

**MENTORING IN THE LAW ENFORCEMENT CONTEXT:
A CASE STUDY OF THE TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE**

by

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This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Criminal Justice
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Abstract

MENTORING in the LAW ENFORCEMENT CONTEXT: A CASE STUDY of the TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE

by

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The TNP has undergone many changes as a result of Turkey's decision to seek European Union (EU) membership. One ramification of these changes is the TNP codification and implementation of formal mentoring relationships to increase the effectiveness of mentoring relationship.

Based on a survey of 400 high ranking officers from the Turkish National Police (TNP), this study examines the effects of mentoring relationships on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The findings indicate that an effective mentoring relationship has a positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

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*To my beloved wife, Gokce and
my beautiful children, Selim and Busra.*

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Across the globe, police organizations, including their education policies, have undergone great transformations in recent decades. One of the most important changes that has taken place in police training has been in the practice of mentoring. Mentoring is an active relationship where a more experienced organizational member provides support to the mentee who is a lesser-experienced organizational member; the goal is to achieve meaningful professional growth by using interpersonal connections to maximize the learning capacity and success (Bouquillon, 2004; Graham-Leviss, 2004; Mullen 1994). Mentoring takes different forms: formal or informal, supervisor/superior to subordinate, or peer to peer (Young & Wright, 2001).

The practice of mentoring has a long history going back to ancient times. The term “mentoring” originated from Greek mythology: Mentor and his actions depicted in Homer’s *Odyssey* is the earliest documentation of establishing what is now referred to as a mentoring relationship (Murray & Owen, 1991). The salient literature suggests that mentoring relationships afford enormous benefits not only to the protégés, but also to the mentors and the organizations to which they are connected. Mentoring affects job satisfaction, organizational commitment, personal career development, recruitment, turnover intentions, and other related issues.

Mentoring is a term used in both education and training contexts. However, a distinction must be made, as education and training have different meanings (Haberfeld,

2002). Education is the field of study that deals mainly with methods of teaching and learning (Merriam-Webster, 2000). Education consists of learning general concepts, terms, practices, policies, and theories. In contrast, training is instruction in a specific method of task performance or response to given situations. In education, the subject matter is broad, whereas in training it is narrow. Education is mostly theoretical and based on information derived using various methods of research. Training is experimental, experiential, and consists of mentoring techniques (Haberfeld, 2002).

As in many hierarchical organizations, law enforcement agencies such as police departments have instituted the process of mentoring in some form or another. One such organization that has recently emphasized the practice of mentoring is the Turkish National Police (TNP).

This dissertation will explore the mentoring process at the TNP. Specifically, it will try to determine the effects of supervisory mentoring on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to explore the connection among mentoring relationships, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the TNP. The relevant literature indicates that the mentoring process affects job satisfaction and organizational commitment. For example, Dreher and Ash (1990) examined mentoring relationships among men and women in managerial, professional, and technical positions and how their work was affected by the relationship. They found that students who received mentoring earned more promotions and higher incomes and their satisfaction with the pay

and benefits was much greater than students who developed less extensive mentoring relationships.

In another study, Turban and Dougherty (1994) conducted a survey among 550 management graduates of a large Midwestern university to explore mentoring and career success. The results indicated that mentoring relationships had effects on both career success and career attainment.

Looking at specific types of mentoring relationships, Ensher, Thomas, and Murphy (2001) compared traditional, step-ahead, and peer mentoring on protégés' support, satisfaction, and perceptions of career success. The findings showed that mentor support predicted both job satisfaction and protégés' perceived career success.

One group of researchers, Eby, Butts, Lockwood, and Simon (2004), conducted research on protégés' negative mentoring experiences to construct development and nomological validation; the results revealed that negative mentoring was significantly correlated with intention to leave jobs, psychological withdrawal, and depressed moods. It also negatively affected learning skills.

To examine the concept of procedural voice, which is “a form of participation in which protégés perceive that they will be given a sufficient opportunity to present their ideas, opinions, and feelings to mentors” (p.725), Richard et al (2002) tried to determine the predictors of a protégé's career mentoring help, satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, perceived conflict with the mentor, and overall evaluation of the mentor's guidance ability. The results showed that a procedural voice had a positive effect on the career function of the mentoring relationship.

Levels of mentoring formality have also been explored. Tepper (1995) examined the upward maintenance tactics in supervisory mentoring and non-mentoring relationships and found that formal mentoring relationships supplied as much career and psychosocial-related mentoring as informal mentoring relationships. These findings contradicted the earlier results of Chao, Waltz, and Gardner (1992), who found that formal mentoring relationships provided less career-related mentoring than informal mentoring relationships.

The mentoring literature is international in scope. Herbohn (2004) conducted a research study on informal mentoring relationships and the career process of public accountants in Australia. The results revealed that informal mentoring in the public accounting sector consisted of three functions: career development, social support, and role modeling. The receipt of mentoring support by accountants was found to be significant in lower turnover, high job satisfaction, and lower intentions of female accountants seeking part-time employment.

Clearly, the results of all of these studies indicate that there is a connection between mentoring relationships and career outcomes.

Conceptual Framework

Based on findings from the extant literature, this study will use the following conceptual framework developed for examining the process of mentoring in the context of the national law enforcement agency in Turkey.



Figure 1 -Conceptual Framework

The basic underlying paradigm is that mentoring affects both job satisfaction and organizational commitment; however, organizational commitment and job satisfaction have a reciprocal relationship with each other.

Research Questions

This study will try to provide responses to the following questions:

1. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on job satisfaction at the TNP?
2. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on organizational commitment at the TNP?

3. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment at the TNP?
4. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction at the TNP?

The first question examines the significance and direction of the relationship between supervisory mentoring and job satisfaction among high-ranking TNP officers. The second question investigates the significance and direction of the relationship between supervisory mentoring and organizational commitment among the officers. The third question seeks the sole significance and direction of the relationship between mentoring and job satisfaction after controlling for the organizational commitment. Finally, the fourth question probes the sole significance and direction of the relationship between mentoring and organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction.

Significance of the Study

This study is the first research to explore the mentoring relationship specifically among high-ranking TNP officers. Although a few earlier studies examined the mentoring relationship in different areas of the TNP, they reflect aspects of the organization as it was at the end of the 20th century: Yurdaer (1998) conducted a survey on mentoring at the Turkish National Police Academy and the results showed that the Academy training had not created a supportive mentoring relationship. Another 1998 survey given following a certificate program for Police Chiefs showed that 42% of those surveyed believed that police education in Turkey was not practical and that mentoring was lacking (Dursun, 2000).

The contexts of the previous mentoring research were in the areas of education and the Turkish National Police Academy. This study will examine the mentoring relationships among high-ranking police officers on the job, in their active working context. This will also be the first study to look at mentoring since the TNP has undergone some organizational adjustments stemming from the EU Acquis process. Thus, findings from this research will be a very important addition to the extant knowledge base concerning mentoring in the law enforcement context in general, and in particular, on-the-job mentoring among current ranked officers at the TNP.

Definition of Key Terms

Mentoring

Mentoring means “serving as a mentor” (Merriam-Webster, 2000). More specifically, it is an active relationship where a more experienced organizational member offers support to a mentee who is a less-experienced organizational member, working towards gaining meaningful results, maximizing learning capacity, and achieving success (Bouquillon, 2004; Graham-Leviss, 2004; Mullen 1994).

Mentee

Mentee is an interchangeable word for protégé and means a person who is receiving some form of mentoring service informally or formally from a significant person (mentor) to reach his/her objectives and career goals (Geiger-Dumond & Boyle, 1995; Kavooosi, 1992).

Protégé

Protégé has the same meaning as mentee: One who is protected or trained or whose career is furthered by a person of experience, prominence, or influence (Merriam-Webster, 2000).

Mentor

A mentor is a trusted counselor or guide (Merriam-Webster, 2000). The term is defined as a more experienced professional who supports younger or less experienced colleagues, helping with career and psychosocial advancement and success.

Formal Mentoring

Formal mentoring is a kind of assigned mentoring relationship. It is commonly defined as a “structured program” designed and developed by the organization where an experienced member of the organization supplies career and psychosocial development to a protégé who is a lesser-experienced member of the organization. It is characterized by such aspects as in-house administration, defined requirements such as frequency of meeting and procedures for evaluating the mentor-protégé relationship, and delineation of the mentor’s ability (Haynes, 2003; Murray, 2001).

Informal Mentoring

Informal mentoring is a spontaneous mentoring relationship commonly defined as “traditional mentoring” where an experienced organizational member offers career and psychosocial support to a protégé who is a less-experienced organizational member (Bennetts, 2001; Haynes, 2003). This is a naturally occurring relationship that happens without external involvement from an organization (Chao, Waltz, & Gardner, 1992).

Supervisory Mentoring

Supervisory mentoring is a relationship between supervisor and subordinates. Every supervisor mentor his/her subordinates by giving advice while working together.

Currently, in both popular and professional literature, terms like supervisor, mentor, coach, and supervisory mentoring are often used in contradictory, confusing, or overlapping ways in relation to defining aspects of a mentoring relationship. No clear consensus on the definition of these terms has yet been reached. However, there is a need for precise demarcations. Practitioners argue that

there are many reasons why clarity about terms is particularly important at the present time. As multidisciplinary teamwork develops across primary care, it will be essential for the different professions working together to share an understanding of what they mean by the words they each use (Clark, Jamieson, Launer et al., 2006, p.110).

Researchers have attempted to define the concepts: “Supervision takes place in a relational context: It is first and foremost a relationship between senior and junior professional members” (Watkins, 1997, in Johnson, 2007, p. 259). Bernard and Goodyear (2004) define supervision as

an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior member or members of that same profession. This relationship is evaluative, extends over time, and has the simultaneous purpose of enhancing the professional functioning of the more junior person, monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the client . . . and serving as a gatekeeper of those who are to enter the particular profession (in Johnson, 2007, p. 260).

Mentoring is an active relationship where a more experienced organizational member offers support to a mentee who is a less-experienced organizational member with the goals of meaningful results gained, learning capacity maximized, and success

achieved (Bouquillon, 2004; Graham-Leviss, 2004; Mullen 1994). These various definitions show that supervision and mentoring relationships are far from mutually exclusive and, in many respects, potentially complementary (Johnson, 2007).

In his article, Shea (2007) poses the following question and provides parameters for a response in the affirmative:

Can supervisors mentor? Yes....powerfully and with grace, if we keep in mind three issues that are critical today:

1. Mentoring begins when we go beyond our job responsibilities in a voluntary, caring, sharing and helping relationship.

2. We prepare ourselves to work with our mentees across the whole mentoring spectrum from participating in employer sponsored formal programs to interpersonal informal relationships that we initiate; and when we actively seek out growth and personal development opportunities as they come along; and

3. When we mentor all of our associates according to their special needs rather than just the ones we perceive as having special abilities or the ones we feel most comfortable with.

Mentors who keep these three points in mind are prepared to help themselves, their associates and their organization in special and often powerful ways (p. 3).

Coaching

A related concept to mentoring is coaching. According to Truelove (1992), "Coaching [is] taking someone through the experiential learning cycle in a systematic way with the intention of improving the capability to apply specific skills or deal with problematic situations" (p. 279). On the other hand, "mentoring [is] assigning a respected and competent individual (other than the direct boss) to provide guidance and advice in order to help someone cope with and grow in the job" (p. 279). The coaches' focal point is a specific set of "present "or current problems whereas mentors not only focus on present problems but also "future" potential dilemmas and issues. (Megginson, 1995)

What is Mentoring?

The literature on mentoring is growing. The term itself became popular in the 1970s, and since then research has continued to conceptualize and theorize about it. In order to understand the process of mentoring, the definitions and foundations should be clarified (Debolt, 1992). A current explanation is offered: Mentoring is a reciprocal and collaborative learning relationship between two (or more) individuals using defined learning goals via mutual responsibility and accountability aimed at helping the mentee achieve proficiency (Zachary, 2005).

As previously mentioned, the term mentor comes from *The Odyssey*, Homer's epic poem. In this legend, Odysseus's son, Telemachus, was left with Mentor while Odysseus led his forces in Ithaca. Mentor thus had a doubly complex role: first, he had to take responsibility for Telemachus, guiding him to adulthood, and second, he had to prepare Telemachus as a warrior-leader to stand by his father in the fight to control the city (Daloz, 1986). Thus, Mentor served not only as the guardian but also as the person who gave wise direction to the king's son as he matured through life. So, the term mentor has evolved to mean a trusted and wise teacher or counselor (Cremans, Evenson, Patwell & Phelps, 1993, cited in Swanson, 2004). As Rhodes (1994) noted, this kind of mentoring is generally considered as a relationship

between an older, more experienced mentor and an unrelated young protégé. The mentor typically provides on-going guidance, instruction, and encouragement aimed at developing the competence and character of a protégé. Over the course of the relationship, the mentor and protégé develop a bond of mutual commitment, friendship, respect, and loyalty which facilitates the youth's transition into adulthood (in Newburn & Shiner, 2005, p.37).

The term of mentoring originated from the character in *The Odyssey*; nonetheless, some argue that it is misunderstood (Roberts, 1999):

The true Mentor was created by Fenelon, not Homer, and exists in *Les Aventures de Telemaque*, not in *The Odyssey*. Homer's *The Odyssey* is rightly termed a 'classic': it is the first appearance of the word mentor. However, this should not result in the qualities of Homer's Mentor being continually misconstrued, however well the intention. It is argued here that the extrapolation of the attributes of Homer's Mentor into modern day mentoring is illusory. Fenelon's *Les Aventures de Telemaque* is a masterly piece; a continuation of *The Odyssey* written from an educational vista. It is Fenelon, not Homer, who endows his Mentor with the qualities, abilities and attributes that have come to be incorporated into the action of modern day mentoring. With only thought and consideration, Fenelon's work may well regain its rightful place within the future writings on the concepts of mentor and mentoring.¹

And although the concept dates back to Greek legend, its contemporary use was popularized with the book *The Seasons of a Man's Life* (Levinson et al, 1978). Levinson and colleagues conducted biographical research on 40 men and found mentoring as one of the most important and also complex relationships of early adulthood. The mentor is perceived as a "transitional figure, bridging the span between parent and peer, a person who helps support and facilitate the realization of the dream and midwives a new identity" (Harrison, 1987, p.26). Now, the term mentoring is used in educational settings to indicate the relationship between a more seasoned and less seasoned professional.

Theoretical Framework

Bandura's Social Learning Theory

Most mentoring research employs Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory as the theoretical framework. Bandura (1977, 1987) argued that behavior is learned through

¹ http://home.att.net/~nickols/homers_mentor.htm (last accessed on 10.27.2008)

modeling and by response consequences. Response consequence is based on an individual's direct experience that constructs negative and positive support from individual actions. Learning through modeling is an observational process; it includes direct experience and it cultivates cumulative patterns of learning. According to Bandura (1977, 1987) this modeling process has 4 steps:

- 1- Attention: The individual pays attention to the model including modeled events (i.e., complexity, distinctiveness, prevalence) and characteristics of the observed.
- 2- Retention: If the individual is influenced by the observed behavior, using the technique of rehearsal, the person remembers the observed behavior. This memory includes cognitive organization, symbolic coding, and symbolic rehearsal. The individual recalls the mental image and later reproduces the activity with his/her own behavior.
- 3- Reproduction: The individual replicates the modeled behavior. This is the process in which the person converts symbolic representations into actual behaviors. Practice is necessary to reproduce the behavior successfully.
- 4- Motivation: The individual imitates the behavior if there are some motivating factors. Negative motivating factors discourage the person from reproducing the observed behavior whereas positive factors act as stimuli to reproduce the modeled actions. This process includes self, vicarious and external reinforcement.

According to Bandura (1977), people (the observed and the observer) are two reciprocal determinants but there is also interaction with the environment.

The notion of self-efficacy is another important concept for cognitive theory. It is defined as “people’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives” (Bandura, 1994, p.71). If people’s self-efficacy is high enough, their points of view will be positive and it affects their goal settings accordingly. By contrast, if people’s self-efficacy is low, they become emotionally unhealthy and their points of view will be negative. This low self-efficacy makes people focus on their own deficiencies and they cannot be successful (Bandura, 1994).

Social learning theory proposes that in increasing one’s self-efficacy, role modeling and emotional support during stressful times are very important. Since the mentoring relationship has the two core functions of career and psychological development, self-efficacy and social learning are very important.

Mentoring is generally viewed as a relationship through which a more experienced person assists in the development of a less experienced person by providing information, support, direction and feedback. The goal of the process is to enhance the less experienced person’s chances of success. An effective mentor can help a protégé interpret and clarify issues, determine ways to overcome roadblocks, and, as a result, help the protégé to realize success. As a result, the protégé becomes a *healthy* person, one who develops a positive outlook. In short, his self-efficacy is enhanced. The mentor will offer encouragement and motivation, thereby providing reinforcement of the protégé’s success. The protégé will become even more self-efficacious and will set meaningful, realistic and challenging goals for himself (Rhodes, 2007, p.41).

Kram’s Mentoring Model

There is considerable agreement among those who have studied mentoring that in order to understand fully the nature and impact of this developmental relationship, it is

necessary to examine how it changes over time (Clawson, 1979; Davis & Garrison, 1979; Kram, 1980; Levinson et al., 1978; Missirian, 1982; Phillips, 1977). The seminal research conducted by Levinson et al (1978) on mentoring relationships led to further studies in the 1980's. Kram (1983) broadened the meanings and phases of mentoring by conducting an intensive biographical interview study of 18 relationships in one corporate setting. Pairs involved in significant relationships with each other were interviewed at length about their relationships with each other. Mentoring was further defined by career and psychological aspects. Career functions were described as “the relationships that enhance learning the ropes and preparing for advancement in an organization” (Kram, 1985 in Pedersen, 1998, p.7). Psychological functions were identified as “the relationships that enhance the protégé’s sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role” (Kram, 1985 in Pedersen, 1998, p7).

According to Kram (1983), there are four stages in the formal mentoring relationship: initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition (see Table 1).

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Period	Description	Result
Initiation	This period takes six months to a year and in this period the relationship begins to be important to mentor and protégé	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Fantasies become real. -Expectations are met. -Senior manager provides coaching and junior manager assists. -Interactions begin
Cultivation	This period takes two to five years and in this period psychological and career functions are at a maximum.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Individuals continue to benefit from the mentoring. -Interaction and emotional bonds increase.
Separation	This period takes six months to two years and in this period there is a big change in the structural and emotional relationship.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Junior managers do not want guidance because autonomy is more effective. -Senior managers have midlife problems and do not guide well. -Career and psychological functions stop working because of limited interaction. -Anger and opposition increase because of missed opportunities.
Redefinition	This period lasts indefinitely and in this period an informal relationship is more effective.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -A new relationship begins after the separation phase. -Mentoring is no longer needed because the relationship is different than in other phases. -Anger and opposition diminish; positive reception increases. -Peer status is accomplished.

Table 1- Phases of the Mentor Relationship

While Kram's model is most widely used in the mentoring literature, earlier researchers also developed models to delineate the mentoring process. In Missiran's (1982) model there are three phases of mentoring: (1) initiation, (2) development, and (3) termination. In the initiation period, the mentoring relationship begins and the mentor provides career support to protégé, in the development phase mentoring functions are broad and relationships and interaction increase. In the last stage of mentoring, the termination stage is limited and only psychological support is given. Philip-Jones (1982) has a similar 6-stage model: (1) initiation, (2) sparkle, (3) development, (4) disillusionment, (5) parting, (6) transformation. According to Philip-Jones (2001), in a revision of her framework two decades later, she claims mentoring has four consecutive phases and with this model she moves closer to Kram's (1983) framework. In this model, the first phase is admiration of each other; the second phase is establishment of a relationship, the third phase is diminishing relationship, and the last phase is either separation or transformation.

