentorship is not.

Similar to the models predicting time spent at work, I investigated the possibility of pooling the nonprofit and public sector regressions into a single model. After conducting a Chow test on the subpopulation models predicting organizational involvement for nonprofit and public sector protégés (F-value (0.8409)), I reject the null hypothesis of parameter stability and concluded that the pooled regression is not appropriate for investigating the relationship of mentoring and organizational involvement, by sector. The intercept and coefficients of the public sector and nonprofit sector models are significantly different and cannot be pooled into a single regression. This test further supports the fifth hypothesis that the relationship between mentoring and organizational involvement varies by sector. Unfortunately, because it is not appropriate to run a pooled regression for organizational involvement, I cannot confirm the hypothesis regarding the magnitude of the effect that mentoring has on increasing organizational involvement in the nonprofit sector, compared to the public sector. Therefore, I fail to reject or confirm the sixth hypothesis that mentoring plays a larger role in increasing organizational involvement in the nonprofit sector than in the public sector.

In summary, protégé work behavior, measured as time spent at work and organizational involvement, significantly varies between the nonprofit and public sectors. For nonprofit protégés, working in Georgia and being a woman significantly decreases the amount of time spent at work and increased security motivation and age and being white significantly increases organizational involvement. For public sector protégés, and increase in the desire for job security and the number of children reduces the amount of time spent at work each week, while an increase in civic activity increases time spent at

work. In addition, increased advancement motivation and rank and working in Georgia are positively related to organizational involvement for public sector protégés.

Unfortunately, the OLS models presented in this chapter are limited in their ability to compare and contrast the magnitude of effects for nonprofit and public sector protégés. A multilevel model, compared to OLS or multilevel analysis of variance (MANOVA) can be used when data are incomplete – as is often the case with survey data – and does not assume that observations are independent. Unlike MANOVA, multilevel modeling specifies direct effects of variables upon each other within one level and between multiple levels. A multilevel model using random coefficient models is an alternative method which enables the investigation of the proportion of variance that is explained by individual and group level characteristics and gives a better picture of variation in work behavior outcomes, by sector.

CHAPTER 4

VARIATION IN MENTORING OUTCOMES, MULTILEVEL MODELS

Multilevel Modeling: Sector Specific Mentoring

In addition to running the models on the nonprofit and public sector samples, I use a multilevel modeling to investigate the proportion of variance in mentoring outcomes that is explained by individual factors and sector. Hierarchical linear models are most appropriate when data have a hierarchical structure and individual subjects collect into groups which influence outcomes. Relying on methods, such as OLS regression, which focus on individual outcomes as a unit of analysis and control for group effects, can obscure the relationship between individual characteristics and group and organizational effects. The multilevel model enables the investigation of individual level and group level influences and the interactions between those levels by dropping the OLS assumption of independence of observations (Bryk & Raudenbush 1992; Heinrich & Lynn 1999) and allows for correlated error structures.

Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) is becoming increasingly popular in assessing individual and group level determinants of social outcomes. Multilevel modeling is prominent in health (for example see Kindlon *et al.* 1996; Wyrwich & Wolinsky 2000) and education studies (for example see Thomas *et al.* 1993; Gutman *et al.* 2003; Lee & Loeb 2000; Coulton *et al.* 1999). More recently, public administration scholars have called for an increase in the use of multilevel modeling (Heinrich & Lynn 1999). Buelens and Van den Broeck's (2007) recent analysis of work motivation among employees in public and private sector organizations is one example of how multilevel modeling can be used in public administration research. Buelens and Van den Broeck's

(2007) findings confirm previous research indicating that public sector employees are less extrinsically motivated than private sector employees and conclude that hierarchical level and differences in job content are more important in determining work motivation than sectoral differences.

Of course, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) can be used to assess group level affects, however MANOVA investigates main and interaction effects of categorical variables on multiple dependent interval variances using one or more categorical variables as predictors. Multilevel modeling, on the other hand, is used for analyzing data in a nested structure where lower-level units of analysis are nested within higher-level units of analysis. HLM can be used to analyze categorical or continuous dependent variables. HLM uses random coefficient models and can be used more easily than MANOVA when the data are incomplete, which is often the case with survey data. Most important, HLM does not assume independent observations and can be used when intraclass correlation, a measure of the extent to which observations are not independent of the second-level group variable, exists (Maas & Snijders 2003).

The multilevel modeling approach here enables the exploration of mentoring outcomes given the disparate nature of the public and nonprofit sectors and investigates the proportion of mentoring outcomes predicted by individual and group level differences. The multilevel regression models include a within group model (Level 1) and a between group model (Level 2). In this study, individual respondents and variables related to individual job history, current job characteristics, mentorship characteristics, and demographics constitute the first level of the analysis and the variable for sector

(nonprofit or public) and organizational controls (age and size) constitute the second level.

Since I predict that mentoring results in increased time spent at work and organizational involvement, which may or may not align with the interests of the organization, it is important to understand how individual and group characteristics affect outcomes. By using a multilevel model, I assess the proportion of mentoring outcomes that relate to individual characteristics and experiences and group factors. It is possible that public and nonprofit managers are similarly motivated but that their experiences working in different sectors create different outcomes. For example, previous research (Berman 1999) has found that though top managers in local government, social service organizations, and museums demonstrate similar levels of professionalism the conditions within public and nonprofit organizations differently affect employee levels of professionalism over time. This multilevel model offers a useful tool for understanding when and how distinctions between sectors affect mentoring outcomes.

Figure 3 illustrates how the hierarchical linear model operates. At the first level the individual factors including mentorship characteristics, work motivation controls, work-related controls, and demographics influence time spent at work and organizational involvement. At the second level, group effects such as sector, organization age, and organization size affect outcomes. The multilevel model not only separates individuals and group factors, but calculates the proportion of variance at each level.

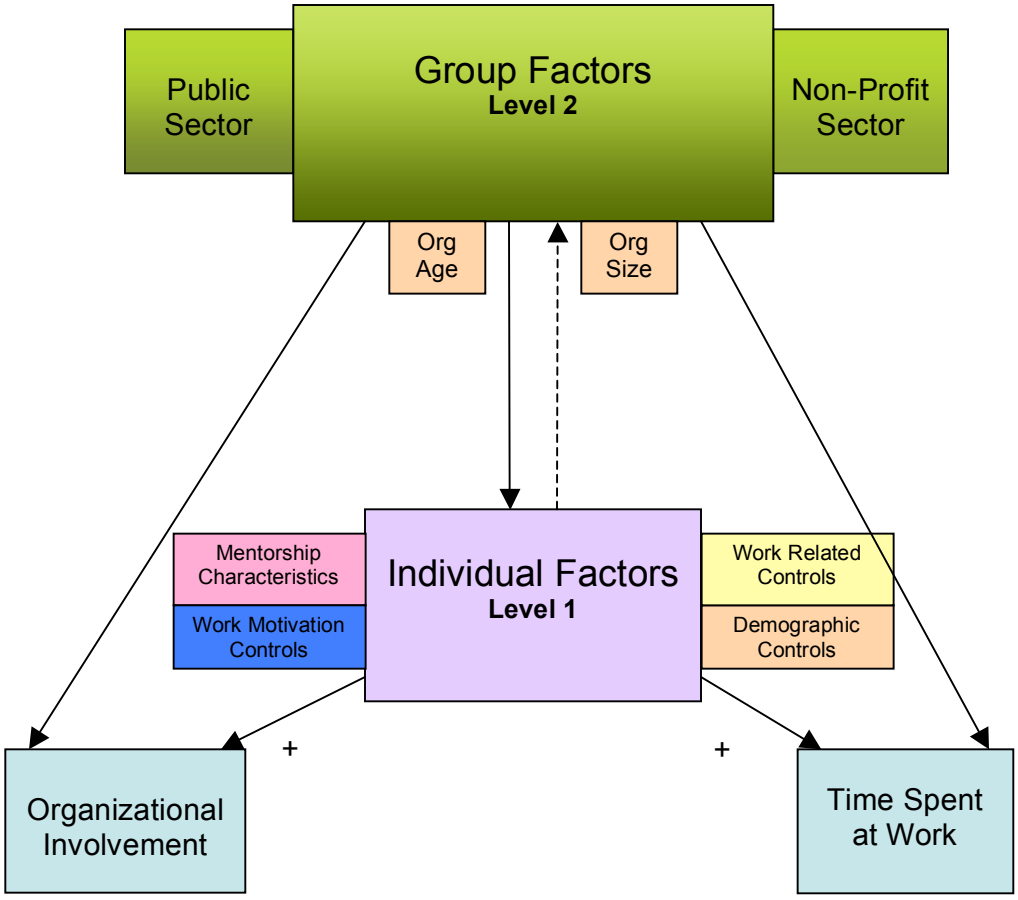

Figure 3: Multilevel Mentoring Concept of Mentoring Outcomes

Compared to Figure 2, the multilevel model predicts the mentoring outcomes for all respondents and treats having a mentor as an equivalent treatment to all respondents. The split sample model in Figure 2 predicts the outcomes for public sector employees independent of the outcomes of nonprofit employees, and vice versa. Rather than separate the public and nonprofit sector respondents into different models, as seen in Figure 2, the multilevel model uses group and individual level factors to predict the outcomes of mentoring for all respondents while, at the same time, allocating a proportion of the causation to both levels. The reciprocal arrows between the level-1 variables and the

level-2 variables illustrate the relationship between individuals and their group environment (organization and sector). This research is particularly interested in how sector and group factors differently affect outcomes for individuals compared to individual factors.

