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Buffering effects of positive mentoring on mentor burnout: Generative concern and perceived organizational support as moderators

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BUFFERING EFFECTS OF POSITIVE MENTORING ON MENTOR BURNOUT:
GENERATIVE CONCERN AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT AS
MODERATORS

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the Graduate School of
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ABSTRACT

Burnout among employees has personal and organizational consequences. Negative effects of burnout include lowered individual adjustment as well as disengagement from the organization. Given this, both psychologists and practitioners may benefit from understanding ways to decrease this factor among employees.

One organizational experience that has the potential to decrease burnout is mentoring. While the advantages of mentoring relationships for protégés are well-documented, this study examines the potentially beneficial effects of positive mentoring relationships for the mentor, focusing on the reduction of burnout as a dependent variable. While benefits of mentoring may lead to reduced burnout, recent research suggests that negative mentoring relationships have costs that could potentially exacerbate burnout. Given that past work shows these negative and positive mentoring experiences are relatively independent, separate hypotheses were proposed for positive and negative mentoring. Furthermore, we hypothesized that these experiences may have differential effects on each of the three burnout dimensions.

Generative concern and organizational support for mentoring we considered as moderators of the effects of mentoring on burnout. We hypothesized that the overall benefits of positive mentoring experiences on burnout are maximized when an individual is high in generative concern (Generativity X Positive Mentoring interaction). We also anticipated that the benefits of positive mentoring experiences are stronger when there is high organizational support for mentoring (Organizational Support X Positive Mentoring interaction). Conversely, when generative concern is low or when organizational support

for mentoring is low, the beneficial impact of positive mentoring relationships on burnout may be diminished.

A field study looking at a sample of nurses was used to examine these effects. Small sample size may have contributed to a lack of significant findings for a relationship between positive and negative mentoring and burnout. Generativity appeared to be a more robust predictor and emerged as an important variable in this study. This variable differentiated mentors and nonmentors, predicted emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and moderated the relationship between both positive and negative mentoring and personal accomplishment. Organizational support for mentoring was also found to moderate the relationship between negative mentoring and personal accomplishment.

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BUFFERING EFFECTS OF POSITIVE MENTORING ON MENTOR BURNOUT:
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MODERATORS

Burnout is a psychological strain that is the result of accumulated work stress. As described by Maslach (1982), there are three dimensions of burnout that continue to serve as the basis of understanding this construct: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased personal accomplishment. These dimensions hold important consequences at the personal and the organizational level. Understanding the conditions that may lessen burnout may benefit both employees and organizations.

One potential means for decreasing burnout is to engage in mentoring. Mentoring relationships are often encouraged by organizations as they have many positive outcomes for both protégés and mentors. The benefits for protégés are well-documented. For protégés, mentoring may contribute to increased compensation and promotions, greater job satisfaction, and stronger intentions to stay with the company (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004) as well as increased perceptions of promotion opportunities (Underhill, 2006). Many of these factors have been shown to benefit the organization as a whole as well (Young & Perrewé, 2000).

While there is a long record of research documenting the potential benefits of mentoring for protégés, research documenting these benefits for mentors is more recent. This research suggests that mentoring is an exchange relationship that is potentially beneficial for both parties involved (Young & Perrewé, 2000). Studies suggest that those who volunteer for mentoring often experience a variety of positive outcomes (Parise &

Forret, 2008). We focus on these potential benefits and the potential buffering effect of positive mentoring experiences on burnout in this study. In addition, we examine the possibility that mentoring carries costs as well, and include an examination of negative mentoring experiences and their relationship to burnout.

Positive effects of the mentoring relationship for the mentor are less well-documented than the benefits for protégés. Under certain conditions, it seems clear that mentoring others is associated with a range of benefits. Mentors receive both short-term benefits such as increased job performance as well as long term benefits such as increased organizational commitment (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2006). Other research has shown that mentoring may result in increased learning for the mentor (Mullen & Noe, 1999) and may result in increased job performance (Parise & Forret, 2008). Furthermore, mentoring may be associated with positive psychological effects. Mentoring may be a rejuvenating experience for the mentor (Hunt & Michael, 1983) while also leading to increased social support and the development of relationships and a base of support in the organization (Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Parise & Forret, 2008).

Recent research also points out that not all mentoring relationships are of the same quality (Eby, 2007; Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2008; Eby & McManus, 2004). A mentoring relationship may result in both positive and negative experiences simultaneously that combine to affect overall relationship quality. This is an important finding given that much research on the positive effects of mentoring measures tends to assume that all relationships are equally positive. Newer research shows that costs can exist in some mentoring relationships, and these more negative mentoring relationships

can lead to negative outcomes (Eby et al., 2008b). Although these types of relationships appear to be rare (Eby, 2007), it is important to measure both negative and positive mentoring experiences in order to fully understand the construct and its potential relationship to burnout. In summary, it is important to understand the quality of the mentoring relationship. In the current study, we measured both positive and negative aspects of this relationship in an attempt to gain a clearer understanding of the mentoring-burnout association.

As discussed above, mentoring in general is associated with many positive outcomes for mentors, and it seems logical that positive mentoring experiences may be associated with reductions in burnout as well. Many of the positive outcomes associated with mentoring that were discussed earlier are also factors that contribute to reductions in burnout. For example, social support is a factor that contributes to reductions in burnout (Ducharme, Knudsen, Roman, 2008; Maslach & Leiter, 2008, Sundin, Hochwalder, Bildt, & Lisspers, 2007) and may also be the result of a positive mentoring relationship. It seems plausible that mentoring may lead to reductions in burnout for the mentor but only when the mentor reports many positive experiences associated with the relationship and the overall quality of the relationship is high. In contrast, negative mentoring experiences may increase mentor stress and actually exacerbate burnout.

The relationship between mentoring and burnout has not been widely investigated, and holds promise as a way to understand how to reduce burnout in organizations. In order to fully appreciate this association, it is critical to examine potentially negative effects of more costly mentoring relationships. In terms of costs, Eby

et al.'s (2008b) investigation found that negative mentoring relationships actually led to increases in burnout for mentors. The authors found that mentors who reported negative mentoring experiences actually reported greater levels of burnout possibly because the negative relationship was leading to increased stress at work. Conversely, functional mentoring relationships are associated with benefits for the mentor. Relational benefits and instrumental benefits from the mentoring relationship, as well as overall ratings of the quality of the relationship were negatively correlated with burnout (Eby et al., 2008b). This study assessed only the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout, and a search of the literature has not revealed any additional studies addressing the relationship between mentoring and burnout.

To summarize, research and theory suggest that positive mentoring experiences should decrease burnout while negative mentoring experiences should increase burnout. Negative mentoring experiences and positive mentoring experiences are not strongly correlated, and are considered to be distinct constructs rather than different ends of the same continuum. Additional evidence of the relative independence of the two constructs is supplied by research demonstrating that they may be differentially related to personal and organizational outcomes (Eby, 2007; Eby et al., 2008b), suggesting that negative and positive mentoring are qualitatively distinct.

In our model of the relationship between mentoring and burnout, we conceptualize these negative and positive experiences as two separate predictors of burnout. While positive mentoring relationships may provide the mentor with additional resources linked to reductions in burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli,

2001; Halbesleben, 2006), a dysfunctional mentoring relationship that is marked by many negative mentoring experiences may increase stress as well as burnout and be perceived by the mentor as an additional job demand.

While the research conducted thus far on mentoring and burnout is an important contribution to the literature, we still have a limited understanding of the personal and organizational conditions that may moderate this relationship. The potential costs and benefits associated with mentoring and their relationship with burnout may be moderated by both personal and organizational factors. Characteristics of the mentor may have a significant influence on the benefits or costs experienced in a mentoring relationship (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Raggins, 2008). In this study, we examine generative concern as a facilitator of the potentially positive effects of mentoring.

Generativity, or the desire to pass on information to the next generation, may be a motivational factor for engaging in mentoring and may moderate the relationship between beneficial mentoring relationships and burnout. When the mentor is high in generativity, the most positive effects of beneficial mentoring experiences may be realized. Motivation to mentor may determine the nature of the relationship with the protégé and has implications for the perceived fit between the mentor and protégé (Allen, 2003). An individual's motivation to mentor is an important factor to understand. We treat generativity as a psychological factor and a potential moderator of the relationship between both positive and negative mentoring experiences and burnout.

As noted earlier, negative mentoring is expected to exacerbate burnout. Generative individuals may be buffered somewhat from this negative effect. Generative

individuals may be more resilient in terms of seeking rewards from a negative relationship with a protégé, and may be more likely to find benefits from the relationship even under more negative conditions. Peterson (1998) states that when individuals have generative motivation without subsequent generative action, they can feel unfilled and frustrated. Even if they do not feel like they are having the results from the mentoring relationship that they would like to have, they are still fulfilling their generative needs in that they are trying to pass on information and help others. It may be that for generative individuals, engaging in any type of mentoring relationship may help them fill their generative concern through generative action. They still see the benefit in trying to teach others, even if the relationship is less positive than they would like.

It is anticipated that generativity can enhance the benefits gained from mentoring. Recently, researchers have called for more work on the fulfillment of generative needs for older workers, arguing that its effects are not interchangeable with those of social support (Noonan, 2005). In this study, we examine its potential as a moderator of both positive and negative mentoring experiences on burnout.

The organization's support and appreciation of the mentoring relationship may also moderate the effects of mentoring on burnout, and perceived organizational support for mentoring is a second variable that may moderate the effects of mentoring. Kram (1985) points out that the culture of the organization is important in determining whether or not individuals are willing to mentor. The climate of an organization can either encourage or discourage mentoring (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). Since mentoring

takes time and effort, an organizational culture that supports mentoring may be the most favorable condition for successful mentoring.

Organizational support for mentoring, while similar to positive organizational support, describes a more specific type of support. Perceived organizational support for mentoring describes the amount of importance that is given to mentoring in an organization as well as the presence of managerial mentor role models and rewards by the organization for mentoring (Eby, Lockwood, Butts, 2006). When organizational support for mentoring is high, the potentially beneficial effects of mentoring on burnout may be more apparent. The mentor may feel as if they are more valued in their role, and the commitment of time and energy to the role is more likely to be recognized and appreciated by the organization. The mentor may feel more able to deal with the stressors in the mentoring relationship, if there is the perception that the organization is supporting their endeavors. Perceived organizational support for mentoring may also lead the mentor to believe that the investment in time that they are putting into mentoring will be rewarded. It could also lead to a reduction in role conflict between being a good mentor and a good employee.

When support for mentoring is low, even positive mentoring experiences may have a weaker impact on burnout. One would also expect that low organizational support for mentoring may exacerbate the negative effects of a poor relationship with the protégé on burnout. Under these conditions, there are many costs and few rewards associated with the relationship. In this study, we incorporate perceived organizational support as a potential organizational moderator of the mentoring-burnout relationship.

An additional goal of our study is to map the relationship between negative and positive mentoring experiences onto the three burnout dimensions. We anticipate that the effects of negative and positive mentoring on burnout may depend, in part, on the particular dimension of burnout under investigation. In the following segment, we examine the nature of burnout and its potential relationship to mentoring. This variable has a long history in industrial/organizational psychology and health psychology, and the definition of the construct has evolved over time. Advances in the measurement and clarification of the underlying dimensions of burnout have allowed us to understand its relationship to personal and organizational outcomes of interest.

In the following segments, we explore the nature of burnout and job stress. Past research in the area is summarized, and the evolution of the construct of burnout is described. We then proceed to a discussion of two theories that inform hypotheses regarding the relationships between our predictors (negative and positive mentoring) and the burnout dimensions of interest. In the next stage of our discussion, we investigate the potential role of generativity and perceived organizational support for mentoring as potential moderators of these relationships. A summary of the predicted relationships between predictors, moderators, and the dependent measures is provided in our model depicted in Figure 1.

BURNOUT

Burnout is a psychological strain that is the result of accumulated work stress. Maslach (1982) described three dimensions of burnout that continues to be widely used and accepted in the field; emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased

personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is the central component of burnout (Maslach, 1982; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) and refers to draining of emotional resources as a result of excessive psychological and emotional demands. Emotional exhaustion may be associated with other forms of burnout such as depersonalization (Lee & Ashforth, 1990). Depersonalization is a form of disengagement and cynicism that may include treating people as objects and giving them labels. It also involves a general distancing from the job. The third dimension of burnout is decreased personal accomplishment which refers to an individual's tendency to view their work negatively and feel their objectives are not being achieved.

The three dimensional model of burnout is generally measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and various versions of this instrument. Strong support has been found for this measure and its three dimensional nature (Worley, Vassar, Wheeler, Barnes, 2008). Analysis of the MBI-GS (a scale of burnout that is more to job types other than human service jobs) has also found support for the three dimensional nature of the construct. This three-dimensional factor structure is consistent across many different occupational types (Maslach et al., 2001).

Maslach (1982) initially believed that these three dimensions were independent and evolved in a sequential order, but this conceptualization has shifted as research on the construct has accumulated. More recently, Maslach (Maslach et al., 2001) has stated that the link from depersonalization to personal accomplishment is not clear and personal accomplishment may actually develop concurrently with depersonalization. Jawahar, Stone, & Kisamore (2007) found initial evidence to suggest that depersonalization can

occur independently of emotional exhaustion. Although their study was not longitudinal in nature, the authors found that when role demands were high, individuals experienced decreased feelings of personal accomplishment, but did not experience emotional exhaustion when organizational support was high. They believe this is initial evidence that the burnout dimensions do not necessarily occur in a sequential manner. Thus, while one would expect some degree of association between these three dimensions of burnout, they are relatively independent and may have unique relationship to predictors as well as other outcomes. In the current study, we explore the possibility that the three burnout dimensions are relatively distinct, and may have differential relationships with negative and positive mentoring experiences as well as the moderators of interest.

As research has developed in this field, researchers have expanded our understanding of the consequences of burnout as well as our grasp of the nature of the construct. As a stress phenomenon, burnout can result in negative organizational consequences as well as harmful physiological symptoms (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). According to statistics quoted by Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) the prevalence of workplace stress and burnout in the United States are high and rising costing organizations billions of dollars. Burnout is correlated with lower productivity and effectiveness as well as decreased job satisfaction and commitment (Maslach et al., 2001). It is also related to an individual's preferred job status and thoughts of finding a new job (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986) as well as turnover intentions (Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

For the individual, burnout is associated with negative health outcomes. Emotional exhaustion is often considered to be most similar to other stress outcomes, and is predictive of stress-related health outcomes such as headaches, muscle tension and sleep disturbances (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout has also been shown to correlate with depression and increased substance abuse (Schaufeli & Enzman, 1998).

