Successful Mentoring:
A Model for the City of Prince George

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring has existed in academic literature for over thirty years and has been a common form of developmental learning for centuries. The driving force of a formal mentoring program is built on the needs of an organization because mentoring can only truly be defined based on the purpose, expectations and context in which the relationship dwells. Anchored in an organization's culture, a formal mentoring program is synonymous with a talent management strategy.

This research paper examines the literature regarding the past, present, and future of mentoring along with the various models, elements, phases, and stages involved in a mentoring program. The purpose, discussed in the research questions on page four, is linked to defining a successful mentoring program, contrasting the literature to the City of Prince George, and formulating a cost benefit analysis of a mentorship initiative. Since the City of Prince George is subject to a high degree of retirement risk this topic as it relates to succession planning will be specifically scrutinized.

Mentoring remains important because it is predicted that the most difficult challenge facing organizations in the future will be the retention of skilled human capital. This increases the focus on retention and talent development both of which are enhanced by the presence of a mentoring program.

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INTRODUCTION

Mentoring is an ancient term originating in Homer's Odyssey where Odysseus' friend, Mentor, committed to instruct and guide Odysseus' son while Odysseus fought on the distant battlefields. Thousands of years later the name has been immortalized by this pervasive form of intergenerational wisdom-sharing. For the purpose of this paper, a mentor is defined as an experienced, trusted, wise advisor who is committed to the development and learning outcomes of the protégé.

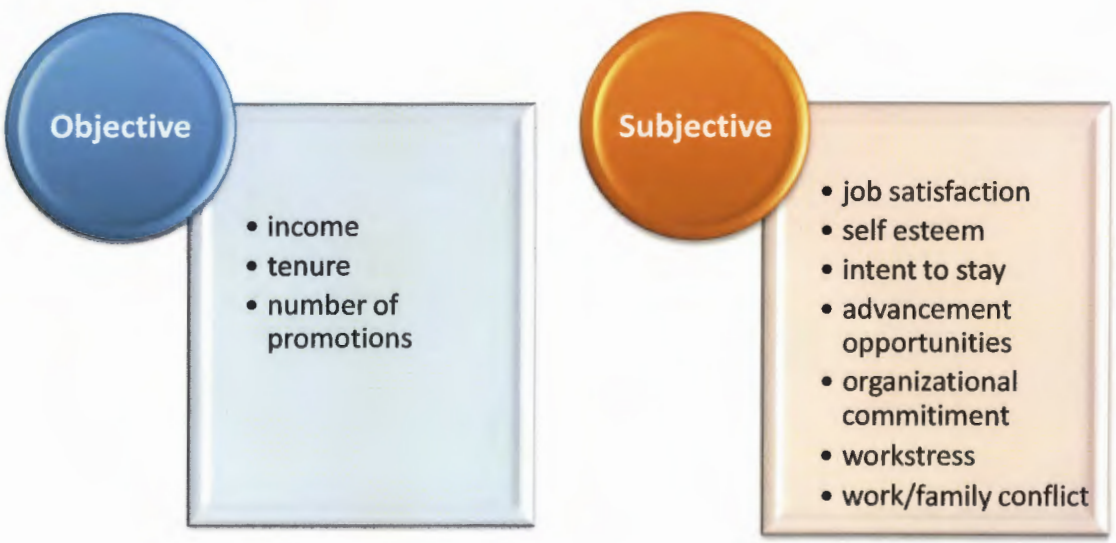
The antecedent of mentoring originates with the master-apprentice model in which age and wisdom imparts to inexperienced youth. In this modern era, there are three main disciplinary silos identified in Figure 1: youth, academic and workplace mentoring (Eby, Allen, et al. 2008). The emphasis in this paper relates specifically to reciprocal learning, formal, workplace mentoring relationships.

Figure 1 – Different Forms of Mentoring Scholarship and Their Purposes

Research revealed that mentored individuals along with their mentors experience a wide array of positive objective and subjective outcomes (Eby and Lockwood 2005) (Allen, Lentz and Day 2006) (Underhill 2006) (DiRenzo, et al. 2010) (Weinberg and Lankau 2010). Mentoring is linked to improved attitude, behaviour, relationships, motivation, health, and career opportunities (Eby, Allen, et al. 2008).