Data Description and Model Format

I took the following steps to prepare the data to be imported into the newest version of Raudenbush, Bryk, and Congdon's HLM6 software. First, I removed all respondents who did not report having had a mentor from the dataset, thus reducing the analysis to the 625 individuals who reported having had a mentor. Second, I dealt with the missing values in the dataset.

Although HLM6 has the capacity to run analyses with some missing data, there are 22 variables which have missing cases. Thirteen of the variables have more than 10 missing cases and seven variables have more than 30 missing cases (See Appendix D). HLM6 would not allow the creation of the Multivariate Data Matrix (MDM) file with numerous missing cases. There are multiple options for dealing with these missing data. The first two options require excluding missing data, either the cases or the variables. First, I could delete all respondents with missing data. This option would have resulted in the elimination of at least 89 respondents from the data. A second option would be to delete the variables which have numerous missing data. For example, the following variables were missing numerous responses: mentorship duration (53 missing) and Organization Age (45 missing). Removing these variables, however, would make it difficult to compare these models to the previous OLS regressions and would reduce the number of variables at the second level causing the program to crash. Furthermore,

removing cases or variables increases the risk of reaching invalid and insignificant results.

The third option is to develop a mechanism for filling in the missing data, such as inputting the median or mode response. Instead of limiting the analysis to complete cases, I chose to use all of the data by replacing missing values with estimates. Inputting missing data increases the chance of reaching statistically significant results, retains a larger sample size, and ensures that the hierarchical linear models have the same variables as the previous regression models. Estimating missing values removes hidden bias which may emerge if missing values were simply deleted and ensures that all groups, even those with low responses, are represented in the analysis. Assigning values to the missing data maintains a larger number of respondents and retains all variables from the previous OLS regressions. After conducting a Missing Value Analysis and examining the data from several angles, I inputted missing values through expectation maximization (EM) algorithms (see Allison (2001) and Little & Rubin (1987) for more on missing data analysis). Expectation maximization algorithms enable the diagnosis of serious missing data imputation problems and the replacement of missing values with estimates.

Having used EM algorithms to input values for all missing data, I created the Multivariate Data Matrix (MDM) file in the HLM6 program. The MDM level-1 file has 625 cases and 22 variables. The MDM level-2 file has 228 cases and 3 variables. In order to match the level-1 and level-2 files, it was necessary to identify a variable to which all individuals could be grouped at the second level.

Because there are only two sectors in this analysis, nonprofit and public, there are not enough groups to categorize the individual protégés. The binary variable, Sector, is

not a sufficient variable for grouping individuals because it would put individuals into two groups and HLM6 requires that there be multiple groups. I was not able to categorize the groups by agency type (regulatory, distributive, and redistributive) since there is no comparable grouping for nonprofit organizations. Likewise, the categories of nonprofit type (e.g. 501(c)3 or 501(c)6) lack a comparable public sector grouping. As a compromise, the second level of the analysis includes all group level variables above the individual level, including organizational and sector groupings.

I developed an organizational identification variable for all mentored respondents. The variable, **Organizational ID**, groups respondents by employer organizations. Organizational ID has the advantage of providing multiple groups for the level-2 analysis and ensuring that public and nonprofit respondents do not overlap in groupings. The 406 mentored public sector respondents are from 52 public agencies in Georgia and Illinois. Because many of the nonprofit respondents were the single respondent for the organization, there are a total of 172 nonprofit organizations for the 219 mentored nonprofit respondents.

The analyses predicting time spent at work and organizational involvement use the same predictor variables, independent variables, and controls. The within organization model (level 1) estimates the influence of individual work, mentorship, and demographic characteristics on time spent at work.

The individual Level 1 model is:

$$Y = B_0 + B_1*(\text{Security Motivation}) + B_2*(\text{Advancement Motivation}) + B_3*(\text{Financial Motivation}) + B_4*(\text{Public Service Motivation}) + B_5*(\text{Total Civic Activities}) + B_6*(\text{Internal}) + B_7*(\text{Organic}) + B_8*(\text{Mentor Female}) + B_9*(\text{Mentor Duration}) + B_{10}*(\text{EndYear}) + B_{11}*(\text{Age}) + B_{12}*(\text{Female}) + B_{13}*(\text{Georgia}) + B_{14}*(\text{Nonwhite}) + B_{15}*(\#\text{Children}) + B_{16}*(\text{Married}) + B_{17}*(\text{Current Job Tenure}) + B_{18}*(\text{Manager}) +$$

B_{19}*(Previous Job Private) + B_{20}*(Current Job Promotion) + B_{21}*(#Employees Supervised) + B_{22}*(manager_tenure) + R

The between organizations model (Level 2) estimates the influence of organization size, organization age, and sector on time spent at work and organizational involvement.

The Level-2 model is:

$B_0 = G_{00} + G_{01}$*(Sector) + G02*(Org Age) + G_{03}*(Org Size) + U_0

$B_1 = G_{10}$
$B_2 = G_{20}$
$B_3 = G_{30}$
$B_4 = G_{40}$
$B_5 = G_{50}$
$B_6 = G_{60}$
$B_7 = G_{70}$
$B_8 = G_{80}$
$B_9 = G_{90}$
$B = G_{100}$
$B_{11} = G_{110}$
$B_{12} = G_{120}$
$B_{13} = G_{130}$
$B_{14} = G_{140}$
$B_{15} = G_{150}$
$B_{16} = G_{160}$
$B_{17} = G_{170}$
B_{18} =18 G_{180}
$B_{19} = G_{190}$
$B_{20} = G_{200}$
$B_{21} = G_{210}$
$B_{22} = G_{220}$

Time Spent at Work

The analysis involved separate and then simultaneous models for the dependent variable, time spent at work. The model includes a within group model (Level 1) and a between group model (Level 2). The between group model captures sectoral differences.

Null Model. The preliminary analysis in HLM assesses the null form of the model and examines the variance of the dependent variable across the individual and group levels (see table 4.1 for null model results). The null or unconstrained model calculates the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) and is the multilevel model without level-1 and level-2 predictors. In the time spent at work null model, the ICC is .333. This means that groups (organization and sector) account for 33% of the variability in time spent at work among protégés in this sample. The differences in time spent at work at the individual and group levels are statistically significant (P-value: 0.000). The ICC indicates that the observations are not independent and that a multilevel model incorporating group and individuals characteristics is appropriate, thus providing statistical support for the use of a multilevel model instead of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) or similar analyses. Protégés in nonprofit organizations are more likely to be similar to each other than they are to protégés in public organizations. The estimate for Intercept1, B_0, Intercept2, G_{00} is 49 which is the average value of the dependent variable across all subjects.

Table 4.1: Time Spent at Work Null Model

Level-1 Model: $Y = B_0 + R$
Level-2 Model: $B_0 = G_{00} + U_0$
Sigma squared = 44.13075
Tau: INTRCPT1, B_0 22.04632
Tau (as correlations): INTRCPT1,B_0 1.000
Reliability estimate: 0.431
The value of the likelihood function at iteration 12= -2.144095E+003

Final estimation of fixed effects

Fixed Effect	Coefficient	S.E.	T-ratio	df	P-value
For Intercept1, B_0 Intercept2, G_{00}	49.125	0.474	103.681	227	0.000

Final estimation of variance components

Random Effect	Std Deviation	Variance	df	Chi^2	P-value
Intercept1 (U_0)	4.695	22.046	227	489.549	0.000
level-1 (R)	6.643	44.131			
ICC		.333			

Full Model. The next step in the HLM modeling is to analyze the improvement in predictions with the full model as compared to the null model (see table 4.2 for full model results). The ICC for the full model is 16% compared to 33% in the null model. The multilevel model, controlling for sector and organization age and size explains approximately half of the variability in protégé time spent at work.