Summary

Using a theoretical framework based on Bandura's cognitive theory, this research will explore the effects of mentoring relationships on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among high-ranking TNP police officers. The literature shows that there is a connection between mentoring relationships and job satisfaction and between mentoring relationships and organizational commitment. There is a need to examine this particular

context because to date no research on the mentoring process among high-ranking TNP officers has been conducted.

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

As stated earlier, research related to the modern mentoring paradigm has a 30 year history. The process of mentoring has been examined in the contexts of the private and public sectors and has focused on the effects which different variables such as gender, race, culture, and idiosyncratic and organizational characteristics have on the mentoring process. The first section of the chapter will provide a chronological overview of the salient literature.

Gender, Race, Cultural Differences, Personal Characteristics, and Mentoring Relationships

Gerstein (1985) conducted research on the application of mentoring in the business world to determine formal components and the human resource aspects of the development of organizational mentoring. It was found that mentoring was a behavioral phenomenon and was not dependent on personal characteristics. Career counseling and human resource development can institute the process of mentoring.

Thomas (1990) carried out field research to examine the influence of race on protégés' experiences of forming mentoring relations. According to Thomas, the term 'developmental relationship' has broader meanings than Levinson et al's (1978) concept of a mentor-protégé relationship.

A developmental relationship is one that provides needed support for the enhancement of an individual's career development and organizational experience. It is also a relationship in which the parties have knowledge of

one another and from which both may potentially benefit (Thomas, 1990, p.480).

In this research of mentoring in a business context, 88 black and 107 white managers participated and accounted for 487 developmental relationships. The analyses revealed that black protégés established 63% of their developmental relationships with white protégés whereas white protégés had almost no developmental relationships with black protégés. He concluded that two developmental relationships exist for blacks: One is organizational and the other is for need, both developmental and organizational. Blacks and whites did not differ in the career and psychological support from the developmental relationships.

Ragins and Cotton (1991) conducted an empirical study to examine perceived barriers to mentoring relationships among women and men in organizations. Their results showed that women perceived the presence of more barriers than men. In addition, individuals who enjoyed more protégé experience perceived more opportunities for meeting mentors. Also, higher-ranking senior members perceived themselves as having significantly greater access to mentors than younger, low-ranking individuals. But the study showed a lack of significant interaction between gender and protégé experience. Ragins and Cotton replicated the study in 1993 and the results were congruent with their earlier ones (Ragins & Cotton, 1993).

Atkinson, Casas, and Neville (1994) studied ethnic minority psychologists to find out the benefits of mentoring relationships. The participants included 101 clinical, counseling, and school psychologists with PhDs who identified themselves as members

of an ethnic minority. The Mentor Experience Questionnaire (MEQ), consisting of demographic questions, was designed as the research instrument and used a Likert-type scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree) to measure the mentoring relationship. The overall response rate was 64%. ANOVA and Tukey's HSD post-hoc test were used to evaluate the data. The results revealed that ethnic minority psychologists were prolific mentors of ethnic minority and European American mentees. The participants of this research had experienced positive mentoring relationship regardless of the protégés' ethnicity. No gender difference was found in the study.

Burke and McKeen (1996) examined the effect of gender on mentoring relationships with 280 female business graduates of a single university. The subjects were 482 business graduates randomly selected from a central alumni records office of a major Canadian university. Questionnaires were sent out; 280 of the questionnaires were completed and returned for a response rate of 55%. Mentor functions (both career development and psychological), descriptive characteristic of mentors, protégés, the mentor relationship, job, and career outcomes were measured. Psychological and career functions were measured by the instrument developed by Pollock (1990), job satisfaction was measured by a five-item scale developed by Quinn and Shepard (1974), intention to quit was measured by the scale developed by Burke (1991), career satisfaction was measured by the instrument developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), job involvement was measured by the scale developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965), and future career prospects was measured by a four item-scale developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990). The data were analyzed by correlation

and hierarchical regression statistical methods and showed no gender effects on the level of mentor functions received and only modest effects on work outcomes. They found that protégés chose younger mentors who were closer to their own organization levels.

Women with female mentors received more psychological mentoring support and tended to quit organizations earlier. Mentor functions had greater effects on future career prospects but not on other aspects of job and work satisfaction and involvement.

However, personal demographic characteristics such as current marital status and year received bachelor's degree had significant effects on career planning. Also, demographic characteristics like part-time or intermittent work, or obtaining a Bachelor's degree early had significant effects on organizational demographics (size).

Dreher and Cox (1996) conducted research on how race, gender, and mentoring experiences account for salary compensation outcomes among MBA program graduates. Subjects were drawn from nine member schools of the Consortium for Graduate Study in Management. Surveys were mailed to 3,623 alumni and 1,018 questionnaires were returned (28%). The correlation and regression analysis results revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship within race. White men more likely form relationships with white men and the compensation level was greater when a relationship was established with a white male. The resulting average annual advantage was \$16,840 more than for those whose mentoring relationships had other demographic profiles.

Collins, Kamya, and Tourse (1997) examined racial diversity and mentorships among 157 men and 273 women social workers in a cross-sectional survey study. The respondents came from 5 different races: White, African American, Hispanic, Asian, and

other, with a mean age of 42.4. The dependent variable was mentor relationships (same-race, cross-race); independent variables were race and mentorship involvement. The findings showed that race was not significantly related to mentoring relationships. Mentor relationships among social workers were prevalent in all racial groups; however, the strong racial correlation suggested that there was a bias toward same-race relationship.

Ragins and Scandura (1997) conducted an empirical study with 142 male and female ex-protégés to seek any association between gender and termination of mentoring relationships. It was found that women did not differ from men in the number or duration of prior relationships or in their reasons for terminating the relations when variables such as gender differences in rank, salary, tenure, and other demographic and organizational variables were controlled for.

Ensher and Murphy (1997) examined the effects of race, gender, perceived similarity, and contact on mentor relationships with 104 intern protégés in an 8-week summer jobs training program and their volunteer staff mentors employed at a large West coast media organization. Results indicated that same-race mentors increased instrumental support while no significant relationship was found between same-race mentors and psychological support. Nor did female mentors offer more psychological support than male mentors. However, liking, perceived similarity, and psychosocial and instrumental support were significantly related with the mentoring relationship: They noted:

Overall, the findings for perceived similarity indicate that the more similar protégés perceived themselves to be to their mentors in outlook, values, or perspective the more likely they were to report liking their mentor, being

satisfied with their mentor, and having more contact with their mentor. (Ensher & Murphy, 1997, p.474).

Bauer (1999) conducted a small experimental design study on the perceived mentoring fairness, especially the relationships with gender, mentoring type, mentoring experience, and mentoring needs of 24 male and female participants. The results showed that both experiences and needs were related to ratings of fairness. Participants who had past mentoring experiences rated relationship as fair and were more likely to mentor others. But, there was no significant gender difference.

In an international context, Aryee, Lo, and Kang (1999) examined the mediating influence of protégé-initiated relationships on the connection between personality and situational characteristics and mentoring perceptions of 184 Chinese employees. They found that protégé-initiated mentoring relationships were significantly mediated by the personality characteristics of extraversion but they found no significant mediation between mentoring received and situational characteristics of individual development culture and opportunities for interactions on the job. This indicated that personality characteristics of extraversion were indirectly correlated with mentoring received but situational characteristics of individual development culture and opportunities for interactions on the job were directly related to mentoring perceived.

Smith, Smith, and Markham (2000) conducted research on diversity issues in mentoring with 226 faculty members and found out that women were mentored much more than men. There was no significant effect on race difference in psychological

support but Caucasian men and women show significantly greater organizational commitment.

Clark and Harden (2000) looked at mentor relationships in clinical psychology doctoral training programs by surveying 1000 recent doctoral students. The results showed that more PhDs reported having a mentor than did PsyD students. And, 91% reported that the mentoring relationship had a positive effect on doctoral program satisfaction. No gender difference in accessing mentors was found, but women were more likely to select female mentors.

Tillman (2001) conducted qualitative mentoring research on African American faculty in two predominantly white institutions located in the Midwest. Using the snowball approach, 10 mentor-protégé pairs representing six disciplines (journalism, history, music, humanities, education, and a professional school) were selected. Unstructured in-depth interviews (including notes and taped conversations) were analyzed. Three coding categories were generated from three sources: the five dimensions of mentoring; the research questions, and the narratives (language) of the participants. The results showed that protégés benefited from the mentoring relationships; however, those protégés whose mentors were white felt isolated. Another important finding was that the assignment of a mentor did not always determine the success of the mentoring relationship and the success of the protégé.

Ortiz-Walters and Gilson (2005) examined the mentoring experiences of African-, Hispanic, and Native American protégés. An electronic survey was sent to 401 graduate (PhD) business school student members of a National Association. Of the 358 returned

surveys, only 163 surveys were usable. Univariate ANOVA and MANOVA analyses indicated that “in keeping with the theories of diversified mentoring, graduate students of color reported that they perceived more psychosocial and instrumental support from and were more comfortable and satisfied with mentors who were also of color” (p.471). Mentors whose protégés of color reported that they were perceived as being similar on deep-level values were more satisfied, committed to maintaining the relationship, and felt higher levels of interpersonal comfort. These results were contrary to Turban et al’s (2002) earlier findings that no ethnic similarity related to protégés’ perceptions.

Young, Cady, and Foxon (2006) examined the literature on gender differences in mentoring through several theoretical lenses: the similarity-attraction paradigm, power dependence, social exchange, and biological and psychological theories. No clear consensus was reached, but 20 research propositions were made about the gender and mentoring relationships to help understand the relationship dynamics and how gender influences those dynamics. They argued for future research to close the gender gap in mentoring research and to demystify gender differences in mentoring.

Fowler, Gudmundsson, and O’Gorman (2007) investigated the relationship between specific gender combinations of mentors-mentees and distinct mentoring functions with 500 participants (272 mentees and 228 mentors) from eight public and five private sector organizations using a survey (50% response rate). A 36-item instrument was used to measure eight categories of mentoring functions: personal and emotional guidance, learning facilities, coaching, advocacy, career development facilitation, role modeling, strategies and system advice, and friendship. Hierarchical regression analysis

showed that the effects of gender were limited to only a few mentoring functions. All mentees perceived female mentors to have supplied more personal and emotional guidance and more career development facilitations than male mentors. Female mentees were provided with more career development facilitation and role modeling than male mentees. An analysis of the mentors' responses found no significant gender differences in the functions provided to female and male mentees.

Nguyen, Huynh, and Garwick (2007) tested the generalizability of the mentoring-career satisfaction relationship of European Americans to Asian/Pacific Islander American (APIA) faculty. The 139 participants were selected from four large public universities in California. A questionnaire comprising 4 sections devoted to career satisfaction, general ethnicity, mentoring, and demographics was developed from previous studies. Factor and regression analysis indicated that the mentoring career satisfaction relationship previously demonstrated for European Americans was generalizable to APIA faculty and that there was a relationship between mentoring and career satisfaction. Personality was another predictor variable on mentoring and career satisfaction such that highly agreeable individuals were more likely to be mentored and reported higher career satisfaction. Acculturation did not moderate the relationship between career satisfaction and mentoring but it predicted the career satisfaction for participants born overseas. This finding suggested that mentoring research consider including as variables cultural constructs such as acculturation.

Summary

Overall, the studies above found no strong gender difference in mentoring relationships, though women showed an inclination to select female mentors. Cultural variables such as acculturation may be important in protégé-mentor relationships: When protégés perceive their mentors as being similar on deep-level values, they are more satisfied, committed to maintaining the relationship, and feel higher levels of interpersonal comfort. In addition, researchers found that personality characteristics of individual development culture and opportunities for interactions on the job were directly related to mentoring perceived. Results also indicate that same-race mentors increase instrumental support and that a bias toward different races in mentoring relationships may exist. Clearly, more research and study replications in other cultures and contexts are needed to reach generalizable results in mentoring relationships related to gender, race, and culture.

Career Satisfaction and Mentoring Relationships

In this section, studies which focus on the effect that mentoring has on career satisfaction are presented. In one of the earliest relevant studies, Fagenson (1988) conducted research on protégés' and non-protégés' perceptions of their own power in organizations. They asked 518 high- and low- level men and women working in a large company in the health care industry to evaluate their level of organizational policy influence, access to important people, and their level of resources in their organizations. It was found that mentored individuals reported having more of each of these than non-mentored people, although no significant gender difference was determined.

Dreher and Ash (1990) compared the amount of mentoring among male and female business school graduates (147 women and 173 men) in managerial, professional, and technical positions. Their results showed that students who received mentoring gained more promotions, earned higher incomes and had greater satisfaction with the pay and benefits than students who received less extensive mentoring relationships. As with the previous study, there were no gender differences.

In a seminal study, Turban and Dougherty (1994) surveyed 550 management graduates of a large Midwestern university to find out the role protégé personality plays in the mentoring process and career success. Using structural equation modeling, they found that an internal locus of control, high self-monitoring, and high emotional stability increased the mentoring relationship (see figure-2). Receiving mentoring was shown to be related to both career success and career attainment. Additionally, career attainment also affected perceived career success. Finally, there was no gender difference. This result demonstrated that personality characteristics are important components in the effectiveness of mentoring relationships.

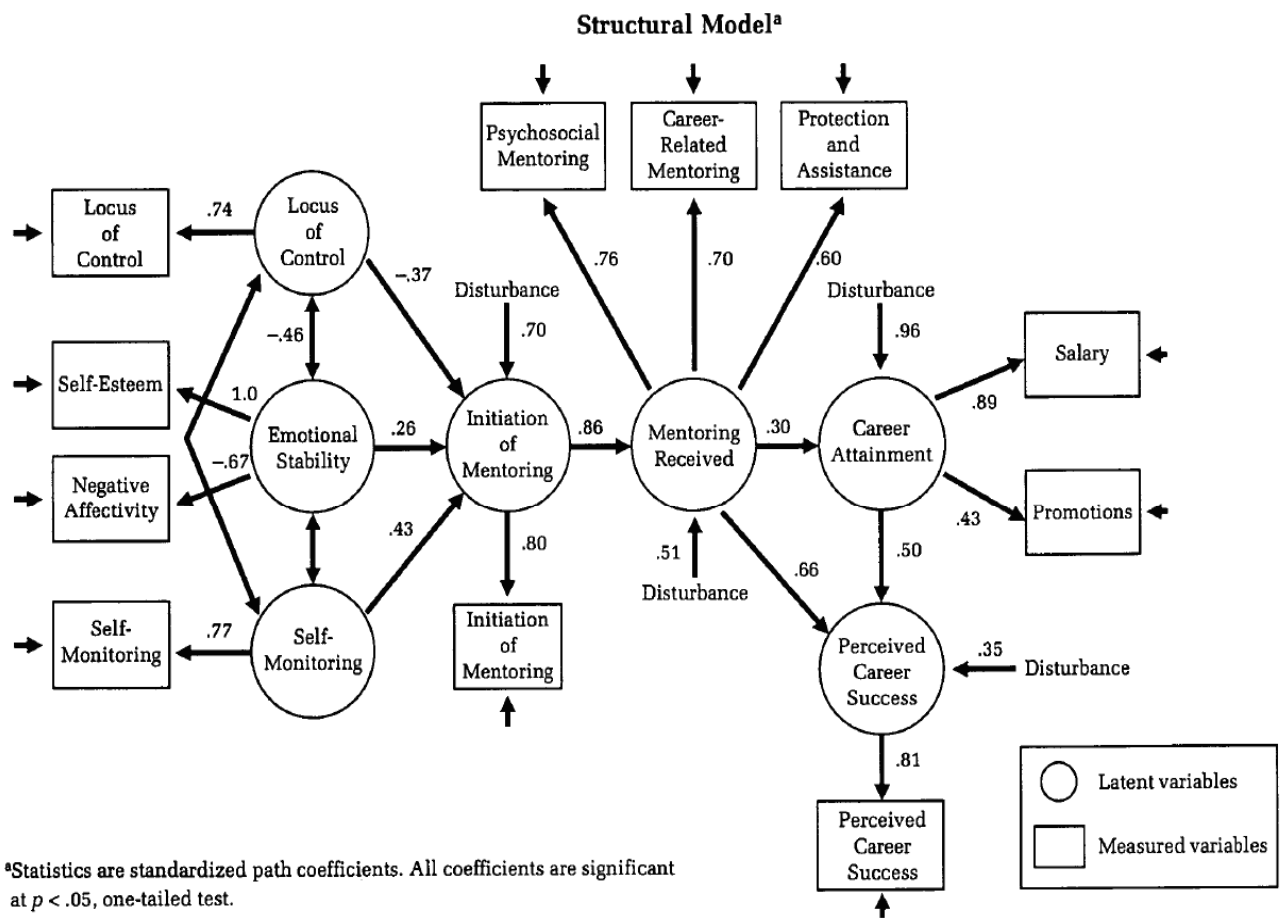


Figure-2

Figure 2-Structural Model of Mentoring (Turban and Dougherty, 1994)

In another important study, Scandura (1997) carried out an empirical investigation of the perceived effects of mentoring on organizational justice with 197 managers from Australian organizations. Results showed that protégés perceived higher levels of procedural justice than non-protégés and career development, psycho-social support, and role modeling were all significantly related with procedural and distributive justice. Scandura, underlining the multiple facets of justice included the etymology of the distinct terms:

Procedural justice has recently been proposed as an additional component of employees' reactions to fairness at work (Leventhal, 1980), suggesting that organizational justice is multidimensional (Moorman, 1991). Research indicates that distributive and procedural justice are separate constructs. Procedural justice is defined as the application of fair rules in decisions regarding resource allocation (Scandura, 1997, p. 60).

Mentoring functions were found to be significantly related to career expectations, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment when organizational justice and organization type were controlled for. Role modeling was also associated with job satisfaction and commitment. This outcome suggested that the respect protégés have for their mentor may result in positive work behaviors. Thus, the overall findings indicate that the mentoring literature could increase our understanding of the factors that influence perceptions of justice in the workplace.

Mullen and Noe (1999), conducted research on the exchange of information in the mentoring process from the perspectives of both the mentor and mentee. The subjects included 161 mentors and 140 protégés in 17 organizations. The research results showed that mentors do seek information from their protégés. Mentor information seeking is significantly related with career support for their protégés and the extent to which

mentors believe their protégés influence them. However, no significant correlation between mentor seeking information and a mentee's personal growth was found.

Young and Perrewé (2000) examined the career-related support and social support of formal mentoring relationships in an academic context: doctoral students and assistant professors in Management who were currently or recently in the dissertation process were designated as protégés and associate and full professors in Management who recently chaired a doctoral dissertation were designated as mentors. Out of 2444 questionnaires, a total of 323 questionnaires were returned (108 protégé questionnaires and 215 mentor questionnaires). Descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, correlations, and regression analysis were used to show that met expectations mediated the relationship between career and social support for mentors. When protégés were open to advisement and coaching the mentors' perceptions about the mentoring relationships and exchange quality were positively influenced. Met expectation was found to mediate the relationship between social support behaviors and exchange quality for protégés. Protégés perceived the relationship to be effective and trusted in the mentor when mentors showed levels of social support behaviors that met protégés' level of expectations.

Nielson, Carlson, and Lankau (2001) studied how having a mentor influenced employee perceptions in reducing work-family conflict by surveying 502 graduates holding bachelor's degrees in business management. Responses from the 5-point Likert type scale items on the questionnaire were subjected to a one-way ANCOVA, partial correlation, and hierarchical regression analyses. The results showed that a mentoring relationship reduced problems stemming from competing work and family needs, especially family-work conflict. The findings suggested that "mentors help their protégés

focus more fully on their work priorities and therefore protégés perceive less interference from family responsibilities” (p.375). The protégés became more involved with work priorities and less prone to allowing family demands to interfere with work roles. However, while the work-family conflict was lessened with mentor support, the conflicts were not eliminated and remained problematic for employees and organizations.

