MENTORING FUNCTIONS AND WORK-RELATED OUTCOMES IN THE STEEL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The main aim of the study is to determine the relationship between the variables (mentoring functions, organisation commitment, job satisfaction, and organisation intentions to quit) and also to determine the impact of the mentoring functions on work-related outcomes in the steel industry. The main work-related outcomes of interest are job satisfaction, organisation commitment and organisation intentions to quit. A quantitative methodology using survey research was used to collect the data. A total of 104 employees working in the steel industry were surveyed using a convenient sample. The findings support expectations that supportive mentoring functions would negatively be related to the employees" turnover intentions and positively related to job satisfaction and organisation commitment. Our results indicated that the role-modelling mentoring support function has a major impact on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

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CHAPTER 1: PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This mini-dissertation investigates the impact of mentoring functions on work-related outcomes in the steel industry. In this chapter, the problem statement, research objectives, research method, statistical analysis, the research procedure and preliminary chapter division are provided.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

South Africa's manufacturing industries and their personnel are facing unprecedented change in their work environments, namely rapid advances in technology and education, increases in competition and work force diversity, skills shortages and high employee turnover rates. These are the contributing factors pressuring the industries to rely on their human capital for changes in their organisation structures and the method (Kleinman, Siegel & Eckstein, 2000). In response to the ever-changing environment, organisations have established mentoring programmes as human resource practice and as an individual strategy for career success (Bozionelos, 2002).

Mentoring is defined as the process of developing and maintaining intensive, lasting and sustainable developmental relationships between various developers and junior persons (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). This relationship has been shown to involve both career (e.g. coaching, protection, challenging assignments and exposure) and psychological (e.g. friendship, role-modelling counselling and acceptance) functions for the protégés (Parise & Forret, 2007; Eby & Lockwood, 2004).

Empirical systematic research has demonstrated that mentoring provides advantages for both the organisation and the individuals in

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mentoring relationships (Young, 2000). Organisation benefits include employees who are more committed to the organisation, who will lead to more effective exchange of the information among the employees and higher productivity, performance and lower turnover rates (Young, 2000). At the protégé level, the benefits are early career success, career attainment and higher job satisfaction and lastly, at mentor level, the benefits include career rejuvenation, recognition, personal satisfaction, organisation reputation and increased knowledge and power (Richard, Ismail, Bhuian &Taylor , 2009).

In an attempt to obtain the maximum benefits of the mentoring programmes, major industries have developed formal mentoring programmes in an effort to attract, develop and retain the quality of high-placed employees (Eby & Lockwood, 2004). Formal mentoring programmes are developed with the organisation's assistance in an effort to match the protégé and the mentor (Mezias & Scandura, 2005). The pairing of the protégés and mentors is developed after the programme administrators have accessed the needs, competencies and the compatibilities of both mentors and protégés (Praise & Forret ,2007). The objectives of formal mentoring include talent development, improvement of the employee's knowledge, skills and abilities, employee retention and diversity enhancement (Eby & Lockwood, 2004).

According to Wanberg, Kammeyer-Muller and Marchese (2006), formal mentoring programmes are designed/structured in such a way that they include contracted goals, limited duration (such as two years), protégés encouraged to have the developmental goals in mind, participants must initiate interactions and establish feedback within this context, and reward systems when the milestone are achieved.

South African manufacturing industries have also been engaged in formal mentoring relationship for the past few decades. However, there

is limited research available on the outcomes of the formal mentoring and the factors that make formalised relationship mentoring successful (Wanberg, *et al.* 2006). These limited researches provide theoretical models developed to measure the effectiveness of the mentoring received. The models include the antecedent's condition, the characteristic of the mentoring received and the employee and organisational outcomes (Aryee, Lo & Kang ,1999).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Mentoring received by protégés is associated with salary attainment, promotion and pay satisfactions (Eby & Lockwood, 2004). In terms of the organisation, it is associated with committed employees and low rates of employees with the intention to quit (Richard *et al.* 2009). However, there is less known about the influence of the organisational context on the mentoring received (Aryee *et al.*1999). The steel manufacturing industries are faced with the challenges to retain their talented employees whom they have developed through their formal mentoring programmes. There has been a high employee turnover rate reported in the past few years. The loss of the senior personnel in the organisation has affected the mentoring relationship between the protégés and the mentors. Due to the loss of the senior personnel, it is suspected that the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship has been affected.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

1.4.1 Primary objective

The main objective of this study was to determine the relationship between employee quitting intentions, organisational commitment, job satisfactions, and mentoring functions in the steel manufacturing industry and to determine whether the mentoring functions can be used

to predict the organisation intention to quit, job satisfaction and organisation commitment.

1.4.2 Secondary objective

The specific research objectives will be:

- To conceptualise job satisfaction, organisation commitment, intention to quit and mentoring functions from the literature.

- To determine the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit and mentoring functions.

- To determine if the mentoring function can be used to predict job satisfaction, organisation commitment and quitting intentions.

1.5 RESEARCH METHOD

This research, pertaining to the specific objectives, will consist of two phases, namely, literature review and empirical study

1.5.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review will focus on previous research on mentoring, job satisfaction, mentoring functions, organisational commitment and intentions to quit in the work –place to facilitate a better understanding of the interaction between these constructs. The sources that will be consulted will include:

- Journals
- Text books
- Internet

1.5.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

This section describes the empirical study and focus on the research design, participants, measuring instrument, and statistical analysis.

1.5.2.1 Research design and approach

For the purpose of this study, the quantitative research method shall be used. The quantitative research method allows for the measurement and analysis of the statistical data, as well as to determine relationships between one set of data with another (Fox & Bayat, 2007).

1.5.2.2. Measuring instruments

- **Mentoring functions:** The questionnaire developed by Viator (2001) will be used to measure mentoring functions. This questionnaire consists of 16 items measuring two career mentoring functions (career-related mentoring and protection and assistance) and two psychological support functions (social support and role modelling). A sample item includes 'My mentor has recommended me (or supported me) in obtaining assignments that increased my contact with important clients".

- **Affective organisation commitment:** The questionnaire developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) will be used to measure affective organisational commitment. The scale contains eight items. The scale's items measure various work experiences. The work experience variables for affective organisational commitment were grouped into those that satisfy employees' needs to feel comfortable in their relationship with the organisation and those that make them feel competent in their work roles. A sample item includes "I feel like part of the family at this firm".

- **Job satisfaction:** The questionnaire adopted from Viator and Pasework (2005) will be used to measure job satisfaction. This

questionnaire contains items relating to satisfaction with current assignments, responsibilities and an overall satisfaction with the employer and type of work. A sample item includes "My current assignments and responsibilities measure up very well to the sort of job I wanted when I chose this career".