Table 4.2: Final Estimation of Fixed Effects Time Spent at Work Full Model

	Coefficient	Std Error	T-Ratio	P-value
Level-1 – Organization (df=224)				
Intercept1, B_0				
Intercept2, G_{00}	17.325848	80.232	0.216	0.829
Nonprofit	**4.806**$^{+}$	**0.973**	**4.938**	**0.000**
Org Age	-0.016	0.011	-1.545	0.124
Org Size	0.000140	0.000113	1.245	0.215
Level – 2 Individual (df=599)				
Security Motivation	**-1.068**$^{+}$	**0.323**	**-3.310**	**0.001**
Advancement Motivation	0.250	0.306	0.817	0.414
Financial Motivation	0.349	0.427	0.819	0.413
Public Service Motivation	**0.870****	**0.343**	**2.541**	**0.012**
Total Civic Activities	**0.763**$^{+}$	**0.200**	**3.818**	**0.000**
Internal Mentor	0.372	0.642	0.579	0.562
Organic Mentor	**1.190***	**0.687**	**1.734**	**0.083**
Female Mentor	0.177	0.674	0.262	0.793
Mentorship Duration	-0.000232	0.005	-0.050	0.961
EndYear	0.000243	0.000385	0.631	0.528
Age	**0.075***	**0.041**	**1.850**	**0.064**
Female	**-1.306****	**0.620**	**-2.106**	**0.035**
Georgia	**1.551***	**0.844**	**1.837**	**0.066**
Nonwhite	0.455	0.818	0.556	0.578
#Children	-0.389	0.281	-1.388	0.166
Married	-0.660	0.720	-0.916	0.360
Job Tenure	**-0.184***	**0.096**	**-1.927**	**0.054**
Job Manager	1.200	1.002	1.198	0.232
Previous Job Private	6.055	2.523	2.400	0.017
Job: Promotion	0.921	0.634	1.453	0.147
#Employees supervised	**0.008****	**0.003**	**2.253**	**0.025**
Manager*Tenure	0.167	0.105	1.588	0.113

p<.10=*, p<.05=**, p<.01^{+}

Reliability estimate: 0.246

The value of the likelihood function at iteration 21 = -2.103575E+003

Final estimation of variance components					
Random Effect	Std Deviation	Variance	df	Chi^2	P-value
Intercept1 (U_0)	2.791	7.787	224	334.179	0.000
level-1 (R)	6.445	41.540			
ICC (.158)					

The estimate for G_{00} in the full model is 17.326, which is the expected dependent variable when all predictor values are zero. In general, the multilevel model finds that the same significant relationships as the OLS regression models (See table 4.3). For example, sector, total civic activities, public service motivation, security motivation, gender, state, job tenure, and age are all significant in the HLM and OLS models. The estimated coefficient of 4.806 for nonprofit protégés indicates the effect of being in a nonprofit organization on time spent at work compared to being in a public organization. More specifically, protégés in nonprofit organizations spend 4.8 more hours at work each week than their counterparts in public organizations.

The proportion of variance assigned to level-1 and level-2 variables in the multilevel model of time spent at work model is of particular interest to this study. The reduction in the variance component from the null model level-1 (from 44.13 to 41.54) and level-2 (from 22.05 to 7.79) indicates that some of the variance in time spent at work is explained by the full model. The following formula is used to obtain the within- and between-unit variance explained by the full model (unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) (Kreft & de Leeuw 1998; Singer 1998). The within-unit variance is 0.0587, indicating that the level-1 variables in the full model explain 6% of the explainable within-unit variance in time spent at work. The between-unit variance is 0.647, showing that the level-2 variables in the full model explain 65% of the explainable between-unit variance in time spent at work.

Table 4.3: Significant Predictors of Time Spent at Work OLS Compared to HLM

Variables	OLS pooled model	OLS Nonprofit	OLS Public	HLM
Nonprofit	**5.766**$^{+}$	-	-	**4.806**$^{+}$
Org Age	-0.017	-0.011	**-0.009**$^{+}$	-0.016
Org Size	**0.000****	0.000	**0.000***	0.0001
Security Motivation	-0.596	-0.954	**-0.575**$^{+}$	**-1.068**$^{+}$
Advancement Motivation	0.127	-0.120	0.436	0.250
Financial Motivation	0.310	1.166	-0.183	0.349
Public Service Motivation	**0.797***	0.122	1.112	**0.870****
Total Civic Activities	**0.641****	0.261	**0.816**$^{+}$	**0.763**$^{+}$
Internal Mentor	1.081	1.898	1.535	0.372
Organic Mentor	0.748	0.871	0.725	**1.190***
Female Mentor	-0.256	-1.922	-0.023	0.177
Mentor Duration	-0.004	-0.018	0.000	-0.0002
End Year	0.000	**0.002**$^{+}$	0.000	0.0002
Age	**0.099****	0.102	0.098	**0.075***
Female	-0.723	**-4.133****	0.994	**-1.306****
Georgia	0.633	**-4.503****	2.554	**1.551***
Nonwhite	0.125	-0.291	-0.619	0.455
#Children	-0.388	-0.636	**-0.442***	-0.389
Married	-0.653	1.320	-0.860	-0.660
Current Job: Tenure	**-0.338****	**-1.122****	-0.216	**-0.184***
Current Job: Manager	0.258	-4.524	1.117	1.200
Previous Job Private	-1.900	-3.062	-1.796	6.055
Current Job: Promotion	-0.407	-1.040	-0.883	0.921
#Employees supervised	0.003	-0.011	0.004	**0.008****
Manager*Tenure	**0.253***	**0.952**$^{+}$	0.178	0.167

P<.10=*, p<.05=**, p<.01^{+}
OLS results found in Chapter Three

The multilevel model indicates that individual factors such as mentorship, work, and demographic characteristics explain a smaller proportion of variance in time spent at work compared to group level characteristics to organization age, size, and sector. This hierarchical level model supports the hypothesis that sector plays a significant and strong role in the amount of time that protégés spent at work.

H_3: Protégé time spent at work will vary by sector.

Furthermore, the multilevel model confirms that:

> *H_4: Nonprofit managers who report having had a mentor report spending more time at work compared to mentored respondents who work in the public sector.*

In addition, the multilevel model indicates that sector explains a larger proportion of the variance in the amount of time that protégés spend at work than all of the individual level variables in this analysis combined.

Organizational Involvement

Null Model. In the null model for organizational involvement, the estimate for the level-2 variance is 1.25 and for level-1 is 6.07 (see table 4.4 for null model). The null model for organizational involvement has an intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) of .170, indicating that groups (organization and sector) account for 17% of the variability in organizational involvement among protégés in this sample. The differences in organizational involvement at the individual and group levels are statistically significant (P-value: 0.000). The ICC indicates that the observations are not independent and that a multilevel model is appropriate. The estimate for Intercept1, B_0, Intercept2, G_{00} is 17.618 which is the average value of the dependent variable, organizational involvement, across all subjects.

Full Model. The full model of organizational involvement explains .3% of the within group variation and 5% of the variation at Level-1 of the null model. The ICC for the full model is 5% compared to 17% in the null model (see table 4.5 for results). The multilevel model, controlling for sector and organization age and size explains approximately one third of the variability in organizational involvement.

Table 4.4: Organizational Involvement Null Model

Level-1 Model: $Y = B_0 + R$
Level-2 Model: $B = G_{00} + U_0$
Sigma squared = 6.06898
Tau: INTRCPT1, B0 1.24529
Tau (as correlations): INTRCPT1,B_0 1.000
Reliability estimate: 0.260
The value of the likelihood function at iteration 61= -1.490670E+003

Final estimation of fixed effects

Fixed Effect	Coefficient	S.E.	T-ratio	df	P-value
For Intercept1, B_0 Intercept2, G_{00}	17.618	0.145	121.59	227	0.000

Final estimation of variance components

Random Effect	Std Deviation	Variance	df	Chi^2	P-value
Intercept1 (U_0)	1.116	1.245	227	335.775	0.000
level-1 (R)	2.463	6.069			
ICC (.170)					

The estimate for Intercept1, B_0, Intercept2, G_{00} in the full model is 34.888, which is the expected value of organizational involvement when all the predictor values are zero. The reduction in the variance component from the null model level-1 (from 6.07 to 5.23) and level-2 (from 1.25 to 0.29) indicates that some of the variance in organizational involvement is explained by the multilevel models. Specifically, using the within- and between-unit variance formula (Kreft & de Leeuw 1998; Singer 1998), the level-1 variables in the full model explain 16% of the within-unit variance and the level-2 variables explain 77% of the between-unit variance in organizational involvement. However, the remaining variance components for level-1 (5.23) and level-2 (0.29) are evidence that there are additional predicators of organizational involvement that are absent from this model.