An analysis of the different mentoring models (formal and informal) along with their various elements (relationship type, relationship control, program purpose, mentoring form, and program format) will be addressed as well as the different types of organizational mentoring outcomes. Of particular interest are the objective and subjective outcomes associated with career development (see Figure 2) discussed in the meta-analysis performed by Underhill (2006) and Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, and DuBois (2007).

Figure 2 – Career Development Outcomes



In the context of a formal mentoring program, the roles and responsibilities of mentor and protégé will also be discussed as well as the program life cycle and relevant milestones.

Purpose

The City of Prince George has an overall exposure to retirement risk of 35.8% (Appendix 1). In reference to key leadership positions, 53.1% are at risk of retiring, many of which have been employed with the City for decades (Appendix 2). If you include Fire Chiefs and Captains in the leadership mix, the percent of retirement risk jumps to 69.8%.

These individuals possess an abundance of wisdom, knowledge and experiences that are invaluable to the organization. Their insight would benefit high potential neophytes as well as more experienced professionals who have recently advanced to more auspicious roles. Erudition along with the comprehension of the essential cultural attributes of the organization would be captured and retained in the organization if conveyed through a mentoring relationship.

Therefore, the purpose of this project will be the provision of a framework for a formal mentoring program for the City of Prince George. Issues addressed include: union involvement, garnering participants, and collaboration with other public

organizations. A plan for measurement will be established and tied into the bottom line in regards to savings and hard/soft costs.

Research Questions

The research questions addressed are:

1. What are the key elements in a successful, sustainable mentoring program?
2. Are there significant differences between formal mentoring programs discussed in the literature and the City of Prince George? In other words, does the City of Prince George have an existing formal mentoring program and does the literature apply to municipalities?
3. What would the cost benefit analysis be if the City of Prince George implemented a formal mentoring program?

LITERATURE REVIEW

I encountered an excessively broad ocean of information in response to searches based on the keywords: mentor; protégé, organizational mentoring and mentoring programs. The wide array of literature consistently conveys that mentoring delivers positive results to individuals and organizations and it is an intuitive societal belief that mentoring works.

Mentoring has permeated virtually every profession. Renowned mentoring partnerships exist in science, literature, politics, arts, athletics, and entertainment.

Famous examples include; Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung as well as Hayden and Beethoven to name a few. Although the term is common in modern vernacular, the definition of mentoring has evolved into many differing forms since Levinson's seminal study on human development in 1978 (Levinson, et al. 1978). Scholars from a variety of disciplines in an array of settings have managed to create "definitional and conceptual confusion" about the topic (Eby, Rhodes and Allen 2007) and over fifteen definitions exist in literature (Jacobi 1991). The essential principal to comprehend is that the role of mentor relates to contextual organizational experience not age or power (Conway 1998). The other common elements present in the numerous definitions are that mentors offer guidance or instruction to assist in developing the protégé and that there is a trusting emotional bond between dyads.

Qualities of Ideal Mentors and Protégés

A wide range of personality features can be found in great mentors and protégés. Certain qualities are equally important for both sides of the mentoring partnership. Catherine Mossop defines these core competencies as requisite for proficiency (Mossop 2007, 2008).

- Critical self awareness
    - learns by evaluating experiences and situations
    - comprehends how their personal actions affect others
    - takes responsibility for one's own actions
    - constantly self assesses as a springboard to improvement
    - looks for life lessons when experiencing setbacks

- Conceptual thinking

    - identifies the underlying issues in multifarious situations
    - identifies patterns and connections between situations
    - recognizes both the practical application and implications of various options
    - synthesizes
    - explores scenarios to deconstruct complex situations

- Listening/reflecting/responding

    - facilitates the development of insight and knows how and when to challenge behaviour (mentor)
    - accepts feedback when behaviour is challenged (protégé)
    - listens appreciatively, without imposing personal judgments (mentor)
    - listens respectfully (protégé)

Character Traits of the Mentor

Mentors maintain strong interpersonal skills. In matters of style and personality, they exude warmth and are friendly and approachable (Johnson and Ridley 2004). They have the ability to develop themselves and others taking ownership over personal career development. They take advantage of and plug into a broad range of sources to find relevant learning opportunities. Excellent mentors emanate professional savvy. They develop long-term network resources to be used for achieving professional goals, identifying opportunities, resolving problems and input. Mentors are involved in community building, forming relationships throughout a variety of organizations and building commitment to strategic objectives that model collective success (Mossop 2007).