The construct of burnout has also been extended in terms of its effects on employees in a variety of occupational settings. While burnout was initially viewed as a phenomenon that affected only human service workers (Jackson et al., 1986), new research has shown that burnout is relevant in other job types as well (Demerouti et al., 2001). Demerouti et al. (2001) believe that burnout can occur in any job when demands are high and resources are low. This expansion in the understanding of burnout has led to new scales, such as the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS), which are able to measure burnout in non human service jobs. The MBI-GS has relabeled two of the three burnout dimensions to be more applicable to workers of all job types. Cynicism took the place of depersonalization with items reflecting a more general distancing from work rather than from people. Professional efficacy replaced personal accomplishment with items more focused on expectations about future effectiveness at work (Zalauquett & Wood, 1997). The revision in the construct has allowed researchers to investigate burnout in a range of occupations such as logistics (Meier, Semmer, Elfering, & Jacobshagen, 2008) engineering (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007)

and blue collar food processing jobs (Langellan, Bakker, Van Doornen, & Schaufelli, 2006).

Although newer research supports the finding that burnout can occur in any job type, there is still a strong focus on burnout in human service workers as Maslach (1982) originally conceptualized the construct. Burnout in healthcare workers has been examined more than burnout in any other occupational group (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Nursing is one occupation in particular that is often characterized by high demands and low resources. In an examination of job types across 73 burnout studies, nurses were found to have high levels of burnout especially for the dimension of reduced personal accomplishment (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

For nurses, burnout may have unique consequences. Leiter, Harvie, and Frizzell (1998) found that higher levels of burnout in nurses were associated with decreased patient satisfaction. Burnout in nurses may also be related to patient safety. Hablesleben, Wakefield, Wakefield, and Cooper (2008) found burnout to be associated with the perception that the unit was a safe environment for patients. Burnout for nurses may have negative consequences for the individual and the organization as well as the patient.

Given the negative outcomes associated with burnout, it is important to understand the precursors to burnout in order to develop better methods of intervention. Many factors have been shown to correlate with burnout and the various subdimensions of burnout. These factors may be either internal to the individual or external to the individual as organizational variables.

Internal and external factors may also interact to create unique outcomes. These different factors may have a larger impact on some dimensions of burnout than others, providing additional evidence of the relative independence of these dimensions. For example, the Big 5 factor of Neuroticism was linked to all three burnout dimensions (Bakker, van der Zee, Lewig, & Dollard, 2006; Langelaan et al., 2006), while Extraversion and Agreeableness have been linked only to depersonalization and personal accomplishment (Bakker et al., 2006; Zellars & Perrewe, 2001). Other individual difference factors that have been linked to all or some dimensions of burnout include affect (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Chermont, 2003) and self-efficacy (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) also found that resources such as self-efficacy allowed individuals to better deal with lack of job resources. This research suggests that psychological variables may impact burnout.

Factors of the job itself may also contribute to the development of burnout. Perceptions of equity (Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, & Bununk 1998) and fairness in the organization (Maslach & Leiter, 2008) and lack of perceived organizational support (Jawhar, et al., 2007) contribute to the development of burnout as do job demands (Sundin, et al., 2007). Other job factors such as decision latitude (Rafferty, Friend, & Lansbergis, 2001) and job control (Sundin et al., 2007) are factors that have been found to lead to reductions in burnout for certain individuals for whom these factors are important.

The job factors that are related to burnout may be defined as either job demands or job resources. Several models of burnout posit that job demands and job resources are

differentially related to the three dimensions of burnout. In the current study, we regard negative mentoring experiences as an increased job demand, and positive mentoring experiences as a job resource. Given the evidence that job demands are most strongly related to emotional exhaustion and job resources are most strongly related to depersonalization and personal accomplishment, this suggests differential relationships between positive and negative mentoring experiences and the three burnout dimensions. In the next segment, we explore models of job stress that inform hypotheses regarding the relationship between the predictors of interest and specific burnout dimensions.

Application of Job Stress Models to the Current Study

A model that is helpful in understanding the role of the psychological and organizational moderators on burnout is the Conservation of Resources model (COR). The COR was initially described by Hobfoll (1989) to explain stress in general. This theory states that individuals work to attain and retain resources and that they are threatened by the loss of these resources. As related to burnout, the theory states that demands are more likely to lead to strains and are, therefore, more related to emotional exhaustion while resources help individuals deal with stress and are, therefore, more related to depersonalization and personal accomplishment (Halbesleben, 2006). In a meta-analysis Lee and Ashforth (1996) found support for this theory finding that demands such as workload were more related to emotional exhaustion and resources such as social support and having friends at work were more related to depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

Jawhar et al. (2007) also looked at burnout using a COR model. The authors state that a loss of resources may lead to stress, but personal characteristics are resources that may serve as buffers in this relationship. The authors found that perceived organizational support was a resource that was most strongly related to depersonalization while political skills were a resource that was most strongly related to personal accomplishment and also significantly related to depersonalization. Role conflict was a job demand that was only significantly related to the dimension of emotional exhaustion. The authors also found that positive organizational support served as a buffer in the relationship between role conflict and emotional exhaustion. This is further evidence that depersonalization and personal accomplishment are most influenced by job resources. These results also indicate that it is possible that support received from the organization and, potentially, support received through mentoring could buffer the relationship between other job demands and emotional exhaustion.

The Job Demands Resource model (JD-R) is another common model that has been used to explain burnout and also supports the theory that demands and resources are differentially related to the three burnout dimensions. The model states that when job demands are high and job resources are low, employees will feel decreased energy and motivation resulting in burnout. In this model, job demands are viewed as predictors of strain while resources are viewed as predictors of motivation. Demands and resources also interact to predict stress outcomes while resources can buffer the effect of excessive work demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006). As applied to burnout specifically,

demands are viewed as predictors of emotional exhaustion, and resources are viewed as predictors of depersonalization.

Demerouti and his colleagues have found support for this model in a series of studies (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Demerouti et al., 2001). They use a two dimensional model which incorporates emotional exhaustion and depersonalization to analyze burnout because they feel that personal accomplishment is more of an individual difference factor than a dimension of burnout. The authors found that demands such as time pressure were more related to emotional exhaustion while resources such as feedback were linked to depersonalization (Demerouti et al., 2001). In a follow up study, Bakker et al. (2004) replicated these results and found that demands predicted in-role performance through emotional exhaustion and resources predicted extra-role performance through depersonalization. When job demands are very high, job resources become most important (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006). Workload has also been shown to have a stronger link to emotional exhaustion than either depersonalization or personal accomplishment (Maslach & Leiter, 2008) giving further support for this model.

This model of job demands is relevant to understanding the role of negative mentoring in stress and burnout. Negative mentoring experiences may lead to the perception of increased job demands on the part of the mentor. As a job demand, negative mentoring experiences may be more related to emotional exhaustion as the COR and JD-R models would predict. Positive mentoring experiences may lead to the perception of increased job resources for the mentor including increased information and support. As a job resource, positive mentoring experiences may be more related to

depersonalization and personal accomplishment. Thus, based on the theories reviewed, one would expect that the mentoring-burnout relationship may depend on the dimension of burnout under investigation as well as the nature of the mentoring experience.

Mentoring relationships lead to personal relationships on the job and when these relationships are positive they seem to carry beneficial effects for the mentor (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). The social support that is incorporated in measures of positive mentoring experiences is a job resource that has been linked to decreased burnout. Hablesleben (2006) hypothesized that as a resource, social support would be more related to emotional exhaustion than the other two burnout dimensions, but this was not the case. He found social support was not differentially related to the three burnout dimensions. Surprisingly, Sundin et al. (2007) found all three dimensions of burnout were correlated with social support but that emotional exhaustion was most strongly related. Lee and Ashforth (1996) found that coworker support was related to both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Having friends at work and participating in work activities, however, was positively correlated with personal accomplishment. It appears that social support, a buffer against burnout, may be embedded in positive mentoring experiences thus leading to decreased emotional exhaustion for mentors with many positive experiences. We also anticipate that this aspect of positive mentoring may decrease the depersonalization aspect of burnout as well, given the socially facilitative nature of the predictor and the social withdrawal associated with depersonalization.

Another factor that has been linked to burnout, for nurses in particular, is empowerment. When nurses feel more empowered they have greater job satisfaction

(Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Welk, 2004) and reduced burnout (Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2003 as cited in Leiter & Laschinger, 2006). This is another aspect of positive mentoring that is incorporated in most mentoring scales. Structural empowerment is made up of several different factors including information, support, and resources. Positive mentoring relationships should result in increased information, support, and resources and therefore may lead to an increased sense of empowerment. It may be that another way in which mentoring decreases burnout is that it may make the mentor feel more empowered.

In the following segment, we examine the nature of mentoring, focusing on the potential benefits of mentoring for the mentor. Given the research reviewed above, positive mentoring experiences that involve benefits regarding personal productivity and social support may serve as a buffer against burnout under certain conditions.

In order to understand the potential relationship between mentoring and burnout, it may be useful to separate burnout into its three components and to examine mentoring in terms of both positive and negative experiences. In the next segment, we first describe the nature of mentoring and its relationship to burnout. Then we discuss the similarities and differences in the three dimensions of burnout and their relationship to both constructive and destructive mentoring experiences. We attempt to first describe the general relationship between mentoring and burnout, and then to tailor predictions regarding positive and negative mentoring to each of the three burnout dimensions.

MENTORING

According to Kram (1985), mentoring is a relationship in which an older adult who is more experienced in the job helps and guides a younger, less experienced worker. Mentoring is usually looked at as youth mentoring, academic mentoring, or workplace mentoring (Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008). In a work context, individuals may engage in either formal or informal mentoring. Formal and informal mentoring differ in terms of how the mentoring relationship is initiated, the length of the relationship, as well as rules governing the relationship.

Since the type of mentoring relationship (formal or informal) may influence both mentoring activities and mentor outcomes, we briefly review these types. Mentoring activities can generally be divided into two categories: career mentoring or psychosocial mentoring. Type of mentoring (formal or informal) may influence how beneficial the relationship is for the protégé, the kind of activities engaged in during mentoring (Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006), and could potentially affect how beneficial the relationship is for the mentor. All of these factors may influence the positive outcomes that the mentor experiences from the relationship as well as the potential for the mentoring relationship to lead to positive outcomes such as reductions in burnout. This paper will examine informal mentoring relationships and their relation to reductions in burnout. As will be discussed below, it seems that informal mentoring may have more positive outcomes than formal mentoring. Therefore, we will examine this type of mentoring relationship in the current study.

Formal vs. Informal Mentoring

Formal mentoring is mentoring that is sanctioned and governed by the organization whereas informal mentoring is a relationship that develops and proceeds more spontaneously and without the intervention of the organization. These two types of mentoring differ in terms of how the relationship is initiated, the duration of the relationship, and rules regarding the relationship.

Formal mentoring relationships develop through the assistance of the organization. Generally, those in the relationship may not have much say over who they are paired with, although issues of similarity such as matching cognitive style and gender should be taken into consideration when matching mentoring pairs (Armstrong, Allinson, & Hayes, 2002). Informal mentoring develops due to mutual identification and liking between the mentor and protégé. The mentor and protégé select one another without the intervention of the organization. The protégé feels that the mentor is able to help them and the mentor feels that the protégé is worth helping (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Because there is less likelihood of charges of favoritism in an informal relationship, informal mentors may be more able to intervene on the employees' behalf (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000).

While formal mentoring programs usually last for a short duration that is predetermined by the organization, informal mentoring programs may last for a much longer period of time and end when the parties involved decide to end the relationship. While formal mentoring programs usually last for six months to a year, informal programs may last for as long as 3-6 years (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). It may be the case

that informal mentoring is more self-sustaining and involves a deeper relationship between the mentor and protégé.

In a formal mentoring program, interaction between the mentor and protégé is usually dictated by the organization. The organization may have rules regarding how often interaction are to occur and for what duration of time. In formal programs, mentors may be asked to focus on specific short term career goals that are related only to their current position in the organization (Ragins et al., 2000). In an informal mentoring program, meetings between mentors and protégés occur when it is mutually convenient and as often as both parties desire. They may have more opportunity to focus on long-term career goals (Kram, 1985).

Because of these differences between these two types of mentoring, different relationships may form. Ragins and Cotton (1999) state that because informal mentoring relationships are based on mutual identification, they may develop into closer, more personal relationships. It may be the case that such informal mentoring carries more emotionally relevant benefits for the mentor, in addition to the usual positive effect on productivity of having a strong protégé. Thus, one would expect the strongest benefits from mentoring may stem from more informal, personal mentoring relationships rather than more formal, assigned mentoring relationships.

Ragins and Cotton (1999) point out several other important differences between formal and informal mentoring relationships. There may be more trust in informal relationships because the protégé feels that the mentor is involved in the relationship and interacts with the protégé because he or she wants to. In formal mentoring programs,

there may be a sense that the mentor is only engaged because they feel like they have to be or because they are trying to make a good impression on their supervisors. There is some evidence that there is substantial variability among commitment to the mentoring relationship even in formal mentoring programs, and that the level of commitment, whether measured from the perspective of the mentor or protégé, has a significant impact on the relationship quality (Allen & Eby, 2008).

Informal mentors may also be more skilled in communication and coaching skills than formal mentors because they have been selected by their protégés for these skills. Because of the manner in which the relationships develop, there may be greater levels of interpersonal comfort in informal mentoring relationships (Allen, Day, & Lentz, 2005). While communication skills of the mentor may be important in both formal and informal mentoring relationships, the perceived effectiveness of the mentoring program as a whole is important in formal mentoring relationships. Ragins et al. (2000) found the perceptions of effectiveness of formal mentor programs impacted protégé organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceptions of procedural justice.

Informal relationships may result in more positive outcomes for protégés than formal mentoring relationships. Chao, Walz and Gardner (1992) found that informally mentored workers reported higher job satisfaction than nonmentored workers. However, this was not the case for workers in formal mentoring programs who did not report higher job satisfaction than nonmentored workers. The type of mentoring relationship may also impact the kind and amount of mentoring that the mentor chooses to engage in.

In the current study, we examine the relationship between informal mentoring and the potential costs/benefits to the mentor. Since these bonds between mentor and protégé form naturally within the organization, they may have the potential to become more relevant to the personal outcomes for the mentor.

In the next segment, we examine the different types of activities that may be engaged in during mentoring. By understanding these activities, we can gain a deeper understanding of the nature of the protégé-mentor relationship.

Career vs. Psychosocial Mentoring

Generally speaking, there are two types of mentoring that mentors can engage in: career and psychosocial. The goal of career mentoring is to provide information and support that facilitates the protégé's advancement and success within the organization. According to Ragins and Cotton (1999) this type of mentoring is aimed at helping the protégé "learn the ropes". This type of mentoring is able to occur because the mentor has greater experience and influence (Kram, 1985). According to Kram (1985), career mentoring includes sponsorship, coaching, protection, giving challenging assignments, and exposure.