Table 4.5: Final Estimation of Fixed Effects Organizational Involvement Full Model

	Coefficient	Std Error	T-Ratio	P-value
Level-1 (df=224)				
Intercept1, B0				
Intercept2, G_{00}	34.888	27.434	1.272	0.205
Nonprofit	**1.690**$^{+}$	**0.290**	**5.821**	**0.000**
Org Age	-0.004	0.003	-1.330	0.185
Org Size	0.000	0.000	-0.514	0.607
Level-2 (df=599)				
Security Motivation	-0.056	0.111	0.505	0.613
Advancement Motivation	**0.477**$^{+}$	**0.105**	**4.529**	**0.000**
Financial Motivation	0.189	0.147	1.278	0.202
Public Service Motivation	**0.322**$^{+}$	**0.117**	**2.753**	**0.007**
Total Civic Activities	0.066	0.069	0.949	0.343
Internal Mentor	**0.465****	**0.221**	**2.104**	**0.036**
Organic Mentor	-0.031	0.238	0.131	0.896
Female Mentor	**-0.533****	**0.231**	**-2.305**	**0.022**
Mentorship Duration	0.001	0.002	0.927	0.354
EndYear	0.000	0.000	-0.630	0.529
Age	**0.063**$^{+}$	**0.014**	**4.501**	**0.000**
Female	0.320	0.214	1.496	0.135
Georgia	**0.951**$^{+}$	**0.249**	**3.820**	**0.000**
Nonwhite	0.367	0.282	1.300	0.194
#Children	0.086	0.097	0.888	0.375
Married	0.407	0.248	1.637	0. 102
Job Tenure	0.021	0.033	0.634	0.526
Job Manager	**0.680****	**0.347**	**1.960**	**0.050**
Previous Job Private	-0.951	0.836	-1.137	0. 256
Job: Promotion	-0.026	0.219	-0.119	0.906
#Employees supervised	**0.004**$^{+}$	**0.001**	**3.000**	**0.003**
Manager*Tenure	-0.031	0.037	-0.856	0.393

p<.10=*, p<.05=**, p<.01^{+}

Reliability estimate: 0.104

Value of the likelihood function at iteration 21 = -1.461581E+003

Final estimation of variance components

Random Effect	Std Deviation	Variance	df	Chi^2	P-value
Intercept1 (U_0)	0.536	0.287	224	217.974	>.500
level-1 (R)	2.288	5.234			
ICC (.052)					

Similar to the OLS models predicting organizational involvement, the HLM results indicate that advancement motivation, protégé age, Georgia, current job: tenure, and the number of employees supervised are significant predictors of organizational involvement. Public service motivation (PSM) in the multilevel model is a significant predictor of organizational involvement. This finding is interesting because it indicates that PSM, as an individual level variable is related to organizational involvement. It is possible that in the OLS models, the effects of PSM on organizational involvement were captured by the error term or the group level variables. Furthermore, though none of the mentorship characteristics were significant in the OLS regression models, the multilevel model results indicate that having had a mentor in the same organization as the protégé is positively associated with organizational involvement. Second, having had a female mentor is significantly negatively related to organizational involvement.

The variable of primary interest to this research is the level-2 variable, nonprofit. Working in a nonprofit organization, compared to a public organization, has the effect of increasing organizational involvement by 1.69. This significant, positive relationship supports the fifth hypothesis:

> *H_5: The relationship between mentoring and organizational involvement varies by sector.*

In addition, the results of the HLM support hypothesis six. The multilevel analysis enabled the comparison of the two groups (nonprofit and public sector protégés) which was inappropriate using the OLS regression analysis.[26] Even though the sub-sample models in Chapter Three were inconclusive about whether or not mentoring plays a larger

[26] Note: The Chow tests on the OLS regression in Chapter Three indicated that a pooled regression for nonprofit and public sector protégés was inappropriate.

role in increasing organizational involvement in the nonprofit sector than the public sector, the HLM supports the hypothesis:

> *H_6: Mentoring plays a larger role in increasing organizational involvement in the nonprofit sector than in the public sector.*

Table 4.6: Significant Predictors of Organizational Involvement: OLS and HLM

Variables	OLS Nonprofit	OLS Public	HLM
Nonprofit	-	-	**1.690**$^{+}$
Org Age	-0.002	**-0.012****	-0.004
Org Size	**0.000***	0.000	0.000
Security Motivation	0.148	0.024	-0.056
Advancement Motivation	**0.350****	**0.380****	**0.477**$^{+}$
Financial Motivation	-0.134	-0.116	0.189
Public Service Motivation	0.081	0.249	**0.322**$^{+}$
Total Civic Activities	0.001	0.063	0.066
Internal Mentor	-0.095	0.034	**0.465****
Organic Mentor	-0.023	0.165	-0.031
Female Mentor	-0.188	-0.423	**-0.533****
Mentor Duration	0.000	-0.002	0.001
End Year	0.000	0.000	0.000
Age	**0.104**$^{+}$	**0.069**$^{+}$	**0.063**$^{+}$
Female	0.266	0.050	0.320
Georgia	0.098	**1.218**$^{+}$	**0.951**$^{+}$
Nonwhite	**-2.013****	0.295	0.367
#Children	0.243	-0.056	0.086
Married	0.117	0.321	0.407
Current Job: Tenure	-0.062	0.071	0.021
Current Job: Manager	-0.435	**1.139****	**0.680****
Previous Job Private	-0.391	-0.127	-0.951
Current Job: Promotion	-0.001	-0.058	-0.026
#Employees supervised	-0.002	**0.004****	**0.004**$^{+}$
Manager*Tenure	0.047	-0.085	-0.031

P<.10=*, p<.05=**, p<.01^{+}

In summary, the multilevel model indicates that the behavioral outcomes of mentoring do, indeed, vary by sector (see table 4.7). First, having had a mentor significantly increases the amount of time spent at work each week and organizational involvement for all protégés, regardless of sector. Second, having had a mentor

significantly increases time spent at work and organizational involvement to a larger extent for nonprofit protégés as compared to protégés working in the public sector. Third, the multilevel models indicate that individual factors explain 6% and 16% of the within-unit variance in organizational involvement and time spent at work, respectively. The group level variables, largely driven by the dummy variable for nonprofit and public sector, explain 65% of the between-unit variance in organizational involvement and 77% of the between-unit variance in time spent at work.

Fourth, the multilevel models, unlike the OLS models, indicate that mentorship characteristics are significantly related to within-unit variance in work behavior, though it is important to remember that only a small portion of within-unit variance in the work behavior measures is explained by the level-1 independent variables. It is possible that the effects of mentorship characteristics fell into the error term in the OLS models, but appear in the multilevel model because the individual and group level variables are allowed to interact and the individual and group affects are no longer obscured. By dropping the OLS assumption of the independence of observations, the multilevel model allows for correlated error structures that can enable significant variables such as these mentorship characteristics to emerge.

The multilevel models indicate that first, protégés who report having organic mentorships spend, on average, 1.19 more hours at work per week than protégés who report having mentors which were formally arranged by organizations or formal programs. Second, having a female mentor significantly lowers organizational involvement and having an internal mentor compared to a mentor in a different organization is positively related to organizational involvement. These findings indicate

that though having a mentor, in general, increases protégé time spent at work and organizational involvement, work behavior may also be influenced by the nature of the mentorship and the role that organizations play in matching mentors and protégés.