- **Intention to quit:** The three item scales was adopted from previous accounting studies by Viator and Pasewark (2005). The scale focused on thinking about leaving the organisation and investigating other job openings. A sample item includes "I am tempted to investigate other job openings."

1.5.2.3. Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis will be carried out using the STATISTICA (2009) and SPSS (2009) software. Cronbach alpha coefficients will be used to determine the reliability of the scale and the internal consistency. In order to measure the relationships between the mentoring function and work-related outcome, the Spearman correlation will be calculated. Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient was calculated to give an indication of the relationship between category scores. Spearman is a nonparametric measure of association that does not depend on assumption such as normality (Field, 2009). A cut-off point of 0.3 (medium effect) will be set for practical visible significant correlations and a cut-off point of 0.5 (large effect) for significant correlations (Field, 2009). A multiple regression analysis was used to establish whether the mentoring functions can be used to predict the work-related outcomes.

1.5.2.4 Participants

The study will be conducted at a large steel industry in the Gauteng Province. The target study population will be 700 workers. Due to availability constraints of personnel to complete the questionnaires, the human resource department has agreed to target 230 employees. Therefore, a non-probability convenient sample will be used. This

method allows respondents' participating on the basis of availability and willingness; therefore, the findings from the data analysis must be interpreted with caution. The sample will include only the employees who are from mentoring programmes and the employees who are currently in mentoring programmes.

1.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research will only be conducted on steel manufacturing employees in South Africa and therefore the outcome of the research cannot be generalised to include the world-wide steel industry.

1.7. CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters of the mini-dissertation are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter 3: Empirical study

Chapter 4: Conclusions and recommendations

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the problem statement, research objectives, research method, statistical analysis, the research procedure and preliminary chapter division were discussed. The next chapter will focus on the literature review.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In the previous chapter the background to the research, problem statement, research objectives, research methodology, limitations and report outline were discussed. This chapter focus on mentoring and mentoring functions as well as work related outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intentions to quit including the relationship between these variables to facilitate a better understanding of these concepts.

2.1 DEFINITION OF MENTORING

There are various definitions that have attempted to clarify the concept of mentoring. Muller and Noe (1999) defined the mentoring relationship as a one-to-one relationship between a more experienced member (mentor) and an inexperienced member (protégés) of the organisation or profession. They further state that the mentoring relation promotes the professional growth of protégés. Kram (1985) defines mentoring as an interpersonal exchange between a senior experienced colleague (the mentor) and a less experienced junior colleague (the protégé) in which the mentor provides direction, support and feedback to the protégé regarding career plans and personal development.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) define mentoring as a process of forming and maintaining intensive and lasting developmental relationships between a variety of the developers (i.e. people who provide career and psychosocial support) and a junior person (the protégé, if male; protégés if female). The definition provided above emphasises the duration of the mentoring (everlasting) developmental relationship. Protégés can have deferent mentors from different organisations of which all the mentors share the same interest in protégé development. This is important because the career development might require mentors with different skills and knowledge.

The mentor, usually a person with more experience than the protégé, can give guidance to the protégé who is starting on the same career path (Cuesta & Bloom 1998). Gordon (2000) is of the opinion that mentors must take full responsibility and a special interest in helping another person to develop into successful professionals. He uses descriptive terms to describe a mentor, including experienced advisor, guide, teacher, tutor and coach. The researcher will adopt the definition of mentoring provided by Gordon (2000), which defines mentoring as an activity in which an individual with the advanced knowledge or experience actively provides assistance and support to enhance the career development of an individual with less knowledge and experience.

2.2. TYPES OF MENTORING

According to Gilmore, Coetzee and Schreuder (2005), the nature of the mentoring relationship is influenced by the degree of formality espoused by the mentoring programme, which in turn influences the degree of formality present in the mentoring relationship. Douglas and McCauley (1999) are of the opinion that organisations may use mentoring programmes in an effort to support the new employees in the development of the task and relationship effectiveness, as well as an effort aimed towards the retention and promotion of women and minorities. There are two types of mentoring relationships, namely formal mentoring and informal mentoring

2.2.1 Formal mentoring

Gilmore *et al.* (2005) define formal mentoring programmes as the relationships that are planned, implemented and managed by the organisation in a highly structured manner involving various control mechanisms. According to Gakkill (1993), the programme administrators at the organisation must assess the needs,

competencies and available mentors of the protégé. Formal mentoring has various purposes for the organisation, such as talent development, improvement of employees knowledge, skills and abilities, employee retention, socialisation of employees into the culture, and diversity enhancement (Eby & Lockwood, 2004). They also state that formal mentorship often has contracted goals and specific timelines as well as guidelines for interaction frequency and interaction content.

2.2.2. Informal mentoring

Informal mentoring relationships develop spontaneously based on mutually perceived competencies and interpersonal comfort (Wanberg *et al.*, 2006). Informal mentoring is volitional and there are no structured guidelines for directing the informal mentoring relationship. Under informal mentoring there are little or no interventions by the organisation other than an initial introduction (Singh, Bains & Vinnicombe, 2002). The major benefits of informal mentoring to protégés and mentors, are being involved in the mutual selection and mutual adjustment throughout the relationship with the goals and expectations evolving over time to adapt to the specific needs of the protégé Wanberg *et al.* (2006).

2.3. FUNCTIONS OF MENTORING

Scandura (1993) did extensive research on mentoring at the work environment and found that mentoring has demonstrated that mentors provide certain functions to protégés, namely:-

- •   Vocational support

- •   Psychosocial support

- •   Role modelling.

Vocational support establishes the protégé as an independent, successful professional. The mentor accomplishes this by providing

job-related functions, such as career functions (Lankau, Carlson, and Nielson ,2005). *Psychological* support functions are more personal – relying on an emotional bond between the mentor and protégé (Wanberg *et al.* 2006). *Career functions* include sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection and challenging assignments (Kreitner & Kinicki ,2007). Sponsorship is where the mentor uses his/her connections to support the mentee's career advancement. In the work place, the mentee is publicly supported by his/her mentor and actively nominated for promotions. The coaching functions involve the mentor teaching the ropes to the mentees. The mentor gives the relevant and positive feedback, which is aimed at improving the mentee's performance and potential. In the protection functions, the mentor aims to provide the mentee with support in different situations. The mentor will take full responsibility for the mistakes made outside the control of the mentee. The exposure functions are when the mentors create opportunities for the mentees to demonstrate their competencies where it counts. The mentor enhances the visibility of his/her mentees by taking them to important meetings and events, which allows the mentees to develop relationships with key figures in the organisation, enabling them to show their potential for future organisational progress. Challenging work is where the mentor will delegate the assignments that stretch the mentee's knowledge and skills in an attempt to stimulate growth and develop specific competencies in preparation for the future Burgess and Dyer (2009).