Psychosocial mentoring is aimed at the growth of the protégé as a person as well as their growth as an employee. According to Ragins and Cotton (1999) this type of mentoring seeks to increase the protégé's sense of confidence and self-efficacy and the quality of psychosocial mentoring depends on the quality of the interpersonal relationship between mentor and protégé and the bond that is formed between them. This type of mentoring is able to occur because of the interpersonal relationship that has developed

between mentor and protégé and the trust there is between them (Kram, 1985).

According to Kram (1985), psychosocial mentoring is made up of acceptance and confirmation, counseling, friendship, and role modeling.

There is some evidence that whether the mentoring relationship is formal or informal is related to the type of mentoring that is engaged in and to the quality of the relationship as a whole, perhaps because of its relationship to the underlying variable of mentor commitment (Allen & Eby, 2008). While research on benefits for the mentor is limited, we can explore differences in the mentor protégé relationship in formal/informal mentoring from the perspective of the protégé.

Chao et al. (1992) found that informal mentoring relationships were more likely to result in the protégés' perceptions of increased career mentoring than were formal mentoring relationships. In contrast, Fagenson-Eland, Marks, and Amendola (1997) found that protégés in informal mentoring relationships were more likely to perceive that they had received more psychosocial support than were protégés in formal mentoring programs. Informal mentoring was also related to increased reports of communication between mentor and protégé. Ragins & Cotton (1999) found that protégés of informal mentors reported more career development functions as well as psychosocial functions from their mentoring relationships. This was also related to how satisfied protégés were with their mentors. Protégés in informal relationships reported being more satisfied with their mentors.

It appears that informal mentoring relationships may be more beneficial for protégés. Protégés in this type of relationship perceive higher levels of both psychosocial

mentoring and career mentoring and are also more satisfied with their mentoring relationship. Increased psychosocial mentoring is related to employee satisfaction with mentors and increases in both psychosocial mentoring and career mentoring are related to protégés perceptions that the mentoring relationship had a positive impact on their job (Wanberg et al., 2006). Protégés who have engaged in informal mentoring also receive greater compensation than employees who have engaged in formal mentoring (Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

While it is evident that informal mentoring may be more beneficial for protégés, the limited research that exists suggests that it may also be more beneficial for mentors. Wanberg et al. (2006) found that increased psychosocial mentoring was related to mentors' perception that the mentoring relationship had been a positive experience and increased career mentoring is related to the mentor's perception that mentoring had a positive impact on their job. In summary, since informal mentoring has been related to greater amounts of both career and psychosocial mentoring perceived by the protégé, informal mentoring may have a more positive impact on mentors as well as protégés. This may be reflected in both positive career outcomes as well as positive psychosocial outcomes.

In the current study, we focus on informal mentoring relationships. While formal or assigned mentor-protégé pairs may clearly carry benefits for both members, informal relationships seem to be associated with the most positive outcomes for both parties. Empirical evidence on the underlying factors that drive the unique benefits of informal mentoring (as opposed to formal mentoring) is limited. However, it seems logical to

anticipate that relationships that are naturally formed on the basis of mutual benefits, shared values, and mutually positive outcomes would result in stronger bonds between the mentor and protégé, and more positive effects for both parties. Given that we are interested in ways to ameliorate burnout among employees in a typically high-stress profession, focusing on informal mentoring relationships seems to hold the most promise. In the next segment, we turn to a discussion of such outcomes of mentoring relationships for mentors.

Positive Outcomes for Mentors

Mentoring has been found to have many positive outcomes for both protégés as well as mentors. Parise and Forret (2008) found that mentors perceived many benefits from engaging in mentoring. Mentors found mentoring to be a rewarding experience. Mentoring was also related to an increased perception of job performance, recognition, and having a loyal base of support on the part of the mentors. Furthermore, the perception that the relationship was a rewarding experience was greater when participation in the program was voluntary.

It may be that increases in the perception of job performance on the part of mentors are due to information they receive from protégés. Mullen and Noe (1999) found that mentors do in fact seek information from protégés. Mentors pass on knowledge and information to their protégés, but protégés may actually be a valuable source of information for the mentor as well. Mentoring may allow mentors to learn more about their jobs and may serve as a source of rejuvenation and renewal in their careers (Hunt & Michael, 1983).

Positive benefits for mentors appear to be long-lived. Eby et al. (2006) found the perception of increased job performance and rewarding experience on the part of the mentor to be short-term benefits related to mentoring. However, these factors also contributed to long term benefits experienced by the mentor. In the long-term, mentors reported increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to mentor.

While there appears to be clear affective benefits of mentoring, additional research suggests that there may be economic advantages of mentoring as well. Allen, Lentz, and Day (2006) found that informal mentoring contributed to unique variance in salary, promotion, and subjective career success beyond other demographic variables. Eby and Lockwood (2005) found that mentors reported that the ability to develop a personal relationship was a positive outcome of mentoring. Given the beneficial nature of these factors, it also seems likely that positive mentoring experiences may contribute to reductions in burnout on the part of the mentor.

While prior research has documented these benefits of mentoring, recent work suggests that researchers would be well-advised to examine potential costs as well. In certain circumstances, the protégé carries more burdens than benefits, and this clearly impacts the nature of the protégé-mentor relationship. In the next segment, we review the potential costs of the relationship.

Negative Aspects of Mentoring

While mentoring carries many performance and emotionally based benefits for the mentor, there may be costs associated with mentoring as well. Recent research suggests that not all protégé-mentor relationships benefit the mentor, and the costs may

outweigh the benefits in some cases. Protégé performance problems, interpersonal conflict, and destructive relational patterns are three dimensions of negative mentoring experiences for the mentor (Eby et al. 2008b). Thus, negative mentoring relationships may actually exacerbate burnout rather than buffering against it.

Negative mentoring relationships can be described as dysfunctional (Scandura, 1998) or toxic (Feldman, 1999). While negative mentoring relationships are often seen as the fault of the mentor because of their more powerful position in the relationship (Ragins et al., 2000), protégés can also cause negative mentoring relationships as perceived by the mentor (Eby, 2007; Feldman, 1999). Dysfunctional mentoring relationships can result in the mentor feeling stress, anxiety, and betrayal as well as a decreased willingness to mentor in the future (Scandura, 1998).

Dysfunctional mentoring relationships are seen as the most negative mentoring relationships, but as with other relationships, mentoring relationships cannot be described in terms of a simple “negative/positive” dichotomy. Eby and McManus (2004) describe mentoring relationships as being either effective, marginally effective where relationship goals are not being met, ineffective which is characterized by feelings of disappointment, or dysfunctional when there is actual bad intent and malice between mentor and protégé. Dysfunctional mentoring relationships were found to be least common.

According to Gormley (2008), most mentoring relationships are somewhere in between functional and dysfunctional. It seems likely that mentors would avoid relationships that are costly when possible, and that most informal mentoring relationships would be positive in nature. However, we wish to avoid assumptions that

all mentoring relationships are positive, and will measure both types of mentoring experiences in the current study. It is important to measure both aspects of mentoring in order to appreciate both costs and benefits that can stem from the mentor-protégé relationship, and to be able to fully explore the relationship between mentoring and burnout.

The measurement of negative mentoring relationships has evolved in the past several years, and includes a variety of sources of relationship issues. Eby (2007) describes relationship problems ranging from minor relationship problems to taxing relationship problems. Minor relationships problems are the least severe form of mentoring problem that may be the result of poor communication skills. This may lead to superficial interactions and unmet expectations for both the mentor and protégé. Under these conditions growth of both mentor and protégé is minimized. Taxing relational problems are more severe, and may lead to uncomfortable interactions and a negation of growth. This may be caused by mismatches in personality and values. Serious relational problems are the worst type of relational problems. They are characterized by hostile interactions and disengagement and individuals in these relationships may actually be damaged personally and professionally.

Mentoring, like other interpersonal relationships, will be marked by both positive and negative experiences and interactions. These positive and negative mentoring experiences are independent from one another, rather than endpoints of the same construct (Eby et al., 2008b). The nature of the experiences that characterize negative and positive mentoring are qualitatively different. Furthermore, the negative and positive

mentoring experiences may have unique and differential relationships to each of the three dimensions of burnout. To fully understand outcomes of mentoring, it is important to examine both positive and negative mentoring experiences. In the current study, we will examine both beneficial aspects of mentoring and costs associated with mentoring in order to gain a full understanding of the relationship between this variable and different dimensions of burnout. In the next segment, we explore both aspects of mentoring and the differential relationship of each aspect to burnout.

Quality of Mentoring Relationship

While many researchers examine the positive outcomes associated with mentoring in general, others stress the importance in understanding the quality of the mentoring relationship and the impact that this has on potential outcomes associated with the relationship (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). This may help to explain some of the variability in outcomes associated with mentoring that has been found in the literature (Feldman, 1999). Furthermore, research often focuses on positive outcomes of mentoring rather than costs. The underlying assumption seems to be that there are only beneficial outcomes for both parties. More recent research suggests that this is not always the case.

Relationships of all qualities will be marked by both positive and negative experiences, and mentoring is no exception. These positive and negative experiences are distinct from one another and influence the overall quality of the relationship (Eby, 2007). Even if there are relationship problems and negative experiences in a mentoring relationship, that does not mean there are not positive experiences in the relationship as well. One would not expect that these are perfectly negatively correlated either. Eby et

al., (2008b) state that negative experiences are distinct from positive experiences and support this theory with Ragin and Scandura's (1999) finding that anticipated costs of a mentoring are only moderately correlated with anticipated benefits. There is also evidence that positive and negative work experiences in general are distinct from one another and are differentially related to the overall well-being of employees (Hart & Cooper, 2001). While overall relationship quality may exist on a continuum, positive and negative mentoring experiences are distinct constructs and can occur simultaneously in a mentoring relationship. These experiences combine to influence the overall relationship quality (Eby, 2007; Eby et al., 2008b).

Further evidence of the relative independence of the two dimensions of mentoring stems from research suggesting that the two types of mentoring experiences are related to distinct outcomes for mentors and protégés. Eby and Allen (2002) found that protégés' reports of negative mentoring experiences were related to negative job outcomes such as decreased job satisfaction and increased turnover intentions and stress. To understand potential outcomes for the mentor it is important to understand negative mentoring experiences from the mentor's perspective. Gathering data from mentors is particularly important given that the negative experiences that mentors report are different from negative experiences reported by protégés (Eby et al., 2008b, Eby & McManus, 2004).

Eby et al., (2008b) describe three different categories of negative experiences that a mentor may have. Protégé performance problems include an unwillingness or inability for the protégé to learn. This can reflect poorly on the mentor. Interpersonal problems include conflicts between mentor and protégé or the use of impression management by

the protégé. Destructive relationship patterns include exploitive behavior, harassment or even sabotage.

Given the limited research in this area, it appears that satisfying informal mentoring may benefit the mentor in terms of decreasing the emotional and depersonalizing aspects of burnout and enhancing performance-related aspects of burnout. As noted earlier, psychological and organizational factors may enhance or suppress these potential benefits. Before we delve into a discussion of these moderators, we examine the simple relationship between mentoring and burnout.

MENTORING AND BURNOUT

Mentoring may result in many benefits for the mentor ranging from increased learning to enhanced social support. It may provide the mentor with trusted allies at work and increased interaction (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). Such social support has been linked to reductions in all three burnout dimensions (Sundin et al., 2007). One might expect that there are overall benefits of mentoring on all aspects of burnout, but there may be specific burnout dimensions that are affected most by positive mentoring or negative mentoring experiences.

Eby et al., (2008b) found that positive mentoring experiences such as receiving instrumental and relational benefits were negatively related to burnout. In a relationship with many positive experiences, the learning of new information and feeling of having an ally at work will be greatest and may be viewed by the mentor as job resources. Bakker and Demerouti (2006) define factors of the job that stimulate personal growth, learning, and development as job resources. It appears that mentoring may serve these functions.

The first goal of the current study is to examine the relationship between each type of mentoring experience, positive and negative, and each dimension of burnout. In our first two sets of hypotheses, we examine the differential prediction of each of the three burnout dimensions by positive mentoring experiences, then negative mentoring experiences. Thus, our first set of hypotheses is designed to examine the differential prediction of the three dimensions of burnout by positive mentoring experiences.

While positive mentoring experiences are generally treated as a unidimensional construct, this is not the case for negative mentoring experiences. In our second set of hypotheses, we examine the prediction of the three burnout dimensions by these negative mentoring experiences. Negative mentoring as discussed earlier, is defined by three dimensions, each of which may be differentially related to each of the three burnout dimensions. In the third set of hypotheses, we compare the relative strength of positive and negative mentoring experiences as predictors of each dimension of burnout.

Research and theory suggest that prediction of burnout may be maximized by matching specific predictors with the appropriate dimension of burnout. Personal accomplishment is a more task-related aspect of burnout, and we would expect this to be most strongly predicted by aspects of the mentoring relationship that involve protégé productivity. The remaining two dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, are more affective in nature and may be predicted best by those dimensions of mentoring that incorporate interpersonal aspects of the relationship.

Based on the findings in the literature, it is possible to hypothesize that positive mentoring experiences will have a stronger relationship to some of the dimensions of

burnout than others. As job resources, positive mentoring experiences should be most strongly related to depersonalization and personal accomplishment as theorized by the JD-R and COR models. Social support has also been linked to emotional exhaustion, perhaps for the buffering effect it has on work demands. However, the relationship between support and emotional exhaustion is generally found to be weaker than the relationship between support and depersonalization and personal accomplishment, therefore the relationship between positive mentoring experiences and emotional exhaustion should be weaker than the relationship between positive mentoring experiences and depersonalization and personal accomplishment. Therefore, we would anticipate that the relationship between positive mentoring experiences and emotional exhaustion should be weaker than the relationship between positive mentoring and the other two dimensions of burnout, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. Our general hypothesis regarding the overall effect of positive mentoring was:

Hypothesis 1a: Overall, positive mentoring experiences will be negatively associated with burnout across dimensions.

We also made a more specific hypothesis regarding the relationship between positive mentoring and each of the three burnout dimensions (personal accomplishment, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion).

Hypothesis 1b: This negative relationship will be stronger for personal accomplishment and depersonalization than for emotional exhaustion.

The research conducted on negative mentoring experiences suggests that the sub dimensions of negative mentoring experiences may be differentially related to burnout

dimension as well. Eby et al., (2008b) found that negative mentoring experiences related to interpersonal problems and destructive relational patterns were positively related to burnout, although they did not break this relationship down into specific burnout dimensions. It may be that interpersonal problems and destructive relational patterns put additional stress and demands on the mentor resulting in increased emotional exhaustion. These same problems may also lead to a distancing from the mentoring relationship as well as the job in general which would contribute to increased depersonalization.

Although Eby et al., (2008b) did not find a relationship between protégé performance and burnout, they did not examine the relationship between individual burnout dimensions and the individual dimensions of negative mentoring experiences. Unlike the measurement of positive mentoring experiences, which taps into social and interpersonal support, the measurement of negative mentoring experiences appears to be multidimensional. Thus, it is possible to map the individual dimensions of negative mentoring experiences onto the most conceptually related dimensions.