Effective mentors are well-rounded individuals who possess secondary attributes such as having the confidence to be willing to release information as well as the ability to share the credit. Mentors are not afraid of or intimidated by their protégé's success and are therefore willing to openly share information that will catapult the protégé forward. Mentors are able to commit to the partnership and make themselves available during the commitment period. They are willing to give honest feedback by communicating clearly, truthfully and honestly. At times, mentors also serve as a confidant in times of difficulty or personal crisis. Qualifications of organizational knowledge, exemplary supervisory skills and technical competence complement a mentor's skill set. Superior mentors possess a willingness to be responsible for their protégé's growth and are outstanding role models.

However, the underpinning trait according to Chip Bell is trust (Bell 2002). Mentoring relationships rely on this crucial commodity. A mentor who exemplifies all other qualities without being trustworthy will not be very successful. Conversely, mentors possessing a high degree of their protégé's trust and lack other mentoring skills can succeed. Trust is an amalgamation of genuineness or authenticity combined with credibility. The ability to build trust flows from keeping promises, honouring commitments, and demonstrating consistency between words and deeds (Tobin and Pettingell 2008).

Character Traits of the Protégé

Research indicates that mentors prefer to interact with protégés who are proactive and open minded (Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller and Marchese 2006). Proactive protégés take responsibility for personal career development. They persistently search for new opportunities to enhance their knowledge, skills and abilities and are goal oriented continuously assessing their progress for alignment with goals. Exceptional protégés are open to exploring a variety of viewpoints when examining diverse issues. They are capable of recognizing options and identifying trends when thinking through issues as well as seeing the practical application of the options. Great protégés actively seek challenging assignments and new responsibilities. Ten other qualities of exemplary protégés include: Intelligence, ambition, initiative, energy, trustworthiness, integrity, emotional intelligence, optimism, complementary skills, and the aspiration and aptitude to accept power and risk (Ensher and Murphy 2005). To elucidate, emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive and understand others' as well as manage and express one's own emotions. A growing body of research indicates that emotional intelligence is central to achievement at work and success in life (Cherniss 2007). It holds greater benefit to upper echelon career enhancement than cognitive intelligence.

Mentoring Roles

The majority of scholarly text in reference to mentoring roles can be summarized by the work of Kathy Kram (Kram 1988, Ragins and Kram 2007). Kram separates

mentoring into two distinct areas: Career functions and psychosocial functions. Career functions are comprised of sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. Psychosocial functions consist of role modeling, acceptance & confirmation, counseling, and friendship.

Career Functions

Career functions are those areas that augment career advancement and affect compensation. These functions are possible for the protégé because of three common attributes possessed by mentors; position, experience and organizational influence. They can serve the career-related goals of both the mentor and the protégé. Protégé's career goals are met by assistance in assimilating into the organizational culture, increased exposure, and possible promotion. Where the mentor's career–related ends appreciate in value by; building respect for developing talent, developing support among colleagues and possible reciprocation of support.

Sponsorship, the most common career function in a mentoring relationship, can be powerfully influenced by mentors. Sponsorship entails endorsement, empowerment and promotion and is based on the mentor's power to influence. The utility of sponsorship changes depending on the stage of the protégé's organizational career. During early stages, sponsorship assists in building reputation and obtaining job opportunities in preparation for future advancement. In the later stages of a career,

sponsorship can be crucial in navigating the political process and aiding in the competition for promotions.