Table 4.7: Summary: HLM Results Predicting Work Behavior Mentoring Outcomes

	Time Spent at Work			**Organizational Involvement**		
Level-1 – Organization	Coeff.	SE	P-value	Coeff.	SE	P-value
INTRCPT1, B0						
INTRCPT2, G00	17.326	80.232	0.829	34.888	27.434	0.205
Nonprofit	**4.806**	**0.973**	**0.000**$^{+}$	**1.690**	**0.290**	**0.000**$^{+}$
Org Age	-0.016	0.011	0.124	-0.004	0.003	0.185
Org Size	0.000140	0.000113	0.215	0.000	0.000	0.607
Level – 2 Individual						
Security Motivation	**-1.068**	**0.323**	**0.001**$^{+}$	-0.056	0.111	0.613
Advancement Motivation	0.250	0.306	0.414	**0.477**	**0.105**	**0.000**$^{+}$
Financial Motivation	0.349	0.427	0.413	0.189	0.147	0.202
Public Service Motivation	**0.870**	**0.343**	**0.012****	**0.322**	**0.117**	**0.007**$^{+}$
Total Civic Activities	**0.763**	**0.200**	**0.000**$^{+}$	0.066	0.069	0.343
Internal Mentor	0.372	0.642	0.562	**0.465**	**0.221**	**0.036****
Organic Mentor	**1.190**	**0.687**	**0.083***	-0.031	0.238	0.896
Female Mentor	0.177	0.674	0.793	**-0.533**	**0.231**	**0.022****
Mentorship Duration	-0.000232	0.005	0.961	0.001	0.002	0.354
EndYear	0.000243	0.000385	0.528	0.000	0.000	0.529
Age	**0.075**	**0.041**	**0.064***	**0.063**	**0.014**	**0.000**$^{+}$
Female	**-1.306**	**0.620**	**0.035****	0.320	0.214	0.135
Georgia	**1.551**	**0.844**	**0.066***	**0.951**	**0.249**	**0.000**$^{+}$
Nonwhite	0.455	0.818	0.578	0.367	0.282	0.194
#Children	-0.389	0.281	0.166	0.086	0.097	0.375
Married	-0.660	0.720	0.360	0.407	0.248	0. 102
Job Tenure	**-0.184**	**0.096**	**0.054***	0.021	0.033	0.526
Job Manager	1.200	1.002	0.232	**0.680**	**0.347**	**0.050****
Previous Job Private	6.055	2.523	0.017	-0.951	0.836	0. 256
Job: Promotion	0.921	0.634	0.147	-0.026	0.219	0.906
#Employees supervised	**0.008**	**0.003**	**0.025****	**0.004**	**0.001**	**0.003**$^{+}$
Manager*Tenure	0.167	0.105	0.113	-0.031	0.037	0.393
Components	**Null**	**Full**		**Null**	**Full**	
Within Groups (R level1)	44.13	41.54		6.07	5.23	
Between Groups (U_0 level2)	22.05	7.79		1.25	0.29	
	% of Variance Explained			**% of Variance Explained**		
Within Groups (R level1)	6%			16%		
Between Groups (U_0 level2)	65%			77%		

P<.10=*, p<.05=**, p<.01^{+}

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This research uses OLS regression and multilevel modeling to investigate the following research questions: Does mentoring affect protégé time spent at work and organizational involvement? And, how do protégé time spent at work and organizational involvement vary by sector? To answer the first question, this study compares time spent at work and organizational involvement between mentored and non-mentored individuals in the NASP-III sample. The data indicate that having had a mentor is significantly related to the amount of time a protégé spends at work each week and organizational involvement among protégés.

To answer the second research question, this study investigates the differences in mentoring outcomes between employees in nonprofit and public organizations. The data indicate that the effects of having a mentor on time spent at work and organizational involvement vary by sector and that having a mentor in the nonprofit sector, compared to the public sector, has a larger affect on work behavior outcomes. Finally, the multilevel model indicates the proportion of outcome variance attributed to individual and group level factors.

Summary of Findings

Preliminary Analysis. The preliminary analysis in Chapter One investigates the effects of mentoring among public and nonprofit managers; comparing mentored individuals to nonmentored individuals the analysis indicates that having had a mentor is significantly related to time spent at work and organizational involvement. First, the preliminary analysis on the full NASP-III sample indicates support for the first

hypothesis that having had a mentor positively affects the amount of time an individual spends at work. In fact, having had a mentor increases the amount of time spent at work by an average of 1.7 hours per week, holding all else constant. Second, the preliminary analysis indicates support for the second hypothesis that having had a mentor positively affects individual organizational involvement. This research adds to the existing mentoring literature by identifying two new behavioral outcomes of mentorships. Having had a mentor significantly affects the amount of time a protégé spends at work and a protégé's level of organizational involvement. These are important outcomes because they point to significant changes in protégé behavior. These behavioral outcomes are further investigated in the analysis of mentored respondents which examines sectoral distinctions in mentoring outcomes.

Analysis of Mentored Respondents. The results of the analysis of mentored respondents, presented in Chapter Three, indicate that the mentoring outcomes of time spent at work and organizational involvement significantly vary by sector. The models predicting time spent at work support the third hypothesis that protégé time spent at work varies by sector. The sector-based models and pooled regression predicting time spent at work also support the fourth hypotheses that nonprofit managers who report having had a mentor spend more time at work compared to mentored respondents in the public sector.

The results from the model predicting organizational involvement support the fifth hypothesis that the relationships between mentoring and organizational involvement vary by sector. Unfortunately, because it is not appropriate to pool the nonprofit and public sector regressions on organizational involvement, it is difficult to test the sixth hypothesis that having had a mentor plays a larger role in increasing organizational

involvement in the nonprofit sector than in the public sector. The preliminary analysis on organizational involvement indicated that nonprofit respondents reported increased organizational involvement, compared to public sector respondents and that having a mentor is significantly related to increased organizational involvement. However, among mentored respondents, the two samples cannot be combined into a pooled regression to test the magnitude of variance in the mentoring outcomes of organizational involvement for mentored respondents. The final analysis using multilevel methods elucidates this relationship between sector variance and organizational involvement.

Multilevel Analysis of Mentored Respondents. The multilevel analysis, presented in Chapter Four, supports the OLS findings that having had a mentor is significantly related to the outcomes of time spent at work and organizational involvement and that these relationships vary between the public and nonprofit sectors. The multilevel model has the advantage of indicating how much of the variance in outcomes is due to individual factors, such as work motivation, job history, current job characteristics, mentorship characteristics, and demographic characteristics and how much of the variance can be attributed to group level factors including organization age, organization size, and sector.

The multilevel model predicting time spent at work indicates that group factors account for some of the variation in time spent at work. Six percent of the explainable within-unit variance in time spent at work is explained by the level-1 variables, or individual factors in the model. The level-2 variables, in comparison, explain 65% of the explainable between-unit variance in time spent at work. The multilevel model of time spent at work supports the third hypothesis that sector plays a significant and strong role

in the amount of time that protégés spent at work. It also supports the fourth hypothesis that nonprofit managers who have had a mentor spend significantly more time at work each week than mentored public sector respondents. In fact, the model indicates that the group level variables, in particular the variable nonprofit sector, explain a much larger proportion of the variance in time spent at work than the individuals factors.

The multilevel model for organizational involvement also produced significant results for the two levels of analysis. The results indicate that the level-1 variables in the full model explain 16% of the within-unit variance and the level-2 variables explain 77% of the between-unit variance in organizational involvement. The model also indicates that the primary variable of interest, the level-2 variable, nonprofit, is a significant predictor of organizational involvement. Working in a nonprofit organization, compared to a public organization, has the effect of increasing organizational involvement by 1.69. This significant, positive relationship supports the fifth hypothesis that the relationship between mentoring and organizational involvement varies by sector. Furthermore, this result indicates that mentoring in the nonprofit sector has a stronger affect on increasing organizational involvement than among public sector protégés.

The preliminary analyses and analyses on mentored individuals confirm that having had a mentor significantly affects work behavior and that having had a mentor differently affects protégés in the nonprofit and public sectors. In fact, 65% of the variance in time spent at work and 77% of variance in organizational involvement is explained by the level-2 variable, nonprofit sector. This study draws attention to the need for additional sector based research on mentoring and multilevel analyses which can

unpack how mentor work behavior outcomes are driven by individual and group level factors.

Mentorship Outcomes

Time Spent at Work

This study finds that having had a mentor significantly affects the amount of time individuals spend at work each week. The model comparing mentoring and nonmentored individuals finds that respondents who have had a mentor work an average 1.7 more hours per week, holding all else constant.