Ensher, Thomas, and Murphy (2001) compared traditional, step-ahead, and peer mentoring on protégés’ support, satisfaction, and perceptions of career success with 142 ethnically diverse protégés who were participating in informal mentoring relationships. Their findings demonstrated that role modeling, reciprocity, and vocational support were significant predictors of protégé satisfaction with a mentor. Mentor support affected both job satisfaction and protégés’ perceived career success.

Turban, Dougherty, and Lee (2002) looked at doctoral students’ perceptions of mentoring received and developmental relationships they built as a result. It was found that the duration of the relationship was an important factor in the developmental relationship. Individuals were more likely to be in a relationship with someone of the same gender. Gender and duration were connected: In long term relationships, gender dissimilarity was beneficial whereas in short term relationships it was harmful. Race did not affect mentoring received. However, a strong correlation between perceived similarities and mentoring received in shorter terms versus longer terms for challenging assignments and exposure visibility and sponsorship was found. This showed that the negative effect of perceived dissimilarity lessened during the relationships.

Ehrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004) analyzed the extant literature on formal mentoring programs in education and other professions, reviewing more than 300

research-based articles. They noted that the literature demonstrated that mentoring had enormous potential to bring about learning, personal growth, and development and professionals. But, they cautioned, it also suggested that poor mentoring can be worse than no mentoring at all. However, the literature indicated that with careful and sensitive planning and skillful leadership, most problems could be cured. In addition to these, the reviewers highlighted several critical issues to be considered by organizations when devising and implementing protocol for formal mentoring relationships. These were “the necessity for planners to be aware of the growing body of research literature on mentoring, the need for program support at various levels, the importance of mentor training, the careful selection of participants, and the need for ongoing evaluations” (p.536).

Herbohn (2004) focused on informal mentoring relationships and the career process of public accountants in Australia. A survey instrument was mailed to 400 subjects randomly drawn from the mailing list of the Institute of Chartered Accountants; the return rate was 40%. The questionnaire comprised 4 sections. The first section was devoted to demographic data; the second section had items concerned with identifying a respondent’s participation in informal mentoring relationships, adapted from Scandura and Viator’s (1994) instrument; the third section contained the Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al, 1969); and the fourth section contained the Intention To Quit (ITQ) index (Jacofsky,1982) to measure turnover intentions. Varimax and correlation methods were used as statistical methods. The results indicated that informal mentoring for public accountants consists of three functions: career development, social support, and role modeling. When accountants were mentored, there was significantly lower turnover,

higher job satisfaction, and lower intentions of female accountants to seek part-time employment. However, there was no significant gender difference in participating mentoring relationships. This study provided a model for developing and managing informal mentoring networks. It also underlined the importance of considering cultural perspectives as explanations for the relative importance of career development, social support, and role modeling.

Kirchmeyer (2005) studied the effects that mentoring had on academic careers over time initially with 143 (71 men and 72 women) American academics who earned PhD and/or DBA degrees in accounting between 1984 and 1987. A total of 48 participants left the study. Data from the telephone interviews which took 15 to 40 minutes depending on the response to open-ended questions were subjected to a series of regression. The results indicated that certain kinds of mentor/developers help academics either perform on the job or earn better salaries. Mentoring relationships provided both career advancement and performance. Specifically, performance and financial rewards were associated with different characteristics of the mentoring relationship.

In a qualitative study, Crawford and Smith (2005) examined the effects of mentoring relationships on the career choices of African American women who were holding or had held senior-level administrative positions in higher education in New York State. Using a two-tiered interview approach combined with journals, life histories and open-ended interviews, data were collected from the seven women administrators who participated in the research. Interestingly, while they found that mentoring did not affect the career choices and development of the women in this study because they were

not mentored, the participants believed that they would have had greater job satisfaction if they had been mentored.

Jinadu (2006) performed a structural equation analysis on the relationship between employee characteristics, supervisory mentoring behaviors and job satisfaction with 327 employees of a large southeastern city government. Participants completed questionnaires targeting supervisory mentoring, core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, interpersonal comfort, and demographic characteristics. The mentoring items were adapted from the Growth and Development Attitude Questionnaire (GDAQ) designed by Loviscky and Dickinson (1995). Core self-evaluations which refer to individual's basic conclusion or bottom-line evaluations about themselves were measured with the Core Self Evaluations Scale (CSES) designed by Judge, Locke and Durham (2003). Interpersonal comfort was rated with a three-item scale developed by Allen, Day, and Lentz (2003). Job satisfaction was assessed with Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) designed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967). The confirmatory factor analysis and structural model analysis revealed that employees' core self-evaluations affected supervisory mentoring, satisfaction with the supervisor, advancement opportunities, and opportunities for growth and development on the job. Racial and gender similarity significantly impacted the supervisory mentoring. Particularly, interpersonal comfort with the supervisor mediated the relationship between demographic similarity and supervisory mentoring.

Summary

The results show that mentoring has definitely positive effects on career functions and job related issues. People who experienced strong mentoring service gained more promotions, earned higher incomes and expressed greater satisfaction with the pay and benefits much more than did people who received less extensive mentoring relationships. And mentoring received seems related to both career success and career attainment. Some research also revealed that mentoring relationships reduce work-family conflict by helping protégés to focus more fully on their work priorities.

Structural Characteristics of Mentoring Relationships

Tepper (1995) examined the upward maintenance tactics in supervisory mentoring and non-mentoring relationships with 259 managerial and technical employees. A five-item questionnaire was mailed to the respondents. The questions categorized the respondents either as informal supervisory protégés, formal supervisory protégés, nonsupervisory protégés, or non-protégés. The effects of demographics and background variables were controlled for. Using content analysis, descriptive statistics and correlations, and MANCOVA, the results showed that few differences could be seen among formal supervisory protégés, nonsupervisory protégés, and non-protégés. However, men were less likely to be involved in cross-gender mentoring relationships than women. In addition to this, “formal and informal supervisory mentors held higher-level managerial positions than supervisors of individuals who were mentored by someone besides their supervisors of nonsupervisory protégés” (p.1995). Supervisors of non-protégés had significantly less mentoring experience than supervisors of protégés.

The findings of Tepper's study offered valuable information about the stability of informal and formal mentoring relationships. Informal mentoring relationships provided a non-threatening context in which protégés could feel comfortable and could question their mentors, even challenging them. However, the formal mentoring relationships failed to achieve this goal because the nature of the relationships was not as comfortable as that of informal mentoring relationships. Nonetheless, formal mentoring relationships did supply as much career-related and psychosocial mentoring as informal mentoring relationships. This was contrary to the research of Chao et al. (1992), in which formal mentoring relationships were found to provide less career-related mentoring than informal mentoring relationships.

To determine the factors that influence an individual's decision to mentor others, Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) conducted qualitative research with 27 mentors from five different organizations represented a diverse range of contexts including municipal government, health care, financial, communications, and manufacturing. Four major areas were examined: individual reasons for mentoring others, organizational factors that influenced mentoring, factors related to mentor-protégé attraction, and outcomes associated with mentoring for the mentors. After analyzing the interview data with Cohen's kappa, the results revealed that previous mentoring experiences affected the mentoring relationship.

Allen, Russell, and Maetzke (1997) investigated the factors related to protégés satisfaction with formal mentoring relationships. Questionnaires using a 5-point Likert-type scale were given to 68 full-time, first year MBA students attending a large southeastern university. The data were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis and

correlation analysis. The six variables measured were mentoring functions served, time with mentor, satisfaction with current mentor, willingness to mentor, satisfaction with previous mentoring relationships, and demographic information. The findings showed that there was a strong relationship between the degree of career and psychological functions served by a mentor and the protégé's satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. In addition to this, the results indicated that a protégé's gender and the satisfaction with the current mentoring relationship were two important factors that affected the willingness to mentor others in the future. However, no significant relationship between the amount of time spent with the mentor and the protégé's satisfaction with the mentoring experience was found. Nor were the age and full-time work experience statistically significant factors for willingness to mentor. Interestingly, this research found a gender difference in willingness to mentor others. Females were more agreeable to mentor others than were males.

Eby, MacManus, Simon, and Russell (2000) looked at negative mentoring experiences from the protégé's perspective. They distributed 429 surveys targeting factors in negative mentoring relationships to private sector and government agency employees. Of the 277 surveys that were completed and returned, 65% were from those employed in private sector. A taxonomy of the responses to the questionnaire was created and coded for content analysis. The analyses showed that protégés reported having dissimilar attitudes, values, and beliefs with mentors in their most negative mentoring relationships compared to sharing attributes with mentors in their more positive experiences.

Tenenbaum, Crosby, and Gliner (2001) conducted research on mentoring relationships with 189 graduate students from nine departments and their advisors. Survey method was used with an overall response rate of 44%. The questionnaire had five parts: The first part consisted of a 19-item scale designed to measure both psychosocial and instrumental functions of a primary adviser. The second part asked respondents to rate satisfaction with advisers and the graduate experience. The third part of the questionnaire was designed to measure working relationships with the advisors. The fourth part consisted of questions about scholarly productivity like total number of journal publications, poster presentations, and conference talks. The final section was designed to collect demographic variables. Principal component analysis, chi-square analysis, MANOVA and hierarchical multiple regression analysis were all used. The results indicated that practical help increased productivity and psychosocial help increased the satisfaction and school experience. There was no gender difference.

To identify the possible predictors of a protégé's career mentoring help, the satisfaction with a mentoring relationship, the perceived areas of conflict with a mentor, and the overall evaluation of the mentor's guidance ability, Richard, Taylor, Barnett, and Nesbit (2002) examined undergraduate students' perceptions. The racial mix of the 140 undergraduate student sample recruited for the study was 58% white, 40% black, and 2% Asian. The researchers designed a questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-type scale to assess procedural voice, which was defined as "a form of participation in which protégés perceive that they will be given a sufficient opportunity to present their ideas, opinions, and feelings to mentors" (p.725). Structural equation modeling was used as the statistical analysis. The results showed that distributed justice and procedural voice both had a

significant positive effect on protégés' perceptions of the mentor's guidance ability. Procedural voice impacted the mentoring outcomes in two ways: First, they felt themselves to be valued members of the organization and thus they acted positively. Second, procedural voice raises protégés' perceptions that the outcomes of the mentoring relationship would be fair. Also, the researchers found that procedural voice had a positive effect on the career function of the mentoring relationship.

D'abate, Eddy, and Tannenbaum (2003) reviewed the salient literature on mentoring, coaching, and other constructs that describe development interactions. They argued that a great deal of conceptual confusion exists in the literature. They further asserted the need to conceptualize the meaning of developmental interaction constructs for future research to advance with more certainty, clarity, and agreement. The reviewers' goal was to create a snapshot of how common developmental interactions are currently understood in the mentoring area by analyzing research findings. A qualitative and literature-based theoretical nomological network approach was used. A total of 227 construct descriptions were extracted from 182 articles written between 1981 and 2002. Matrices were generated to interpret the 13 main constructs. The matrices indicated that different, sometimes contradictory, characteristics were used to describe developmental interactions. This critical review is helpful for researchers who want to direct their studies toward clarifying contradictions about the meanings of constructs. The results are also useful to assist researchers in their efforts to form more complete and sound definitions of developmental interaction constructs in the mentoring area.

In a study that examined a law enforcement context and procedural justice perceptions, Tepper and Taylor (2003) focused on the relationships among supervisors'

and subordinates' procedural justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviors with 373 National Guard members and their military supervisors in a Midwestern Army National Guard unit. A questionnaire measured procedural justice, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), OCB role definitions, mentoring behavior, and mentoring role definitions. Descriptive statistics, correlations and regression were used to analyze the data. The findings indicated that supervisors' justice perceptions were related to supervisors' mentoring behavior and supervisors' mentoring behavior was related to subordinates' justice perception. In addition to this, when subordinates defined mentoring behavior as an extra non-mandatory role, the relationship between subordinates' procedural justice perceptions and mentoring behavior was stronger, and when supervisors defined mentoring behavior as extra, non-mandatory role, the relationship between supervisors' justice perceptions and mentoring behavior was strong.

Eby et al. (2004) conducted research on protégés' negative mentoring experiences to construct development and nomological validation. They mailed 5-point Likert-type scale surveys to 2,250 participants, with a return rate of 21%. Negative mentoring experiences were measured using a 42-item instrument adapted from Eby et al (2000), while career-related support and psychosocial support were assessed using Ragins and McFarlin's (1990) measure of mentor functions. They found that negative mentoring was significantly correlated with intention to leave a job, psychological withdrawal, and depressed moods. It also negatively affected learning skills. Their findings help to explain "ways in which negative experiences manifest in mentoring relationships, the conditions under which such experiences may be more likely to occur, the distinctiveness of positive

and negative mentoring experiences, and how negative experiences may influence protégé perceptions and outcomes” (p.434).

Allen (2004) carried out a two-part research study on protégé selection by mentors both in a lab setting and in a field study experiment. In the first part, using 194 undergraduate psychology students as novice/potential mentors, the participants were given a booklet of materials that included an overview and directions, 10 fictional protégé profiles, and sections for rating and ranking each protégé. The results were subjected to MANOVA and showed that the experimental mentors were more likely to mentor protégés if they were characterized as high in ability and high in willingness to learn than if they were low in ability or low in willingness to learn. No gender difference was found.

For the second part, Allen (2004) attempted to replicate, in a field study using reports from experienced mentors, the experimental lab results. A survey was sent to the sample (N=391), which was drawn from members of a professional association for women in accounting and members of a professional association for engineers, with a return rate of 61%. The results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis replicated the lab findings: willingness to learn was a very important consideration in the choice of a protégé. However willingness to learn had greater influence than ability on protégé selection for experienced mentors. The field study also found that organizational rewards for developing others related to the influence that protégé ability and willingness to learn had on protégé selection. In addition to these, a combination of mentor characteristics and organizational environment factors played an important role in protégé selection.

Eby and Lockwood (2004) carried out a qualitative investigation with mentors and protégés to determine protégés’ and mentors’ reactions to participating in formal

mentoring programs. A total number of 24 mentors and 39 mentees from two different organizations with formal mentoring programs (telecommunications and a nationwide community-based health organization) agreed to participate in the interviews. The results showed that learning was mostly reported by both mentors and protégés; coaching, career planning, psychological support, role modeling, exposure and visibility, sponsorship for promotions, and career planning were mostly reported by protégés only; and developing personal relationships, personal gratification, and enhanced managerial skills were reported by mentors only. Some problems identified by both mentors and protégés were mentor-protégés mismatches, scheduling difficulties, and geographic distance. Unmet expectations, neglect, and structural separation were some of the problems for protégés only, whereas personal inadequacy was a problem for mentors only.

In their conceptual analysis of mentoring, Bozeman and Feeney (2007) critically review the extant research relevant to the mentoring paradigm and identified persistent problems in the development of mentoring theory. According to their review, defining mentoring is a major dilemma in the literature. An abundance of definitions for mentoring can be found and some of them are confounded by socialization or formal training frameworks. Their study indicates that some of the fundamental tenets of mentoring theory are confounded by other concepts. Thus, the theory still remains underdeveloped due to the many theoretical perspectives this multidisciplinary paradigm draws from.

Summary

The studies on the structural characteristics of mentoring relationships demonstrate that informal mentoring relationships provide a non-threatening context in which protégés can feel comfortable to question their mentors and challenge them. However, formal mentoring relationships fail to achieve this goal because the nature of the relationship is not as relaxed as informal mentoring relationships. Additionally, previous mentoring experiences affect the mentoring relationship positively or negatively, depending on the characteristic of the experiences. Findings indicate that a strong relationship exists between the degrees of career and psychological functions served by a mentor and the protégé's satisfaction with the mentoring relationship.

Distributed justice and procedural voice both have a significant positive effect on protégés' perceptions of the mentor's guidance ability. Research shows that negative mentoring is significantly correlated with intentions to leave jobs, psychological withdrawal, and depressed moods. It also negatively affects the learning process. Mentors are more likely to mentor those who are characterized as high in ability and high in willingness to learn rather than others who are low in ability or low in willingness to learn.

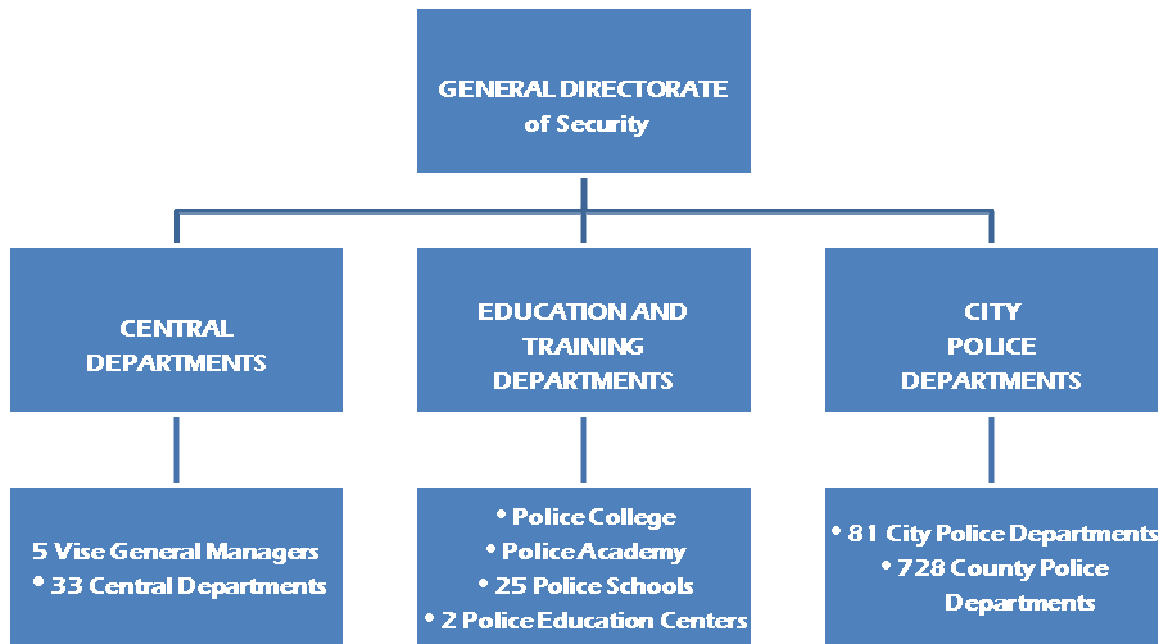
However, despite the important findings from many disciplines related to the impact that mentoring has in different contexts and behavioral aspects, the literature on mentoring still suffers from a multiplicity of definitions for mentoring, and thus contradictory results and conclusions.

CHAPTER III THE TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE

The TNP is the nationwide police organization in Turkey. Currently, there are approximately 200,000 active police officers, of whom 5% are women. Ranked police officers graduate from the 4-year Turkish National Police Academy and non-ranked police officers graduate from 2-year police schools. There are 25 regional police schools in Turkey but only one central Police Academy.

Figure 3- Turkish National Police Structure

www.cse.msu.edu/~cse429/lectures06/Turkey.ppt



Educational Routes for TNP Officers

As mentioned, officer employees can arrive at the TNP from several different routes, and with different ranks, depending on the levels of education and training they have undergone. However, none of the educational curricula incorporate a formal mentoring program.

The TNP organization includes 4 different levels of education:

- 1 Police College (secondary school)
- 1 Police Academy
- 25 Regional Police Schools
- 1 Police Graduate School

The Police College is the equivalent of a technical high school which students can go to if they pass the written and oral exams when they are 13 years old. This school educates students only in the social and scientific fields as related to law enforcement. They learn basic police knowledge, integrity and moral codes in their courses. But there is no field training or formal mentoring in this level of education. The second level of education is the Police Academy. When students graduate from Police College, they go on to the Police Academy. It is a 4-year program, but does not include an internship. The third source of police instruction is the police schools which educate students as police officers. Students choose to go here after high school; it is less difficult to be admitted. These are 2-year schools where students study both theoretical and practical police sciences. After finishing this school, when police officers complete their 6th year on the job, they have the opportunity to become ranked police officers if they pass oral and written exams. The fourth source is the recently founded Graduate School of Police

Sciences. When ranked police officers complete all the courses at this new graduate school they receive the MA degree. And this year, a doctoral level of police sciences has been established. At all levels, the curriculum is primarily theoretical instruction and formal mentoring relationships are lacking.