The exposure and visibility function allows the protégé to demonstrate their performance and competence to other key figures in the organization. This function grooms individuals for a higher degree of responsibility and authority by providing vital learning experiences and demonstrating potential. The protégé's visibility is enhanced when their "contributions and achievements are highlighted both laterally and vertically" (Johnson and Ridley 2004, 24) by their mentor promoting a positive interaction with influential stakeholders.

Along the same lines as an athletic coach, the function of coaching in a mentoring relationship involves training, guiding, suggesting strategies for success, motivating, and providing feedback. Training involves direct, explicit instruction as to vocational roles and functions as well as demonstrating the described skills. Stone suggests that there are five principles for coaching: Gathering information, listening, being conscious of the surroundings, instructing, and providing feedback (Stone 1999). Ultimately, coaching is about performance enhancement. It is a critical competency that provides support to the protégé and offers the opportunity to build new skills. Coaching is a patient, helpful response used to reinforce high quality performance and improve meager performance (Tobin and Pettingell 2008).

Protection is when a mentor intervenes in a situation where the protégé is not equipped to achieve satisfactory performance (tasks that sabotage success) or in response to an unjust threat or attack. Effective protection can minimize career threats such as: Bureaucratic entanglements, conflict, and poor decision making. It reduces unnecessary risks to the protégé's reputation and acts as a shield against criticism.

The central focus of the challenging assignment function is to provide technical learning opportunities. It is an incremental process where the challenges are tailored to suit the individual needs of the protégé. The purpose of each exercise is to stretch the protégé and stimulate growth. They should be accompanied by both analytical feedback and reinforcing praise.

Psychosocial Functions

Psychosocial functions assist in supporting the protégé's self efficacy and personal confidence. These functions help to instill a sense of proficiency, identity and effectiveness for the protégé in their position as a professional. In contrast to career functions, which foster a relationship with the organizations, psychosocial functions cultivate a relationship with self. They are more dependent on the quality of the mentoring relationship; affecting individuals on a much more personal level.

The most frequent psychosocial function, role modeling, occurs when a mentor presents a behaviour that should be emulated or acts as an "obvious prototype" (Bell 2002). Setting a personal example is the most effective teaching technique. Role models portray values and attitudes worthy of admiration and respect. By observing how the mentor manages work groups, relates to others, and deals with tensions the protégé learns to do the same. As the protégé discovers the mentor's approaches, attitudes, and values they choose to replicate some and reject others according to their own self development.

Acceptance and confirmation by a mentor provides support and encouragement to the protégé. A mentor's affirmation infuses the protégé with confidence and assists them in overcoming self doubt. Validation communicates trust in the protégé's judgment and surety in their ability where acceptance acknowledges their intrinsic worth.

Mentoring intermittently includes an aspect of informal counseling which involves three factors: Open, direct honest communication, active listening, and probing questions (Stone 1999). The broad subject matter of counseling topics generally fall into one of these main themes that detract from productive work: Concerns related to competence or career satisfaction, apprehension regarding professional relationships, or anxiety over balancing the variety of work/life roles without compromise. By acting as a sounding board and sharing insight and personal experiences, the mentor can convey acceptance, support and empathy facilitating

problem solving. Boundaries regarding where the support begins and ends is important in this context.