When comparing mentored individuals, by sector, this research finds that among public sector respondents, the amount of time spent at work each week is significantly negatively related to a desire for job security and having children and positively related to engaging in civic activities. This may be an indication of work-leisure balance. For state government employees who have had a mentor, an increase in the number of children at home decreases the time spent at work. Furthermore, a public sectgor protégé who is highly engaged in civic activities spends more time at work each week than those who do not report civic activities. This is most likely an indication of being a highly involved individual.

For nonprofit respondents the amount of time spent at work is significantly related to job duration, being a manager, gender, and state of employment. An increase in job duration among protégés in the nonprofit sector is negatively related to time spent at work. However, when job duration is interacted with being a manager (a proxy for rank (Bridges & Villamez 1994)) there is an increase in time spent at work. It is possible that new hires spend less time at work, because they are less senior or less socialized, while

managers who have longer duration in the organization spent more time at work each week. This finding follows Schneider's (1987) Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework, which argues that people who do not fit an organization leave while those who fit stay and become more involved in the organization. Public managers with longer tenure in the organization will be more similar to other public managers and be more likely to share similar work practices, such as not working more than 40 hours a week, while nonprofit protégés who are managers with increased job tenure will develop work patterns similar to their mentors, including an increase in the amount of time spent at work. Finally, female protégés in the nonprofit sector spend less time at work each week than male protégés, thus supporting previous research on female work patterns.

In summary, this research finds that having had a mentor is significantly related to the amount of time a protégé spends at work. Of course, time spent at work could be a positive or negative phenomenon. Time spent at work is not necessarily a measure of productivity or effective use of work time since an increase in time spent at work can be related to wasting time or inefficient activities such as internet surfing, socializing with coworkers, or conducting personal business. However, time spent at work is a measure of work behavior. Increased time spent at work could be a proxy for dedication to the organization and mission. On the other hand, an increase in time spent at work could also be an indication of unhealthy work-life balance or an inability to complete tasks within a reasonable amount of time. Future research should investigate how mentoring affects work-life balance for both mentors and protégés, and if these affects differ by sector.

Organizational Involvement

This research finds that having had a mentor is significantly related to an increase in organizational involvement and that protégés in the nonprofit sector report higher organizational involvement than public sector protégés. Organizational involvement is a mentoring outcome that will be of interest to individuals and organizations. An increase in organizational involvement as an outcome of mentoring not only shapes the work behavior of mentors and protégés, but may help organizations to retain talented employees. Since attracting and retaining talent is becoming a higher priority for public (Partnership 2005a; 2005b) and nonprofit organizations (Stannard-Friel 2007; Halpern 2006), developing mentorships which increase organizational involvement may help to train future leadership. For example, because nonprofit organizations often lack structured career paths, the development of organizational involvement through mentoring may help to groom junior employees so that they stay in the sector and are prepared to take on leadership positions (Stannard-Friel 2007). This research presents empirical evidence to support Halpern's (2006) argument that "research should examine the use of mentoring as a strategy to prepare organizations for succession and transition" (8). Future research should aim to understand how increased organizational involvement can translate to benefits for both individuals, organizations, and the public and nonprofit sectors.

Summary

Mentoring has become an increasingly popular tool in organizations of all types. In the last 20 years, public organizations have adopted mentoring as a tool for recruiting, retaining, and promoting employees. More recently, nonprofit organizations have begun

to develop mentoring programs of their own, or mentoring networks with other nonprofit organizations in order to attract volunteers and groom future leaders. A great deal of academic research has investigated the positive outcomes of mentoring and to a lesser extent the negative outcomes of mentoring. Unfortunately, there is little research investigating mentoring in the public and nonprofit sectors and even less research comparing the outcomes of mentoring, by sector.

This research takes a step towards understanding if and how mentoring differently affects work behavior in the public and nonprofit sectors. This study finds that having a mentor is significantly related to work behavior outcomes and that the outcomes of time spent at work and organizational involvement vary for protégés in the public and nonprofit sectors. The affect of having had a mentor on time spent at work is larger for protégés in the nonprofit sector than for protégés in the public sector. It is possible that mentoring, a tool used for career, social, and emotional develop has a larger influence on nonprofit workers because the cultural norms in the nonprofit sector are less rigid than in the public sector. In the public sector, there is more likely to be a strong norm for working a typical 40-hour week. This norm is reinforced by individual behavior and civil service rules and restrictions. Meanwhile, in smaller, more fluid nonprofit organizations there may be more variation in the amount of time spent at work.

Although having had a mentor has a slight affect on time spent at work, an increase of an average 1.7 hours per week in the generic model comparing mentored and nonmentored respondents in both sectors, this can translate into a large outcome for organizations. The average 1.7 hours per week is an average 88.4 hours per year. In an organization of 100 workers, this translates to an increase in 8,840 work hours, which

should result in significant changes in an organization. This simple calculation demonstrates how an outcome, time spent at work, not typically sought after by mentors and protégés (compared to other expected outcomes of the mentorship such as friendship and increased networks) can result in significant outcomes for organizations.

Similarly, this research finds that the effect of mentoring on organizational involvement is stronger in the nonprofit sector than in the public sector. This is an important finding for nonprofit organizations which face the challenge of attracting and retaining talented workers who can move into executive leadership positions (Halpern 2006, 5). It will become increasingly important for nonprofit organizations to understand how mentoring can help to supplement other efforts to develop and retain talent.

Of course, this research is limited by its inability to address the normative value of increasing time spent at work and organizational involvement. However, this research does bring together the mentoring and sector distinction literatures to better understand how mentoring shapes work behaviors which may be antecedents to the attraction, retention, and promotion of talent to public and nonprofit organizations. Before dedicating organizational resources to mentoring programs, public and nonprofit organizations should investigate how mentoring can be tailored to sector needs such as promoting work-life balance and commitment to the sector, and develop best practices from a sector-based perspective.

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Appendix A: Traditional Scales for Organizational Commitment and Job Involvement

Organizational Commitment Scale (Balfour & Wechsler 1990)

Exchange commitment, (Coefficient alpha value .83)

1. This organization appreciates my accomplishments on the job.
2. This organization does all that it can to recognize employees for good performance.
3. My efforts on the job are largely ignored or overlooked by this organization. (R)

Affiliation commitment, (Coefficient alpha value .81)

1. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.
2. I feel like "part of the family" at this organization.
3. The people I work for do not care about what happens to me. (R)

Identification commitment, (Coefficient alpha value .72)

1. I am quite proud to be able to tell people who it is that I work for.
2. What this organization stands for is important to me.
3. I work for an organization that is incompetent and unable to accomplish its mission. (R)

Organizational Commitment Scale (Mowday, Steers, & Porter 1979)

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organizations be successful.
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R)
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R)
8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R)
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R)
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)

Appendix A Continued

Job Involvement Scale (Lodahl & Kejner 1965)

1. I'll stay overtime to finish job, even if I'm not paid for it.
2. You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he does.
3. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.
4. For me, morning at work really fly by.
5. I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready.
6. The most important things that happen to me involve my work
7. Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking about next day's work.
8. I am really a perfectionist about my work.
9. I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job.
10. I have other activities more important than my work.
11. I live, eat, and breathe my job.
12. I would probably keep working even if didn't need the money.
13. Quite often I feel like staying home from work instead of coming in.
14. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.
15. I am very must involved personally at my work.
16. I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work.
17. I used to be more ambitious my work than I am now.
18. Most things in life are more important than work.
19. I used to care more about work, but now other things are more important to me.

Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for mistakes I make in my work.

Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Penley and Gould 1988)

Moral Commitment Items:

1. I am dedicated to this organization.
2. I feel it is my duty to support this organization.
3. Whenever I am in public, I think of myself as an employee of this organization.
4. It is my personal responsibility to help this organization achieve success.
5. I get upset when people say bad things about this organization.

Calculative Commitment Items

1. I will give my best effort when I know it will be seen by the 'right' people in this organization.
2. I get most involved in my work when I know I'll receive recognition for it.
3. I am motivated by thoughts of getting greater personal rewards from this organization.
4. I put effort into this company to the extent I get something in return for it.
5. I support this organization to the extent that it supports me

Alienative Commitment Items

1. Sometimes I would like to walk out of this organization and never come back.
2. I often feel like I want to 'get even' with this company.
3. I get angry when I think about this organization.
4. I feel trapped here.
5. No matter what I do around here, this organization remains unchanged.