Education in the Turkish National Police Academy

As with the other educational programs, the Turkish National Police Academy intensely trains students from a theoretical basis but lacks mentoring programs. In terms of field experience, or apprentice-like opportunities, there are only three applied training programs, as explained on the Academy's web site

(<http://www.pa.edu.tr/eng/index.php?sayfa=training>):

1- On duty training (apprenticeship training):

This is a one month summer training program after students successfully complete the training during the year and passes a third class. The program is held in urban organizations that are determined in accordance with their wishes. In this program, the students are expected to learn routines and procedures related to the services being performed. Another expectation is that students learn police administration skills.

2- Applied Training (camp)

There are two camps during Academy training. The first is taken when students pass the first class and the second is taken when students pass the second class. Camps are held at the Aydin-Didim Applied Training Center. In the training, students learn swimming, marksmanship, self defense, unarmed combat defense,

fight training, and police-community relations training. It is an opportunity for them to improve their professional knowledge and qualifications.

- 3- **Applied Training:** Throughout the Police Academy curriculum, students have some practical courses such as self defense, target practice, and investigation techniques.

There is no established formal mentoring program in the Turkish National Police Academy. However, after completing their education, officers find themselves in informal and supervisory mentoring settings with their elder partners and supervisors on the job. A close relationship between the higher ranking officer and the lower ranking officer is formed. The lower ranking police officer learns everything about the job from the partner who has 2-3 years more professional experience. This is the only mentoring relationship within the context of the TNP.

Previous Research on Mentoring Relationships in the TNP Context

As stated earlier, there is very limited research that looks at the issue of mentoring in the environment of the TNP. The two previous major studies explored the mentoring processes in different places and at different points in the officers' experiences at the TNP. Yurdaer (1998) conducted a survey on the role that mentoring played in the educational formation of officers at the Turkish National Police Academy. A questionnaire consisting of 139 items was given to 182 police officers in different departments such as the General Directorate of Security, Ankara Security Directorate, the Police Academy and the Police College. The statistical analyses revealed that the participants felt that there were insufficient practical courses and training at the Police

Academy and that practical guidance, in the form of mentoring, was not fostered. The researcher concluded that the goals of the training were not realized because of the lack of practical application and mentoring (Yurdaer, 1998).

Another survey study was done in 1998. A questionnaire was given after a certificate program for Instructor Police Chiefs concerning their perceptions about the effectiveness of police education and mentoring at the TNP. The results showed that 42% of the survey applicants believed that police education in Turkey was not practical and mentoring was lacking (Dursun, 2000).

It should also be noted that since that research was conducted, the TNP has undergone many changes as a result of Turkey's decision to seek EU membership. The ramification of these changes might be seen even at the level of mentoring among TNP employees. Therefore, research that explores the current situation at the TNP is necessary.

CHAPTER IV METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to identify the effects of supervisory mentoring relationships on job satisfaction and organizational commitment at the TNP for ranked police officers. This chapter presents the details of the quantitative method used to address the purpose and answer the research questions in this study. The instrumentation, questionnaires, population and sample, collection of data, analysis of data, and ethical considerations will all be discussed.

Research Design

The research is a descriptive study conducted using quantitative methods. The literature suggests that a quantitative approach is eminently suitable for studying mentoring relationships. If the researcher is examining relationships between or among variables, the most appropriate method is a descriptive statistical analysis (Munro, 2005).

Qualitative and quantitative analysis are based on different paradigms. Whereas quantitative methods assume that the truth is objective and can be empirically exposed, qualitative methods try to reveal naturalistic paradigms based on the notion that reality is not predetermined but is created by research participants (Polit, Beck, & Hungler, 2001). Qualitative methods generate hypotheses from data; in contrast, quantitative analysis tests

predetermined hypotheses. In qualitative analysis, the purpose is discovery of meaning, whereas in quantitative analysis, the purpose is discovery and direction of the relationships, and cause and effect. The context is a naturalistic and real world setting in qualitative analysis, while it is a clinical, laboratory setting that can be controlled by the researcher in quantitative analysis (Polit et. al. 2001; Streubert-Speziale & Carpenter 2003; Vishnevsky & Beanlands, 2004).

As mentoring and its relationship to job satisfaction and organizational commitment is not directly observable in a naturalistic setting, but rather based on perceptions of the participants, and since the purpose of the research is to test hypotheses and discover the relationship and cause and effect, the researcher employed a survey method, utilizing primarily quantitative analyses. However, some qualitative analysis techniques, in the form of open-ended question, were also used on the mentoring relationship questionnaire.

Purpose of the Study

As previously mentioned, this research aims to investigate the mentoring relationships that ranked police officers experience once they are on-the-job at the TNP. This context is important because it may often be the first time the officer is exposed to actual police work, instead of theoretical cases. In part, this is due to the educational formation of the officers: the Turkish National Police Academy curriculum is very theoretically based--there is little application or exposure to real cases; no internship component exists. Therefore, practical education and the guidance to go along with it are very minimal at that stage of the officers' preparation. Ranked officers encounter a

supervisory mentoring relationship and guidance for day to day responsibilities from their elder partners only after they graduate from the Police Academy. For that reason, this study specifically focuses on the possible outcomes of this kind of mentoring relationship and its correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Research Questions

As described earlier, a review of the literature suggests that a mentoring relationship has a positive effect on organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Jinadu, 2006; Tepper, 1995, among others). Therefore, the following research questions and hypotheses have been established for this study:

Research Question 1: What is the effect of mentoring relationships on job satisfaction at the TNP?

Research Question 2: What is the effect of mentoring relationships on organizational commitment at the TNP?

Research Question 3: What is the effect of mentoring relationships on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment at the TNP?

Research Question 4: What is the effect of mentoring relationships on organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction at the TNP?

Research Hypotheses

- a. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.
- b. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.
- c. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction.
- d. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment.

Variables

Independent Variable

In this study the independent variable is the supervisory mentoring relationship. The effects of mentoring relationships are measured on the dependent variables.

Dependent Variables

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the two dependent variables in this study. They are the variables which are affected by informal mentoring relationships.

Conceptual Framework

This study employed the following conceptual framework, as explained in Chapter 1 (see Figure-4)



Figure 4- Conceptual Framework

Supervisory mentoring has an effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have reciprocal effects on each other.

Sampling and Data Analysis Method:

Sampling

The participants in this study included 400 ranked/high-ranking police officers from different departments drawn from the 15,000 high ranking police officers who are currently working for the TNP.

High-ranking police officers in the TNP are those holding the following ranks: Sergeant, Lieutenant, Captain, Police Superintendent, and Police Chief. A letter was sent from the Director of the TNP to all employees regarding the research project and encouraging officers to help the researchers while conducting their surveys or other related issues as long as TNP security was not compromised; hence the researcher was given organizational permission to carry out the research. Additionally, all participants were provided with an informed consent letter that asked them to participate in the research study by responding to three questionnaires measuring the relationships among mentoring, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Data Collection

A survey consisting of 62 closed-ended and 4 open-ended items were used as the research instrument. The questionnaire was comprised of 4 sections. The first section was devoted to demographic data, the second section was devoted to identifying respondent participation in a supervisory mentoring relationship, the third section was composed of a Job Satisfaction Survey –the JSS, (Spector, 1994), and the fourth section was devoted to the Organizational Commitment Survey- the OCS, (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Both surveys have been used in numerous studies and, have demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties. The OCS reported Cronbach's alphas ranging from .82 to .93 (Mowday et al, 1979). The JSS (Spector, 1985) reported Cronbach's alphas ranging from .75 to .91. The questionnaire used a Likert-type scale. The mentoring relationship was measured by 4 close-ended and 4 open-ended questions; these questions

were similar to those used on other studies which measured mentoring relationships and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

As discussed in Chapter 1, for the survey, the term *mentor* was defined as a more experienced professional who supports younger or less experienced colleagues, helping with career and psychosocial advancement and success. *Mentee* was delineated as someone who is receiving mentor service informally or formally from a significant person (mentor). At times, a mentor could be a mentee and a mentee could be a mentor, depending on the relationship. Some initial confusion with the interchangeable relationship in the current research was identified, but it did not actually affect the reliability of the study since *mentor* and *mentee* are two different roles and the survey questions set up to determine the constructs was the perspective of whether a person had a successful mentoring relationship or not, *regardless of the role*.

The questionnaire was published on a website (www.questionpro.com) and the web link was emailed to all TNP officer participants to allow them to complete the survey.

Demographic Data:

Demographic data were comprised of 6 closed-ended items. The questions measured these variables: gender, current rank, current position, age, total years of experience in the organization, total years of experience in the current department, and level of education.

Mentoring Relationship

Mentoring relationship data measured the supervisory mentoring relationship between mentor and mentee. Participants were given a definition of the informal, formal,

and supervisory mentoring relationships at the beginning of the survey to understand the mentoring relationship and answer the survey correctly. There were 4 closed-ended questions and 4 open-ended questions in this section. Close-ended questions explored whether participants had ever experienced the supervisory mentoring relationship, the mentor's gender, the number of times spent talking about career and psychological development, and whether the supervisory mentoring relationship was effective or not. Open-ended questions explored further information related to mentor and mentee. These open-ended questions were;

- How would you describe the relationship between you and your mentor/supervisor? (e.g., casual, useful, formal, infrequent, or something else)
- What were the main topics or issues you discussed with your supervisor in terms of mentoring? (e.g., your future career possibilities, current position concerns, on-the-job responsibilities, or something else)
- If you were/are supervising some subordinates, how was/is your relationship with them in terms of mentoring? Did/do you talk about their future career plans/goals, current job-related concerns, and/or other issues outside of/in addition to professional topics?
- In your opinion, what was lacking in terms of supervisory mentoring at the Turkish National Police? (e.g., regular interaction, clear guidelines, shared goals, administrative support, or something else)

Organizational Commitment Survey

Organizational commitment was measured by the OCS (Mowday et al, 1979). As previously stated, it is a well-known, reliable instrument with a Cronbach's alpha range

between .82 and .93 (Mowday et al, 1979). The 15 item questionnaire used a 7-point Likert-type scale: the statistical codes were 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neutral, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = moderately agree, 7 = strongly agree. Examples of the questions are as follows:

- I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
- This organization really inspires my best job performance.
- I am proud to tell others I am part of this organization.
- I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.

Job Satisfaction Survey

As previously mentioned, job satisfaction was measured by the JSS (Spector, 1998), which is reported in the literature to have good reliability, as measured by Cronbach's alphas ranging from .75 to .91. The questionnaire used a 6-point Likert-type scale on the 36-items. The statistical codes were 1 = disagree very much, 2 = disagree moderately, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree moderately, 6 = agree very much. Some representative questions were as follows:

- I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.
- When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
- The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
- I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.

Data Analysis Strategy

To address the research questions and to test the hypotheses, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used. This approach was chosen to best fit the fact that TNP officers work within organizational structures such as education, rankings, age, departments, and so forth. Hierarchical regression analyses permitted the differences within structural groups to be teased out. The multiple regression analysis allowed for mediation analyses between mentoring relationships and job satisfaction and mentoring relationships and organizational commitment separately. So the best protocol was to conduct hierarchical multiple regression analyses after the data compilation.

CHAPTER V RESULTS

The findings of the study are presented in two parts:

The first part includes findings from the univariate analyses. Demographics and professional characteristics of the officers participating in the study are described using frequency tables. Additionally, the high ranking police officers' perceptions about the mentoring relationships they had in the past and some open-ended questions related with the mentoring relationships are also summarized in frequency tables.

In the second part, the bivariate analyses are presented and four models are tested. The relationships among mentoring relationships, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction are explored by using multiple regression analysis. The results are given comparative to the prior relevant literature discussed earlier in this study.

Characteristics of the Sample

Table-7. 1 Distribution of the participants across gender

Gender	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Male	390	97.5
Female	10	2.5

N=400

As seen in Table 7.1, the total sample consisted of 400 high-ranking police officers out of approximately 15,000 total ranked police officers, for a response rate of 27%. The sample included 390 males and 10 females. The female sample is lower than male; however, as the total number of high-ranking female officers currently employed is around 1000 or 6.7%, it is a fairly representative ratio.

Table-7. 2 Distribution of the participants across management level

Levels of management by rank	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
<u>Lower Level</u>		
Sergeant	10	2.5
Lieutenant	37	9.2
Captain	175	43.8
<u>Upper Level</u>		
Superintendent	113	28.2
Chief	61	15.2
Missing	4	1

Table 7.2 shows the further delineation of respondents by rank, which were organized into two management levels, upper and lower. Although it was a convenience sample, the sample shows representative distribution across the levels from low to high ranking police officers; they were grouped from lower (55% of the sample) to upper (45% of the sample) (222 lower level managers vs. 174 upper level managers). Ten participants, corresponding to 2.5% of the sample were sergeants. Thirty-seven participants, or 9.2 % of the sample, were lieutenants. The largest group, 175 participants (43.8 % of the sample), were captains, or the highest lower level managers. The second largest group, 113 respondents (28.2 % of the sample), were superintendents, or the lowest upper level managers, and 61 participants corresponding to 15.2 % of the sample were police chiefs (which includes first, second, third, and fourth level police chiefs).

Four officers, corresponding to 1 % of the sample, did not provide any information about their ranks.

Table-7. 3 Distribution of the participants across age groups

Age Groups	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
22-25	9	2.2
26-30	44	11
31-35	252	63
36-40	69	17.2
41+	21	5.2
Missing	5	1.2

N=400

The sample included officers from different age groups, spanning two decades. Only 2.2% of the officers in the sample were in the youngest age group (22-25 years old), the new recruits. In addition, 11% of the officers were between the ages of 26-30, while the majority (63%) of the officers were in their early 30s. Almost one fourth (17.2%) of the officers were from 36-40 years old, and finally 5.2 % of the officers were over 41.

Table-7. 4 Distribution of the participants across education

Education (college degree)	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Bachelor's	151	37
Master's	192	48
Doctorate	52	13
Missing	5	1.2

N=400

To be a ranked officer in the TNP, the employee must have at least 4 years of college. However, when we consider the fact that the Turkish Government began to send police officers outside Turkey for graduate education in 2000, it is not surprising that 61% of the sample had post bachelor's degrees. Almost half (48%) of the sample held a master's degree and 13 % of the sample also had earned a doctorate degree. Only 37 % of the sample held only a bachelor's degree (see Table 7.4).

Table-7. 5 Distribution of the participants across years in organization

Years in organization	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
1-3	10	2.5
4-6	13	3.2
7-10	160	40
11-15	154	38.5
16+	52	13
Missing	11	2.8

N=400

When we look at the length of the service of the officers in the sample, as seen in Table 7.5, it spans over 16 years. Ten officers, or slightly less than 3% of the sample, had served 3 years or less; 3% of the officers in the sample had served from 4 to 6 years; 40% had served from 7 to 10 years; 39 % had served from 11 to 15 years; and 13 % of the sample had served for 16 years or more.

Mentoring Relationships

Table-7. 6 Distribution of the participants across mentoring relationships

Experienced mentoring relationship	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Yes	282	70.5
No	113	28.2
Missing	5	1.2

N= 400

When asked about the mentoring relationship, almost 71% of the sample reported that they had experienced a mentoring relationship, though 28% of the sample reported not participating in a mentoring relationship. This show that nearly 2/3 of the high ranking TNP officers in the sample had undergone or undertaken some mentoring (see Table 7.6). We must remember that the TNP has not instituted any codified formal mentoring relationship but the practice of supervisory mentoring exists.

Table-7. 7 Distribution of the participants across mentor's gender

Mentor's gender	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Male	258	91.5
Both male and female	24	8.5

N= 282

As Table 7.7 shows, of the 282 mentored officers, 258 had male mentors but 24 had been mentored by both a female and a male officer, indicating that female officers are mentored by males, and that females mentor male subordinates. The ratio is possible because, as mentioned earlier, male officers outnumber females 14 to 1 in the TNP.

Table-7. 8 Distribution of the participants' responses across meeting with the mentor

Number of times per week met with mentor	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
1-3	231	81.9
4-6	35	12.4
7-9	7	2.5
10+	9	3.2

N=282

When asked about number of times per week a respondent met with a mentor, about 82 % of the officers reported meeting 1-3 times a week, approximately 12 % of the officers reported that they got together 4-6 times a week, slightly fewer than 3 % reported that they encountered their mentor 7-9 times per week and slightly more than 3 % reported that they met with the mentor more than 10 times per week. These results show that mentoring relationships exist; however, the contact between the mentors and mentees in general is low (see Table 7.8).

Table-7. 9 Distribution of the participants' responses across the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship

Effectiveness of relationship	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Strongly disagree	13	4.6
Disagree	34	12
Undecided	46	16.3
Agree	138	48.9
Strongly Agree	41	14.5
Missing	10	3.5

N=282

In regard to the perceived effectiveness of the mentoring relationship that the officers experienced, about 17% of the sample felt that the mentoring relationship was not effective, about 16 % of the officers were undecided about its worth, but about 64 %

of the sample agreed that they had participated in an effective mentoring relationship. This finding is important because two-thirds of the mentored officers indicated that the relationship they had with the mentor was successful, as seen in Table 7.9.

Open-Ended Questions and Distributions of the Responses

Table-7. 10 Distribution of the participants' responses across the relationship between mentee and mentor/supervisor

The relationship between mentee and mentor/supervisor	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Casual	52	18.5
Formal	28	9.9
Informal	5	1.8
Useful	145	51.5
Useless	5	1.8
Infrequent	4	1.4
Something else	14	4.9
Missing	29	10.2

N=282

Tables 7.10, 7.11, 7.12 and 7.13 all show the distribution of the participants' responses across open-ended questions. The original questions were open-ended and

participants wrote their opinions in the survey. After the survey was finished, responses were coded into six or seven categories, depending on the themes of the answers.

When asked to describe the relationship between mentor and mentee, the responses were grouped in seven categories, as seen in Table 7.10. This question was answered only by the mentored subjects. The most prevalent answers described the relationship as formal and useful. About 52 % of the mentored sample thought that the relationship was useful while only 2 % described it as useless. Close to 20% of the mentored subjects responded that the relationship was just casual, though 10% of the mentored sample responded that the relationship was just formal. These results were compatible with the previous table which shows that two-thirds of the respondents thought that the relationship they had was effective. It should be noted that about 5% of the mentored sample wrote very different, unrelated answers so we did not categorize them.

Table-7. 11 Distribution of the participants' responses across major issues discussed with mentor

Major issues discussed with mentor	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Current position concerns	180	63.8
Individual development-future career possibilities	33	11.7
Experiences	6	2.1
All of the above	25	8.9
Something else	4	1.4
Missing	34	12.1

N=282

According to the findings (see Table 7.11), the major issues that mentees and mentors discussed were as follows: 64 % of the mentored high ranking police reported mostly discussing current position concerns and job related issues, 12 % of the mentored sample responded that they primarily talked about their individual development and future career possibilities, 2 % of the mentored sample and their mentors talked about the mentor's experiences, 9 % of the mentored sample and the mentors talked about all of the issues, while 5 % of the mentored sample wrote very different and unrelated answers so we did not categorize them.

This finding shows that mentees and mentors mostly talked about current position concerns and job related issues. However, 9% of the officers discussed broader topics and talked about everything including job, future career issues, and family related issues.