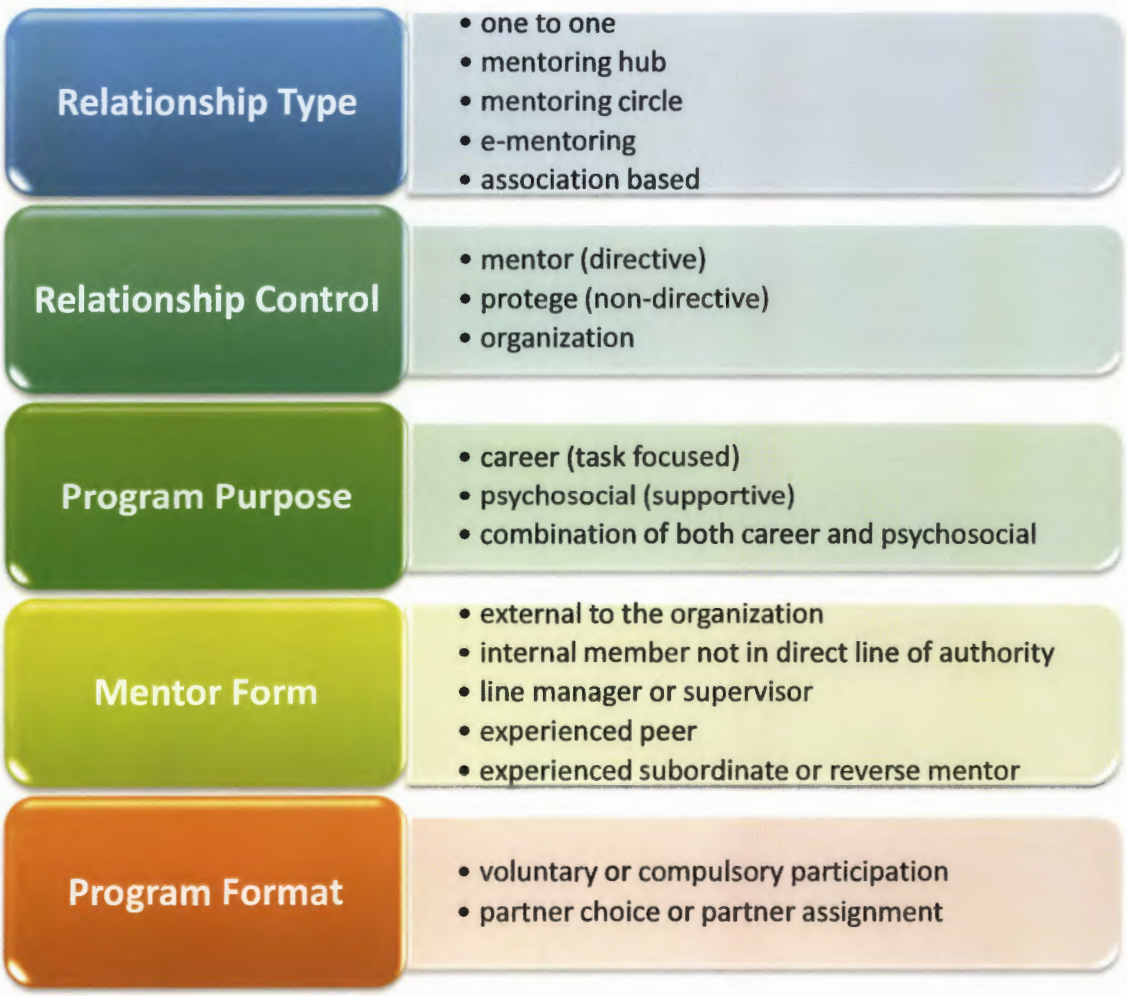
As the friendship function emerges, so too does a higher level of comfort and enjoyable social interaction. It allows the protégé to feel more like a peer. The greater the rapport built in this developmental relationship the more fruitful it will become. Kinship allows for masks to be lowered and for the protégé to take risks in front of their mentor. This function is shaped through authenticity and compatibility.

Mentoring Models

Mentoring models in the literature can be separated into two genres, formal and informal, which are differentiated by relationship initiation and structure. The scholarly text is exceptionally diverse in addressing the various elements of these models. Figure 3 attempts to synthesize the assorted components in response to five questions: What type of relationship is desired?; Who controls the relationship?; What is the purpose of the program?; Where is the mentor from?; and lastly, What is the format of the program? The most common configurations of these models and the optimal mentoring prototype for the City of Prince George will be addressed in the discussion section of this paper.

Developmental learning is the foundation of all organizational mentoring models. Common platforms include purpose and communication. The fundamental driver of the process, purpose and product of a mentoring relationship is the learning needs of the protégé and the key to maintaining a formal mentoring program is the ability to have qualified, experienced mentors willing to participate. The relationship needs to be upheld with the pillars of honesty and safety with trust at its core. Other elements include progress review and constructive feedback. Benefits and outcomes vary depending on the type of model used.