It seems that if the protégé is not performing up to expectations, this may lead the mentor to feel a decrease in their own ability to accomplish their goals, thus contributing to the personal accomplishment aspect of burnout. Our general expectation regarding the impact of negative mentoring on burnout was:

Hypothesis 2a: Overall, negative mentoring experiences will be positively associated with burnout across conditions.

We also had specific predictions regarding the relationship between each aspect of negative mentoring (protégé performance problems, interpersonal problems, and destructive relational patterns) and each facet of mentoring (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). The hypothesis regarding protégé performance problems follows:

Hypothesis 2b: Protégé performance problems will be a stronger predictor of personal accomplishment than of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

In contrast, interpersonal problems and destructive relational patterns may be more closely aligned with the affective dimensions of burnout.

Hypothesis 2c: Interpersonal problems and destructive relational patterns will be a stronger predictor of the two affective dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, than of personal accomplishment.

The second goal of the current study is to compare the relative impact of negative and positive mentoring experiences on the three dimensions of burnout, or to make comparisons between the predictive strength of positive and negative mentoring experiences on each of the burnout dimensions. In general negative mentoring experiences may be viewed as additional job demands. They may create additional stress for the mentor and increase their workload. On the other hand, positive mentoring experiences may be viewed as additional job resources that may help the mentor deal with stress at work. As job demands are more predictive of emotional exhaustion and job resources are more predictive of depersonalization and personal accomplishment, negative mentoring experiences should be more predictive of emotional exhaustion while

positive mentoring experiences should be more predictive of depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 3a: Overall, negative mentoring experiences will be more predictive of emotional exhaustion than are positive mentoring experiences.

Hypothesis 3b: Overall, positive mentoring experiences will be more predictive of depersonalization and personal accomplishment than are negative mentoring experiences.

In summary, the first three sets of hypotheses (1a-3b) will allow us to map specific dimensions of the mentoring relationship onto each of the three dimension of burnout. This may allow us to understand the contribution of specific aspects of positive and negative mentoring experiences to each of the affective and performance-oriented dimensions of burnout. Such information can be useful in developing theories about the costs and benefits associated with mentoring relationships, and in refining our understanding of the specific role of mentoring activities to employee well-being.

Since the research on mentoring and burnout is so new, it is not surprising that there is not a well developed literature on the personal and organizational moderators of this relationship. In the next segment, we examine a personal and an organizational factor as potential moderators. Our first goal in this part of the study is to understand the potential impact of generativity on the mentoring-burnout relationship. This is covered in the following segment. Our second goal is to examine the role of an organizational moderator of mentoring and burnout, perceived organizational support for mentoring. By extending current research on the mentoring-burnout relationship to incorporate personal

and organizational factors, we hope to understand the psychological and organizational conditions that facilitate the potential benefits of mentoring.

MODERATORS OF THE MENTORING BURNOUT RELATIONSHIP

While research provides a foundation for the hypotheses stated above, we wished to investigate potential moderators of the relationship. As stated earlier, psychological and organizational factors can serve to enhance or suppress the potential benefits of psychosocial and career mentoring for the mentor. Both psychological and organizational factors also contribute to the development of burnout. In the next segment, we explore the relationship of a psychological moderator, generativity, on the mentoring-burnout relationship.

Generativity: A Psychological Moderator of the Mentoring-Burnout Relationship

Generativity has a long history in psychology (c.f., Erikson, 1950) but it has only recently been tied to outcomes associated with work. Erikson (1950) defined the term as “the interest in establishing and guiding the next generation.” McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) broke down the construct of generativity into several features including motivation, concern, and action. Generative concern refers to the amount of importance the individual places on engaging in generative behavior and is generally measured by the Loyola Generativity Scale (LGS). Research suggests that generative concern may be one source of motivation to engage in mentoring. It may also moderate the relationships between positive and negative mentoring experiences and the three major aspects of burnout.

Allen (2003) proposed that motivation to mentor may contribute to the type of mentoring that is engaged in. While motivation to mentor may come from self-interest as well as concern for others (Allen, 2003), it seems logical to expect that generative concern would increase the desire to pass along knowledge and expertise. It may be the case that the benefits experienced by the mentor are impacted by psychological factors such as generative concern that would lead one to engage in and seek out and enjoy mentoring relationships.

Researchers have identified some of the personal variables associated with mentoring. Allen (2003) found that other-oriented empathy and intrinsic satisfaction were motivational factors that contributed to an increased likelihood that mentors would engage in psychosocial mentoring. Self-enhancement, on the other hand, was a motive that was related to a greater likelihood that mentors would engage in career mentoring. An employee's motivation to mentor may also impact the positive outcomes that they experience from engaging in that relationship.

Motivation to mentor can come from dispositional tendencies within the individual as well as organizational factors such as reward systems (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1996). While organizational variables are important in determining the motivation to mentor, individual variables explain more of the variance in mentoring motivation than do organizational variables (Aryee et al., 1996). For this reason, individual variables are important to understand and explain why some individuals are more willing to mentor than others.

Within the individual, there are other-focused and self-focused reasons for wanting to become a mentor. This may influence the type of mentoring engaged in as well as the benefits the mentor sees as a result of the mentoring relationships (Allen, Poteet, Russell, & Dobbins, 1997). Allen et al. (1997b) conducted interviews of former mentors to determine their reasons for engaging in mentoring. The most common self-focused reasons for engaging in mentoring were to increase learning and have feelings of gratification from the relationship. Mentors often felt that they had learned as much from their protégés as their protégés had learned from them. The most common other-focused reason for engaging in mentoring was the desire to pass on information to others. This desire has often been referred to as generativity.

While recognizing that a number of personality variables may impact mentoring, in the current study, we focus on generativity as a personality variable that may impact the mentor's satisfaction with the relationship. Researchers have identified this psychological variable as an important individual difference variable in predicting the effects of mentoring, and believe that it may have positive effects that extend beyond those of simple social support provided by the interactions inherent to mentoring (Noonan, 2005).

Motivation to mentor and rewards associated with mentoring are self-focused or other-focused (Allen et al., 1997b). In the current study, we chose to focus on an other-focused psychological reason for mentoring, generativity. Generativity has been defined as “the interest in establishing and guiding the next generation” (Erikson, 1950). It is an active concern and desire to pass on information and traditions to the next generation.

While the construct is often theoretically linked to mentoring (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992), this relationship is rarely investigated empirically. Thus, we have limited data-based information regarding the direction of the relationship. Given the existing research, it appears that generativity may be an important motivational factor that contributes to the desire to mentor as well as to the positive outcomes associated with mentoring. We explore the nature of this variable and the association with mentoring satisfaction in the next section.

Multi faceted generativity.

Erikson (1950) initially coined the term generativity to refer to the seventh stage of human development which occurs during middle adulthood. In this stage, adults must resolve the conflict between generativity and stagnation. Erikson (1969) often used examples of individuals to describe generativity but did not have a method of actually measuring the construct. To make the theory of generativity more complete and testable, McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) reconceptualized generativity as containing seven important features that involve both society and the individual. The authors also developed items to measure several of these seven facets of generativity.

According to McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) generativity is not just a goal of the individual; it is also a goal of society as a whole. For this reason, it is important to consider the motivation for generativity as both a demand placed by society and a desire within the individual. Society demands that to be a successful adult and a productive member of society we must pass on information to the next generation. Individuals may vary in the extent to which they identify with this societal value.

The other motivational aspect of generativity is internal. There is a desire within the individual that includes a desire for symbolic immortality as well as a need to be needed. These motivational factors lead to generative concern. If this concern is followed by a belief in the value of those who the information will be passed on to, it may result in generative commitment or a plan to actually engage in generative acts.

Generative action would ideally be the result of the process discussed above. Generative action may be in the form of behavior that is producing (i.e., integrating new employees into a new project), maintaining (i.e., continuing a tradition or process within the organization) or offering (i.e., mentoring employees). This process over time contributes to an individual's generative narration. This is the meaning that is derived from an individual's generative life and plays into their conceptualization of their own identity and sense of meaning.

Erikson and others have often described generativity in terms of parenting and passing on information and traditions to our children (Erikson, 1977). While some research indicates that parents may be more generative than non-parents (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992; Peterson & Klohnen, 1995), other research has shown that generativity can be expressed in a variety of forums. Generativity may be expressed through involvement in the community through political involvement (Hart, McAdams, Hirsch, & Bauer, 2001; Peterson, Smirles, & Wentworth, 1997), or volunteering (Kleiber & Nimrod, 2008). It can also be expressed in the workplace through mentoring (Parise & Forret, 2008). Thus, while the original theory of generativity was framed in terms of

parenting, the original concept of passing along information to others is very relevant to organizational life.

One reason I-O psychologists may be interested in this construct is that it is associated with a number of indices related to overall employee well-being. Generativity is associated with such positive outcomes as increased life satisfaction (Huta & Zuroff, 2007; McAdams, de St. Aubin, & Logan, 1993), self-esteem, and positive affect (Ackerman, Zuroff, & Moscovitz, 2000) and negatively associated with depression (Stewart & Vandewater, 1998). While the majority of research in generativity does not focus on the workplace, generativity has also been associated with positive work outcomes such as increased work satisfaction (Clark & Arnold, 2008; Peterson & Klohnen, 1995). In the following segment we explore the nature of generativity to these affective reactions.

Generativity: A Psychological Moderator of the Mentoring-Burnout Relationship.

This construct may hold great promise for understanding the potential effects of mentoring. Parise and Forret (2008) looked at the relationship between generativity and mentoring and found promising results in terms of the outcomes for mentors. The authors found that mentors reported greater feelings of generativity, especially if they received adequate mentor training. Generativity increased with the number of protégés a mentor had. While the authors framed the directionality of the relationship as mentoring leading to generativity, we propose that individuals with high generative concern may be more likely to seek out mentoring opportunities and experience positive benefits from mentoring in the form of reduced burnout. The satisfaction from passing on information

to a new generation and connecting with a new generation is logically more likely to occur in generative individuals than non-generative individuals. While research has not examined whether benefits from mentoring are more likely to be experienced by highly generative individuals, other positive outcomes have been documented to be positively associated with generativity. Examples are, increased job satisfaction (Peterson & Klohnen, 1995), subjective career success (Clark & Arnold, 1998), gratification through work (Peterson & Stewart, 1996), and subjective well being (Ackerman et al., 2000). These are conceptually related to more positive affective reactions to work such as reduced burnout.

While available research has not directly examined the potential interaction between generativity, mentoring, and positive outcomes such as reduced burnout, there is some related research that provides useful information regarding this relationship. Ragins and Scandura (1999) found that individuals who perceive more rewards and fewer costs from entering into a mentoring relationship were more likely to become mentors. Perhaps generative individuals anticipate and experience more rewards from engaging in mentoring because they will be able to pass on information and thereby fulfill their generative concerns and needs. Because of this, generative individuals may be more likely to benefit from mentoring relationships than those individuals who are less generative. It also seems likely that generative individuals would be affected less negatively by less positive mentoring experiences. They may be more able and motivated to focus on potential benefits as opposed to the negative aspects of the mentoring relationship than those who are less generative. An alternative argument could

be made that those who are more generative could be more negatively affected by negative mentoring experiences because they assign more importance to the relationship. However, we feel that the hypothesis that generativity will buffer against negative mentoring is more consistent with the theory that generativity serves as an internal resource.

Given the research reviewed thus far, we would expect that individuals with high generative concern would show more benefits from mentoring relationships than those who are low in generative concern. They may also be better able to deal with negative mentoring experiences and thus be less negatively affected by them. Generativity may serve as an internal resource that mentors can draw on and thus contribute to reductions in burnout, with the strongest reductions occurring in depersonalization and personal accomplishment, the burnout dimensions most strongly related to resources.

Given the research reviewed, we formulated the following hypotheses regarding the relationship between positive mentoring, generativity, and each dimension of burnout.

Hypothesis 4a: Individuals high in generative concern are more likely to show reductions in burnout as a result of positive mentoring experiences than those with low generative concern (Generativity X Positive Mentoring interaction).

Hypothesis 4b: This interaction will be stronger for the personal accomplishment and depersonalization aspects of burnout than for emotional exhaustion.

In a similar vein, our general hypothesis related to negative mentoring, and generativity was:

Hypothesis 5a: Individuals high in generative concern are less likely to have increased burnout as a result of negative mentoring experiences (Generativity X Negative Mentoring interaction).

We also made specific hypotheses regarding the relationship between each facet of negative mentoring (interpersonal problems, destructive relationships, and protégé performance problems), generativity, and each facet of burnout (depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and personal accomplishment.)

Hypothesis 5b: The Interpersonal Problems X Generativity interaction and the Destructive Relationships X Generativity interaction will be stronger predictors of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion than of personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 5c: The Protégé Performance Problems X Generativity interaction will be a stronger predictor of personal accomplishment than of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion.

While we believe that some of the benefits of mentoring are dependent on this psychological characteristic of the individual, we anticipate that the organizational environment serves as a moderator as well. To the extent that the organizational recognizes and rewards the efforts of the mentor in terms of investing in protégés, burnout may be less likely. This assumes that mentoring involves some investment of resources on the mentors part, which seems reasonable based on the research reviewed earlier.

Perceived Support for Mentoring: An Organizational Moderator of the Mentoring-Burnout Relationship

Perceived organizational support (POS) is defined as the degree to which an employee believes that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). It is related to positive employee outcomes such as decreased turnover (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Eisenberger, et al., 1986), increased job attendance and performance (Eisenberger, Fasolo, Davis-LaMastro, 1990) and increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Cropanzano et al., 1997). Thus, organizational support is linked to employee behavior as well as affective reactions to the organization.

While research on burnout generally looks at support as stemming from either coworkers or supervisors, Jawahar et al. (2007) highlights the importance of support that comes from the organization as a whole in the form of perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support may be a resource that allows individuals to better understand what is expected of them and brings more predictability to the workplace (Jawahar et al., 2007). Lee and Ashforth (1996) found that perceived organizational support is related to all three burnout dimensions, with the strongest correlation existing between perceived organizational support and emotional exhaustion. Perceived organizational support for mentoring specifically has also been shown to result in more positive mentoring relationships (Eby et al., 2006) as has perceived manager support for mentoring (Parise & Forret, 2008).

POS has also been linked to reductions in burnout. Although they did not use a three dimensional model of burnout, Cropanzano et al., (1997) found that POS was related to overall burnout as well as work stress. Armstrong-Stassen (2004) also found a

negative relationship between POS and burnout in a study looking at an organization that was going through downsizing. Jawahar et al., (2007) found that POS was negatively related to both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. This suggests that the POS-burnout relationship deserves further consideration in research. It certainly holds promise as a moderator of the relationship between the potentially positive effects of mentoring and burnout.