Psychological support functions enhance the protégé's sense of competence, identity and effectiveness in his/her role. Examples of psychosocial functions include *role-modelling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counselling, and friendship* (Kreitner & Kinicki 2007). *Role-modelling* consists of the mentor demonstrating appropriate behaviour and knowledge, thus earning greater respect and admiration (Lankau *et al.* 2005). According to Burgess and Dyer (2009), the mentor demonstrates valued behaviour, attitudes and skills that aid the

mentee in achieving competence, confidence and a professional identity. The mentor's values, attitudes and behaviours provide an example for the mentee, who in turn identifies with the mentor's desirable example and in turn respects and admires his/her mentor. In terms of the organisational context, the mentor leads by example. The counselling functions provide helpful and confident forums for exploring professional and personal dilemmas. The mentors counsel their mentees, enabling them to talk openly about fears and anxieties and to explore personal concerns that may interfere or lessen productivity at work. Acceptance and confirmation is where the mentor provides on-going support, respect, and admiration, which enable the mentee to experiment with the new behaviour and self-differentiation. Friendship is where the mentor befriends the mentee through social interactions, which will result in mutual caring and intimacy well beyond the requirements of their daily work tasks.

2.4. PHASES IN THE MENTORSHIP

Kram (1983,) presented a conceptual model that highlighted successive phases of a mentoring relationship. Burke and McKeen (1990) define four distinct phases of mentoring, namely *initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition*.

- **Initiation** – period of six months to one year during which time the relationship gets started and begins to have importance for both individuals. During this stage, the mentor provides coaching, challenging work and visibility; and the protégé provides technical assistance, respect and a desire and willingness to be coached.

- **Cultivation** – a period of two to five years during which the number of career and psychosocial functions provided by the mentor are increased to a maximum. During this stage, both protégé and mentor become more emotionally linked.

- **Separation** – a period of six months to two years after a change in the structure and role of the relationship (transfer, promotions) or in the emotional parts of the relationship has taken place (feelings of independence, threat, betrayal). There are limited opportunities for interaction.

- **Redefinition**: an indefinite period during which the relationship ends and takes on a more peer-like friendship quality. The protégé develops a relationship with new mentors.

2.5. THE IMPACT OF MENTORING FUNCTIONS IN THE WORK PLACE

Hansford, Ehrich, and Tennent (2003), found that most of the organisations have moved towards institutionalising mentoring not only because of the perceived benefits to those involved, but also as an affirmative action strategy aimed at ensuring that women and the previously-disadvantaged groups in society have access to the mentoring process. Therefore, mentoring can be viewed as human resource intervention aimed at the socialising of new employees, while at the same time allowing senior staff to pass on their accumulated wisdom within an organisational setting (Burgess & Dyer, 2009).

2.5.1. Benefits to the organisation

Mentoring benefits to the organisation are mostly related to the development of human resources. Mentoring benefits include the contributions to employee's motivation, job performance and retention rates (Wilson & Elman, 1990) as well as enhanced organisational commitment (Aryee *et al.* 1999). Singh *et al.* (2002) found that mentoring contributes to the long-term health of the organisation as a social system. This is achieved by providing a structured system to strengthen and affirm the continuity of the organisational culture (Wilson & Elman, 1990). Organisational culture provides members with a common value base, with implicit knowledge of what can be expected of them and what they can in turn expect from the

organisation. Singh *et al.* (2002) quoted various researches that found the following benefits of mentoring to the organisation, as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1

Summary of literature on the organisational benefits of mentoring

Effects on organisation	Comments	Linked literature
Higher organisational commitment	Especially sponsorship and coaching	Kram (1985); Aryee and Chay (1994)
Identification of future leaders; improved succession planning	Leaders likely to have been mentored; better socialisation to power	Whitey *et al.* (1991); Conway(1995)
Higher career satisfaction	Singapore sample	Aryee and Chay (1994)
More collegiality, greater participation	Aggregated benefits, broader perspectives for protégés and mentors	Gray *et al.* (1995)
Improved recruitment, induction and retention	Speedier absorption, transfer of skills	Conway (1995)
Enhanced communication	Flow of information, deep sensors across organisation	Conway (1995)
Organisation learning	Protégé's individual motivation for learning is increased, mentor gains more experience	Scandura *et al.* (1996)
Better culture management, change management	Stability factors in times of change; enhanced responsiveness	Conway (1995)
Improved productivity	Enhancement of competitive edge; individual benefits aggregated for enhanced organisational performance	Conway (1995); Scandura *et al*, (1996)

	Especially given increased globalisation, decentralisation and shifts from hierarchies to network structures	Conway (1995)
Cost-effective development		

2.5.2 Benefits to the mentees

Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, and Lima (2004), state that there is substantial empirical evidence to suggest that mentoring through initiation and socialisation has a number of positive effects on protégés' performance. In the recent meta-analysis, they (Allen *et al 2004.*) found that the mentoring functions are positively associated with compensation, number of promotions, career satisfaction, expectation for advancement, career commitment, high level of job satisfaction and low turnover intention.

2.5.3. Benefits to mentors

The mentors also benefit from the mentoring relationship. According to Boon (1998), mentors in the mentoring relationship can benefit in the following areas: they attain a higher level of professional knowledge, widened collegial networks, raised levels of job motivation, improved competence and the gaining of much more psychological support

Noe, Greenberger and Wang (2002), found that the mentors, in return for the time and effort spent in providing support to protégés, gain positive outcomes such as career rejuvenation, personal recognition, personal satisfaction, organisational reputation and an increase in knowledge and power.