Table-7. 12 Distribution of the participants' responses across the relationship between mentee and mentor/supervisor

If you supervised some people, what did you talk with them about	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Current position concerns	65	16.2
Individual development-future career possibilities	86	21.5
Family-related issues	5	1.2
Experiences	33	8.2
All of the above	126	31.5
I am not mentoring	14	3.5
I am not a supervisor	5	1.2
Something else	6	1.5
Missing	60	15

N=400

When the mentees were asked whether they supervised subordinates, and if that involved mentoring, and if so, what they talked about, fewer than 5% responded negatively (either not supervising or not mentoring). Of those officers that indicated they

mentored their subordinates, 22% of the sample talked about individual development and future career possibilities, 16% talked about mentees' current position concerns and job related issues, 8% of the sample talked about their experiences, 1% of the sample responded that they mostly talked about family-related issues, and 32% of the sample talked about all of the above issues. It should be noted that 2% of the responses contained unrelated information and thus were not categorized (see Table 7.12).

These results show that one-third of the mentored TNP officers were also mentoring their subordinates and talking with them about topics such as job-related issues, family problems, and future career positions. This high percentage rate implies that the high ranking police officers believe that mentoring is important, regardless of whether they themselves were mentored; they chose to provide mentorship to their subordinates and discuss a wide range of issues. (This question was asked to the whole sample, regardless of whether mentored or not mentored). With this clear acceptance of the worth of mentoring by the officers, it would be interesting to see how much higher the rate of mentoring could be if an explicit directive mandated the practice throughout the TNP.

Table-7. 13 Distribution of the participants’ responses across the major issues lacking in mentoring relationship

Major issues lacking in mentoring relationship	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
Clear guidelines	79	19.8
Regular interaction	77	19.3
Personal inadequacy	52	13
No formal mentoring	43	10.7
Trust	22	5.5
Hierarchical relationship	20	5
Administrative support	19	4.7
Shared goals	10	2.5
Jealousy	8	2
Team spirit	4	1
Missing	66	16.5

N=400

Table 7.13 shows the distribution of the participants’ responses concerning their perceptions of the major issues lacking in their mentoring relationships. In fact, 20 % of the participants thought that clear guidelines in the mentoring relationships are lacking, 19% of the participants acknowledged no regular interaction, 13% reported that the main problem was the personal inadequacy of the mentors, 11% of the sample thought that

mentoring relationship is not adequate because there is no formal mentoring relationship, that supervisory mentoring and informal mentoring is not enough. Only 6% of the respondents reported too little trust between the mentor (supervisor) and the mentees (subordinates). Approximately 5% of the sample thought that the main problem in the mentoring relationship is the hierarchical relationship itself. A hierarchical relationship does not permit supervisors and subordinates to build a close relationship. About 5% of the sample indicated a deficiency of administrative support to develop a mentoring relationship. Almost 3 % of the sample responded that shared goals were lacking hence supervisors were not concerned about the subordinates. Two percent of the respondents felt that the main problem is “jealousy”. Jealousy prevents supervisors from taking care of their subordinates. According to this, 2 % of the sample’s supervisors think that if they teach or mentor their subordinates, then the subordinates can replace them in the future, thus the best way is not to mentor them so that they cannot compete with them. About 1% of the sample thought that the major problem is the lack of team spirit.

These results reveal that 20% of the sample thinks that there are no clear guidelines, while another 20% of the sample thinks that there is no regular interaction between mentors and mentees. Conversely, if clear guidelines and regular interaction are implemented, nearly half of the mentoring problems would be resolved.

Multiple Analyses Results

First, a reliability analysis, and then two different hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to explore the relationships among the constructs of mentoring, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment for officers at the TNP.

Reliability Analysis

Internal consistency reliability coefficients are very important for this type of research. They were calculated before beginning the regression analysis. The previous research indicated a high internal consistency level of around .90, for both the 15-item OCS instrument (Mowday et al. 1979) and the 36-item JSS instrument (Spector, 1985). In this study, we applied the same measure for our analyses. However our internal consistency levels for two scales were found around .70. Although they are not as high, they are strong enough for further analysis, because the criterion for this reliability test is often set by researchers at .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Regression Analysis and Models Testing

As previously discussed, there were four hypotheses and models:

1. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.
2. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.
3. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction.
4. Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment.

Independent Variable

In this study, the independent variable is “experienced mentoring relationship”. The effects of mentoring relationships will be measured on two dependent variables, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Experienced mentoring relationship was operationalized in two categories; 1=Yes (mentored); 0= No (no mentoring experience), as seen in Table 7.14.

Table-7. 14 Independent variable in the model

Experienced mentoring relationship	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
1= Yes	282	70.5
0= No	113	28.2
Missing	5	1.2

N= 400

Dependent Variables

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the two dependent variables in this study. They are the variables which are affected by informal mentoring relationships. The 36-item JSS was summed in SPSS data file and saved as job satisfaction variable; and the 15-item organizational commitment scale was summed and saved as organizational commitment variable.

Model-1:

Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.

$$Y_{(\text{job satisfaction})} = b_{(0)} + b_{(1)} \times (\text{being mentored}) + E$$

The first model explores the effects of a mentoring relationship on job satisfaction. The regression analysis was performed with mentoring (Yes=1, No=0) as the independent variable, and job satisfaction, the dependent variable, as seen in Table 7.14.

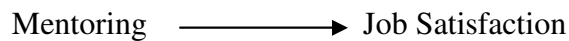


Table-7. 15 The effects of mentoring relationship on job satisfaction

	b	β	t	Sig
Being Mentored	3.191	0.89	1.713	0.044*
Constant	144.25			

N=366
 Pseudo R2=.008, F=2.933, sig:.044
 * p < 0.05 (One tailed)** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Model-1 is found statistically significant (R²=.008, F=2.933, with df=2, p<.05). The predictors of this model can explain .8% of the variance in total satisfaction of the TNP employees. Being mentored is found to be statistically significant. A TNP officer

who is being mentored is predicted to have 3.191 times higher job satisfaction score than non-mentored officers.

Model-2:

Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.

$$Y_{(\text{organizational commitment})} = b_{(0)} + b_{(1)} X_{(\text{being mentored})} + E$$

The second model explores the effects of a mentoring relationship on organizational commitment. The regression analysis was performed with mentoring (Yes=1, No=0) as the independent variable and organizational commitment as the dependent variable (see Table 7.15).



Table-7. 16 The effects of mentoring relationship on organizational commitment

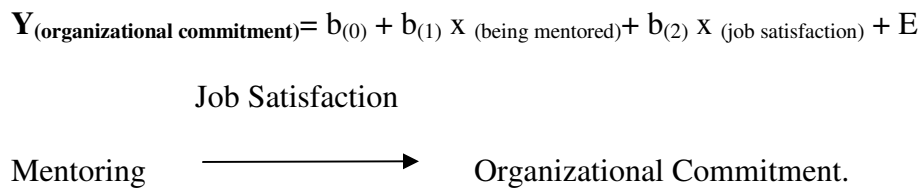
	b	β	t	Sig
Being Mentored	1.723	0.07	1.361	0.174
Constant	65.554			

N=382
Pseudo R2=.005, F=1.852 sig: 0.174
p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 7.16 shows that Model-2 is statistically not significant (F=1.852, p=.174). Thus, being mentored is found not statistically related to organizational commitment by itself.

Model-3:

Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction.



The third model explores the effects that a mentoring relationship has on organizational commitment after controlling the job satisfaction.

Table-7. 17 The effects of mentoring relationship on organizational commitment after controlling job satisfaction

	b	β	t	Sig
Job Satisfaction	0.216	0.327	6.622	0.000***
Constant	35.442			
<i>Step-1</i>				
Job Satisfaction	0.213	0.323	6.503	0.000***
Being Mentored	1.219	0.052	1.044	0.297
<i>Step-2</i>				
Constant	35.015			

N=366

Step-1: Pseudo R²=.107, F= 43.844, Sig: .000

Step-2: Pseudo R²=.110, F= 22.472 Sig: .000

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

In Model-3, as seen in Table 7.17, using hierarchical linear regression, in step-1 the predicted relationship is computed for job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and then in step-2 both for job satisfaction, and being mentored, and organizational commitment.

Step-1 of this model is found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.107$, $F=43.844$, with $df=2$, $p=.000$). In Step-2 of this model, being mentored was added to the equation. The second step is also statistically significant ($R^2=.110$, $F=22.472$, with $df=3$, $p=.000$)

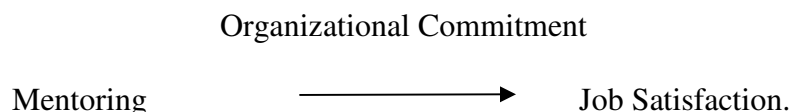
indicating that 11% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation.

When the values of all independent variables are zero, the predicted value of total organizational commitment score is 35.015. Job satisfaction is found statistically significant in the first step of this model ($t= 6.622$ $p< .000$). For every one score increase in job satisfaction, the score of organizational commitment is predicted to increase .216 times. In the second step, however, being mentored is found to be an insignificant predictor for organizational commitment. Job satisfaction is found significantly related to organizational commitment ($t=6.503$, $p<.000$). For every one score increase in job satisfaction, the score of organizational commitment is predicted to increase .213 times when holding being mentored constant. Adding the *being mentored* variable increased the R-square value from 10.7% to 11%. There is a small effect size. This result means that a mentoring relationship has no effect on organizational commitment after controlling the job satisfaction. Although the R-square value increased, the change is very small.

Model-4:

Mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment.

$$Y_{(\text{job satisfaction})} = b_{(0)} + b_{(1)} \times (\text{being mentored}) + b_{(2)} \times (\text{organizational commitment}) + E$$



The fourth model explores the effects of mentoring relationships on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment.

Table-7. 18 The effects of mentoring relationship on job satisfaction after controlling organizational commitment

	b	β	t	Sig
Organizational Commitment	.497	.327	6.622	.000***
Constant	113.191			
<i>Step-1</i>				
Organizational Commitment	0.49	0.322	6.503	0.001***
Being Mentored	2.262	0.063	1.277	0.203
Constant	112.09			
<i>Step-2</i>				
N=366				
Step-1: Pseudo R2=.107, F= 43.844, Sig: .000				
Step-2: Pseudo R2=.111, F= 22.775 Sig: .000				
p < 0.05 * p < 0.01 ** p < 0.001***				

In Model 4, using the same strategy (hierarchical linear regression), in step-1 the predicted relationship is computed for organizational commitment and job satisfaction,

and in step-2 then both for being mentored and organizational commitment, and job satisfaction

As seen in Table 7.18, Step-1 of this model is found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.107$, $F=43.844$, with $df=2$, $p<.001$), which means that 10.7% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by this model. In Step-2 of this model, being mentored was added to the equation. The second step is found statistically significant ($R^2=.111$, $F=22.775$, with $DF=3$, $p<.001$) which means that 11.1% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the variables in the equation.

When the values of all independent variables are zero, the predicted value of total organizational commitment score is 112.09. Organizational commitment is found statistically significant in the first step of this model ($t=6.622$ $p<.001$). In the second step, when the being mentored variable is included in the equation, the relationship is still significant; however, mentoring is not a significant predictor.

The R-square value increased from .107 to .111. Organizational commitment is found significantly related to job satisfaction ($t=6.503$, $p<.001$). For every one score increase in organizational commitment, the score of job satisfaction is predicted to increase .5 times when holding being mentored constant. This result means that the mentoring relationship has no effect on the job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment. Even though the R-square value increased, the change is very small.

After testing the four hypotheses, we found that only the second hypothesis was supported by the survey data. However further analyses to see the relationship among

mentoring, effectiveness of mentoring, and demographic variables like age, rank, education level, years in the current position were needed.

In order to test whether there is endogeneity problem in the models where satisfaction and commitment are reciprocally regressed, Wu-Hausman F tests and Durbin-Wu-Hausman chi-sq tests were performed using *Ivreg2* (Baum, Schaffer, & Stillman, 2007) and *Ivendog* commands (Baum, Schaffer, & Stillman, 2003) in a Stata statistical package. In both models, gender, education, job experience, position experience, age, and rank were used as instrument variables. Existence of a mentor and time spent with the mentor were used as main independent variables. Below is the first model (see Table 7.19) where commitment is regressed against existence of a mentor, time spent with mentor, and instrumented satisfaction. After the model *Ivendog* command was used to test endogeneity, the Wu-Hausman F test and Durbin-Wu-Hausman chi-sq test results suggest exogeneity (Baum, Schaffer, & Stillman, 2003) for the model since the null hypothesis that the model is exogenous could not be rejected.

Table-7. 19 Endogeneity Test-1

Estimates efficient for homoskedasticity only
 Statistics consistent for homoskedasticity only

		Number of obs =	355
		F(3, 351) =	3.29
		Prob > F =	0.0208
Total (centered) SS	=	39239.43662	
Total (uncentered) SS	=	1648955	
Residual SS	=	35490.86941	
		Centered R2 =	0.0955
		Uncentered R2 =	0.9785
		Root MSE =	9.999

cmmtmnt	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
stfctn	.3158116	.1435787	2.20	0.028	.0344026	.5972206
mentor	2.982113	1.71382	1.74	0.082	-.3769123	6.341138
time	-1.371875	.9476625	-1.45	0.148	-3.229259	.4855099
_cons	20.17482	20.76369	0.97	0.331	-20.52128	60.87091

Underidentification test (Anderson canon. corr. LM statistic): 18.540
 Chi-sq(7) P-val = 0.0098

Sargan statistic (overidentification test of all instruments): 11.785
 Chi-sq(6) P-val = 0.0669

Tests of endogeneity of: stfctn

H0: Regressor is exogenous

Wu-Hausman F test: 0.54897 F(1,350) P-value = 0.45924

Durbin-Wu-Hausman chi-sq test: 0.55594 Chi-sq(1) P-value = 0.45590

Here is the second testing model where satisfaction is regressed against existence of a mentor, time spent with mentor, and instrumented commitment (see Table 7.20). After the model `ivendog` command was used to test endogeneity, the Wu-Hausman F test and Durbin-Wu-Hausman chi-sq test results suggest exogeneity (Baum, Schaffer, & Stillman, 2003) for the model since the null hypothesis that the model is exogenous could not be rejected.

Table-7. 20 Endogeneity Test-2

Estimates efficient for homoskedasticity only
 Statistics consistent for homoskedasticity only

	Number of obs = 355
	F(3, 351) = 2.69
	Prob > F = 0.0463
Total (centered) SS = 93498.23662	Centered R2 = 0.0451
Total (uncentered) SS = 7716553	Uncentered R2 = 0.9884
Residual SS = 89284.96673	Root MSE = 15.86

stfctn	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
cmmtmnt	.9215976	.3890249	2.37	0.018	.1591228	1.684072
mentor	-1.028015	3.034831	-0.34	0.735	-6.976175	4.920145
time	1.544776	1.576855	0.98	0.327	-1.545803	4.635355
_cons	83.81528	25.64367	3.27	0.001	33.55461	134.076

Underidentification test (Anderson canon. corr. LM statistic): 15.235
 Chi-sq(7) P-val = 0.0331

Sargan statistic (overidentification test of all instruments): 13.670
 Chi-sq(6) P-val = 0.0335

Tests of endogeneity of: cmmtmnt

H0: Regressor is exogenous

Wu-Hausman F test:	1.24346	F(1,350)	P-value = 0.26557
Durbin-Wu-Hausman chi-sq test:	1.25676	Chi-sq(1)	P-value = 0.26227

Model-5:

In Model-5, first, the relationship between some demographic variables (age, education, and years in current position) and organizational commitment are examined. In the second step, being mentored was added to the equation, and finally job satisfaction was added to the equation in order to control for the effects of demographic variables and to determine the best predictors for organizational commitment (see Table-21).

Table-7. 21 The effects of mentoring relationship on organizational commitment

	Step-1				Step-2				Step-3			
	Organizational Commitment				Organizational Commitment				Organizational Commitment			
	b	β	t	Sig	b	β	t	Sig	b	β	t	Sig
Age(less than 35 years old and more than 35 years old)	.497	.020	.375	.708	.770	.030	.581	.562	.408	.016	.324	.746
Education (Masters)	1.557	.073	1.287	.199	1.609	.076	1.336	.182	1.624	.077	1.424	.155
Education (Doctorate)	4.262	.140	2.449	.015*	4.313	.142	2.490	.013*	4.061	.133	2.475	.014*
Years in current position	-3.293	-.151	-2.887	.004*	-3.475	-.159	-3.051	.002*	-3.184	-.146	-2.949	.003*
Being Mentored					2.537	.108	2.072	.039*	1.810	.077	1.553	.121
Job Satisfaction									.209	.319	6.468	.000** *
	N=361 R2=.037, F= 3.383, Sig: .010 * p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001				N=361 R2=.048, F= 3.590 Sig: .004 * p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001				N=361 R2=.148,F=10.308 Sig: .000 * p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001			

Step-1 of this model is found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.037$, $F=3.383$, with $df=5$, $p<.05$), which means that 3.7% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by this model. The variables years in current position ($t= -2.887$, $p<0.05$), and doctorate degree ($t= 2.449$, $p<0.05$) are significantly related to organizational commitment. For every one score increase in organizational commitment, the score of years in the current position is predicted to decrease 3.3 times and the score of doctoral degree is predicted to increase 4.2 times when holding other variables constant. In other words, if organizational commitment is sought, high ranking TNP police officers should not occupy the current position for more than 7 years and they should be more educated.

In Step-2 of this model, being mentored was added to the equation. The second step is found statistically significant ($R^2=.148$, $F=3.590$, with $df=6$, $p<.001$). The addition of the being mentored variable increased the R square value from .037 to .048. In other words, 5% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation. It was found that years in current position ($t= -3.051$, $p<0.05$), doctorate degree ($t= 2.490$, $p<0.05$) and being mentored ($t= 2.072$, $p<0.05$) are significantly related to organizational commitment. This shows that when mentoring experience was added to the equation, the effects of years in the current position and doctorate degree increased. The overall effect size was increased. For every one score increase in organizational commitment, the score of years in the current position (7 years or more) is predicted to decrease 3.5 times and the score of doctorate degree is predicted to increase 4.3 times and being mentored is predicted to increase 2.5 times when holding other variables constant. In other words, if an increase in organizational commitment is

desired, high ranking TNP police officers should not occupy any position for more than 7 years and they should be more educated and mentored.

-The more educated the participant, the more likely he or she will be committed to the organization;

-the fewer the years in the current position the participant spends, the more he or she will be committed to the organization, and

-the more mentored the participant is, the more he or she will be committed to the organization.

In Step-3 of this model, after the addition of the job satisfaction variable, this step is also found statistically significant ($R^2=.148$, $F=10.308$, with $df=7$, $p<.001$). The final addition increased the R-square value, and 14.8% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation. Years in current position (7 years-criterion) ($t= -3.184$, $p<0.05$), education level (doctorate) ($t=4.061$, $p<0.05$), and job satisfaction ($t= 6.468$, $p<0.001$) are significantly related to organizational commitment. For every one score increase in organizational commitment, the score of years (7 years and up) in the current position is predicted to decrease 3 times and the score of doctorate degree is predicted to increase 4 times and job satisfaction is predicted to increase .2 times when holding other variables constant. In other words, if an increase in organizational commitment is sought, high ranking TNP police officers should not occupy a position for more than 7 years, and they should be more educated and have high job satisfaction.

In the next four models, the hypotheses will be examined in light of the effectiveness of mentoring variable as some of the mentored TNP officers reported that

they received mentoring service but it was not effective. Hence, it is important to test the hypotheses with effectiveness of mentoring relationship variable. In the survey, participants were asked to report whether the mentoring they received was effective or not. A total of 282 officers who experienced mentoring services answered this question and 63 % of them responded that the relationship was effective. Further, 17% of the sample responded that it was not effective, 17 % was undecided and 3 % did not answer this question (see Table 7.22).