While POS appears to be related to burnout, POS is distinct from positive organizational support for mentoring. According to Eby et al., (2006), perceived organizational support for mentoring is much more specific and refers to the degree to which there is a perception of support for mentoring behavior specifically. It is made up of both perceived management support for mentoring, or the belief that management recognizes and rewards mentoring behavior and provides role-modeling behavior for mentoring, and perceived accountability for mentoring, or the belief that there are effective channels for dealing with problems that may arise in the mentoring relationship. While POS has an affective aspect to it, positive organizational support for mentoring is more of a cognitive appraisal and refers to support for mentoring specifically and not organizational support for the individual. In a study of the effects of mentoring, it seems that it would make more sense to investigate perceived organizational support for mentoring as opposed to POS in general. This matches the specificity of the measure of support to the particular domain of interest, mentoring.

Both perceived management support and perceived accountability for mentoring have been related to positive mentoring outcomes from the protégés perspective. Eby et

al., (2006) found the perceived management support was related to protégé perceptions that they had received more psychosocial as well as career mentoring. Furthermore, the authors found that perceived accountability for mentoring was related to protégé perceptions of having a less negative relationship with their mentor. Perceived accountability was not related to positive outcomes for mentors. Rather it was related to a decreased willingness to mentor in the future.

Perceived management support, however, has been shown to have a positive impact on the mentoring relationship from the mentor's perspective. Eby et al., (2006) found that perceived managerial support was related to mentors feeling that the mentoring experience had been positive for both themselves and their protégés. Parise and Forett (2008) found the perceived management support was positively related to mentors feeling that the mentoring relationship had been a rewarding experience and negatively related to feeling that their protégé was a negative reflection upon themselves. Because of the relationship between perceived management support for mentoring and positive outcomes for mentors and the lack of such a relationship between perceived accountability for mentoring and positive outcomes for mentors, we will focus on perceived management support for mentoring. It seems likely that perceived management support for mentoring would increase the potential for mentoring to lead to reductions in burnout. An examination of the relationship between generalized POS and burnout gives insight into this potential relationship.

While there is no research specifically addressing mentoring, POS for mentoring, and burnout, there is research in related areas that may help formulate predictions

regarding this relationship. Perhaps, if POS is high, mentors in a negative mentoring relationship will be more likely to experience positive outcomes even from negative mentoring experiences, because there are external rewards for mentoring. They may also be more likely to seek out positive aspects of even the least beneficial mentor-protégé relationship.

If stress is the result of the way that a negative experience is construed by the individual as transactional theory suggests (Lazarus, 1991), POS may affect the way that stressful situations are construed by individuals. When POS is high, workers may feel that they have more resources and a higher certainty in the reliability of those resources for dealing with a stressful situation, thereby making the situation feel less stressful. If support for mentoring is perceived to be high, mentors may feel better able to deal with negative relationships because they have an additional resource, the support of the organization. Jawahar et al., (2007) point out that POS may lead to increased feelings of certainty. If perceived organizational support for mentoring is high, individuals may feel more sure that they are being recognized and will be rewarded for engaging in mentoring behavior. This should enhance the positive effects of positive mentoring experiences while minimizing the negative effects of a negative mentoring relationship.

While not directly related to the mentoring-burnout relationship, research on role conflict may help us understand the potential effects of role demands such as mentoring and how they can contribute to negate affective reactions at work. Role conflict is a factor that may contribute to burnout (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) and role conflict could potentially be a result of mentoring since mentoring draws on the resources of the mentor

and forces them to fill an additional role. Mentoring may feel like yet another role the employee has to fulfill.

Jawahar et al., (2007) found that POS had a buffering effect on the relationship between role conflict and burnout. For protégés, Lankau, Carlson, and Nielson (2006) found that role conflict partially mediated the relationship between mentoring and job attitudes such as satisfaction and commitment meaning that mentoring may affect attitudes through the effect it has on role conflict. It seems likely, that the role of mentor may lead to role conflict and stress surrounding the time required for being a good mentor and the time required for getting their regular job done. This may be exacerbated if the mentoring experience is negative. This is incorporated in conceptualization and measurement of negative mentoring experiences.

If perceived management support for mentoring is high, this role conflict will be reduced, thus allowing the positive effects of mentoring to be most apparent. While mentoring can make have a positive impact on the mentor, part of the effect may be contingent on whether the organization recognizes and rewards the efforts that the mentor invests in the relationship. Overall, it appears that POS for mentoring, specifically perceived management support for mentoring, may serve as an additional resource that may make mentoring more effective and have a greater impact on mentor burnout. Jawhar et al., (2007) viewed POS as a job resource and found that it was most strongly related to depersonalization. As a job resource, POS for mentoring should be more strongly related to the depersonalization and personal accomplishment dimensions of

burnout than to emotional exhaustion. We formulated the following hypotheses with respect to the effects of positive mentoring and perceived organizational support (POS):

Hypothesis 6a: When perceived management support for mentoring is high, mentors are more likely to have reductions in burnout as a result of positive mentoring experiences than when perceived management support for mentoring is low (Positive Mentoring X POS interaction).

Our hypothesis regarding the relationship between positive mentoring, POS for mentoring, and specific dimensions of burnout was:

Hypothesis 6b: This interaction will be a stronger predictor of the personal accomplishment and depersonalization aspects of burnout than of emotional exhaustion.

We also formulated hypotheses regarding the relationship between negative mentoring and POS for mentoring. Our general or overall expectation of the effects of negative mentoring was:

Hypothesis 7a: When perceived management support for mentoring is high, mentors are less likely to have increases in burnout as a result of negative mentoring experiences than when perceived management support for mentoring is low (Negative Mentoring X POS for mentoring interaction).

And we again formulated hypotheses regarding the interaction between specific facets of negative mentoring (interpersonal problems, destructive relationship problems, protégé performance problems), POS for mentoring, and each dimension of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment).

Hypothesis 7b: The Interpersonal Problem X POS for mentoring interaction and the Destructive Relationship X POS for mentoring interactions will be stronger predictors of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than for personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 7c: The Protégé Performance Problems X POS for mentoring interaction will be stronger for personal accomplishment than for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2006) job demands and resources interact to predict unique outcomes. When job demands are high, job resources may be the most impactful in reducing stress. If negative mentoring experiences result in increased work demands, and management support for mentoring is viewed as a job resource, management support for mentoring may be more impactful in reducing burnout for those with many negative mentoring experience than it is in reducing burnout for those with many positive mentoring experiences. Thus, we made this general hypothesis regarding the strength of POS as a moderator of negative and positive mentoring experiences:

Hypothesis 7d: The moderating effect of perceived management support on burnout will be stronger for negative mentoring experiences than positive mentoring experiences.

Potential Implications of Effects of Generativity and POS as Moderators of the Mentoring-Burnout Relationship

Generative concern is motivated both within the individual and through society which emphasizes the importance of adults taking responsibility for the next generation

(McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). An organization could also emphasize the importance of established workers helping the next generation of workers through the company's organizational culture. This can be accomplished by recognizing mentoring and other positive, supportive activities experienced by employees and by creating a supportive environment for new employees in the organization. Organization rewards for such activities could create a climate that attracts employees high in generative concern thereby increasing the positive benefits of mentoring on burnout and potentially increasing motivation for engaging in mentoring or continuing to mentor in the future. If the organization also develops a climate that is supportive of mentoring by recognizing and rewarding these activities, this may logically increase perceived management support for mentoring further increasing the positive benefits of mentoring and potentially increasing motivation to mentor in the first place.

Furthermore, knowing why a mentor is motivated to mentor may give insight into the type of mentoring that they will provide and how they can be effectively matched with protégés. Kram (1985) theorizes that individuals with generative needs may provide more coaching and counseling to their protégés than do others. This implies that they will be motivated to provide both career and psychosocial mentoring. If it is found that generativity increases positive outcomes of mentoring, future research could look deeper into the nature of this relationship.

METHOD

Participants

Participants for this study were nurses at a large hospital in the southeast. One hundred and eighty nurses participated in the survey while only 116 submitted completed surveys. Eighty-six respondents (approximately 50% of those who responded to this item) indicated that they were mentors, however, only 49 of these mentors provided complete information regarding the nature of their mentoring relationship and their level of burnout.

Demographic Information

Demographic information was gathered including participant age, gender, race, job title, tenure in current job, as well as tenure in their current occupation. Participants ranged in age from 22 to 76 with a mean age of 43.52 ($SD = 11.61$). A large majority of participants were female (94.4%) and white (92.2%). Average tenure at the hospital was 9.05 years ($SD = 8.61$) and average tenure as a nurse was 17.30 years ($SD = 12.74$). Participants were asked to indicate their work unit and job title. Participants came from 46 different units. The majority of participants (72.3%) were staff nurses and 12.3% were charge nurses. Nurse managers and directors were also included in the sample. While only 30.7% of participants indicated that they supervised others, a large majority (86.1%) indicated that they do work with less experienced nurses and 66.1% serve as preceptors indicating that the majority of participants were in a position to serve as mentors. Approximately 50% of participants reported that they were mentors and on average these mentors interacted with their protégé once a week.

Measures

Mentoring. Participants were asked if they have been a mentor in the past year at their job. Mentoring was defined for the participant using a combination of Allen's (2003) definition of mentoring as well as part of the mentor definition provided by Ragins and Cotton (1999). This was slightly modified to ask about mentoring in the past year at work: "During the past year, has there been an individual who you have taken a personal interest in at work; who you guided, sponsored, or otherwise had a positive and significant influence in their professional career development? This person may or may not be in your unit and s/he may not be your immediate subordinate. In other words have you ever been a mentor?" It is important to note that the role of "mentor" was separated from the role of "preceptor" in the directions given to participants. A preceptor is a formal role in which a senior nurse is assigned to a junior nurse to provide on the job training on technical skills. This is an assigned role with a clear beginning and ending, and differs in nature from the mentor role in that participation is not voluntary and the domain that is shared by mentor and protégé is dictated by the organization.

While there are many definitions of mentoring, we believe this definition is appropriate for the group in question. It was reported by hospital administration that much of the mentoring at the hospital occurs between nurses from different areas in the hospital.

Approximately 50% of those who responded to this item indicated that they were mentors or had served as mentors in the past year. Those who respond that they have not been mentors in the past year skipped forward in the survey to scales of generativity, burnout, and perceived support for mentoring. Those respondents who indicated that

they were no longer currently in a mentoring relationship were asked to indicate how recently the relationship ended (i.e., current, 1-3 months ago, 4-6 months ago, 7-9 months ago, or 10-12 months ago). Because burnout scores tend to be fairly consistent over time (Maslach et al., 2001), mentoring relationships that have terminated within the past year may still have an impact on current levels of burnout. As the majority of mentoring relationships were reported to be ongoing (66.7%) or ended in the last 1-3 months (18.1%) it appears that these the majority of mentoring relationships participants described were fresh in the participants' minds. Only 5.6% of reported mentoring relationships had ended 10-12 months in the past. Participants were then asked subsequent questions regarding their current or most recent mentoring relationship.

Positive mentoring experiences. Positive mentoring experiences were measured using a modified version of Ragins and Scandura's (1994) scale of anticipated benefits of mentoring. In order to reduce the total number of items on the scale while retaining those items that are most central to the construct, items from the Ragins and Scandura (1994) scale were dropped which did not receive at least 80% agreement that the item represented a benefit of mentoring in the author's original study. The authors used a 70% cut point, but we wished to pare down the scale further in an effort to increase response rates by reducing scale length. Questions were rephrased to refer to the present tense as opposed to expectations about the future. This measure contains items that reflect benefits such as improved job performance, recognition, relational benefits, a base of support, and generativity. This was measured using a 7 point Likert-type scale with 1 indicating the participant disagreed very strongly and 7 indicating the participant agreed

very strongly. A sample item is “My protégé has enhanced my reputation.” (See Appendix C). This scale showed high reliability ($\alpha = .96$).

Negative mentoring experiences. Negative mentoring experiences were measured using a shortened version of Eby et al.’s (2008b) 36-item scale. This scale measures protégé performance problems, interpersonal problems, and destructive relational patterns. Within these 3 broad categories, the authors describe 12 more specific subcategories that make up these categories. The authors include 3 items from each of these subcategories. In order to shorten the survey, 1 item was removed from each subcategory to leave only two items for each subcategory. This results in a 24 items total. The scale was reduced further with the removal of four items that hospital administration felt uncomfortable with asking of nurses. The final 20-item scale used the same 7-point Likert-type scale discussed above. A sample item is “My protégé does not seem willing to learn.” (See Appendix D).

While Eby et al., (2008b) look at the three subdimensions of negative mentoring experiences separately, in the present study, these three subdimensions were so highly correlated (intercorrelations from .67 to .93) that they were combined into one overall score of negative mentoring experiences which had high reliability ($\alpha = .98$). Since subdimensions of negative mentoring were not measured, Hypotheses relating to specific subdimensions of negative mentoring were not tested.

Burnout. Burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) slightly modified to refer “patients” as opposed to “recipients”. This scale reflects the three dimensional nature of burnout. High levels of emotional

exhaustion and depersonalization reflect burnout, while low levels of personal accomplishment reflect burnout. The test consists of 22-items relating to workplace outcomes. Respondents rate how often they experience these thoughts or feelings about work using a Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (everyday). A sample item is “In my opinion, I am good at my job” which is an item for the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout (See Appendix E). “I feel like I am at the end of my rope” is an example of an emotional exhaustion item and “I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally” is an example of a depersonalization item.

In a meta-analysis of the MBI, Worley et al., (2008) found strong support for the three dimensional nature of this scale. While the dimensions overlap, they emerge as relatively independent in factor-analytic studies of the structure of the scale.

In the present study, the three dimensions were found to be somewhat correlated, but still distinct subdimensions. Reliabilities for all three subdimensions were found to be acceptable. Cronbach’s Alpha for the emotional exhaustion subdimension was .92. The alphas for personal accomplishment and depersonalization were also acceptable ($\alpha = .76$ and $\alpha = .73$ respectively).

Generative Concern. Generative concern was measured using a modified version of the Loyola Generativity Scale (LGS) developed by McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992). Seven items from the original LGS were maintained which were viewed as most representative of the desire to pass on information to others. These items were reworded to apply specifically to generativity at work. Respondents rated these items using a 7-point Likert-like scale with a 1 indicating that the statement never applied to them and a 7

indicating that the statement nearly always applied to them. A sample item is “I have important skills that I try to teach those I work with.” This has been modified from the original scale which uses the phrasing, “I have important skills that I try to teach others” (See Appendix F). The LGS has been shown to be minimally associated with social desirability (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). As noted earlier, this scale has also been successfully used in several studies attempting to tap the potential positive impact of generative concern on logically related outcomes (Ackerman et al., 2000, Clark & Arnold, 1998). The full scale has shown high internal consistency with alpha coefficients of .83 (McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992). In the present study, the shortened version of the scale was found to have an alpha coefficient of .90.