2.6. WORK-RELATED OUTCOMES

There are many work-related outcomes that could be of interest to the organisation associated with the mentoring relationships. The work

outcomes can include job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions

2.6.1 Model that explains work-related outcomes

Baranik, Roling and Eby (2009) developed a model that explains the impact of mentoring functions on work-related outcomes. This model is provided in Figure 1. They found that as mentors provide more sponsorship and more exposure and visibility to their protégés, protégés perceive their organisation to be more supportive and more concerned with their well-being. When the protégés believe that their organisation cares about them, they experience higher levels of job satisfaction and commitment to their organisation. Lastly, as the employers feel more satisfied at work and show more commitment to their organisation, they tend to think less about leaving their current positions.
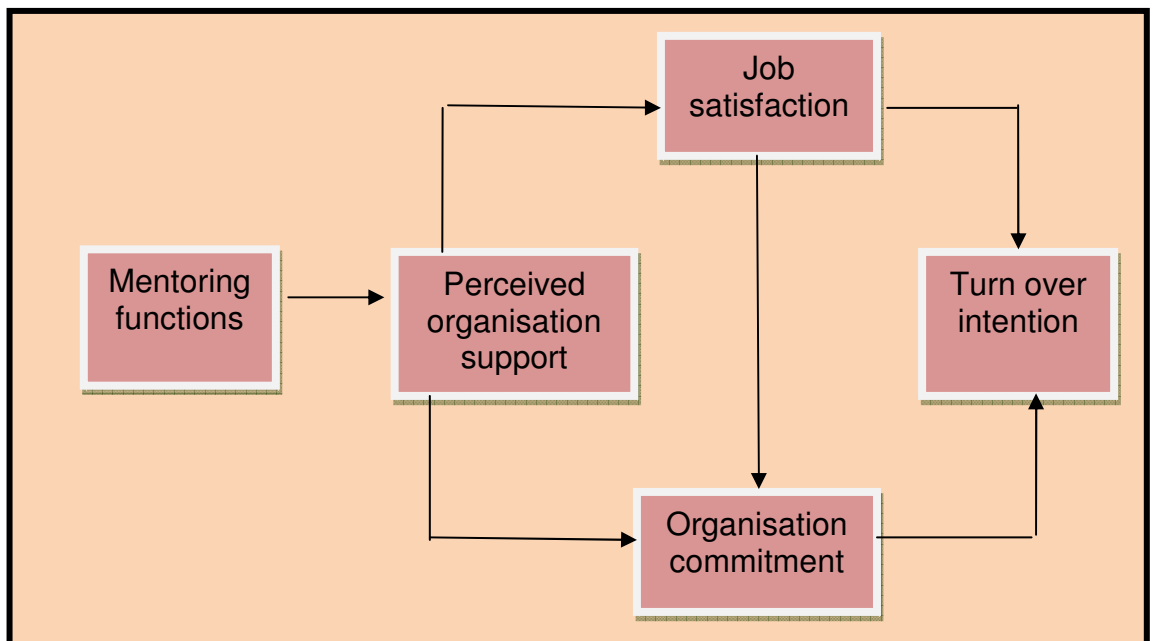
Figure 1: *Model of perceived organisational support mediating the relationship between mentoring functions and job attitudes*

2.6.2 Definition of work-related outcomes and models

There are various work-related outcome models that explain why mentoring works. The following models were identified from the literature:

1.   Hall and Smith (2009) developed a model that links two types of support provided by a mentor (career development and psychological support) to the organisational turnover intentions, through three intervening variables: psychological empowerment, affective organisational commitment and procedural justice.

2. Richard *et al.* (2009) developed a model that links the employees' organisational outcomes through mentoring and employees' attitudinal antecedents. Organisational outcomes include affective commitment and intention to quit, while the employees' attitudes include trust in the supervisor, individualism and collectivism.

3. Baranik *et al.* (2009) developed a model that links the mentoring functions to the work-related outcomes, which include organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The researcher will adopt this model since this model includes the specific work-related outcome and challenges that are facing steel manufacturing industries.

2.7 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.7.1 Definition of organisational commitment

Rollison, Edwards and Broadfield (1998) are of the opinion that organisational commitment is regarded as a global attitude to the organisation as a whole. They define attitude as a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979)

define organisational commitment as a three-part construct embracing an individual's:

- acceptance of the goals and values of the organisation;
- willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation; and
- intention to stay with the organisation.

The above definitions view organisational commitment as an attitudinal phenomenon where organisational commitment is an attitude about an employee's loyalty to his/her organisation (Sharma & Joshi, 2001).

2.7.2 The dimensions of organisational commitment

Research on organisational commitment conducted by Makin, Cooper and Cox (2002) has largely concentrated on work outcomes, such as absenteeism and turnover. Therefore, their work was considered to measure a single dimension of organisational commitment. More recently, organisational commitment was elaborated upon into a multi-dimensional scale accompanied by an extension to outcomes other than those of absenteeism and turnover (Makin *et al.* 2002). The most comprehensive development of this multi-dimensional approach was carried out by Meyer and his co-workers. They developed the model of the organisational commitment to include *affective, normative and continuance commitment.* The most prevalent approach to organisational commitment in the literature is one in which commitment is considered as *affective* or *emotional attachment* to the organisation, such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Johns (1996) found that the employees with strong affective commitment continue employment in an organisation because they want to do so. Affective commitment results in personal linking to or preference for the organisation (Richard *et al.* 2008). Meyer *et al.* (2002) found that the antecedents of affective commitment are personal characteristics such as and work experiences. The work characteristics include the interesting, satisfying work found in enriching jobs (Johns, 1996). Wasti (2002) suggested that affective commitment is influenced by the extent to which the individual's needs

and expectations about the organisation are matched by their actual experiences.

Continuance commitment is based on the cost that would be incurred in leaving the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Individuals with high continuance commitment stay in the organisation because they have to do so. Because continuance commitment reflects a ratio of the costs and benefits associated with leaving the organisation, antecedents are anything that affects the costs and the benefits of leaving, e.g. lack of job/career alternatives and amount of real and psychological investments a person has in a particular organisation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). Continuance commitment components develop on the basis of two factors: namely the magnitude and/or number of investments (or side-bets) individuals make as well as a perceived lack of alternatives (Allen & Meyer 1990). Build up side bets effect include pension funds, and obtaining promotions (Johns, 1996). *Normative commitment* reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007).

Meyer *et al.* (2002) found that the antecedents of normative commitment are personal characteristics, socialisation experiences and organisational investments. Johns (1996) also found that the normative commitment can be forested by benefits that build a sense of obligation to the organisation. These might include tuition reimbursements, and special training that enhances one's skills.

2.7.3. Correlates of organisational commitment

The three components of organisational commitment combine to produce a binding force that influences the consequences of employee turnover and on-the-job behaviour, such as performance, absenteeism and organisational citizenship (Kreitner & Kinicki , 2007). Matheiu and Zajac (1990) also suggest that there is a strong relationship between affective commitment and intention to leave.There is a strong

relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Makin *et al.* 2002). Makin *et al.* also found that increased levels of job satisfaction might elicit higher levels of commitment. Johns (1996) stated that affective commitment is positively related to job performance and continuance commitment is negatively related to performance. All three components of organisational commitment have relevance for employee retention (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001). The research conducted by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) reveal that affective commitment has strong relation to retention as compared to other dimensions of organisational commitment. Due to the above the research will only investigate the impact of mentoring functions onto affective commitment

2.8 JOB SATISFACTION

2.8.1 Definition of job satisfaction

Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) define job satisfaction as affective (that is emotional) reactions to a job that result from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (expected and deserved). Clark (1996), states that for many years job satisfaction was viewed as a single, unified concept, but it is now widely recognised as a more complex cluster of attitudes towards different aspects of a job, arising from a person's expectations of work and his or her actual experience.