Table-7. 22 Effectiveness of mentoring variable in the model

Effectiveness of mentoring relationship	Number of officers	Percentage of officers
1= Yes	179	63
0= No	47	17
Undecided	46	17
Missing	10	3

N= 282

Model-6:

In the sixth model, the effects of effectiveness of mentoring relationship on job satisfaction are investigated. The logic behind this is that if the TNP officer is being mentored, and it is effective, then it increases the level of job satisfaction.

$$Y_{(\text{job satisfaction})} = b_{(0)} + b_{(1)} \times (\text{effectiveness of mentoring}) + E$$

Table-7. 23 The effects of effective mentoring relationship on job satisfaction

	b	β	t	Sig
Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship	6.382	.179	2.604	0.01**
Constant	142.167			

N=207
Pseudo R2=.032, F=6.782
* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

As seen in Table 7.23, Model-6 was found statistically significant ($R^2=.032$ $F=6.782$, with $df=2$, $p=0.01$). The predictors of this model can explain 3.2 % of the variance in total satisfaction of the TNP employees who were recipients of mentoring relationships. The effectiveness of the mentoring relationship was found to be statistically significant ($t= 2.604$ $p= .01$). Thus, a TNP officer who participated in an effective mentoring relationship is predicted to have 6 times more job satisfaction than one who did not.

Model-7:

In the seventh model, the outcome of the effectiveness of mentoring relationship on organizational commitment will be investigated. The logic is that if the TNP officer is being mentored, and it is effective, then it increases the level of organizational commitment.

$$Y_{(\text{organizational commitment})} = b_{(0)} + b_{(1)} \times (\text{effectiveness of mentoring}) + E$$

Table-7. 24 The effects of effective mentoring relationship on organizational commitment

	b	β	t	Sig
Effectiveness of Mentoring Relationship	5.198	.210	3.132	0.002**
Constant	63.488			

N=214
Pseudo R2=.044, F=9.807
* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Model-7 was found statistically significant ($R^2=.044$, $F=9.807$, with $df=2$, $p<.05$). The predictors of this model (see Table 7.24) can explain 4.4 % of the variance in total organizational commitment of the TNP employees. Effectiveness of mentoring relationship was found to be statistically significant ($t= 3.132$, $p= .002$). A TNP officer

who received an effective mentoring relationship is predicted to have five times more organizational commitment.

Model-8:

Effectiveness of mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction.

$$Y_{(\text{organizational commitment})} = b_{(0)} + b_{(1)} \times (\text{effectiveness of mentoring relationship}) + b_{(2)} \times (\text{job satisfaction}) + E$$

In Model-8, using the hierarchical linear regression, the predicted relationship is computed for job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and then both for the effectiveness of mentoring relationship and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Table-7. 25 The effects of mentoring relationship on organizational commitment after controlling job satisfaction

	b	β	t	Sig
Job Satisfaction	.218	.319	4.828	.000***
Constant	35.648			
Job Satisfaction	.194	.283	4.305	.000***
Effectiveness of mentoring relationships	4.848	.199	3.017	.003**
Constant	35.345			

N=207

Step-1: Pseudo R²=.102, F= 23.312, sig: .000

Step-2: Pseudo R²=.140, F= 16.665, sig: .000

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

As seen in Table 7.25, step-1 of this model is found to be statistically significant (R²=.102, F=23.312, with df=2, p=.000) which indicates that 10 % of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the job satisfaction in the equation. In Step-2 of this model, effectiveness of mentoring was added to the equation. The second step is also found statistically significant (R²=.140, F=16.665, with df=3, p=.000), revealing that 14% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation.

When the values of all independent variables are zero, the predicted value of the total organizational commitment score is 35.345. Job satisfaction is found statistically significant in the first step of this model ($t= 4.828$, $p=.000$). In the second step, job satisfaction is still a significant predictor for organizational commitment. Effectiveness of mentoring relationship is also found statistically significantly related to organizational commitment ($t=4.848$, $p=.003$). For every one score increase in organizational commitment, the score of job satisfaction is predicted to increase .2 times and the effectiveness of mentoring relationship is predicted to increase 5 times. Effectiveness of mentoring increased the R-square value from .10 to .14. So, the effect size increased; however, it is still small.

This result means that an effective mentoring relationship still has a positive effect on organizational commitment even after controlling for the effect of job satisfaction.

Model-9:

The effectiveness of mentoring relationships at the TNP will have a positive effect on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment.

In Model-9, using hierarchical linear regression, the predicted relationship is computed for job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and then both for effectiveness of mentoring relationship and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

$$Y_{(\text{organizational commitment})} = b_{(0)} + b_{(1)} \times (\text{effectiveness of mentoring relationship}) + b_{(2)} \times (\text{job satisfaction}) + E$$

Table-7. 26 The effects of mentoring relationship on job satisfaction after controlling organizational commitment

	b	β	t	Sig
Organizational Commitment	.467	.319	4.828	.000***
Constant	115.644			
Organizational Commitment	.428	.293	4.305	.000***
Effectiveness of mentoring relationships	3.776	.106	1.555	.122
Constant	115.241			

N=207

Step-1: Pseudo R2=.102, F= 23.312, sig: .000

Step-2: Pseudo R2=.112, F= 12.945, sig: .000

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Step-1 of this model is found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.102$, $F=23.312$, with $df=2$, $p=.000$) which indicates that 10 % of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the job satisfaction in the equation (see Table 7.26). In Step-2 of this model, effectiveness of mentoring was added to the equation. The second step was also found statistically significant ($R^2=.112$, $F=12.945$, with $df=3$, $p=.000$),

signifying that 11% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation.

When the values of all independent variables are zero, the predicted value of the total job satisfaction score is 115.241. Organizational commitment is found statistically significant in the first step of this model ($t= 4.828$, $p=.000$). In the second step, organizational commitment is still a significant predictor for job satisfaction; however, effectiveness of mentoring relationship is found *not to be* significantly related to organizational commitment ($t=1.555$, $p=.122$). That is, for every one score increase in job satisfaction, the score of organizational commitment is predicted to increase .4 times

This result means that an effective mentoring relationship has no effect on job satisfaction after controlling for the organizational commitment. In other words, an effective mentoring relationship did not have an effect above and beyond the effects of organizational commitment. Effective mentoring works through organizational commitment.

Model-10:

In Model-10, first, the relationship between organizational commitment and two demographic variables (current rank and total years in current position) are examined. In the second step, effectiveness of mentoring relationship was added to the equation in order to investigate the first relationship. In the third step, job satisfaction was added (see Table 7.27).

Table-7. 27 The effects of mentoring relationship on organizational commitment

	Step-1				Step-2				Step-3			
	Organizational Commitment				Organizational Commitment				Organizational Commitment			
	b	β	t	Sig	b	β	t	Sig	b	β	t	Sig
Management Level	4.514	.228	3.185	.002**	4.146	.210	2.984	.003**	3.210	.162	2.345	.020*
Years in current position (10 years criterion)	-4.762	-.157	-2.186	.030*	-4.511	-.149	-2.118	.035*	3.210	.162	2.345	.020*
Effectiveness of mentoring					5.360	.218	3.244	.001**	4.386	.178	2.705	.007**
Job satisfaction									.171	.253	3.773	.000** *
	N=204				N=204				N=204			
	R2=.055, F=5.900 , Sig: .003				R2=.102, F= 7.626 Sig: .000				R2=.162, F= 9.654 Sig: .000			
	* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001				* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001				* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001			

Step-1 of this model is found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.055$, $F=5.900$, with $df=3$, $p<.01$), which means that 6% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by this model. Current rank ($t= 3.185$, $p<0.01$) and years in current position (10 years criterion) ($t= -2.190$, $p<0.05$) are significantly related to organizational commitment. This shows that the fewer the years in the current position the officer spends, and the higher the rank, the more organizational commitment s/he has. For every one score increase in organizational commitment, the score of years in the current position is predicted to decrease 4.7 times and the score of current ranking is predicted to increase 4.5 times when holding other variables constant. In other words, if an increase in the organizational commitment is desired, the high ranking TNP police officers should occupy their positions 4.7 times less and current rankings should be 4.5 times higher.

In Step-2 of this model, the effectiveness of mentoring relationship was added to the equation. The second step is found statistically significant ($R^2=.102$, $F=7.626$, with $df=4$, $p<.001$). The addition of the effectiveness variable increased the R-square value from .055 to .102. In other words, 10% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation. Years in current position (10 years criterion) ($t= -2.198$, $p<0.05$), current ranking ($t=2.984$, $p<0.01$), and effectiveness of mentoring ($t=3.244$, $p<0.01$) are significantly related to organizational commitment. For every one score increase in organizational commitment, the score of years in the current position is predicted to decrease 4.5 times, the score of current ranking is predicted to increase 4 times, and effectiveness is predicted to increase 5.3 times when holding other variables constant. In other words:

-The more high ranking the participant, the more likely he or she will be committed to the organization;

-the fewer the years in the current position spent, the greater the commitment to the organization and,

-the more effective the received mentoring, the greater the commitment to the organization.

In Step-3 of this model, job satisfaction was added, and this step is also found statistically significant ($R^2=.162$, $F=9.654$, with $df=5$, $p<.001$). The final addition increased the R-square value from .102 to .162. This means that 16% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation. Current ranking ($t= 3.210$, $p<0.05$), job satisfaction ($t= 3.773$, $p<0.001$), and effectiveness of mentoring ($t=2.705$, $p<0.01$) are significantly related to organizational commitment. If an increase in the organizational commitment is desired, the current ranking should be 3.2 times greater, the job satisfaction should be .2 times greater and effectiveness of the mentoring should be 4.3 times greater.

These results show that effective mentoring is predicting organizational commitment with two-sets of variables:

- 1- Management level-Years in the current position-Effective mentoring,
- 2- Management level-Job satisfaction-Effective mentoring.

Model-11:

In Model-11, first, the relationship between job satisfaction and some demographic variables (current rank, total years in current position) are examined. In the second step, the effectiveness of mentoring relationship variable is added to the equation in order to investigate the first relationship. In the third step, organizational commitment is added (see Table 7.28).

Table-7. 28 The effects of mentoring relationship on job satisfaction

	Step-1				Step-2				Step-3			
	Job Satisfaction				Job Satisfaction				Job Satisfaction			
	b	β	t	Sig	b	β	t	Sig	b	β	t	Sig
Management Level	5.853	.201	2.782	.006**	5.464	.187	2.615	.010*	3.856	.132	1.865	.064
Years in current position (10 years criterion)	-6.901	-.154	-2.133	.034*	-6.636	-.148	-2.071	.040*	-4.887	-.109	-1.558	.121
Effectiveness of mentoring					5.683	.156	2.287	.023*	3.605	.099	1.460	.146
Organizational Commitment									.388	.262	3.773	.000***
	N=204				N=204				N=204			
	R2=.045, F=4.791 , Sig: .009				R2=.069, F= 5.004 Sig: .002				R2=.131, F= 7.558 Sig: .000			
	* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001				* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001				* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001			

Step-1 of this model is found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.045$, $F=4.791$, with $df=3$, $p<.01$), which means that 5% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by this model. Management level ($t= 2.782$, $p<0.01$) and years in current position (10 years criterion) ($t= -2.133$, $p<0.05$) are significantly related to job satisfaction. This indicates that the less time in the current position the participant spends and the higher the ranking s/he has, the more job satisfaction s/he has. For every one score increase in job satisfaction, the score of years in the current position is predicted to decrease 6 times and the score of the current ranking is predicted to increase 7 times when holding other variables constant. That is, if an increase in the organizational commitment is sought for one score, the high ranking TNP police officers should occupy their position 7 time periods less and the current rank should be 6 times higher.

In Step-2 of this model, the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship was added to the equation. The second step is found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.069$, $F=5.004$), with $df=4$, $p<.01$). The addition of the effectiveness variable increased the R-square value from .045 to .069. In other words, 7% of the variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the variables in the equation. Years in current position (10 years criterion) ($t= -2.071$, $p<0.05$), current ranking ($t=2.615$, $p<0.01$), and effectiveness of mentoring ($t=2.287$, $p<0.05$) are significantly related to job satisfaction. For every one score increase in job satisfaction, the score of years in the current position is predicted to decrease 6.7 times and the one score of current ranking is predicted to increase 5.4 times and effectiveness is predicted to increase 5.6 times when holding other variables constant. In summary:

-The more high ranking the participant, the more job satisfaction he/she has;

-the fewer the years in the current position the participant has, the greater the job satisfaction he/she has and,

-the more effective the received mentoring, the more job satisfaction he/she has.

In Step-3 of this model, organizational commitment was added, and this step is also found statistically significant ($R^2=.131$, $F=7.558$, with $df=5$, $p<.001$). The final addition increased the R-square value from .069 to .131. It means that 13% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the variables in the equation. In this step, it was found that current ranking, job satisfaction, and effectiveness of mentoring became insignificantly related to job satisfaction, while organizational commitment is significantly related to job satisfaction when controlling all other variables.

These results show that effective mentoring is predicting job satisfaction with only one-set of variables:

1- Management level-years in the current position-effective mentoring,

When organizational commitment was added to the equation, the significant relationship with the above set of variables disappeared.

Table-7. 29 Summary of the Models

Models	Step-1	Step-2	Step-3
Model-1: IV: Mentoring DV: Job Satisfaction	N=366, R ² =.008, F=2.933, p<.05 (one-tailed)		
Model-2: IV: Mentoring DV:Organizational commitment	N=382, R ² =.005, F=1.852, p=.174		
Model-3: IV: Mentoring IV: Job satisfaction DV:Organizational Commitment	N=366, R ² =.107, F= 43.844, p<.000 (job satisfaction)	N=366, R ² =.110, F=22.472, p<.000 Job Satisfaction(p<.001), Mentoring(p=.297)	
Model-4: IV: Mentoring IV:Organizational commitment DV: Job Satisfaction	N=366, R ² =.107, F= 43.844, p<.000 (organizational Commitment)	N=366, R ² =.111, F= 22.775, p<.000 Organizational com (p<.000), Mentoring (p=.203)	
Model-5 IV: Mentoring IV: Age IV: Master Degree IV: Doctorate Degree IV: Years in Current Position (7 Years-Criterion) IV: Job Satisfaction DV:Organizational Commitment	N=361, R ² =.037, F= 3.383, p<.01 Age(p=.708) Masters D: (p=.199) Doctorate D: (p<.05) Years in Current Position (7 Years- Criterion)(p<.01)	N=361, R ² =.048, F= 3.590, p<.01 Age(p=.562) Masters D (p=.182) Doctorate D(p<.01) Years in Current Position (7 Years- Criterion)(p<.05) Mentoring (p<.05)	N=361, R ² =.148, F= 10.308, p<.001 Age(p=.746) Masters D (p=.155) Doctorate D (p<.05) Years in Current Position (7 Years- Criterion)(p<.01) Mentoring(p=.121) Job Satisfaction (p<0.001)
	N=207,		

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Model-6 IV: Effectiveness of Mentoring DV: Job Satisfaction	$R^2=.032$, $F= 6.782$, $p< .01$		
Model-7 IV: Effectiveness of Mentoring DV: Organizational Commitment	$N=214$, $R^2=.044$, $F= 9.807$, $p< .001$		
Model-8 IV: Effectiveness of Mentoring IV: job satisfaction DV: Organizational Commitment	$N=207$, $R^2=.102$, $F= 23.312$, $p< .001$ (job satisfaction)	$N=207$, $R^2=.140$, $F= 16.665$, $p< .001$ Job satisfaction $(p<.001)$, effectiveness of mentoring $(p<.01)$	
Model-9 IV: Effectiveness of Mentoring IV: Organizational Commitment DV: Job satisfaction	$N=207$, $R^2=.102$, $F= 23.312$, $p<.001$ (organizational commitment)	$N=207$, $R^2=.112$, $F= 12.945$, $p< .001$ Organizational commitment $(p<.001)$ effectiveness of mentoring $(p<.01)$	
Model-10 IV: Effectiveness of mentoring IV: Management Level IV: Years in Current Position (10 Years-Criterion) IV: Job Satisfaction DV: Organizational Commitment	$N=204$, $R^2=.055$, $F= 5.900$, $p< .001$ Management Level $(p<.01)$, Years in Current Position $(10 Years-Criterion)$ $(p<.01)$	$N=204$, $R^2=.102$, $F= 7.626$, $p< .001$ Management Level $(p<.01)$, Years in Current Position $(10 Years-Criterion)$ $(p<.01)$, Effectiveness of mentoring $(p<.001)$	$N=204$, $R^2=.162$, $F= 9.654$, $p< .001$ Management Level $(p<.01)$, Years in Current Position $(10 Years-Criterion)$ $(p<.01)$, Effectiveness of mentoring $(p<.01)$, Job Satisfaction $(p<.001)$,

Model-11	N=204,	N=204,	N=204,
IV: Effectiveness of mentoring	R ² =.045, F= 4.791,	R ² =.069, F= 5.004,	R ² =.131, F= 7.558,
IV:organizational Commitment	p< .001	p< .01	p< .001
IV: Management Level	Management	Management	Management
IV: Years in Current Position (10 Years-Criterion)	Level(p<.001), Years in Current Position	Level(p<.01), Years in Current Position (10 Years-Criterion) (p<.05)	Level(p=.064), Years in Current Position (10 Years-Criterion) (p=.121)
DV: Job Satisfaction	(10 Years-Criterion) (p<.05)	Effectiveness of mentoring(p<.05)	Effectiveness of mentoring(p=.146), Organizational Commitment (p<.001)

Summary

This chapter responded to the research questions and tested the models. Descriptive statistics, frequencies, and hierarchical regression analyses were performed and the results were presented.

A total of 282 out of the 400 high -ranking TNP participants reported that they received supervisory mentoring. In other words, nearly two-thirds of the officers in the sample reported that they experienced some form of a mentoring relationship.

As for the relationships among mentoring, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, the results revealed that a mentoring relationship has a positive effect on job satisfaction; however, there is no significant relationship between a mentoring relationship and organizational commitment (see Table 7.28). The mentoring relationship had no effect on organizational commitment even after job satisfaction was controlled for. Likewise, when organizational commitment was controlled for, the mentoring relationship has no effect on job satisfaction.

**CHAPTER VI
DISCUSSION and CONCLUSIONS**

The existing studies on mentoring relationships provide a significant amount of information, including valuable theoretical backgrounds and important policy implications, on the association among mentoring relationships, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. However, all this worthwhile information comes from projects mostly conducted in the United States. This research is the first study carried out in Turkey to examine the relationship among mentoring relationships, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Clearly as initial research, it is not wide ranging enough to comprehensively describe the problems and generate solutions. At the same time, this study can provide new directions for the TNP and suggest future research that can further investigate and add to the existing pool of knowledge about the effect of mentoring and job performance.

Furthermore, this study is the first study to look at mentoring since the TNP has undergone organizational adjustments stemming from the EU Acquis process. Thus, findings from this research will be a very important contribution to the extant knowledge base concerning mentoring in the law enforcement context in general, and in particular, on-the-job mentoring among current ranked officers at the TNP.

Summary and Findings

The descriptive analysis showed that:

- The sample size was 400 (Male=390, Female=10) high ranking TNP officers or approximately 27% of the 15,000 total currently employed officers.
- A total of 222 participants, corresponding to 55% of the sample, were lower level managers. A total of 174 participants, corresponding to 45 % of the sample, were upper level managers.
- The respondents are highly educated: 48 % of the sample holds a master's degree, 13 % of the sample also has a doctorate degree, and the remaining 37 % of the sample earned a bachelor's degree.
- 47 % of the sample had served fewer than 11 years and 53 % of the sample had served 11 years or more in the organization.
- In terms of mentoring, 282 participants, corresponding to 71 % of the sample, had experienced some form of mentoring; however, 113 participants, corresponding to 28% of the sample, did not receive any mentoring.
- When discussing the value of the mentoring, 179 participants corresponding to 63 % of the mentored sample received effective mentoring service, 47 participants corresponding to 17 % of the sample did not receive effective mentoring service. (56 participants corresponding to 20 % of the mentored sample were undecided or did not answer this question.)