Figure 3 – Synthesis of Differing Elements of Mentoring Models



Formal and Informal Models

The general perception in the academic literature purports that informal models of mentoring are superior to formal models in areas of protégé benefits. This is opposite to practitioner literature which suggests that the added structure of a formal program is more advantageous. However, academic researchers agree that not all formal programs are created equal and recognize that some well-constructed formal programs experience a greater degree of success (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007).

Based on existing empirical research, a formal mentoring model refers to an organizationally initiated process to match mentors to protégés. Formal programs are generally built on a series of predetermined guidelines for one or both dyads regarding; contracted goals, timelines, interaction frequency and content. This facilitated process takes a systematic approach in developing the talents and competencies of the protégé. Programs vary as to purpose and goals according to the organization's culture and requirements. The majority of formal models include an orientation for both mentor and protégé as well as training regarding individual obligations, expectations and process. Some companies also involve a screening method, either by nomination or job performance, to determine candidates (Eby and Lockwood 2005).

Alternatively, an informal model is a naturally occurring relationship that is spontaneous and gradual (Johnson 2002). These unsanctioned relationships lack formal assignment and often last longer than other organizational relationships because of the relationship chemistry and the close bond that is formed. The unstructured relationship typically presents more risk and greater commitment as the promised aid doesn't always materialize (Mullen 2007).

Relationship Types

The most common form of mentoring is the one-to-one relationship. This is the traditional dyad model where one mentor and one protégé are partnered. This type of mentoring is prevalent in the literature and largely targeted by researchers.

A mentoring hub is defined as a single mentor to many protégés model. In this model of mentoring the mentor often acts more like a facilitator who guides dialogue and frames questions for a collective learning opportunity (Harris and Daley 2006). In this style of mentoring, protégés often support and help one another which form stronger working relationships in the peer group.

Mentoring circles are a collection of individuals who meet on a regular basis and can act as mentor, protégé, or both contingent upon the current situation. These groups are often bound by a charter that clarifies the rules, activities, and expectations for participation. The purpose of the learning collaborative is to assist people who have

a common focus or interest to set and reach developmental goals. This group offers both leadership and training opportunities for its members as well as networking and cross-functional learning (Abbott 2008).

E-mentoring is defined by Bierema as "a computer mediated, mutually beneficial relationship between a mentor and a protégé which provides learning, advising, encouraging, promoting, and modeling, that is often boundaryless, egalitarian, and qualitatively different than traditional face-to-face mentoring" (Bierema and Merriam 2002). The difference from traditional mentoring occurs in two areas; the construction (boundaryless) and quality (egalitarian). E-mentoring is boundaryless in the sense that it offers online exchanges through e-mail, electronic chat and message boards when a face-to-face relationship would be unfeasible. These relationships can cross geography, culture, hierarchy, race, gender and age which sometimes cause a difficult divide in conventional mentoring relationships. This safe, diversified model can take the form of a one-to-one, peer, or mentoring hub relationship. Relatively few academic articles exist that discuss the merits of e-mentoring. However, the literature does indicate the value of e-mentoring especially to marginalized groups. Since the organizational model of flattening the layers of hierarchy is becoming more common, the availability of mentoring opportunities is shrinking, thus limiting mentoring to marginalized groups even further. E-mentoring is noted as a cost-effective and timely alternative mentoring method (DiRenzo, et al. 2010). DiRenzo's study illustrates that a greater degree of self-efficacy with technology results in superior levels of positive outcomes. In this

internet age the most appealing benefits of this innovative form of mentoring is the low barrier to entry, flexibility and minimal time required. The challenge is to ensure that users on both sides of the dyad have appropriate computer and internet acuity. MentorNet (www.mentornet.net) is one example of an e-community that offers a number of web-based services such as one-to-one e-mentoring, e-forums, and online resources. They have established 26,582 mentor matches since 1998 and offers to connect people from around the world in areas of engineering and science.

An association based structure is somewhat of a hybrid. It usually is still a one-to-one type relationship but it has a governing body such as a professional business association rather than an individual organization that is the link between pairs. Although not present in academic literature, a practitioner example is the Human Resource Management Association (HRMA) who offers mentoring to their members. In this model the mentors are external to individuals' company yet linked by vocational community.