Appendix B: Comparing Respondents Who Have Had a Mentor and Currently Mentored Respondents

Descriptive Statistics for having had a mentor and currently mentored respondents

		Frequency	Valid %	Total
Full Sample	Have you ever had a mentor?	647	54%	1204
	Currently has a mentor	155	24%	645
Public Sector	Have you ever had a mentor?	406	52%	779
	Currently has a mentor	87	22%	403
Nonprofit Sector	Have you ever had a mentor?	219	55%	396
	Currently has a mentor	63	29%	220

ANOVA - Comparing Currently and Previously Mentored Respondents

Test of Homogeneity of Variances	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Time Spent at Work	0.357	1	627	0.551
Organizational Involvement	0.379	1	633	0.538

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Time Spent at Work	Between Groups	116.95	1	116.95	1.869	0.172
	Within Groups	39233.80	627	62.57		
	Total	39350.75	628			
Organizational Involvement	Between Groups	12.44	1	12.44	1.726	0.189
	Within Groups	4562.57	633	7.21		
	Total	4575.01	634			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means		Statistic(a)	df1	df2	Sig.
Time Spent at Work	Welch	1.81	1	253	0.179
	Brown-Forsythe	1.81	1	253	0.179
Organizational Involvement	Welch	1.75	1	264	0.187
	Brown-Forsythe	1.75	1	264	0.187

Asymptotically F distributed

Appendix C: Endogeneity Tests for Having Had a Mentor

Logistic Regression Predicting Having Had a Mentor

	B	Std. Error	Exp(B)
Time spent at work	**.035**$^{+}$	**.012**	**1.035**$^{+}$
Org Involvement	**.062****	**.032**	**1.064****
Nonprofit	.004	.225	1.005
Financial Motivation	.020	.116	1.020
Public Service Motivation	**.232**$^{+}$	**.089**	**1.261**$^{+}$
Security Motivation	-.102	.088	.903
Advancement Motivation	.021	.081	1.021
Current job: Manager	-.132	.293	.877
Current job: Promotion	.230	.172	1.259
Last job: Private organization	.001	.233	1.001
Current job: Tenure	-.028	.027	.972
Manager*Tenure	-.003	.030	.997
# employees supervised	.001	.001	1.001
Female	.269	.169	1.309
Married	.123	.203	1.131
Nonwhite	.105	.234	1.111
Georgia	-.076	.173	.927
#Children	.017	.083	1.017
Age	-.001	.010	.999
Total Civic Activities	.051	.059	1.052
Org Size	.000	.000	1.000
Org Age	.000	.002	1.000
Constant	-4.265	4.433	.014

$p<.10^{*}$, $p<.05^{**}$, $p<.01^{+}$ two tailed test of significance
-2 Log likelihood: 1009.480
Cox & Snell R^2: 0.68
Nagelkerke R^2: .091
Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients: Chi-square: 54.200; df(22): Sig. .000

Appendix C: Endogeneity Tests for Having Had a Mentor

Logistic Regression Predicting Having Had a Mentor

Model 1	B	S.E.	Exp(B)
Time spent at work	.030^{+}	.008	1.031
Org Involvement	.043**	.022	1.044
Constant	-2.003	.460	.135

$p<.10^{*}$, $p<.05^{**}$, $p<.01^{+}$ two tailed test of significance
-2 Log likelihood: 10.824
Cox & Snell R^2: 0.07
Nagelkerke R^2: .270

Logistic Regression Predicting Having Had a Mentor, Controlling for Organic Mentorships

Model 2	B	S.E.	Exp(B)
Time spent at work	-.072	.162	.930
Org Involvement	-.439	.706	.644
Organic mentorship	16.571	1751	15724480
Constant	16.355	14.950	12672890

$p<.10^{*}$, $p<.05^{**}$, $p<.01^{+}$ two tailed test of significance
-2 Log likelihood: 10.824
Cox & Snell R^2: 0.07
Nagelkerke R^2: .270

Appendix D: Missing Variables Analysis

				Missing		# of extremes	
	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Count	Percent	Low	High
Nonprofit	625	0.35	0.477	0	0	0	0
Org Age	580	1946	39	45	7.2	3	0
Org Size	587	3786	5988	38	6.1	0	101
Security Motivation	605	-.041	1	20	3.2	19	0
Advancement Motivation	605	0.054	0.99	20	3.2	14	0
Financial Motivation	621	3.28	0.721	4	0.6	17	0
Public Service Motivation	618	3.28	0.865	7	1.1	39	0
Total Civic Activities	625	2.78	1.485	0	0	0	9
Internal Mentor	619	0.58	0.494	6	1	0	0
Organic Mentor	592	0.77	0.421	33	5.3	.	.
Female Mentor	619	0.32	0.469	6	1	0	0
Mentorship Duration	572	70.47	71.53	53	8.5	0	32
EndYear	587	199616	934	38	6.1	1	0
Age	615	49.3	8.75	10	1.6	1	0
Female	617	0.49	0.5	8	1.3	0	0
Georgia	625	0.45	0.498	0	0	0	0
Nonwhite	598	0.15	0.258	27	4.3	.	.
#Children	608	0.94	1.117	17	2.7	0	5
Married	618	0.78	0.411	7	1.1	.	.
Job Tenure	588	7.06	6.184	37	5.9	0	30
Job Manager	624	0.71	0.456	1	0.2	0	0
Previous Job Private	624	0.01	0.119	1	0.2	.	.
Job: Promotion	624	0.48	0.5	1	0.2	0	0
#Employees supervised	536	25.33	86.96	89	14.2	0	65
Manager*Tenure	612	4.93	6.17	13	2.1	0	29

Appendix E: NASP-III Study Approach

The National Administration Studies Project (NASP) aims to increase our empirical knowledge of public and nonprofit management and administration. NASP-III is an attempt to blend the goals of NASP-I and II while addressing a few new themes of its own. NASP-III collected data from a random sample of public and nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois. Unlike NASP-II, which focused on a single functional agency (health and human services), the NASP-III sample includes managers from agencies and organizations of numerous functions.

The population of public managers in Georgia was drawn from the Georgia Department of Audits (DoA) comprehensive list of state employees who were on state agency payrolls during the 2003/2004 fiscal year. We removed employees at technical colleges, commissions, authorities, the office of the governor, and institutions from the judicial or legislative branch. In addition we removed employees at institutions with less than 20 employees. The population included any job titles coded as "director" "coordinator" “officials or manager” and “professionals” under the pay grade of 017 and all individuals with a pay grade of 017 or higher. The resulting population included 6,164 Georgia managers.

The population of managers in Illinois was developed through a Freedom of Information Act request for a list of all state employees designated as either "senior public service administrators" or "public service administrators." This list included information on 5,461 state employees, including name, agency, and county.

The population of nonprofit managers was purchased from Infocus Marketing, Inc. The list includes members of the American Society of Association Executives (ASAE) with the following job titles:

Administration/Operations Manager	Marketing, Personnel
Executive Director/VP	Public Relations/Public Affairs
Company President/Owner	Sales/Marketing
Development Manager/Director	Financial/bookkeeping
Education Manager/Director	Information systems
Communications/Editors/Publications	Legal Counsel-internal
Government/Government Relations	Chief executive officer

Infocus Marketing provided us with a list of managers from nonprofit organizations, 280 from Georgia and 1048 from Illinois. The Infocus Marketing list is updated monthly. We recognize that by purchasing the list from ASAE, we are receiving a population of self-selected individuals. However, this is currently the best method for obtaining contact information for a large number of nonprofit managers.

Survey Administration: The survey administration included a pre-contact letter, Wave I survey with letter, follow-up postcard mailing, Wave II mailing, follow-up contacts by phone call and email, and a final Wave III mailing. The survey was closed January 1, 2006. We received 549 responses in Wave I, 135 in Wave II, and 111 in Wave III from the public sector respondents. From the nonprofit respondents we received 545 responses from Wave I, 132 in Wave II, and 113 in Wave III. There are no significant differences between response waves.

Response Rates: Though we began with a sample of 2000 public sector respondents our sample was reduced to 1849 (912 Georgia, 937 Illinois) because of respondents who had retired (16 cases) or were no longer working for the state (135 cases). The survey was closed with 432 responses from Georgia and 358 from Illinois public managers. From the list of 1328 individuals in nonprofit organizations, we eliminated two individuals who had retired and 19 who were no longer working at the address provided by ASAE. The final nonprofit population was 1307. Respondents and non-respondents do not significantly vary by state, gender, job rank, salary (for Georgia), or agency of employment. The nonprofit survey was closed with 430 responses from the following types of nonprofit organizations: Title holding corporations for exempt organizations, public charities, civic leagues and social welfare organizations, and labor, agricultural, and horticultural organizations.