Perceived managerial support for mentoring. Perceived organizational support for mentoring is defined by Eby et al., (2006) as consisting of perceived managerial support for mentoring as well as perceived accountability for mentoring. Perceived accountability for mentoring was not related to positive outcomes for mentoring in Eby et al.’s (2006) study while perceived managerial support for mentoring was. We used only the perceived management support dimension of Eby et al.’s (2006) measure. This scale consists of 6 items using a 7-point Likert-like scale. Although this scale is fairly new, reported reliabilities are high. Eby et al., (2006) report a reliability for the scale of .86 while Parise and Forret (2008) report a reliability of .81. For the present study, Cronbach’s Alpha was found to be .82. A sample item is “This hospital promotes mentoring opportunities.” (See Appendix G).

Motivation to mentor. The hospital requested information regarding nurse's motivation to mentor. Motivation to mentor was measured using Allen's (2003) motivation to mentor scale. This scale consists of 11 items that were measured using a 7-point Likert-like scale. This measure is made up of three factors: self-enhancement, benefit others, and intrinsic satisfaction. We have not included any formal hypotheses as to the nature of the relationship between this measure and other factors.

Future mentoring interest. The survey also included a section in which participants were asked if they would be interested in providing mentoring in the future. They were asked if they would be interested in providing mentoring in specific areas of nursing expertise, performance feedback, social support, or career advice and to describe specifically what type of mentoring they would be able to provide. They were also asked how much time they would be willing to devote to mentoring in the future. At the bottom of this section, participants were asked to provide their name if they wished for this information to be conveyed to the hospital. While this is not part of the formal study, this information was forwarded to the hospital so that mentors and protégés could potentially be effectively matched in the future.

Procedure

Participants for this study were recruited via their hospital email address through emails sent by their nurse managers. Several reminder emails were also sent in an attempt to increase response rate. The emails contained a link that participants could follow which took them to an online survey. Participants were informed that the study was for research purposes only and their personal responses would not be shared with the

organization. They were also told that their participation was anonymous and there was no information linking their responses to their identity. Completion of the survey indicated their consent for their answers to be documented and analyzed.

All participants reported basic demographic information. Those participants who reported that they are mentors/have mentored in the past year were then asked about the duration of this relationship and how often they interact with their mentor. They were also asked a number of questions regarding the nature of their mentoring relationship. Participants who reported that they were not currently mentors and have not mentored in the past year bypassed the section on the nature of the relationship and were forwarded to subsequent scales on burnout, generativity, perceived support for mentoring, and their future interest in mentoring. Mentors also completed these scales. If participants wished to, they could complete an optional section of the survey where they provided their name so they could be contacted regarding future mentoring opportunities. Participants were informed that this was the only individual information that would be forwarded to the hospital and that it would not be linked to their responses to other questions.

Analysis

Before subsequent analyses were conducted, descriptive statistics were evaluated to check for normalcy of the data. Data was shown to be sufficiently normal (Mardia's Coefficient = 1.80) so robust estimation was not used. Univariate outliers were screened for and outlier scores which were more than 3 standard deviations from the mean were recoded to the next closest score. Given the small sample size and the need to retain participants, this method was deemed to be appropriate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Only five values were recoded. All independent variables were subsequently mean centered. Path analysis results indicated that one case consistently contributed to multivariate kurtosis, and this case was removed from the data set. All scales were checked for internal consistency, and found to fall in the acceptable range.

Our hypotheses were tested using path analysis. Path analysis is preferential to simple regression in this case because it allowed us to explicitly model the covariance between the different dimensions of burnout which are our dependent variables. It also allowed us to more easily test hypotheses regarding the differential prediction of positive and negative mentoring for different subdimensions of burnout.

Because of the relatively small sample size, analyzing the entire model in one step was not deemed appropriate as it would reduce degrees of freedom. Model 1 contained the main effects of our main variables of interest, positive and negative mentoring experiences only. Then generativity and perceived management support for mentoring were entered to assess their main effects on burnout in Model 2. Finally, interaction variables were included in the model one at a time to determine if they had a significant relationship with the outcome variables to test the moderating effects of generativity and perceived organizational support.

Figure 2 depicts the path analysis model that was used to test the positive mentoring by generativity interaction. The final interaction term was replaced and rerun with the other action terms to test those interactions independently. This process allowed us to conduct our analyses hierarchically while maintaining degrees of freedom.

New interaction variables were created by multiplying the generativity variable by the positive and negative mentoring variables to test the hypotheses incorporating generativity as a moderator. Then a model with the main effects and the interaction term for positive mentoring and generativity was analyzed. Another model which included the interaction term for negative mentoring and generativity was analyzed separately. The significance of path coefficients between these new interaction variables and our dependent variables allowed us to test hypotheses 4a and 5a and determine if generativity had a moderating effect in the relationship between mentoring and burnout.

We also tested the potential moderating effects of perceived organizational support. Interaction variables were created by multiplying the management support for mentoring scale by our positive and negative mentoring variables. Then a model with the main effects and the interaction term for positive mentoring and management support for mentoring was analyzed. Another model which included the interaction term for negative mentoring and management support for mentoring was analyzed separately. This allowed us to test Hypothesis 6a and Hypothesis 7a to determine if management support for mentoring serves as a moderator in the relationship between mentoring and burnout.

To test for differential prediction relationships between positive mentoring and different burnout dimensions, the main effect model was constrained to force these paths to be equivalent. Chi-squared difference tests between the models in which paths to different burnout dimensions were constrained to be equal and the original model in which paths were not constrained allowed us to test for differential prediction. If the

constrained model was found to be significantly worse than the unconstrained model as indicated by the chi-squared difference test, it was determined that the constrained paths were not equivalent, or that the effects of positive and negative mentoring were not equivalent across burnout dimensions.

Chi-squared difference tests were also used to test hypotheses 3a and 3b to determine if positive or negative mentoring is more strongly related to different burnout dimensions. Again, if constraining the model caused significant harm to the chi-square value, it was evidence that the relationships were not equivalent. The small sample size was not sufficient to test for the hypothesized differential prediction of interaction terms.

Finally, while no formal hypotheses were made regarding differences between mentors and non-mentors, analyses were conducted to compare burnout scores for these two groups. Differences in generativity levels, perceptions of management support and relevant demographic information were also examined. A MANOVA was run with the demographics thought to be most relevant; age, tenure at the hospital, and tenure in the job. T-tests were used to determine if the two groups differed in levels of generativity and perceived management support. Finally, MANOVA was used with the three burnout dimensions entered as dependent variables to determine if there were group differences between mentors and non mentors in reported levels of burnout.

RESULTS

Although data collected was for both mentors and nonmentors, mentors were the main focus of the present study and therefore we provide results pertinent to this subsample throughout the results segment. Table 1 shows means and standard deviations

for variables of interest for the full sample. Table 2 shows the correlations between the variables of interest for mentors only as well as the means and standard deviations of these variables for mentors only.

We examined the relationship between positive and negative mentoring in the subsample of mentors, and found that the two shared approximately 10% of their variance ($r = -.42$). The correlation was significant but low, supporting prior research that the two were not simply endpoints on the same continuum. Thus, they were used as separate predictors in the current study.

As can be seen in Table 2, one dimension of burnout, emotional exhaustion, had a significant relationship with both positive mentoring ($r = -.31$) and negative mentoring ($r = .35$) in the anticipated direction. Positive and negative mentoring were not significantly correlated with any other burnout dimensions. Positive mentoring also had a significant direct relationship with generativity ($r = .50$) and management support for mentoring ($r = .59$) while negative mentoring was negatively related to generativity ($r = -.36$) and management support for mentoring ($r = -.32$) variables.

A path analysis of only the main effects of mentoring and burnout showed that none of the predicted main effects involving positive and negative mentoring reached statistical significance when the model was tested. Parameter estimates, standard errors, and z-scores are reported in Table 3. These relationships were all in the anticipated direction, but the small sample likely contributed to the lack of statistically significant results.

Next, generativity and management support for mentoring were added to the path analysis to assess their main effects on the burnout dimensions although no formal hypothesis were made regarding the simple effects of these variables. Parameter estimates, standard errors, and z-scores are reported in Table 3. Generativity was found to be negatively related to emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.36, z = - 2.11, p < .05$). Greater levels of generativity were associated with lower levels of emotional exhaustion. When generativity and management support were entered into the analyses, there was a reversal in sign in the relationship between positive mentoring and emotional exhaustion indicating net suppression. This suppression was nonsignificant, however, it caused the reported relationship between generativity and emotional exhaustion to be slightly inflated.

Generativity was also found to be negatively related to the depersonalization dimension of burnout ($\beta = -.32, z = - 2.48, p < .05$). Given that generativity involves a desire to help others and depersonalization involves a desire to distance oneself from others, this negative relationship between the two variables is not surprising.

Moderator Analysis

Finally, generativity and management support for mentoring were assessed as potential moderators of the mentoring-burnout relationship. The following interactions were tested for significance: Generativity X Positive Mentoring (Hypothesis 4a); Generativity X Negative Mentoring (Hypothesis 5a); Management Support X Positive Mentoring (Hypothesis 6a) and Management Support X Negative Mentoring (Hypothesis 7a). The results of the analyses of all four interactions can be seen in Table 4.

The first interaction term examined was the interaction between generativity and positive mentoring. The path analysis was rerun with this interaction term included in the model. The interaction between positive mentoring and generativity was significant in the prediction of personal accomplishment ($\beta = -.46, z = -2.66, p < .01$). This interaction did not significantly predict either of the other burnout dimensions. An analysis of simple slopes revealed that the relationship between positive mentoring and personal accomplishment was positive at low levels of generativity (slope = .50), but negative at high levels of generativity (slope = -.31). This interaction is depicted in Figure 3. This interaction is not consistent with Hypothesis 4a which actually predicted a greater reduction in burnout (or a greater increase in personal accomplishment scores) for those with higher levels of generativity. The interaction shows that those low in generativity actually showed the greatest increase in feelings of personal accomplishment with positive mentoring while those high in generativity actually showed reductions in personal accomplishment with more positive mentoring experiences. It may be that very high levels of generativity were able to sustain mentors regardless of whether their mentoring relationship was beneficial. Those who were very low in generativity benefitted more from the external support they got through positive mentoring experiences.

The positive mentoring by generativity interaction term was replaced with the negative mentoring by generativity interaction term to determine if generativity moderated this relationship (Hypothesis 5a). There was a significant interaction between negative mentoring and generativity in the prediction of personal accomplishment ($\beta =$

.58, $z = 3.37$, $p < .01$). This interaction did not predict either of the other burnout dimensions. Simple slopes revealed that the relationship between negative mentoring and personal accomplishment is negative at low levels of generativity (slope = $-.67$) but positive at high levels of generativity (slope = $.36$). This interaction is depicted in Figure 4. As hypothesized, generativity appears to buffer against the negative effects of negative mentoring on personal accomplishment. This appears to be consistent with the positive mentoring by generativity interaction proposed in Hypothesis 5a. Those who are higher in generativity may be more resilient and possess more internal resources, so they are less impacted by the external resources that may be associated with mentoring.

Next, the moderating effect of management support for mentoring was examined (Hypothesis 6a). The interaction between positive mentoring and management support was added to the main effects model. The interaction between positive mentoring and management support was not found to be significant in the prediction of any of the burnout dimensions.

Finally, the interaction between negative mentoring and management support was included in the analysis (Hypothesis 7a). The interaction between negative mentoring and management support was significant in the prediction of personal accomplishment ($\beta = .45$, $z = 2.01$, $p < .05$). This interaction did not predict either of the other burnout dimensions. Simple slopes revealed that at low levels of management support the relationship between personal accomplishment and negative mentoring is negative (slope = $-.74$) while at high levels of management support the relationship is positive (slope = $.15$). This interaction is depicted in Figure 5. As predicted in Hypothesis 7a, management

support for mentoring appears to buffer against the negative effects of negative mentoring on personal accomplishment.

In summary, Hypothesis 4a regarding a stronger relationship between positive mentoring and decreased burnout for those high in generativity was not supported. In fact those low in generativity actually showed more increased levels of personal accomplishment with more positive experiences than did those with higher generativity. Hypothesis 5a was partially supported. Generativity does appear to buffer against the negative effects of negative mentoring on burnout for only one burnout dimension; personal accomplishment. Likewise Hypothesis 7a was partially supported as management support for mentoring appears to buffer against the negative effects of negative mentoring on personal accomplishment but not other burnout dimensions. Hypothesis 6a was not supported. Management support for mentoring was not associated with greater reductions in burnout for those reporting a high level of positive mentoring experiences. It appears that management support and generativity can serve as buffers against the negative effects of negative mentoring on personal accomplishment. This finding is consistent with the JD-R model in that generativity served as a personal resource while management support for mentoring served as a job resource and both were able to buffer against decreases in personal accomplishment which is thought to be more strongly related to job resources according to this model.

Differential Prediction

Several hypotheses related to differential relationships between positive and negative mentoring and different burnout dimensions were tested. Although none of the

relationships between positive and negative mentoring were significant, these hypotheses were still tested to determine if different paths were significantly different from one another.

Hypotheses 1b was not supported. The relationship between positive mentoring and personal accomplishment was not significantly different from the relationship between positive mentoring and emotional exhaustion (χ^2 difference = 1.04). The positive mentoring-emotional exhaustion relationship was significantly different from the positive mentoring-depersonalization relationship (χ^2 difference = 7.39). Thus, while the positive mentoring-emotional exhaustion relationship was not significantly different from zero, positive mentoring was a stronger predictor of emotional exhaustion than depersonalization contrary to our hypothesis and the JD-R model.

The relationship between negative mentoring and emotional exhaustion was significantly different than the relationship between positive mentoring and emotional exhaustion (χ^2 difference = 7.78). This gives some support to the hypothesis that different mentoring experiences differentially predict burnout outcomes. However, our results did not indicate differences between positive and negative mentoring and the other burnout dimensions. The relationships between negative mentoring and depersonalization and negative mentoring and personal accomplishment were not significantly different than the relationships between positive mentoring and these outcomes (χ^2 difference = .90 and 3.03 respectively).

Differences Between Mentors and Nonmentors

Mentors and nonmentors were compared on a number of factors such as demographics, burnout, generativity, and perceptions of management support for mentoring. While mentors did not significantly differ from nonmentors in terms of age ($F = 3.01, p > .05$) or years at the hospital ($F = .71, p > .05$), there were significant differences in the amount of time they had been in their occupation ($F = 10.55, p < .01$). On average, mentors reported spending 20.2 years in their occupation while nonmentors had spent only 13.9 years in the occupation. Given that informal mentoring is more common among more experienced, later career individuals, this result is not unusual.