Relationship Control

Mentoring relationships are very dynamic. The purpose and roles are influenced by the context of the relationship and are generally self-directing in nature. But, one of the partners needs to drive or take control. If the mentor takes the role of expert, then the relationship is likely to be more instructive for the mentor and less empowering for the protégé. However, if they take the role of facilitator, then the

relationship will be prone to mutual learning, creating the perception of equality, and empowering the protégé.

A directive relationship is one in which the mentor is the active initiator and the mentor functions lean toward sponsorship. The most common contact will revolve around guiding and coaching where the mentor offers strong advice, directs discussion, and decides on the content and timing of the interactions. According to Clutterbuck, sponsorship is the primary focus of American mentoring as opposed to developmental mentoring espoused to be more European (Clutterbuck 2004, Klasen and Clutterbuck 2002). In a directive relationship, the mentor is usually someone senior both in age and hierarchy to the protégé and has the ability to exert power and influence in the organization. A directive relationship is sometimes characterized by one-way learning and the mentor's biggest role comes in the area of introductions.

Clutterbuck advocates that the best mentoring model is a non-directive relationship where the protégé is proactive and the mentor is reactive (or passive). This form is a more developmental mentoring approach which is built on two-way learning opportunities and leads to stimulate insight. The mentor attempts to inspire self-reliance in the protégé and encourages them to draw their own conclusions in areas of discussion and relationship direction. In the non-directive model, the mentor could also be a peer or junior that has additional experience.

There are rare occasions where the organization is in control of the relationship. In this case the company would contract an external mentor and direct the outcomes according to specific requirements.

Program Purpose

The purpose of the mentoring program can focus on the protégé's career, their personal development or a combination of both. A protégé looking for the "fast track" to organizational advancement will desire a more task-focused, career-enhancing purpose. Conversely, a fresh graduate lacking confidence and experience might prefer a greater degree of the psychosocial support. The literature is unanimous that context is the underlying principal to defining the program purpose.

Mentor Form

An external mentor most often takes the form of a business coach. The benefits to this form of mentoring include the fact that the external coach possesses a superior level of skill and experience in the area they coach. The deficiency of an external mentor is that they often are accompanied with an expensive price tag and cannot offer internal networking opportunities or inside-track promotion.

A mentoring model that engages an internal manager as mentor tends to be more career oriented, for the protégé, principally focusing on developing future leaders and retaining high performers. Supervisor, in this context, is defined as an individual

one or two levels higher in the organizational hierarchy and not on direct accountability lines. This model utilizes diversity goals and manages organizational knowledge. The power in this model derives from the mentor's ability to admit their protégé to certain parts of the organization that would otherwise be inaccessible. The internal mentor has intimate knowledge of the internal workings of the company including the politics and how to navigate through the bureaucracy.

A direct line supervisor as mentor is a relationship where the leader mentors their subordinate. This model is also known as supervisory career mentoring (SCM). The SCM focus rest primarily on job performance, development of new skills and responsibility (Scandura and Williams 2004). To be effectual, the positional power needs to be reduced or eliminated (Bell 2002). According to Bell, "not all supervisors are mentors but the most effective supervisors act as mentors." Studies do exist that imply a direct supervisor (in an informal relationship) rather than an executive have better mentoring outcomes for their subordinates in the area of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Raabe and Beehr 2003). Some researches identify a serious flaw in SCM in that protégé communication or actions can be limited by fear of retribution or concern for diminishing rewards. This research indicates that immediate supervisors are generally not a good match for a formal program nor is the supervisor's immediate manager because of the potential conflict of interest.

A peer mentoring model is most effective when employed as an employee orientation strategy. This approach excels at bringing newer employees along faster and duplicating best practices. Peer mentors generally have short term goals such as knowledge transfer or development of job skills (Shahani n.d.). Peer mentoring is also a valuable tool in managing organizational knowledge creation and how that knowledge is shared. This also enables the benefits of mentoring to occur in those organizations that were impacted by downsizing and delayering (Bryant 2005). Other experiential benefits of peer mentoring are the mobilization of tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge and the enhancement of organizational learning (Nonaka 1994).