Description	Frequency	%	Tax Status	Contributions Allowable
Title Holding Corporations for Exempt Organizations	1	.3	501(c)(2)	No
Public Charity: Religious, Educational, Charitable, Scientific, Literary, Testing for Public Safety, Organizations to Prevent Cruelty to Children or Animals	133	38.6	501(c)(3)	Yes, generally
Civic Leagues and Social Welfare Organizations, and Local Associations	4	1.2	501(c)(4)	No, generally
Labor, Agricultural, and Horticultural Organizations	10	2.9	501(c)(5)	No
Business Leagues, Chambers of Commerce, Real Estate Boards etc.	196	56.8	501(c)(6)	No
Fraternal Beneficiary Societies and Associations	1	.3	501(c)(8)	Yes, for some 501(c)(3) purposes
Total	345	100.0		

Correlations of nonprofit type and dependent variables

	Time Spent at Work	Org Involvement
Type of nonprofit organization	-.001	.040
Public Charity	-.017	-.063
Business Leagues	-.005	.034

** Pearson Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Pearson Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Frequencies for Dependent Variables: N=1220

During a typical work week, about how many hours do you work (including work done outside of office)?
Total: Mean 47; Median 45; Mode 50; Std. Deviation 7.782; Min 20; Max 90; N=1196
Public Sector: Mean 45.06; Median 45; Mode 40; Std. Dev. 6.492, Min 24; Max 68 N=776
Nonprofit Sector: Mean 50.55; Median 50; Mode 50; Std. Dev. 8.669, Min 20; Max 90 N=420

Hours Worked: During a typical work week, about how many hours do you work (including work done outside of office)?

Part-time (1-34 hr/week): Yes, 11, .9%
Full-time (35-40 hr/week): Yes, 349, 29%
Lower overtime (41-48 hr/week): Yes, 333, 28%
Medium overtime (49-69 hr/week): Yes, 493, 41%
Higher overtime (70+ hr/week): Yes, 10, .8%, N=1196

Organizational Involvement (5 items)
Mean 17.08; Std Error of Mean 0.08; Median 18; Mode 20; Std. Deviation 2.814; Variance 7.92; Min 5; Max 20; N=1203

Total days off: sick and on vacation.
Total: Mean 19.39; Median 18; Mode 20; Std. Deviation 13.545; Min 0; Max 173; N=1219

Frequencies for Independent Variables: N=1220

Have you ever had a mentor?: Frequencies: Yes, 647, 53%, N=1220
Public Sector: Have you ever had a mentor: Yes, 406, 52%, N=790
Nonprofit Sector: Have you ever had a mentor: Yes 241, 57%, N=430

Age: Age of respondent in 2005: Range 23-81; Mean 49; Standard Deviation 8.913; N=1204
Generation X (1963-1981): Frequency: 266, 22%; N=1204
Nonprofit Sector: Frequency: 94, 22%; N=430
Public Sector: Frequency: 172, 22%, N=790
Employees over 50 yrs old: Frequency: 407, 52%

Gender: Frequencies: Female 538, 46%, N=1180
Public Sector: Female 346, 44%, N=788
Nonprofit Sector: Female 192, 49%, N=392

State: Frequencies: Illinois 661, 56%; Georgia 530, 44%; N=1191
Public Sector: Illinois 361; Georgia 433; Total=794
Nonprofit Sector: Illinois 300; Georgia 97; Total=397

Race: Frequencies: Nonwhite 165, 14% N=1171
Public Sector: Nonwhite 145, 19% N=790
Nonprofit Sector: Nonwhite 20, 5% N=430

Education: Highest level of formal education (0-3 scale): Frequencies: Less than college 163, 14%; College graduate 495, 41%; Graduate or professional school 546, 45%; N=1204
Public Sector: Frequencies: Less than college 123, 15.7%; College graduate 331, 42%; Graduate or professional school 330, 42%; N=790

Nonprofit Sector: Frequencies: Less than college 40, 9.5%; College graduate 164, 39%; Graduate or professional school 216, 51%; N=430

Current job: Manager: Frequencies: Yes 860, 71% N=1219
Public Sector: Yes 505, 64% N=790
Nonprofit Sector: Yes 355, 83% N=430

Current job: Was a promotion in current organization:
Total: Frequencies: Yes 578, 47% N=1219
Public Sector: Frequencies: Yes 439, 56% N=790
Nonprofit Sector: Frequencies: Yes 139, 32% N=430

Current job: Was a promotion from different organization:
Total: Frequencies: Yes 263, 22% N=1219
Public Sector: Frequencies: Yes 104, 13% N=790
Nonprofit Sector: Frequencies: Yes 159, 37% N=430

Current job: Tenure: Range 0-39 years, Mean 7.63, Standard Deviation 6.50, N=1157
Public Sector: Range 0-39 years, Mean 7.28, Standard Deviation 6.342, N=759
Nonprofit Sector: Range 0-33 years, Mean 8.29, Standard Deviation 6.719, N=398

Last job was in a private organization: Frequencies: Yes 199, 16% N=1210
Public Sector: Frequencies: Yes 94, 12% N=790
Nonprofit Sector: Frequencies: Yes 105, 25% N=430

Currently, are you either married or living with a domestic partner?
Total: Frequencies: Yes 952, 79%, N=1220
Public Sector: Yes 613, 78%, N=790
Nonprofit Sector: Yes 339, 80%, N=430

How many dependent children do you have?
Total: Range 0-14, mean .96, standard deviation 1.193, N=1195
Public Sector: Range 0-14, mean 1.01, standard deviation 1.233, N=778
Nonprofit Sector: Range 0-5, mean .88, standard deviation 1.109, N=417

Number of employees supervised, if any: Frequencies: Range 0-1200, Mean 21.12, Standard Deviation 73.084; N=1057
Public Sector: Range 0-1200, Mean 24.20, Standard Deviation 82.396; N=667
Nonprofit Sector: Range 0-900, Mean 15.86, Standard Deviation 53.220; N=390

Organization Size: Number of full-time employees: Frequencies: Range 1-18700, Median 833; Mean 3525.71; Mode 18700; Standard Deviation 5703.103; N=1125
Public Sector: Range 11-18700, Median 2007; Mean 5220.09, Mode 18700; Standard Deviation 6316.53; N=752
Nonprofit Sector: Range 1-7500, Median 32; Mean 109.7, Mode: 4; Standard Deviation 472.887; N=373

Organization Age: Frequencies: Range 1798-2005, Median 1949; Mean 1947.10; Mode 1972; Standard Deviation 37.727; N=1091
Public Sector: Range 1798-2004, Median 1960; Mean 1949.56, Mode 1972; Standard Deviation 38.691; N=693

Nonprofit Sector: Range 1840-2005, Median 1946; Mean 1942.83, Mode 1916; Standard Deviation 35.634; N=398

Motivation: *"We are interested in the factors that motivated you to accept a job at your current organization. Please indicate the extent to which the factors below (some personal, some family, some professional) were important in making your decision to take a job at your current organization."* (Choice options: very important, somewhat important, somewhat unimportant, and not at all important)

Ability to serve the public and the public interest:
Frequencies: very important: 522, somewhat important: 446, somewhat unimportant: 138, not at all important: 93, Missing: 21, N=1220

Salary:
Frequencies: very important: 498, somewhat important: 578, somewhat unimportant: 90, not at all important: 35, Missing: 19, N=1220

Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy:
Frequencies: very important: 364, somewhat important: 525, somewhat unimportant: 119, not at all important: 192, Missing: 20, N=1220

Job security:
Frequencies: very important: 658, somewhat important: 387, somewhat unimportant: 96, Not at all important: 65, Missing: 14, N=1220

The organization's pension or retirement plan:
Frequencies: very important: 479, somewhat important: 459, somewhat unimportant: 150, not at all important: 117, Missing: 15, N=1220

Desire for increased responsibility:
Frequencies: very important: 499, somewhat important: 506, somewhat unimportant: 118, not at all important: 79, Missing: 18, N=1220

Benefits (medical, insurance):
Frequencies: very important: 592 somewhat important: 421, somewhat unimportant: 108, not at all important: 82, Missing: 17, N=1220

Few, if any, alternative job offers:
Frequencies: very important: 118, somewhat important: 265, somewhat unimportant: 276, not at all important: 535, Missing: 26, N=1220