- 231 participants, corresponding to 82 % of the sample, who were recipients of mentoring, met with the mentor 1-3 times in a week, 51 mentored participants, corresponding to 18 % of the sample, met with the mentor at least 4 or more times a week.
- In terms of the type of relationship, 52 % of the mentored sample thought that the relationship they had with the mentor was useful; 2 % of the mentored sample identified the relationship as useless; 19 % of the mentored subjects responded that the relationship was just casual; 10 % of the mentored sample termed the relationship was just formal and 1% of the mentored sample thought that the relationship was infrequent.
- Of topics discussed with mentors, 64 % of the mentored high ranking police officers mostly discussed current position concerns and job related issues, 12 % of the mentored sample mostly discussed their individual development and future career possibilities, 2 % of the mentored sample and their mentors talked about mentor's experiences, but 9 % of the mentored sample talked about all of above issues.
- The mentoring relationship is shared with incoming officers: one-third of the participants (mentored or non-mentored in the past) are mentoring their subordinates and talking with them nearly all the issues related with the job, family and career issues. Of them, 16 % mostly talks about mentees' current position concerns and job related issues, 22 % of the sample discusses individual development and future career possibilities,

1% of the sample converses about family-related issues, 8 % of the sample focuses on their experiences.

- Major elements missing in mentoring relationships were identified as being no clear guidelines (20%) of the sample; no regular interaction between mentors and mentees (20%). The rest of the sample cited other elements: mentors' personal inadequacy, non-existence of formal mentoring, lack of trust, hierarchical relationship, non-existence of administrative support, non-existence of shared goals, jealousy, or the lack of team-spirit.

This study was designed to provide answers and information about the following questions:

1. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on job satisfaction at the TNP?
2. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on organizational commitment at the TNP?
3. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on job satisfaction after controlling for organizational commitment at the TNP?
4. What is the effect of supervisory mentoring relationships on organizational commitment after controlling for job satisfaction at the TNP?

In the analysis associated with answering research question 1, the survey data revealed that supervisory mentoring has a positive effect on job satisfaction ($R^2=.008$, $F=2.933$, with $df=2$, $p<.05$). A TNP high ranking police officer who received mentoring

service is predicted to have a job satisfaction score 3 times greater than one who did not. As for the second question, the data showed that there is no relationship between mentoring and organizational commitment ($F=1.852$, $p=.174$).

In relation to the third question, the survey data indicated that a mentoring relationship has no effect on organizational commitment, after controlling the job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was found statistically significant in the first step of this model ($t= 6.622$ $p< .001$). In the second step, being mentored was an insignificant predictor for organizational commitment. Job satisfaction was found significantly related to organizational commitment ($t=6.503$, $p<.000$). This shows that mentoring has no effect above and beyond the effects of job satisfaction on organizational commitment.

When analyzing responses related with answering research question 4, the survey data revealed that a mentoring relationship has no effect on job satisfaction after controlling for the organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was found statistically significant in the first step of this model ($t= 6.622$ $p< .001$). In the second step, when being mentored is included in the equation, the relationship is still significant; however, mentoring is not a significant predictor. Organizational commitment is found significantly related to job satisfaction ($t=6.503$, $p<.000$). This shows that mentoring has no effect above and beyond the effects of organizational commitment on job satisfaction.

The `Ivreg2` and `Ivendog` commands were performed in a Stata statistical package in order to test whether there is an endogeneity problem in the models where satisfaction and commitment are reciprocally regressed. After the model `Ivendog` command was used to test endogeneity, the Wu-Hausman F test and the Durbin-Wu-Hausman chi-sq test

results suggest exogeneity for the model, since the null hypothesis (of the model being exogenous) could not be rejected.

After testing these four research hypotheses, it was found that only the second hypothesis was supported by the analyses. However, further models were performed in order to investigate the relationship more deeply among the demographics, effective mentoring, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment variables. Significant results were modeled.

In Model-5, the relationship among some demographic variables and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and mentoring relationship were researched. The dependent variable was organizational commitment and independent variables were mentoring, age, master's degree, doctoral degree, years in current position, and job satisfaction. It was found that the combination of doctorate degree ($p < .01$), years in current position (7-years criterion) ($p < .05$) and mentoring ($p < .05$), age ($p = .562$) significantly predicts the organizational commitment ($R^2 = .048$, $F = 3.590$, $p < .01$). This means that for increased organizational commitment, high ranking TNP officers should receive mentoring, earn a doctorate, and occupy their position fewer than 7 years.

In the next four models, the research hypotheses were tested with the variable of effectiveness of mentoring.

In Model-6, the effectiveness of mentoring and job satisfaction variables were regressed and a statistically significant result was found ($R^2 = .032$, $F = 6.782$, $p < .01$). This result indicates that if TNP officers received mentoring that they deemed effective, the job satisfaction was high. In other words, to increase job satisfaction, TNP officers should receive effective mentoring service.

In Model-7, the effectiveness of mentoring and organizational commitment variables were regressed and found to be statistically significant ($R^2=.044$, $F= 9.807$, $p< .001$). This result indicates that if TNP officers received mentoring service and it was effective, the organizational commitment was high. In other words, if an increase in organizational commitment is a desired outcome, TNP officers should receive effective mentoring service.

In Model-8, the relationship between effectiveness of mentoring and organizational commitment was investigated after controlling for job satisfaction. The results revealed that an effective mentoring relationship continued to have a positive effect on organizational commitment, even after controlling the job satisfaction. This means that the effective mentoring relationship has an effect above and beyond the effects of job satisfaction.

In Model-9, the relationship between effectiveness of mentoring and job satisfaction was investigated after controlling for organizational commitment. The results revealed that an effective mentoring relationship had no effect on job satisfaction after controlling for the organizational commitment. This means that the effective mentoring relationship did not have an effect above and beyond the effects of organizational commitment. In other words, an effective mentoring relationship works through organizational commitment.

In Model-10, the relationship among some demographic variables and job satisfaction, organizational commitment and effectiveness of mentoring relationship were researched. The dependent variable is organizational commitment and independent variables are effective mentoring, management level (upper-lower), and years in current

position (10 years criterion) and job satisfaction. It was found that the combination of management level ($p < .01$), years in current position (10-years criterion) ($p < .01$), effective mentoring ($p < .01$) and job satisfaction ($p < .001$) significantly predicts the organizational commitment ($R^2 = .162$, $F = 9.654$, $p < .001$). This means that if wanted to increase organizational commitment, high ranking TNP officers should receive effective mentoring service, be in upper management level and occupy their position less than 10 years and job satisfaction should be high.

In Model-11, the researcher used the same variables as in model-10; however, in this model, the dependent variable was job satisfaction. In other words, the effects of the combination of some variables, effective mentoring, management level (upper-lower), years in current position (10 years criterion) and organizational commitment were investigated. It was found that when organizational commitment was not included in the equation, the combination of management level ($p < .01$), years in current position at above criterion ($p < .05$), and effective mentoring ($p < .05$) significantly predicted job satisfaction ($R^2 = .069$, $F = 5.004$, $p < .01$). This means that in order to increase job satisfaction, high ranking TNP officers should receive effective mentoring service, be in upper management, and occupy their position for fewer than 10 years. However, when organizational commitment was included, the effects of management level, years in current position (10 years criterion) and effectiveness of mentoring relationship disappeared. This shows that these variables have no effect above and beyond the organizational commitment on job satisfaction.

Theoretical Implications of the Study

As emphasized in the literature review, most mentoring research employs Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory as the theoretical framework. According to Bandura (1977, 1987), behavior is learned through modeling and by response consequences. There are two actions in this process:

- 1- Response consequences: Require direct experiences.
- 2- Modeling: Observation.

Also, there are four steps which should be followed within this modeling/response process:

- 1-Attention: Individual pays attention to the model.
- 2- Retention: The person remembers the observed behavior.
- 3- Reproduction: The individual replicates the modeled behavior.
- 4- Motivation: The individual imitates the behavior if motivating factors exist.

Another important notion in social learning theory is "self-efficacy". Self-efficacy affects the individual's point of view; if it is high, the goal settings of the individual will be high. Role modeling and emotional support are two sources for self-efficacy. Hence, mentoring, which is psychological, social, and career support for the individual, is important for increasing self efficacy.

In light of this theoretical framework, the current research maintains that a mentoring relationship affects TNP officers' self-efficacy and that when TNP officers receive effective mentoring service, their job satisfaction and organizational commitment is high. However, it is true that the mentoring relationship has two potential outcomes. If

the relationship is effective, the outcomes are positive and it increases the job satisfaction and organizational commitment. If the relationship is not effective, there is no real connection between mentoring relationship and job satisfaction and between mentoring relationship and organizational commitment. Effectiveness is a very important mediator in mentorship.

Thus, in concurrence with Bandura's framework, the response consequences and modeling, two core elements for social learning theory, became significant in the current study. The data analyses revealed that an effective mentoring relationship increased response consequences, and when modeling occurred, the job satisfaction and organizational commitment was boosted.

Even though it was not the original intent of this study to explore the negative effects of a mentoring relationship, the findings of the interaction of relationship among the effectiveness of mentoring, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment validate the research findings of Kram (1983, 1985), Scandura (1998), and Ragins et al. (2000), who argued that mentoring relationships can be marked by both positive and negative outcomes. Kram (1983), proposed four stages for a formal mentoring relationship:

- 1- Initiation: Interaction begins,
- 2- Cultivation: Interaction and emotional bonds increase,
- 3- Separation: Interaction ends,
- 4- Redefinition: A new relationship begins after the separation phase.

The separation and redefinition stages are the product of ineffectiveness in the mentoring relationships. If the relationship begins to be ineffective, the interaction ends and a new relationship begins after the separation.

The findings of the research extend the scope of Bandura's social learning theory and Kram's mentoring theory by presenting the outcomes of effectiveness of mentoring relationships.

Discussions, Comparisons, and Contributions to the Related Literature

The data indicate that the mentoring relationship has a positive effect on job satisfaction. Both the mentoring relationship and the effective mentoring relationship- which was extracted from the mentoring relationship variable-, increase the effects of the mentoring relationship on job satisfaction. This result is parallel with other studies from over the past two decades which investigated the relationship between mentorship and job satisfaction (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1997; Ensher, 2001, Herbohn, 2004; Crawford & Smith, 2005).

In their study comparing the amount of mentoring among male and female business school graduates (N=220) in managerial, professional, and technical positions, Dreher and Ash (1990) found that students who received intensive mentoring services had greater satisfaction with their jobs and benefits than students who participated in less extensive mentoring relationships. Following that, Scandura (1997) found that mentoring functions were significant predictors for career expectations, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment when organizational justice and organization type were controlled for. Ensher et al (2001) showed that mentor support affected both their job

satisfaction and the protégés' perceived career success. Herbohn (2004) focused on informal mentoring relationships and found that when accountants were mentored, job turnover was significantly lower while job satisfaction was higher.

Interestingly, in a qualitative study, Crawford and Smith (2005) found that mentoring did not affect the career choices and development of the women participants, although because they were not mentored, the participants believed that they would have had greater job satisfaction if they had been mentored. This indicates is a common belief that mentoring relationships increase the job satisfaction, and the current study had similar results.

However this study did not find any significant relationship between mentorship and organizational commitment. But when an *effective* mentoring relationship was extracted from the mentoring relationship and regressed with organizational commitment, the results were positive. An effective mentoring relationship significantly predicted the organizational commitment. This result is concordant with Scandura's (1997) study where there was a positive relationship between mentoring and organizational commitment, and Smith et al.'s (2000) research which found no significant effect on race difference in psychological support, but did show that Caucasian men and women reported a significantly greater organizational commitment. Another mentoring study conducted by Robinson (2007) found significant relationships between mentoring and organizational commitment. Orpen (1997) found significant relationships among formal mentoring opportunities and both motivation and organizational commitment.

It should be noted that the current study did not find any significant relationship between mentoring and organizational commitment. However, *effectively* mentored TNP

officers are significantly related with the organizational commitment. This shows the importance of Kram's (1983, 1985) theory that a mentoring relationship can be marked by both positive and negative outcomes. Effective mentoring is a positive outcome of a mentoring relationship.

Other important findings from this study are that a combination of educational degree (doctorate), years in the current position (7 years) and mentoring relationship experience successfully predict organizational commitment. This means that if the administration wants to increase organizational commitment, high ranking TNP officers should receive mentoring service, have doctorate degrees and occupy their positions fewer than 7 years. This is an important finding for the TNP because Turkish laws require different years for assignments. For example if officers are working in Western Turkey, they might work there a maximum of 10 years. However, in Eastern Turkey, the obligation is only 4 years maximum. This study suggests that this regulation is not good for organizational commitment: when an officer stays in the same position for more than 7 years, organizational commitment will decrease.

Also, an earned doctorate degree raises the organizational commitment. It is important to note that the TNP began to send its officers to study abroad for doctorate degrees in 1998 and now more than 150 officers have graduated and returned to work in Turkey. Within the next several years, 400 officers will earn their doctoral degrees and be working in Turkey. This demonstrates that the TNP already recognizes the worth of further education, and the research substantiates and delineates the value. It provides returns of high commitment and high performance. These findings are very important contributions to the literature and to policy decisions and justifications of the TNP.

Another important finding is that the combination of management level, effective mentoring, and years in current position (criterion=10 years) is significantly predictive of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Effective mentoring increases the effect size of management level and years in current position on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. If organizational commitment or job satisfaction is to be increased, high ranking TNP officers should participate in useful mentoring relationships, be in upper management, and occupy their positions for less than a decade. Upper managers (chief, superintendent) have greater job satisfaction and commitment levels to the organization than lower managers (sergeant, lieutenant, captain) do. This is concordant with Keong and Sheenan's (2003) study where a significant positive relationship was found between the respondents' managerial positions and their organizational commitment in Malaysia.

Policy Implications and Recommendations

The findings of this study can contribute to the corpus of mentoring literature and specifically to policy formulation and administration in Turkey. Instituting and implementing professional mentoring relationships in the TNP requires careful planning and on-going monitoring in order to increase the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of all employees.

The survey data proves that mentoring relationship is not sufficient in Turkish National Police. Because there is no formal mentoring; all we know about mentoring is supervisory mentoring and informal mentoring. The implementation of formal mentoring will close the gap in this field. In supervisory mentoring, superior has no obligation to

mentor subordinates however every good superior mentors his/her subordinates because the outcome of the mentorship will return to him/her with higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance.

Formal mentoring has great outcomes because prescribed mentoring programs have many useful features such as

- Support from the top
- Thoughtful matching process
- Careful selection of mentors
- Training for mentors and
- On-going interaction support
- Program monitoring and evaluation (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006, p.4)

Other major issues with the mentoring relationship can be extracted from the survey data. According to participants, major deficits related of the mentoring relationships at the TNP are as follows:

- 20 % of the participants felt that there are no clear guidelines for the mentoring relationships.
- 19 % of the participants reported no regular interaction.
- 13 % of the sample identified the main problem in mentoring relationships as the personal inadequacy of the mentors.
- 11 % of the sample believed that the mentoring relationships are not adequate because there is no formal, codified mentoring relationship; supervisory mentoring and informal mentoring is not enough.
- 5 % of the sample thought that the main problem in the mentoring connection is the hierarchical relationship itself. A hierarchical structure does not permit supervisors and subordinates to build a close relationship.

- 5% of the sample noted a lack of administrative support to develop a mentoring relationship.
- Other officers (each represented less than 5% of the total response) identified the problems as being due to the non-existence of trust, the non-existence of shared goals, the existence of jealousy, or the non-existence of team-spirit.

In consequence, the officers' perceptions indicate that most of the problems arise from the lack of a formal mentoring relationship. The TNP should implement a formal mentoring program in all the departments immediately. However, in Police Academies and Police Schools, field training programs can also be put into practice.

According to Haberfeld (2002), the deficiencies in Academy training can be improved by FTO programs. FTO models are based primarily on timing of exposure to real-life policing and emphasize the criticality of proper evaluation.

According to reporting results from the 1986 National Survey, McCampbell (1986) proposed three reasons for establishing FTO programs:

- The need for standardized training of recruits
- Personnel needs such as standard evaluation techniques and regular evaluations by FTO's to validate agency hiring, retention, and termination decisions
- Reduction of civil liability complaints against agencies and personnel. (Haberfeld, 2002, p.79)

Molden (1987) cited four benefits of FTO programs:

- A structured, standardized learning experience for recruits in preparation for solo patrol
- The transfer and application of classroom training to real problems and situations encountered on the job

- The importance of exposing a recruit-trainee to an FTO who serves as mentor, guide, advisor, and role model
- Documented evaluation of recruit performance to validate selection procedures, inform retention, and termination decisions, defend against false equal employment opportunity and liability charges, and determine readiness of officers for solo patrol. (in Haberfeld, 2002, p.79)

FTO programs are successful in Japan and Ireland; however, in the United States few basic academies include FTO programs. The majority have chosen to ignore these important programs (Haberfeld, 2002).

Limitations of the Study

The study has some limitations that should be noted.

First, in this study, the convenience sample method was used. This is the major limitation of the study. Even though the officers were stratified across unit, department, rank, gender, and age, and despite the fact that the findings are consistent with previous mentoring research, there is still a generalizability problem.

Second, since the survey weblink was forwarded to the participants and the participants forwarded the weblink to their friends and email groups, a selection bias might be another limitation for this study. In non-probability sampling methods, there is no way of controlling for selection bias. A better way is to conduct a survey with probability sampling procedure; however, it is very expensive and time consuming, so in the interest of efficiency and budget, this survey method was the most appropriate.

Third, the nature of the website visitor counting system is such that it is not possible to report an absolutely correct response rate for the website surveys. The *questionpro* website reported that about 1000 people visited the survey, approximately

700 people began to fill out the survey, and around 500 people completed it. However, the usable surveys were 400. Sometimes participants left the survey without completing it, and when they want to retake it to finish it; website counted it as a new visit.

Nonetheless, the research achieved the expected sample size of 400.

Fourth, the sample size is not large enough for statistical power. A larger sample size grants larger power on statistical tests. However, increasing the sample size would be expensive and time consuming. Notwithstanding these limits, this study supplied important findings on mentoring relationships among TNP officers.

Future Research:

Several possibilities for further studies are recommended.

First, in this study, the sample size was not sufficiently large for statistical power. Therefore it is recommended that this study be conducted with larger sample sizes and include every department both at TNP Headquarters and every city in Turkey. This will grant larger statistical power and be more representative. As a result, the generalizability issue will no longer be a problem.

Second, this study was a quantitative analysis; however, a qualitative analysis including both mentor and protégé interviews could provide more insight on the different perspectives of mentoring relationships. Further, adapting a qualitative methodology would enhance the understanding of mentoring relationships in deeper ways.

Third, with no formal mentoring available, informal and supervisory mentoring are two other possible patterns for a mentoring relationship. Despite the difficulties in targeting and quantifying the constructs, the informal mentoring relationship should also

be researched in future studies to determine possible effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Concluding statement

This study is the first research to explore the mentoring relationship specifically among high-ranking TNP officers. The TNP continues to undergo many changes as a result of Turkey's decision to seek EU membership, including the organization and communication of the employees. In light of this study's findings, one ramification of these changes could be the TNP codification and implementation of formal mentoring relationships to increase the effectiveness of relationships among superior and subordinate employees, and officers with greater and lesser experience.

The general purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of supervisory mentoring relationships on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The study provides a view of the mentoring relationship at the TNP in the 21st century through the responses of 400 officers from different departments and of ranks. This study found that an effective mentoring relationship has a positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Despite the shortcomings of the research, the findings are still valuable and are significant contribution to the literature, and to administrators and supervisors at the TNP.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHICS

1-What is your gender?

Male

Female

2- What is your current rank?

Police Sergeant

Police Lieutenant

Police Captain

Police Superintendent

Police Chief

3- What is your current position (job title)?