Locke (1976), states that job satisfaction can be conceptualised as the discrepancy between what an individual values and what the situation provides in relation to the alternatives available in the given situation. Mobley (1982) argues that satisfaction includes both individual values and individual perceptions of the organisation. He further states that behavioural reaction to dissatisfaction is to withdraw; the reaction to satisfaction, however, is to approach. Satisfaction is a highly individualised evaluation that is dependent on individual differences in values. Locke (1976) is of the opinion that job dissatisfaction is the

result of a discrepancy between the amount of the facet desired and that which is received; but only for those who are important to the individuals. Job dissatisfaction is stressful; therefore individuals seek to reduce it by correcting the imbalance (Lovett, Coyle and Adams, 2004). Lovett *et al.* (2004) further state that that one possible way of correcting the perceived imbalance is to put less physical or psychological energy into a job or to reduce job commitment.

Coetsee (1992) views job satisfaction as a positive attitude that individuals have about their jobs. It results from how they perceive their jobs and related matters (e.g. supervisory style, support, challenge, pay benefits) and the degree to which there is a good fit between the individual and the organisation.

Since the present research focuses on the impact of the mentoring functions on work-related outcomes (job satisfaction), the researcher will adopt the definition of job satisfaction provided by Lichtenstein (1984) as the difference between what a worker experiences on the job and what he or she wants or expects to find. The theory of job satisfaction, as hypothesised by Locke (1976), is relevant to the current study, since he attempted to quantify the discrepancy between the conditions that workers currently find in their jobs and those conditions that they consider preferred states for themselves, given what they know about other workers and other settings.

2.8.2. Causes of job satisfaction

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) conducted extensive research on the determinants of job satisfaction. They found that there are five major dimensions to this attitude that reflect affective responses to particular aspects of a job. *Work itself***:** The extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chances to be responsible and accountable for the results (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt 2001). *Remuneration:* Phillips and Connell (2003) define remuneration as the wages, salaries, or

compensation given to employees in exchange for the services the employees perform for the organisation. Job dissatisfaction can occur when there is too great a disparity between what employees think they should be paid and what organisations spend on compensation. *Opportunities for promotion:* Porter and Steers (1973) indicated that the lack of promotional opportunities is a primary reason for withdrawal from the job. However, Rollison *et al.* (1998) found that promotion is not desired by everybody and so satisfaction in this respect is very strongly influenced by the match between expectation and receipts. Rollison *et al. (1998)* further state that promotion brings an increase in remuneration, and for some people this is the major satisfaction required, while for others it is more connected with self-image and ego. *Supervision*: The ability of the supervisor to provide emotional and technical support and guidance to work-related tasks (Robbins *et al*. 2001). *Relationships with co-workers:* Phillips and Connell (2003) found that teamwork is created with the purpose and understanding that productivity and effectiveness improve as a result of processing work within organised groups of employees. Satisfaction in this regard reflects the extent to which members of an individual's workgroup are perceived to be socially supportive and competent in their own tasks.

2.8.3 Consequences of job satisfaction

- *Employee turnover*: Research indicates a moderate strong connection between the job satisfaction and employee turnover (Johns, 1996)**.**

- *Employee absenteeism:* There is a consistent inverse correlation between satisfaction and absenteeism, but the correlation is moderate (Robbins, *et al*. 2003).

- *Employee productivity:* There are dominant beliefs that either satisfaction causes performance or performance causes satisfaction. Job satisfaction has high appeal to managers because it implies that rewards play a relatively minor part in obtaining high performance (Rollison *et al. 1998).*

- *Organisational commitment:* Research results (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1993) revealed that there is a direct relationship between the employee's commitment to the organisation and job satisfaction.

2.9 ORGANISATIONAL INTENTION TO QUIT

Turnover has been studied extensively in organisational behaviour research. Cotton and Tuttle (1986) found that there are various factors that are associated with turnover. These factors include age, gender, education, job tenure, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Mobley (1982) view retention as the percentage of employees remaining in the organisation, while turnover is the opposite of retention – it refers to the percentage of employees leaving the organisation for whatever reasons. He further defines employee turnover as the cessation of membership in an organisation by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organisation. Hayes, O'Brien-Pallas, Duffield, Shamian, Buchan, Hughes, Laschinger, North and Stone (2006) view this definition to encompass voluntary and involuntary separation, as well as internal and external turnovers. Voluntary separations are the termination of the employment relationship initiated by the employee, while involuntary separation is organisation-initiated separation.

The US Bureau of Labor Statistics (1980) classifies involuntary separation into three classes, namely:
- **Layoffs:** Suspensions from payroll that are initiated by the employer due to an economic slowdown.
- **Discharge:** Permanent termination of employment for disciplinary reasons.
- **Other:** Retirement, death and permanent disability.

Voluntary separations are the most problematic for organisations because employees control the separations, and often the company's investment in the employee is lost to one of its competitors (Sexton, McMurtrey, Michalopoulos & Smith, 2005). In order to determine the impact of mentoring functions on organisational intention to quit, the researcher will base the research focus on voluntary turnover intentions, not the actual turnover intentions.

2.9.1 Causes of organisational turnover

The research conducted by Mobley (1982) revealed that external economy, organisation variables and individual variables are determinants of turnover:

External economy: Of particular interest in the study of turnover are economic indices related to supply and demand in the labour market. There is a relationship between turnover rates and the state of the economy, as indexed by employment-unemployment levels. As unemployment increases, the turnover rate decreases (Mobley, 1982). Economic expansions are associated with the creation of the new jobs, which in turn creates new opportunities for employees to leave current employment .The shortage of specialised skills can also result in a situation where employment opportunities have outpaced the supply to entry-level positions (Connell & Phillips, 2003).

 Organisational variables: Researchers have established that there is a strong relationship between remuneration levels and turnover rates. They have established that turnover is highest in the low-paying industries. Job characteristics include task repetitiveness, job autonomy and responsibility. Porter and Steers (1973), found that there is a positive relationship between task repetitiveness and turnover and a negative relationship between autonomy, responsibility and turnover. There is evidence that satisfaction with the supervisor can be related to turnover, although there are exceptions. Grean and his associates, as quoted by Mobley (1982), found that supervision that has

demonstrated leader acceptance (that is, the leader's flexibility in changing the employee's job and using his/her power to help employees solve work problems) is related to turnover.