Mentors and nonmentors did not significantly differ in perceived management support for mentoring ($t = -.62, p > .05$). There were significant group differences in reported generativity between the two groups ($t = -2.79, p < .01$). Mentors reported a mean generativity score of 5.85, while nonmentors reported a mean generativity score of only 5.40. Mentors and nonmentors did not differ in reported levels of burnout for any of the burnout dimensions.

DISCUSSION

These results do not indicate a significant relationship between either positive or negative mentoring and burnout, although several of these relationships approached significance and all results were in the anticipated direction. Some support was found for the general hypothesis that positive and negative mentoring experiences are distinct and are differentially related to outcomes. Emotional exhaustion was shown to be differentially related to positive and negative mentoring and the test for differential prediction for personal accomplishment approached significance. Type of mentoring

experience may be more important than simply engaging in mentoring which does not appear to buffer against burnout as mentors and nonmentors did not differ in their reported levels of burnout.

Generativity emerged as an importation variable in this study. Although researchers (i.e. McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992) have often discussed mentoring as a form of generativity, the exact nature of the relationship between mentoring and generativity is still unclear. Parise & Forret (2008) discussed generativity as an outcome associated with mentoring while Allen et al. (1997) discussed generativity as a motivational factor for mentoring. Our findings suggest that mentoring may affect both the motivation to mentor and the positive outcomes associated with mentoring. Not only did generativity differentiate mentors and nonmentors, it was also predictive of two of the burnout dimensions, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and was a moderator in the relationship between personal accomplishment and both positive and negative mentoring.

Generativity appears to be a valuable internal resource. Those who have this resource may not be impacted as negatively by external factors including those that can result from negative mentoring experiences. Those who do not possess this internal resource (those low in generativity) are more impacted by both positive and negative mentoring experiences perhaps because they do not have this internal resource to buffer against negative work experiences, including negative mentoring, and they are in need of the external resources associated with positive mentoring. They may be more in need of

the recognition and rewards that go along with mentoring and perhaps more in need of the positive social interaction that may be the result of positive mentoring.

While generativity has not been given much consideration in the workplace, it does appear to play an important role in informal mentoring at work. Generativity predicts who is willing to mentor, and the opportunity to mentor may be an incentive in recruiting or retaining late career individuals who have this need. While the outcomes of generativity (generative actions) may be similar in many ways to prosocial work behavior, it seems that the motivation to engage in this type of behavior (i.e. the desire to pass on information, the belief that helping the next generation of workers is valuable) differs in that it is more internalized.

Understanding the role of generativity may also help organizations interested in starting a mentoring program target potential mentors. Generativity appears to be an individual difference variable that can be impacted by situations. In fact, research has shown that individuals may differ in levels of generativity at different stages in their lives (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992), indicating that this variable is not completely static. If generativity can be increased in workers by stressing the value of helping less experienced workers and passing on valuable knowledge and skills, this may increase participation in mentoring as well as positive outcomes associated with mentoring.

Generativity may also potentially buffer against burnout. Those who are concerned with helping their fellow workers are not as likely to distance themselves from their jobs ($r = -.33$) and are not as likely to be emotionally exhausted by their jobs ($r = -.47$). In this sample, the majority of respondents worked with less experienced nurses.

Nursing at this hospital may present many opportunities for fulfilling generative concern through generative action by teaching less experienced nurses even outside of mentoring relationships. This may be fulfilling to more experienced nurses and help explain the negative relationship between generativity and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Generativity was also found to buffer against the negative effects of negative mentoring on personal accomplishment. It appears that for those who are high in generative concern, negative mentoring experiences do not affect their sense of personal accomplishment, while those low in generative concern find that negative mentoring relationships decrease their feelings of personal accomplishment. Perhaps those who are high in generativity are less likely to focus on negative aspects of mentoring even though they can occur. Protégé performance problems were reported most frequently as negative mentoring experiences in this sample. It may be that generative individuals see protégés with performance problems as individuals who need more help rather than a poor reflection on themselves. Those who are less generative may focus on negative experiences and may feel that these problems do reflect poorly on their own performance and sense of accomplishment.

The moderating role of generativity in the relationship between positive mentoring and personal accomplishment found in this study was not anticipated and is difficult to explain. These findings may be related to the role that generativity plays as an internal resource. Several of the positive mentoring experiences included in the measure relate to being recognized or rewarded for mentoring as well as other external benefits.

Highly generative individuals may engage in mentoring for more internal rewards than external rewards. Those who do not have high generative needs may actually benefit more from the positive interactions and support associated with a productive protégé than those who are more generative and internally motivated. Perhaps for those individuals lower in internal resources, external rewards associated with mentoring may increase their sense of accomplishment at work.

Viewing generativity as an individual difference variable as opposed to a life stage (Erikson, 1950) seems to be much more beneficial to organizational psychologists. Our suggestions assume that an individual's level of generativity can be modified through intervention. McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) discuss the generative concern as a factor that is motivated both from within the individual and from societal pressure suggesting that organizational climate could modify levels of generative concern. Future research is necessary to determine if an individual's level of generative concern can in fact be modified. If generative concern in workers can be modified, this could potentially contribute to greater motivation to mentor, more positive mentoring relationships and decreased burnout.

Management support for mentoring was also shown to buffer against the effects of negative mentoring on personal accomplishment. If a mentor is experiencing a particularly negative mentoring relationship and they also feel that engaging in mentoring is not supported or rewarded by management, they likely feel that they are not achieving anything positive by mentoring, and this in turn may negatively impact their sense of personal accomplishment. If, on the other hand, management is highly supportive of

mentoring and recognizes and rewards this behavior, their feelings of personal accomplishment may not be impacted because simply by mentoring they are doing something that is considered valuable in their organization.

The lack of significant findings in the relationship between positive and negative mentoring and burnout is surprising. Eby et al., (2008b) found that some aspects of both positive and negative mentoring were related to decreased emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, many factors that are conceptually very similar to positive mentoring outcomes have been found to be negatively related to burnout. Negative mentoring outcomes are conceptually very similar to many known predictors of burnout.

One explanation for the lack of significant findings in the relationship between positive and negative mentoring and burnout is the relatively small sample size used in this study. Generativity, which was found to be significantly related to two of the dependent variables, appears to be a more robust predictor in this sample and thus was not as negatively impacted by small sample size. While a fairly large number of nurses participated in the survey, only 62% of the surveys were completed in full. The length of the survey may have contributed to this drop-out rate. Most of those who did not complete the entire survey exited the survey before reaching the end. There was also a considerable difference in the number of participants who filled out the positive mentoring section of the survey but did not fill out the negative mentoring section of the survey which immediately followed. Only 80% of those who filled out the positive mentoring section filled out the negative mentoring section. Some of these individuals did go on to complete other sections of the survey. It may be that the nature of these

questions made participants uncomfortable in responding. This further reduced the number of participants for whom we had complete data. Although confidentiality was assured, the actual link to the survey did come from the participant's nurse manager which could have contributed to nurses not wishing to be completely candid in their assessment of their protégés.

Some of the scales of interest in this study also suffered from range restriction. The average negative mentoring score was only 1.85 using a 7-point scale. The highest reported score on this scale was only a four. Similarly, the average score for the entire sample on the depersonalization scale was 1.64 using a 7-point scale. As shown in Table 1, in general, participants in this study reported very few negative mentoring experiences and low levels of burnout. It may be that those with low burnout were the most willing to fill out the survey in the first place. The low reports of negative mentoring and burnout (especially depersonalization) may have made results more difficult to detect especially in combination with the small sample size.

Data from more respondents is necessary to examine the relationship between positive and negative mentoring and burnout in more detail. It seems likely that there is a relationship between mentoring and burnout, but we did not have a large enough sample size to detect this relationship. While our findings are not statistically significant, they indicate that more research with a larger sample size is warranted.

Our findings offer some support the idea that positive and negative mentoring are distinct from one another and may differentially predict outcomes. Future research on mentoring should take this into consideration when discussing the outcomes of mentoring

relationships for both mentors and protégés. As other researchers (i.e. Eby et al., 2008b) have also argued, it is not sufficient to assume that the only outcomes associated with mentoring will be positive. While many organizations wish to increase participation in mentoring and may implement formal mentoring programs, care should be taken to maximize positive experiences of mentors and to minimize negative experiences of mentors. Mentoring programs may not be successful if they provide little training, encouragement, or support for mentors.

Although more research is necessary on which organizational factors result in the most positive mentoring relationships, our findings shed some light on this question. Mentors reported protégé performance problems as the most common negative mentoring experience. To minimize this negative experience, organizations may wish to provide training or assistance to those who are experiencing problems with the performance of their protégés. For example, organizations could survey protégés to discover the areas in which they feel they would benefit most in terms of training, and then recruit mentors to provide this training. Although it would be most beneficial to provide this at the individual level, the mentors could provide information relevant to performance problems to groups of protégés as well.

Given our finding that management support for mentoring was able to buffer against the negative effects of negative mentoring on personal accomplishment, it appears that supportive management is critical for an organization to have successful mentoring relationships. It seems likely that recognizing and rewarding mentoring may make mentoring relationship more positive for some mentors and may minimize the negative

impact of negative relationships. It is also worth noting that there was a significant correlation between such support and the presence of positive mentoring ($r = .59$). Given the multiple demands on nurses, providing incentives for mentoring and positive recognition for mentoring may encourage later career nurses to make the commitment to a mentor-protégé relationship.

For those mentors who are motivated to mentor through generative concern rather than organizational recognition, the external incentives of recognizing and rewarding mentoring may not be as critical. For this reason, mentoring should also be advertised by the organization as an opportunity to give back to less experienced nurses and as an opportunity to use knowledge and skills to help others. This should not only encourage more mentoring, but may enhance the positive outcomes of mentoring. Organizations may be able to contribute to the quality of even informal mentoring relationships, but more research is necessary on exactly what organizational factors are most beneficial.

In summary, results of the current research suggest that generativity and positive management support for mentoring may both be important considerations for organizations interested in encouraging protégé-mentor relationships. Both structural variables such as the organizational reward system for mentoring and an individual variable, the need to “give back” to others, deserve further consideration in the mentoring literature.

APPENDICIES

Appendix A

Demographic Information

1. Age: _____
2. Gender (please check)
Male _____
Female _____
3. Race: _____
4. How long have you been working in your current job at the Hospital? (round to the nearest year) _____
5. How long have you been working in the same occupation either at this Hospital or elsewhere? (round to the nearest year) _____
6. Do you supervise others in your job at the Hospital?
Yes _____
No _____
If you do supervise others, how many employees do you supervise? _____
7. Do you work with less experienced nurses at the hospital?
Yes _____
No _____
8. Which unit do you work in at the hospital? _____
9. Do you serve as a preceptor?
Yes _____
No _____

Appendix B

Assessment of Mentoring Behavior

We would like to understand the factors that predict interest in becoming a mentor. We would like to know if you have ever served as a mentor. When we use the term "mentor" we are asking if there has been an individual who you have taken a personal interest in at work; someone how you have guided, sponsored, or otherwise had a positive and significant influence in their professional career development. This individual may or may not be in your unit and s/he may not be your immediate subordinate.

1. During the past year, have you served as a mentor to another employee at the hospital? (This should go beyond merely serving as a preceptor).

Yes_____

No_____

2. Is this mentoring relationship (please choose one)

Ongoing_____

Ended in the last 1-3 months_____

Ended in the last 4-6 months_____

Ended in the last 7-9 months_____

Ended in the last 10-12 months_____

3. If this relationship is over, what was the reason for terminating the relationship

Other person left the hospital_____

They no longer needed mentoring_____

We had personal differences_____

Other (please describe)

4. In general, how often do you/did you interact with the employee that you mentor?

A few times a year_____

Once a month_____

Once a week_____

Daily_____

5. What is/was the duration of this mentoring relationship?

1-3 months_____

4-6 months_____

6 months-1 year_____

Over 1 year_____

6. Have you engaged in other mentoring before this relationship?

Yes_____

No_____

7. Have you ever had a mentor in the past?

Yes_____

No_____

Appendix C

Positive Mentoring Experience

1. I get a sense of fulfillment by passing on wisdom on to others.
2. Serving as a mentor has been one of the most positive experiences in my career.
3. Mentoring makes me feel better about myself.
4. My protégé has enhanced my reputation.
5. I have gained a sense of satisfaction by passing on my insights to another.
6. My creativity has increased from mentoring others.
7. Mentoring has had a positive impact on my job.
8. My job has been rejuvenated by this relationship.
9. Mentoring has been a catalyst for innovation.
10. Mentoring has had a positive impact on my job performance.
11. My protégé is a positive reflection on my competency.
12. I have obtained positive recognition in my organization for assuming a mentoring role.
13. I have received recognition from my superiors for developing the talent of my protégé.
14. I have gained status amongst my peers for mentoring.

Appendix D

Negative Mentoring Experience

Protégé Performance Problems.

1. My protégé has performance problems on the job.
2. My protégé's performance does not meet my expectations.
3. My protégé does not seem interested in learning better ways to do things.
4. My protégé is reluctant to change his/her behavior in response to feedback.

Interpersonal Problems.

1. This protégé and I have conflicting personalities.
2. Our relationship suffers because of interpersonal conflicts.
3. I feel that our relationship is not as satisfying as it used to be.
4. I feel that my protégé is no longer as loyal to me as he/she once was.
5. My protégé uses flattery to make me like him/her more.
6. My protégé engages in political game-playing.
7. My protégé is too dependent on our mentoring relationship.
8. My protégé has trouble doing things without a lot of guidance from me.

Destructive Relationship Patterns.

1. My protégé lets his/her personal goals take priority over interests of others.
2. My protégé acts like he/she is better than others.
3. My protégé has misled me.
4. My protégé sometimes distorts the truth.
5. My protégé tries to damage my reputation at work.

6. My protégé attempts to “get back” at me.
7. My protégé is jealous of my work accomplishments.
8. My protégé seems to resent my success at work.

Appendix E

Maslach Burnout Inventory

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work. (EE)
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday. (EE)
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job. (EE)
4. I can easily understand how my patients feel about things. (PA)
5. I feel I treat some patients as if they were impersonal objects. (D)
6. Working with people all day is really a strain for me. (EE)
7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my patients. (PA)
8. I feel burned out from my work. (EE)
9. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work. (PA)
10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job. (D)
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally. (D)
12. I feel very energetic. (PA)
13. I feel frustrated by my job. (EE)
14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job. (EE)
15. I don't really care what happens to some patients. (D)
16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me. (EE)
17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my patients. (PA)
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my patients. (PA)
19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job. (PA)

20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope. (EE)
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly. (PA)
22. I feel patients blame me for some of their problems. (D)

Appendix F

Generative Concern

1. I try to pass along the knowledge I have gained through my experiences to my coworkers.
2. I have made and created things at my job that have had an impact on other people.
3. I have important job skills that I try to teach those I work with.
4. In general, my actions have a positive effect on others I work with.
5. I feel as though I have made valuable contributions to those I work with.
6. I have a responsibility to improve the hospital in which I work.
7. People at work come to me for advice.