Deputy Office Manager

Office Manager

Department Chief

4- What is your age?

20-25

26-30

31-35

36-40

41-50

4- What are your total years of experience in the organization?

- 1-3 years
- 4-6 years
- 7-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-25 years

5- What are your total years of experience in your current department?

- 1-3 years
- 4-6 years
- 7-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-25 years

6-What is your current post secondary degree/level of post secondary education

- Bachelors
- Masters
- Doctorate

APPENDIX B

MENTORING QUESTIONNAIRE

Relevant Definitions:

Formal Mentoring

Formal mentoring is a form of an assigned mentor relationship. It is commonly defined as a “structured program” designed and developed by the organization where an experienced member of the organization is designated to supply career and psychosocial development to a protégé who is a less-experienced member of the organization, characterized by in-house administration, defined requirements such as frequency of meeting and procedures for evaluation of the mentor-protégé relationship, mentor’s ability, and so on (Haynes, 2003; Murray, 2001).

Informal Mentoring

Informal mentoring is a spontaneous mentoring relationship commonly defined as “traditional mentoring” where an experienced organizational member provides career and psychosocial support to a protégé who is a less-experienced organizational member (Bennetts, 2001; Haynes, 2003). They are naturally occurring relationships that happen without external involvement from an organization (Chao, Waltz, & Gardner, 1992).

Supervisory Mentoring

Supervisory mentoring is a relationship between supervisor and subordinates. Supervisors mentor their subordinates by giving advice while working together.

- 1- Please indicate if you have ever experienced a supervisory mentoring relationship as stated above.

Yes–No

- 2- **If so**, please indicate your mentor’s gender.

Male-Female

- 3- Please indicate the number of times per week you and your mentor talked about your career and psychological development.

1-3/4-6/7-9/10+

- 4- Overall, **would you say that** the supervisory mentoring relationship was effective?

Strongly Disagree/Disagree/Undecided/Agree/Strongly Agree N/A

Open-ended Questions:

- 5) How would you describe the relationship between you and your mentor/supervisor?
(e.g., casual, useful, formal, infrequent, or something else)

Please write your response/answer here:

- 6) What were the main topics or issues you discussed with your supervisor in terms of mentoring? (e.g., your future career possibilities, current position concerns, on-the-job responsibilities, or something else)

Please write your response/answer here

7) If you were/are supervising some subordinates, how was/is your relationship with them in terms of mentoring? Did/do you talk about their future career plans/goals, current job-related concerns, and/or other issues outside of [in addition to] professional topics?

Please write your response/answer here

8) In your opinion, what was lacking in terms of supervisory mentoring at the Turkish National Police? (e.g., regular interaction; clear guidelines; shared goals; administrative support, or something else)

Please write your response/answer here

APPENDIX C

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

<p>Listed below are 15 statements that represent possible feelings individuals might have about the organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the organization in which you currently work, please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling one number in the appropriate column.</p>	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
<p>1. I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.</p>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<p>2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.</p>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<p>3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.</p>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am proud to tell others I am part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. This organization really inspires my best job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I am extremely glad I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with the organization indefinitely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. For me, this is best of all possible organizations for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. The decision to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

JOB SATISFACTION

<p>In the following 36 statements, please circle one number in the column that comes closest to reflecting your level of agreement or disagreement.</p>	Disagree very much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Moderately	Agree very much
1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6

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10. Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6

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21. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. The benefits package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I enjoy my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. There is too much bickering and	1	2	3	4	5	6

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fighting at work.						
35. My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX E

RESULTS: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT (%)

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT (%)		Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.	8	6	2	10	5	23	46
2	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	9	6	3	5	9	26	42
3	I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	55	15	2	6	6	8	8
4	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	14	10	4	9	9	29	24
5	I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.	11	9	4	15	14	28	19
6	I am proud to tell others I am part of this organization.	6	4	3	4	6	24	54
7	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	16	14	13	17	12	25	13
8	This organization really inspires my best job performance.	28	15	6	10	20	15	7

9	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.	48	20	3	6	8	7	7
10	I am extremely glad I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	8	6	2	8	7	33	35
11	There is not too much to be gained by sticking with the organization indefinitely.	27	16	4	9	8	20	16
12	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	3	6	3	12	11	33	32
13	I really care about the fate of this organization.	3	2	1	2	2	17	74
14	For me, this is best of all possible organizations for which to work.	12	6	2	13	15	35	18
15	The decision to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	57	13	4	10	6	5	5

APPENDIX F

RESULTS: JOB SATISFACTION (%)

JOB SATISFACTION (%)		Disagree Very Much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Moderately	Agree Very Much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	45	14	6	10	15	10
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	24	23	6	13	25	9
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her work.	6	16	7	15	41	15
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	22	21	5	17	23	12
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	14	16	6	20	32	11
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	2	7	6	19	39	27
7	I like the people I work with.	2	6	2	8	47	35
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	27	14	4	23	22	9
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	15	21	7	23	29	5
10	Raises are too few and far between.	2	5	5	8	29	51
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	34	18	7	16	18	8

12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	17	23	9	18	24	9
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	18	17	8	20	29	9
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	8	18	10	18	31	16
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	10	13	6	23	34	14
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	6	11	5	22	33	24
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	2	4	2	9	52	31
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	4	12	5	12	34	33
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	10	9	7	17	32	26
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	21	13	8	23	29	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	11	14	8	19	30	18
22	The benefits package we have is equitable.	29	23	9	21	15	3
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	5	9	6	15	34	32
24	I have too much to do at work.	5	8	6	14	34	33
25	I enjoy my co-workers.	3	3	2	11	54	27
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	8	11	7	32	31	12
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	1	4	27	66

28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	17	11	3	18	27	24
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	4	3	4	8	36	46
30	I like my supervisor.	7	5	5	16	44	23
31	I have too much paperwork.	3	5	4	18	40	30
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	5	10	6	19	37	24
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	13	9	6	20	40	13
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	7	12	7	25	30	19
35	My job is enjoyable.	6	7	4	22	39	21
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	10	14	7	26	33	11

APPENDIX G

Informed Consent Letter

You are invited to participate in a research study entitled: “MENTORING in the LAW ENFORCEMENT CONTEXT: A CASE STUDY of the TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE”. The purpose of this research is to investigate the mentoring relationships that ranked police officers experience once they are on-the-job at the TNP. We plan to enroll approximately 400 participants into this study. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to fill a survey consisting of 62 closed-ended and 4 open-ended items. Participation should take about 15 minutes for duration of one day.

The foreseeable risks of participation in this study are minimal. In order to minimize these risks we will not ask you to write your names. The possible benefits to you are learning about mentoring relationships and job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The potential benefits to society are improving mentoring relationships.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have a right to refuse to participate without consequences. If you decide not to participate your decision will not affect your relationship with John Jay College or Turkish National Police.

If you decide to participate you may discontinue participation at any time. You may refuse to answer any specific questions or refuse to engage in any task at any time during the study. Withdrawal or refusing to answer specific questions or engage in specific tasks will not result in any consequences to you and will not affect your relationship with John Jay College or Turkish National Police.

Information gathered from you will be stored in a website and after the data gathered it will be deleted from the website. We will not ask you to write your names. All names will be anonym.

Your signature below means that you have read this consent form, that you fully understand the nature and consequences of participation and that you have had all questions regarding participation in this study answered satisfactorily. If you have further questions about this research please feel free to contact the Principle Investigator, Dr. M. Haberfeld at mhaberfeld@jjay.cuny.edu.

If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant please feel free to contact the John Jay Institutional Review Board Office at jj-irb@jjay.cuny.edu, or (212) 237-8961.

Informed Consent Signature Form

I have read the information about the study and all questions about the study have been answered to my satisfaction.

I understand that

- My participation is voluntary,
 - There is no penalty for not participating in the study.
 - I can discontinue participation at any time without penalty.
 - There will be no compensation for my participation.
- My responses will be confidential,

- The researcher will not discuss any specific information obtained through the questionnaire with any staff members of the department.
- Data collected in this study will not be available to anyone who is not directly associated with this research.

I agree

[By clicking this button you will be directed to the survey instrument. You may always decide not to discontinue by selecting “exit without saving my responses” at the end of each page]

I don't agree

[You will be signed off without prejudice. If you decide to participate in the study you may return to the study site anytime until [data collection end date].

APPENDIX H

Letter of request for permission to use the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

From: Paul Spector (PSY)
[spector@shell.cas.usf.edu] Sent: Thu 4/10/2008 11:39 AM
To: Atak, Selcuk
Cc:
Subject: Re: Job Satisfaction Survey
Attachments:

[View As Web Page](#)

Dear Selcuk:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find details on my website under scales.

Best of luck with your research.

Paul

Paul E. Spector
Department of Psychology
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-0357 Voice
(813) 974-4617 Fax
spector@shell.cas.usf.edu
website <http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector>

On Thu, 10 Apr 2008, Atak, Selcuk wrote:

>

> Dear Spector,

>

> I am working for Turkish National Police as a Police Captain and currently studying at John Jay College of Criminal Justice at CUNY as a PhD student. I am writing my dissertation on mentoring at Turkish National Police. Specifically i am working on mentoring effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among high-ranking

police officers. To assist my study I would like to use your questionnaire. I am aware that a lot of people used this questionnaire in their research. To use this questionnaire in my study what type of permission is needed?

> Thank you in advance.

>

> Selcuk Atak

> Police Captain at Turkish National Police

> PhD Student at John Jay College of Criminal Justice

>

> Cell: 201-757-1614>

APPENDIX I

Letter of request for permission to use the Organizational Commitment

Questionnaire

From: [Porter, Lyman \[lwporter@uci.edu\]](mailto:lwporter@uci.edu) Sent: Mon 4/14/2008 4:25 PM
To: [Atak, Selcuk](mailto:SAtak@gc.cuny.edu)
Cc:
Subject: RE: Organizational Commitment Survey
Attachments:

[View As Web Page](#)

Thanks for your note. No permission is required to use this instrument.

Lyman Porter

From: Atak, Selcuk [mailto:SAtak@gc.cuny.edu]
Sent: Thursday, April 10, 2008 7:55 AM
To: Porter, Lyman
Subject: Organizational Commitment Survey

Dear Porter,

I am working for Turkish National Police as a Police Captain and currently studying at John Jay College of Criminal Justice at CUNY as a PhD student. I am writing my dissertation on mentoring at Turkish National Police. Specifically i am working on mentoring effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among high-ranking police officers. To assist my study I would like to use Mowday, Steers, and Porter's Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (1979). I am aware that a lot of people used this questionnaire in their research. To use this questionnaire in my study what type of permission is needed?

Thank you in advance

Selcuk Atak
Police Captain at Turkish National Police
PhD Student at John Jay College of Criminal Justice

Cell: 201-757-1614

APPENDIX J

Letter of request for permission to use the model table in the article of "Role of protégé personality in receipt of mentoring and career success."

From Dougherty, Thomas W.
[Dougherty@missouri.edu]

Sent: Tue 4/8/2008 12:35 PM

To: Atak, Selcuk

Cc:

Subject: RE: Copyright permission

Attachments:

[View As Web Page](#)

Hello: Thanks for message. You would need to get permission from the Academy of Management, since they hold the copyright.

Tom Dougherty

From: Atak, Selcuk [mailto:SAtak@gc.cuny.edu]

Sent: Tuesday, April 08, 2008 10:25 AM

To: Dougherty, Thomas W.

Subject: Copyright permission

Dear Dougherty,

I am working for Turkish National Police as a Police Captain and currently studying at John Jay College of Criminal Justice at CUNY as a PhD student. I am writing my dissertation on mentoring at Turkish National Police. Specifically i am working on mentoring effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among high-ranking police officers. I just saw your structural model table in the article of "Role of protégé personality in receipt of mentoring and career success." In the literature review i defined your study. And I also want to insert the attached model . Could you give me permission for that?

Thank you in advance

Selcuk Atak
Police Captain at Turkish National Police
PhD Student at John Jay College of Criminal Justice

Cell: 201-757-1614

APPENDIX K

Order Details

Confirmation Number: 1764507

Order Date: 04/10/2008

Customer Information

Customer: Selcuk Atak

Account Number: 3000130620

Email: selcukatak@yahoo.com

Phone: 1-201-757-1614

Payment Method: Credit Card ending in 1001

ACADEMY OF MANAGEMENT JOURNAL

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Author/Editor: Turban, D. B., Dougherty, Thomas W

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APPENDIX L

Approval letters from the Director of the TNP to conduct the research

Mentoring in the Law Enforcement Context: A Case Study of the Turkish National Police

T.C.
İÇİŞLERİ BAKANLIĞI
Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü
Dışilişkiler Daire Başkanlığı

SAYI : B.05.1.EGM.0.76.04.02 / 2939
TARİH : 03/06/2007
KONU : Genel Akademik Araştırma Onayı.
İLGİ : a) 23.03.2007 tarih ve B.05.1.EGM.0.76.04.02.
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b) 12.04.2007 tarih ve B.05.1.EGM.0.72.02.03-
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GÖNDEREN : Dr. Recep GÜLTEKİN
Dışilişkiler Dairesi Başkanı
1. Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

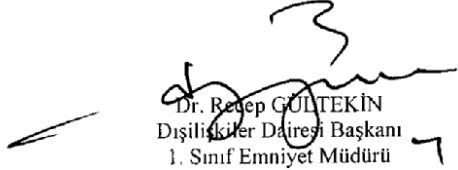
GİDECEĞİ YER : Samih TEYMUR (ABD), İsa ÇİFTÇİ (ALM), Fatih YAMAÇ (FR),
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fatih.ozgul@gmail.com ve muratgulver@yahoo.com

İlgi (a) kayıtlı yazı ile mastır ve doktora yapmakta olan personelimizin eğitim gördüğü kendi alanlarıyla ilgili tez, akademik çalışma, makale gibi akademik araştırmalarda kullanmak üzere; Teşkilatımız bünyesindeki birimlerden gerekli istatistikî bilgilerin alınması ve bazı anket ve mülakat gibi akademik çalışmaların uygulanabilmesi için Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü Makamından genel bir onay alınması Eğitim Daire Başkanlığı'ndan talep edilmiştir.

Adı geçen Daire Başkanlığı'ndan alınan ilgi (b) kayıtlı yazı ile "Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik" hükümleri çerçevesinde yurtdışındaki üniversitelere mastır ve doktora yapmak üzere gönderilen personelin Genel Müdürlüğümüze bağlı birimlerde ve taşra teşkilatında akademik çalışma yapma talebinde bulunması halinde tez çalışması yapabilmesi uygun görüldüğü belirtilmiş olup Genel Müdürlük Makam Onayın bir sureti ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgi ve gereğini rica ederim.


Dr. Recep GÜLTEKİN
Dışilişkiler Dairesi Başkanı
1. Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

Ek:
İlgi (b) kayıtlı yazı. (2 sayfa)

ADRES: Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü, Dışilişkiler Daire Başkanlığı
İlkadım Cad. 89/10 (S.Blok) 06100 Y. Ayrancı / ANKARA

T.C.
İÇİŞLERİ BAKANLIĞI
Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü



Sayı : B.05.1.EGM.0.72.02.03-857 - 1/168

12/04/2007

Konu: Genel Akademik Araştırma
Onayı


DIŞİLİŞKİLER DAİRESİ BAŞKANLIĞINA

İlgi : 23.03.2007 tarihli ve B.05.1.EGM.0.76.04.02.(31004).871/1501 sayılı yazınız.

Yurtdışında master ve doktora yapmakta olan teşkilat personelinin tez çalışmasında kullanmak üzere talep ettikleri verileri, suç istatistiklerini alma, anket ve görüşme gibi araştırma metodlarını uygulama konularında Genel Müdürlük Makamından genel bir onay alınması ve bu onayın tüm teşkilatımıza duyurulması ilgi sayılı yazınız ekinde gönderilen TIPS ABD Genel Koordinatörü 4.Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü **Samih TEMUR**'un dilekçesi ile talep edilmektedir.

Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik hükümleri çerçevesinde yurtdışındaki üniversitelere master ve doktora yapmak üzere gönderilen personelin Genel Müdürlüme bağlı birimlerde ve taşra teşkilatında akademik çalışma yapma talebinde bulunması halinde tez çalışması yapabilmesi uygun görülmüş, konuya ilişkin onay ekte gönderilmiştir.

Yurtdışında master veya doktora eğitimi yapan personelin, teşkilatımızda anket, araştırma yapma ve veri toplama gibi talepleri ile ilgili değerlendirmelerin Başkanlığınızca yapılmasını, yapılacak akademik çalışma sonuçlarının, kamuoyunda teşkilatımızla ilgili olumsuz düşüncelere neden olabilecek şekilde çıkabileceği göz önünde bulundurularak değerlendirme yapılmasını ve bu hususlarda gerekli hassasiyetin gösterilmesini ayrıca sonuçlarından Başkanlığımıza da bilgi verilmesini arz ederim.


Ahmet KARAGÖZ
Eğitim Dairesi Başkan V.
Eğitim Dairesi Başkan Yardımcısı
2.Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

EK-1 : Onay (1 sayfa)

İÇİŞLERİ BAKANLIĞI
Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü



Sayı : B.05 1 EGM 0 72.02.03/857
Konu : Akademik Çalışma

07/04/2007

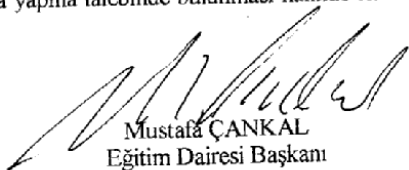
GENEL MÜDÜRLÜK MAKAMINA

Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik hükümleri çerçevesinde yurtdışındaki üniversitelere master ve doktora yapmak üzere gönderilen personelin tez çalışması aşamasında Genel Müdürlüğümüzün çeşitli birimlerinden veri toplamak, teşkilatın belirli birimleri ve personeli ile anket ve görüşme talebinde bulunmakta, Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü Eğitim Dairesi Başkanlığı Kuruluş, Görev ve Çalışma Yönetmeliğinin 24/g maddesi "Teşkilat personeli veya akademik çalışmalarda bulunanların anket uygulama çalışmaları ile ilgili işlemleri yürütmek" hükmü gereğince akademik çalışma yapmak üzere başvuran personelin talepleri değerlendirilmektedir.

Yurtdışında master ve doktora yapmakta olan teşkilat personelinin tez çalışmasında kullanmak üzere talep ettikleri verileri, suç istatistiklerini alma, anket ve görüşme gibi araştırma metodlarını uygulama konularında Genel Müdürlük Makamından genel bir onay alınması ve bu onayın tüm teşkilatımıza duyurulması TIPS ABD Genel Koordinatörü 4.Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü Samih TEMUR tarafından verilmiş olan dilekçe ile talep edilmektedir.

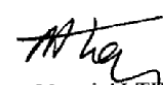
Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik hükümleri çerçevesinde yurtdışındaki üniversitelere master ve doktora yapmak üzere gönderilen personel Devlet Personel Başkanlığınca verilen kontenjanlar oranında gönderilmekte ve tez konuları Genel Müdürlükçe belirlenmektedir.

Bu nedenle, Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik hükümleri çerçevesinde yurtdışı master ve doktora eğitimine gönderilen personele Genel Müdürlüğümüze bağlı birimlerde ve taşra teşkilatında akademik çalışma yapma talebinde bulunması halinde tez çalışması yapılabilmesi hususunu onaylarınıza arz ederim


Mustafa ÇANKAL
Eğitim Dairesi Başkanı
1.Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

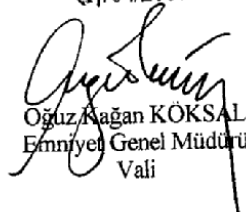
Uygun Görüşle Arz Ederim.

07/04/2007


Dr. Necati ALTINTAŞ
Emniyet Genel Müdür Yardımcısı
1.Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

O L U R

07/04/2007


Oğuz Kağan KÖKSAL
Emniyet Genel Müdürü
Vali

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