Individual work-related variables: Turnover literature reports a consistent negative relationship between age and tenure.   Research reveals that (Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1977) younger employees have a higher probability of leaving. This is because young employees have more entry-level job opportunities and fewer family responsibilities, thus making job mobility easier. Turnover is significantly higher for shorter-tenure employees. Turnover is relatively high in the early years of employment.

Integrative variables: There are variables that have been suggested that attempt to integrate individual differences and perceptions of various aspects of the organisation. These variables include job satisfaction, career aspirations and expectations, organisational commitment, stress expectations regarding alternative jobs, and behavioural intentions (Mobley, 1982).

2.9.2 Consequences of organisational turnover

Employee turnover is a concern for any organisation due to the major impact it has on the bottom line. Employee turnover does not always bring negative effects to the organisation; there are also some positive effects for both the employee and the organisation. Sexton *et al.* (2003) categorise employee turnover into either functional or dysfunctional turnover. The impact of the turnover rate on the organisation will depend on the type of turnover experienced. Functional turnover occurs when the poor performers leave and the good performers stay. This turnover is normally voluntary. Dysfunctional turnover is experienced when the good performers leave and the poor performers stay. This turnover is normally involuntary turnover and has a negative

impact on the organisation. Connell and Phillips (2003) found that the consequences of turnover to be associated with:

- *Work disruption:* This includes the costs associated with having the workplace disrupted by the shortages of staff or inexperienced staff. This could result in an inability to deliver appropriate levels of services.

- *Lost productivity (or replacement cost):* Production losses associated with the previous employee being absent or the new employees is not being fully prepared.

- *Quality problems:* This category entails the costs of errors, mistakes, rework, and rejection directly related to the turnover issue. In most cases it is directly related to the new and inexperienced employees on the job.

- *Loss of expertise/knowledge:* In the knowledge industry, enormous costs are connected to replacing an individual who has accumulated a significant amount of expertise with regard to products, processes, and projects in the organisation.

2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focussed on the literature review with regard to the definitions and the conceptualisation of the job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational intention to quit and mentoring functions.

CHAPTER 3: EMPERICAL STUDY

Introduction

The previous chapter focussed on the literature review with regard to the definitions and the conceptualisation of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational intentions to quit and mentoring functions. In this chapter, the research process and the empirical research will be discussed. The population group, measuring battery and the methodology regarding the interpretation of the instruments as well as the relevant statistical analysis will be discussed.

3.1 RESEARCH METHOD

3.1.1 Research design

The research study made use of the cross-sectional approach. Cross-sectional studies make use of cross-sectional methods where the survey questionnaire will be used. For the purpose of this study, the quantitative research method shall be used. The quantitative research method allows for the measurement and analysis of the statistical data and to determine relationships between one set of data and another (Fox & Bayat,, 2007). The relationship between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational intention to quit will be investigated, which makes quantitative research ideal for the purpose of this research study.

3.1.2 Ethical aspects

A questionnaire was directly delivered to the sectional managers in order to distribute the questionnaire to the selected employees. An introduction letter from the researcher was approved by the general manager and was also distributed with the questionnaire. The letter described the purpose of the study and promised anonymity and

confidentiality. Voluntary participation was emphasised through the data collections.

3.2 .PARTICIPANTS

The study was conducted at a large steel company in the Gauteng Province. The target population was 700 workers in the steel industry. Due to availability of personnel to complete the questionnaires, the human resource department limited the study population to 230. Of the 230 sample, only 104 responded to the questionnaires. A non-probability convenience sample was used. This method allows respondents to participate on the basis of availability and willingness. The sample that responded was selected due to their availability to complete the questionnaires; hence the data analysis must be analysed with cautions. The study sample consists of all the employees who are from the mentoring programme and the people who are currently in the mentoring programmes.

Table 2

Characteristics of participants

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	< 29	31.00	29.81
	30 – 39	35.00	33.65
	40 – 49	25.00	24.03
	50 – 59	12.00	11.54
	60+	1.000	0.960
Gender	Male	75.00	72.12
	Female	29.00	27.88
Race	Black	42.00	40.38
	Coloured	2.00	1.92
	Indian	4.00	3.85
	White	56.00	53.85

Qualifications	National diploma	44.23	44.23
	Post graduate	58.00	55.77

The sample consists of 72% males and 28% females. The biggest part of the sample was between 30 and 39 years old (33%), followed by the age category younger than 29 years (30%). Based on race, the majority of the group appears to be ethnically white (52%) followed by black people (40%). People with post-graduate qualifications dominate (55%).

3.3 MEASURING BATTERY

In this section, the different measuring instruments used in this study will be discussed. The *Affective Organisation Commitment Questionnaire* of Allen and Meyer (1990), *the Mentoring Functions Questionnaire* of Viator (2001), the *Job Satisfaction Questionnaire*, and the *Organisational Intention to Quit Questionnaire,* which will be adapted from Viator and Pasewark (2005), were used to reach the objectives of the study. All the item scales were scored on a five-point Likert-type scale (1= *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

3.3.1 The job satisfaction questionnaire

Job satisfaction was assessed using a six-item scale adapted from Viator and Pasewark (2005). The questionnaire contains items relating to satisfaction with current assignments and responsibilities, as well as overall satisfaction with the employer and the type of work. A sample item includes "My current assignments and responsibilities measure up very well to the sort of job I wanted when I chose this career". The reliability of the scale was 0.90.

3.3.2 The organisation commitment questionnaire

The questionnaire developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) was used to measure the affective organisational commitment. The questionnaire

contains eight item scales. The questionnaire's items measure various work experiences. The work experience variables for the affective commitment were grouped into those that satisfy employees' needs to feel comfortable in their relationship with the organisation and feel competent in the work role. A sample item includes "I feel like part of the family at this firm". The reliability of the scale was 0.86.

3.3.3 The organisational intention to quit questionnaire

The turnover scale was constructed from three item scales adapted from previous accounting studies by Viator and Pasewark (2005). The scale focused on thinking about leaving the organisation and investigating other job openings. A sample item includes "I am tempted to investigate other job openings". The reliability of the scale was 0.85.

3.3.4 The measuring mentoring functions questionnaire

The questionnaire developed by Viator (2001) was used to measure the mentoring functions. This questionnaire consists of 16 items measuring two career mentoring functions (career-related mentoring and protection and assistance) and two psychological support functions (social support and role modelling). A sample item includes "My mentor has recommended me (or supported me) in obtaining assignments that increased my contact with important clients". The reliability of the scale was for career related was 0.9, protection and assistance was 0.72, social support was 0.78 and role modelling was 0.82.