Appendix G

Perceived Managerial Support for Mentoring

1. Upper administration in this university serves as a role model for mentors.
2. This university encourages employees to be mentors.
3. This university promotes mentoring opportunities.
4. There are few rewards available in this university for mentoring others (reverse coded).
5. Mentors in this university receive little recognition for their efforts (reverse coded).
6. Mentoring relationships are not reinforced by the leaders in this university (reversed coded).

Appendix H

Motivation to Mentor

1. To enhance your visibility within the hospital.
2. To enhance your reputation in the unit.
3. To earn respect from others in the hospital.
4. To increase your support base within the hospital.
5. To benefit your hospital.
6. A desire to build/develop a competent workforce within your hospital.
7. A desire to help others succeed at the hospital.
8. To ensure that knowledge and information is passed on to others.
9. The personal pride that mentoring someone brings.
10. The personal gratification that comes from seeing the protégé develop and grow.
11. To gain a sense of self-satisfaction by passing on insights.

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Figure 1
Initial Model

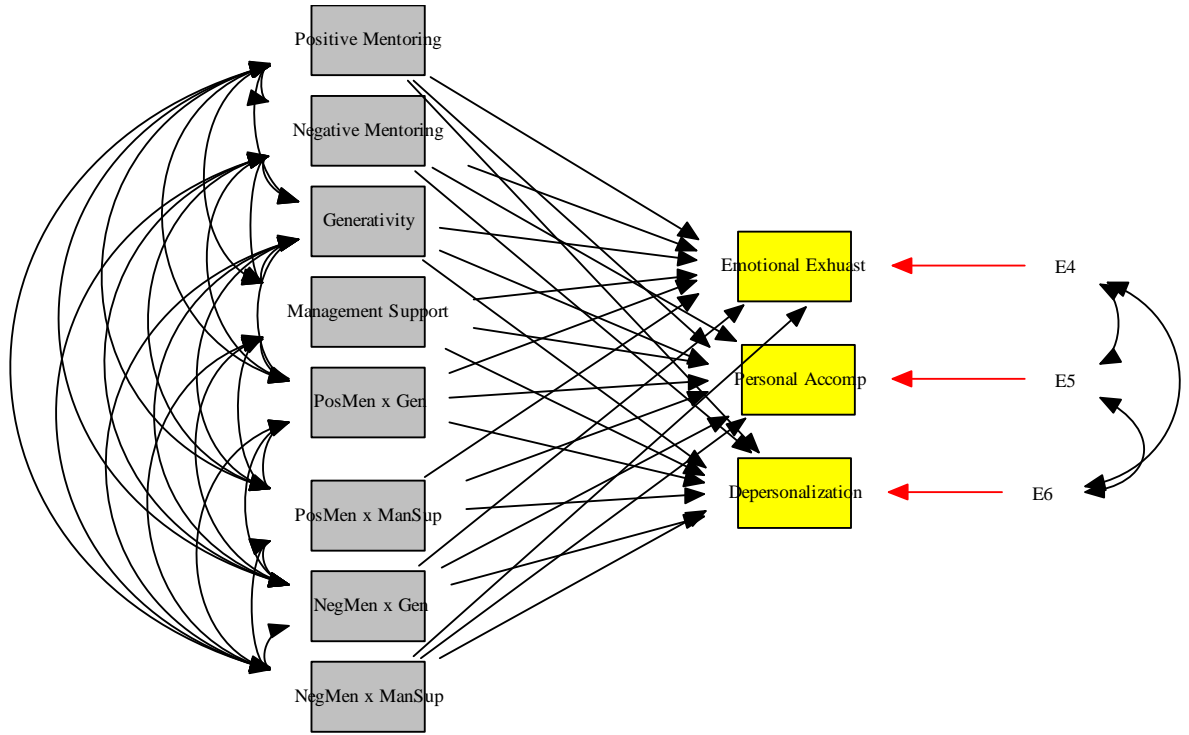


Figure 2
Path Analysis

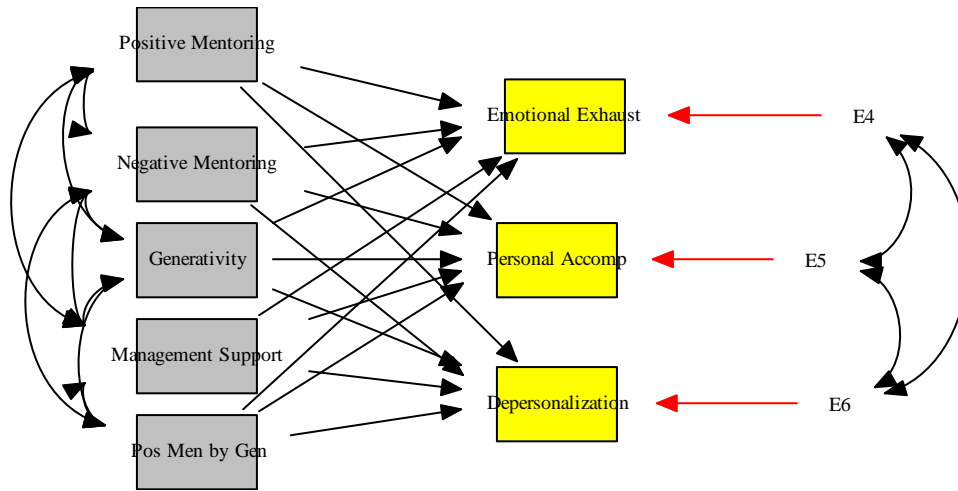


Figure 3
Positive Mentoring by Generativity Interaction

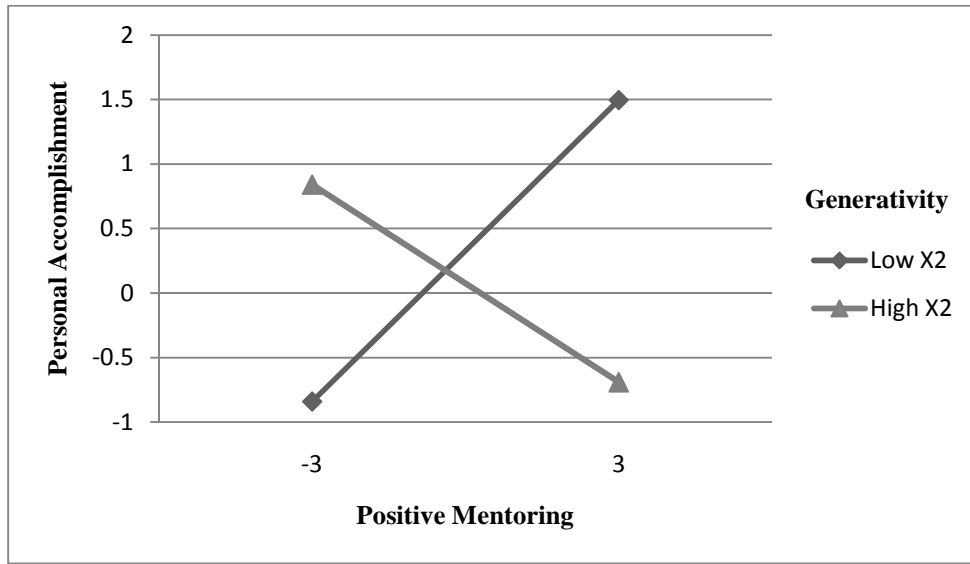


Figure 4
Negative Mentoring by Generativity Interaction

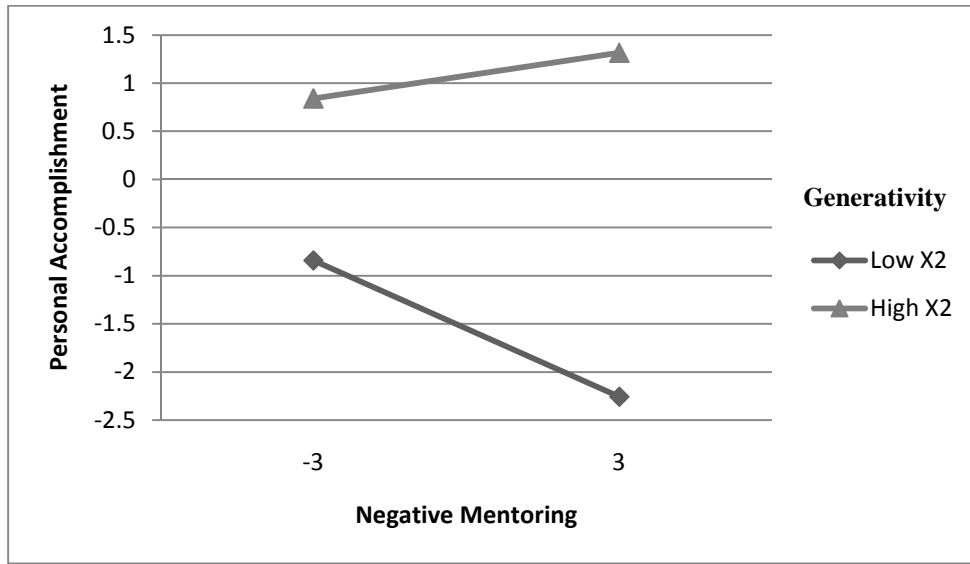


Figure 5
Negative Mentoring by Management Support for Mentoring Interaction

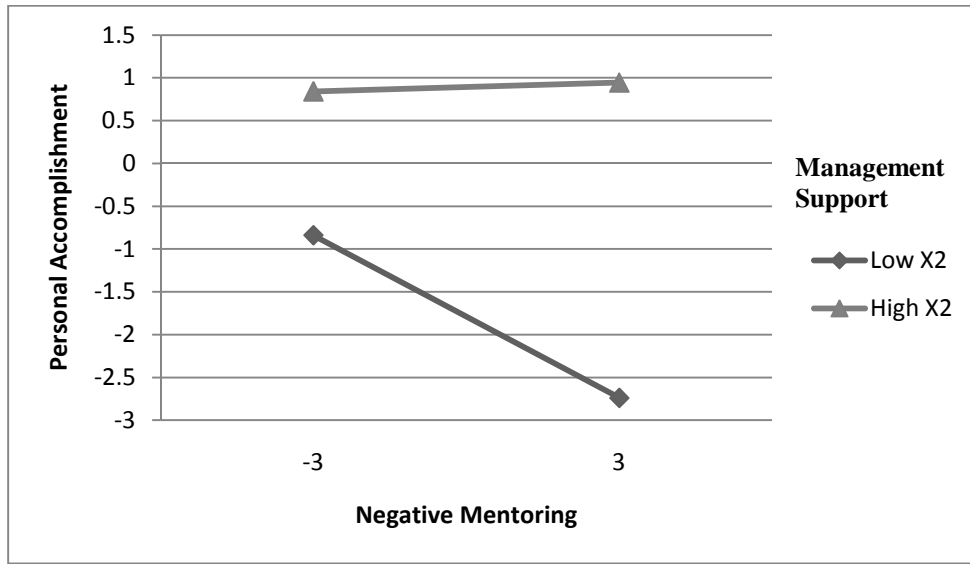


Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Full Sample

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Emotional Exhaustion	2.80	1.19
Personal Accomplishment	5.88	.85
Depersonalization	1.64	.89
Generativity	5.58	.89
Management Support	4.41	1.11
Age	43.51	11.61
Years at Hospital	9.05	8.61
Years in Occupation	17.29	12.74

Table 2
Correlations Between Variables, Means and Standard Deviations for Mentors

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Emotional Exhaustion	2.64	1.02									
2. Personal Accomplishment	5.83	.94	-.26								
3. Depersonalization	1.56	.72	.74**	-.41**							
4. Positive Mentoring	5.60	.91	-.31*	.15	.00						
5. Negative Mentoring	1.85	.84	.35*	-.26	.20	-.42**					
6. Generativity	5.85	.88	-.47*	.28	-.33*	.50**	-.36*				
7. Management Support	4.49	.99	-.43**	.27	-.12	.59**	-.32*	.50**			
8. Age	44.99	10.97	-.24	.12	-.30*	-.02	-.01	.12	.01		
9. Years at the Hospital	9.53	8.86	-.12	.03	-.17	-.05	.07	.02	-.12	.44**	
10. Years in Occupation	19.89	12.65	-.27	-.02	-.18	.05	-.07	.15	.20	.85**	.51**

Table 3

Parameter Estimates, Standard Errors, and Z-scores for Models 1 and 2

	Dependent Variables	Predictors	Unstandardized Estimate (Standardized Estimate)	Standard Error	Z-Score
Model 1	Emotional Exhaustion	Positive Mentoring	-.215 (-.189)	.169	-1.271
		Negative Mentoring	.331 (.263)	.188	1.765
	Personal Accomplishment	Positive Mentoring	.046 (.044)	.162	.281
		Negative Mentoring	-.273 (-.237)	.180	-1.518
	Depersonalization	Positive Mentoring	.094 (.118)	.126	.748
		Negative Mentoring	.228 (.256)	.140	1.629
Model 2	Emotional Exhaustion	Positive Mentoring	.106 (.093)	.185	.571
		Negative Mentoring	.242 (.192)	.173	1.398
		Generativity	-.359* (-.311)	.170	-2.111
		Management Support	-.280 (-.272)	.161	-1.740
	Personal Accomplishment	Positive Mentoring	-.151 (-.145)	.189	-.798
		Negative Mentoring	-.222 (-.192)	.176	-1.256
		Generativity	.195 (.184)	.174	1.125
		Management Support	.188 (.199)	.164	1.145
	Depersonalization	Positive Mentoring	.152 (.314)	.142	1.776
		Negative Mentoring	.166 (.186)	.132	1.253
		Generativity	-.323* (-.396)	.130	-2.481
		Management Support	-.038 (-.053)	.123	-.312

Table 4

Parameter Estimates, Standard Errors, and Z-scores for Interaction Terms

		Unstandardized Estimate (Standardized Estimate)	Standard Error	Z-Score
Positive Mentoring by Generativity	Emotional Exhaustion	-.183 (-.155)	.178	-1.026
	Personal Accomplishment	-.457** (-.423)	.200	-2.659
	Depersonalization	.309 (-.127)	.172	-.773
Negative Mentoring by Generativity	Emotional Exhaustion	.158 (.107)	.187	.846
	Personal Accomplishment	.582** (.429)	.173	3.373
	Depersonalization	.027 (.026)	.144	.187
Positive Mentoring by Management Support	Emotional Exhaustion	-.064 (-.059)	.155	-.414
	Personal Accomplishment	-.267 (-.278)	.141	-1.898
	Depersonalization	.005 (.006)	.122	.037
Negative Mentoring by Management Support	Emotional Exhaustion	-.036 (-.026)	.240	-.151
	Personal Accomplishment	.452* (.348)	.224	2.013
	Depersonalization	-.116 (-.115)	.184	-.628