3.3.5 Administration of the measuring instrument and data capturing

The respondents were requested to send the completed questionnaire directly to the human resource department within a sealed envelope. The questionnaires were placed in a box in the human resource office, from where they were handed to the researcher. The respondents were given a period of 30 days to complete and return the questionnaire to the researcher. The questionnaires were received from the

respondents and the data was captured in a Microsoft Excel spread sheet, statistically processed and the conclusions drawn.

3.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical analysis was carried out using the STATISTICA (2009) and SPSS (2009) software. Cronbach alpha coefficients were used in order to determine the reliability of the scale and the internal consistency of the test. In order to measure the relationships between the mentoring function and work-related outcome, Spearman's correlation was calculated. Spearman's rank order correlation coefficients were calculated to give an indication of the relationship between category scores. Spearman is a non-parametric measure of association that does not depend on assumption such as normality (Field, 2009). A cut-off point of 0.3 (medium effect) was set for practically visible significant correlations and a cut-off point of 0.5 (large effect) for significant correlations was set (Field, 2009). Multiple regression analyses were used in order to establish whether the mentoring functions can be used to predict the work-related outcomes. The coefficient of the regression was calculated. A cut-off point of 0.25 (medium effect) (Ellis & Steyn, 2003) was set for the significant size effect.

3.5. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The following research hypotheses were formulated for the study:

Hypothesis 1: Mentoring functions are negatively related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 2: Mentoring functions are positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Mentoring functions are positively related to affective organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Job satisfaction is positively related to organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 5: *Job satisfactions and organisational commitment are negatively related to turnover intentions.*

Hypothesis 6: *Mentoring functions can be used to determine the organisational turnover intention, job satisfaction and organisation commitment.*

3.6. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The research process and the empirical research procedure were discussed in this chapter. The main focus was on the study population, the different measuring batteries that were used, the research method, the research hypotheses and the statistical analysis.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

This section will report on the results of the various analyses conducted on the data from the surveys. These analyses include the descriptive statistics of the sample, the correlation between variables, the testing of the hypotheses, and an evaluation of the overall fit of the conceptual model.

4.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND FREQUENCY ANALYSIS

4.1.1 Descriptive statistics

Negatively phrased items were reversed before the analysis was done. The descriptive statistics are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics

Questionnaire	*M*	*SD*	Inter item r	All item total	α
Career function	3.51	0.88	0.65	> 0.3	0.85
Protection and assistance	2.82	0.85	0.46	> 0.3	0.71
Social support	3.22	0.66	0.32	> 0.3	0.73
Role modelling	3.37	0.66	0.56	> 0.3	0.83
Job satisfaction	3.40	0.68	0.44	> 0.3	0.83
Organisational commitment	3.00	0.73	0.48	> 0.3	0.85
Turnover intentions	2.98	0.99	0.79	> 0.3	0.92

4.2 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SUBSECTIONS CATEGORISED

In order to measure the relationships between the mentoring function and work related outcome the Spearman correlation was calculated. Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient was calculated to give an indication of the relationship between category scores. Spearman is a nonparametric measure of association that does not depend on assumption such as normality (Field 2009). A cut off point of 0.3 (medium effect) was set for practical visible significant correlations and a cut off point of 0.5 (large effect) for significant correlations (Field, 2009). The correlation matrix is presented in the Table 4 below.

Table 4

Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Career Support	-					
2. Protection/ assistance	0.16	-				
3. Social support	0.30*	0.54**	-			
4. Role modelling	0.61**	0.14	0.52**	-		
5. Job satisfaction	0.011	0.39*	0.33*	0.40*	-	
6. Affective commitment	0.17	0.14	0.17	0.33*	0.25	-
7. Intensions to quit	-0.21	-0.62**	-0.21	-0.35*	-0.24	-0.55**

  * = medium effect / * * = large effect

Career support is positively statistically significantly related to role-modelling (with a large effect); social support (with a medium effect);

protection and assistance, job satisfaction and affective commitment (with a small effect). However, career support is also negatively statistically significantly related to organisational intention to quit (with a small effect).*Protection and assistance* are positively statistically significantly related to social support (with a large effect); job satisfaction (with a medium effect); role-modelling and affective commitment (small effect). Protection and assistance are also negatively statistically significantly related to organisational intention to quit (with a large effect). *Social suppor*t is positively statistically significantly related to role-modelling (with a large effect size); job satisfaction (with a medium effect size) and affective commitment (with a small effect size). However, social support is negatively statistically significantly related to organisational intentions to quit (with a small effect). *Role-modelling* is positively statistically significantly related to job satisfaction (with a medium effect size) and affective commitment (with a medium effect). However, role-modelling is negatively related to organisational intentions to quit (with a medium effect). Job satisfaction is positively statistically significantly related to affective commitment and negatively statistically significantly related to organisational intentions to quit correlation. *Organisational commitment* is negatively related to organisational intentions to quit (with large effect).

4.3 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Next multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to establish if mentoring functions can be used to predict the work-related outcomes. The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 5 below. .

Table 5

Regression coefficient

	Job satisfaction		Organisation commitment		Intensions to quit	
	Beta	*t*	*Beta*	*t*	*Beta*	*t*
Career support	- 0.23[*]	-2.20[*]	- 0.07	- 0.54	- 0.00	- 0.04
Protection / assistance	0.31[*]	2.88[*]	0.08	0.61	- 0.01	- 0.09
Social support	- 0.03	- 0.22	0.02	0.14	- 0.00	- 0.02
Role-modelling	0.54[*]	4.85[*]	0.35[*]	2.71[*]	- 0.35[*]	-2.79[*]
R		0.57		0.35		0.36
R²		0.32		0.12		0.13

Inspection of Table 4 shows that 32% of the variance in **job satisfaction** was explained by mentoring functions; however, *career support, protection and assistance and the role modelling* were the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. Table 5 also indicates that 12% of the variance in **organisation commitment** was explained by mentoring functions; however, *role modelling* was only significant predictors of organisation commitment. Lastly, Table 5 demonstrates that 13% of the variance in **intensions to quit** was explained by mentoring functions; however, *role modelling* was the only significant predictors of organisation intensions to quit.

4.4 DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between the variables and to determine the impact of mentoring functions on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational intensions

to quit. Results of the study indicate that there is practical significance with a medium effect between career support and social support; protection and assistance and job satisfaction; social support and job satisfaction; role-modelling and job satisfaction, and role modelling and organisation commitment. The correlation between role-modelling and organisational intentions to quit also indicated a negative correlation with a negative medium effect. The correlation between career support and role-modelling; protection and assistance and social support; and social support and role modelling indicates a large practically significant correlation. However, there was also a negative large practically significant correlation between protection and assistance, organisational commitment and organisational intention to quit.

The results of the study confirm results from a previous study by Baranik *et al.* (2009). They found medium practically significant correlations between role-modelling and job satisfaction, and organisational commitment and a medium negative relationship between role-modelling and organisational intentions to quit. Furthermore, there was a large negative effect correlation between organisational commitment and intentions to quit. Lankau *et al.* (2006) also found medium effect positive correlations between career support and organisation commitment as well as medium effect positive correlations between career support and role-modelling and social support and protection and assistance.

We were also interested in determining the impact of mentoring functions on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational intentions to quit. Research results reveal that mentoring functions predicted 32% of job satisfaction (*career support, protection and assistance and the role modelling*); 12% of organisational commitment (*role-modelling*); and 13% by organisational intentions to quit also by (role-modelling). The findings of the study pertaining to mentoring functions and organisational commitment are consistent with

the findings of Hall and Smith (2009). Overall, our results are consistent with the study conducted by Baranik *et al.* (2009).

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The research results were discussed in this chapter. The main focus was on the descriptive statistics, correlations between the variables and the regression analyses.

CHAPTER 5: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of mentoring functions on work-related outcomes. The specific work-related outcomes included the organisational turnover intentions, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction. Understanding the impact of the mentoring functions on work-related outcomes, allows organisations to provide better formal mentoring experiences to employees. More important in the formal mentoring programmes are individuals who are chosen as mentors to represent the organisation. The results of this study suggest that the organisation should be cautious about who they allow or encourage to be a mentor, as having a negative relationship will poorly affect the organisation. While it was expected that a supportive mentoring function would positively affect the employee's organisational turnover intentions through job satisfaction and organisation commitment, our results indicated that the role-modelling mentoring support function has a major impact on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings in this study provide some insight into the mentoring role pertaining to organisational turnover intention, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Role-modelling was proofed to be an important aspect of the mentoring relationship. With an increasing emphasis on the diversity of the work force and equal opportunities for females and males in the manufacturing industries, one area of the future research would be to examine mentoring function relationships cross-culturally.

5.4 IMPLICATION OF THE RESEARCH

The research has suggested that mentoring is essential for the improvement of the employees' level of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employees' organisation turnover intentions. The model developed by Baranik provides fruitful information in order to understand why mentoring works. In formal mentoring, the organisation can influence the outcomes of the mentoring relationship by pairing the protégé with the mentor. However, the mentors must be carefully selected since they will act as role models in the protégés' career development.

5.3 LIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH

The sample used in this study was selected based on the availability of the employees. The sample was also limited to a geographic scope (Gauteng) and the study was mainly conducted at one site of a steel manufacturer. Therefore, the study was only limited to the participants in a particular site of a steel manufacturer and it is in this regard that the reader should be cautious when interpreting the results and generalising for the whole company. A cross-sectional design survey was used and is limited because it is confined to a specific point in time, i.e. it provides us with a snapshot of the population at a single point in time. Since the research method used has a limitation for causality, the reader should be cautious with the results of the study because they can only be used to indicate the relationships (between mentoring and knowledge sharing) and cannot be used to speculate whether mentoring functions causes job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intentions to quit.

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Annexure 1

JOB SATISFACTION, INTENTIONS TO QUIT ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND MENTORING FUNCTIONS

The purpose of the questionnaire is to obtain information with regard to the functions of mentoring on job satisfaction, organisation commitment and turnover rate.

General instructions

This questionnaire must be completed by the employees who were engaged in the formal mentoring programme in the steel manufacturing industry. All the questionnaires may be answered by making a cross in the relevant block. Use the following key: 1 = *Strongly disagree*; 2 = *Disagree*; 3 = *Neutral view*; 4 = *Agree*; 5 = *Strongly agree*.

SECTION A: MENTORING FUNCTIONS AND WORK-RELATED OUTCOMES

This section consists of 32 statements. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement. Please mark the applicable block with a cross (X)

1 = Strongly disagree	*2 = Disagree*	*3 = Neutral*	*4 = Agree*	*5 = Strongly agree*

	STATEMENT	SCALE

		My mentor has recommended me (or supported me) in obtaining assignments that increased my contact with important clients.					
		My mentor has recommended me (or supported me) in obtaining assignments that increased my personal contact with important (key) managers or partners in the firm.					
		My mentor has recommended me (or supported me) in obtaining assignments that offered opportunities to learn new skills, or develop expertise in a specific area.					
		My mentor has alerted me to potential conflicts with managers (or partners) before I knew about their likes/dislikes, opinions on controversial topics, or the politics in the firm.					
		My mentor has helped me to finish assignments or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.					
		My mentor has kept me informed about what is going on at higher levels, or how external conditions are influencing the firm.					
		My mentor has discussed concerns I have regarding feelings of competence,					

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	relationships with peers and supervisors, and/or work/family conflicts.					52
	My mentor has encouraged me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that distract me from my work.					
	My mentor has conveyed empathy for concerns and feelings I have discussed.					
	My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as individual.					
	My mentor has shared personal experience as an alternative perspective to my problems.					
	My mentor has discussed my concerns about advancement opportunities with the firm.					
	I try to model my behaviour after my mentor.					
	I admire my mentor's ability to motivate others.					
	I respect my mentor's knowledge of his profession.					
	I respect my mentor's ability to teach and instruct others.					
	All things considered, I am extremely satisfied with my current assignments					

	and responsibilities.					
	Knowing what I now know, if I had to decide all over again whether to pursue this type of work, I would certainly do it.					
	If a good friend of mine told me that he/she was interested in a job like mine (with my employer), I would recommend it.					
	My current work compares very well to my ideal job.					
	My current assignments and responsibilities measure up very well to the sort of job I wanted when I chose this career.					
	In general, I like my work very much.					
	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my firm.					
	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this firm.					
	This firm has a great deal of personal meaning to me.					
	I feel like "part of the family" at this firm.					
	I enjoy discussing my firm with people outside it.					

	I really feel as if this firm's problems are my own.					
	I think I could easily become as attached to another firm as I am to this one.					
	I often think about leaving my firm.					
	I will probably look for a job with another firm (or company) within the next three years.					
	I am tempted to investigate other job openings.					

B: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The following information is needed to help with the statistical analysis of data for comparisons among different interest groups. All your responses will be treated confidentially. Your assistance in providing this important information is appreciated.

Please mark the applicable block with a cross (X).

		Indicate your age group	≤ 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60 +

		Indicate your gender	Male	Female

	C03	**Indicate your race**	Black	White	Coloured	Indian

Indicate your highest academic qualification	
National certificate	
National diploma	
Three-year degree	
Post-graduate qualification	

Indicate your functional department				
Operations	Sales and Marketing	Finance	Human Resources	Engineering
Procurement	Logistics Management	Other		