Reverse mentoring, popularized by Jack Welch former CEO of General Electric, occurs when an older more experienced individual who is lacking a certain skill (usually technology) is mentored by a younger otherwise less experienced subordinate (Leh 2005). This allows the knowledge already present in the organization to be fully utilized.

Program Format

Program format revolves around whether participation in the program is voluntary or mandatory and if the participants have any say in how they are partnered. An example of a positive compulsory mentoring format is when an organization requires new employees to participate in an orientation program. The mandatory

involvement aids the novice in navigating through the company. In other circumstances, literature suggests that voluntary participation is the most advantageous. However, some companies are faced with a dearth of people willing or available to participate as mentors. This may cause the organizers to draft potentials to meet program needs. Compulsory recruitment of mentors can trigger resistance to the program which, in turn, negatively affects its value (Parise and Forret 2008).

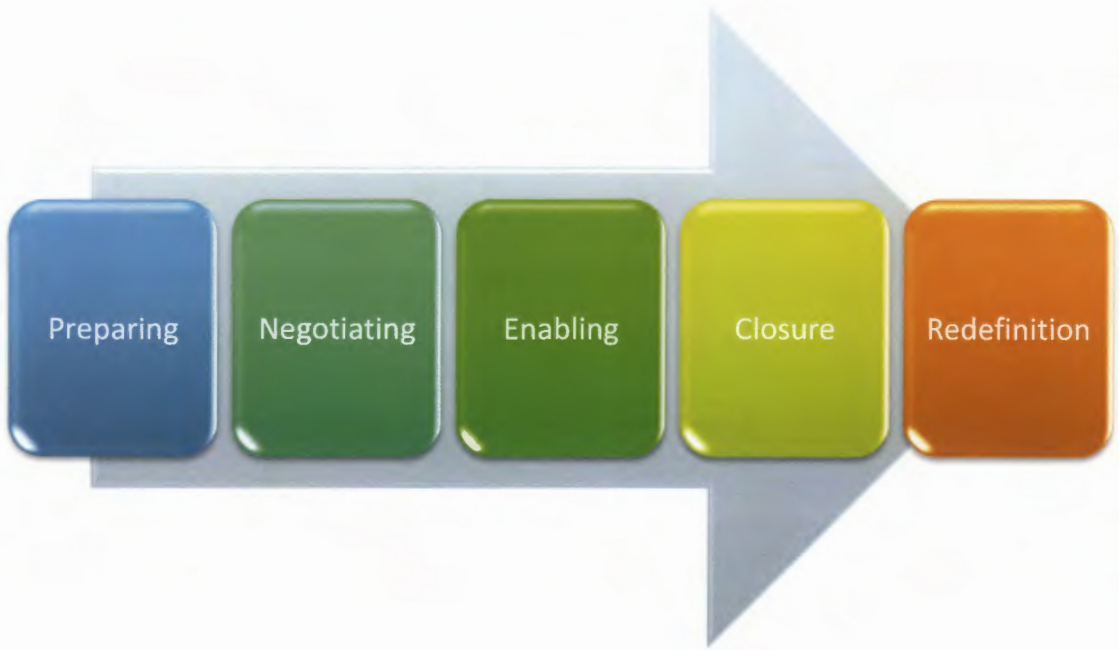
Research supports the notion that the merits of a mentoring program rests heavily on the chemistry between the mentoring partners. Problems with mentor-protégé mismatches are commonly noted in literature (Eby and Lockwood 2005) therefore, some form of input into the matching process is recommended. Lack of input may cause mentors to have the perception of incompatibility with their partner (Parise and Forret 2008), potentially causing resentment and ultimately reducing the relationship benefits. Conversely, input breeds ownership and commitment to the program (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007).

Phases in the Mentoring Relationship

Kathy Kram describes four "predictable phases" in her seminal work on informal mentoring: Initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition (Kram 1988). Although Kram's work is frequently referenced in literature (Chao 1997), the researchers assume that formal mentoring relationships progress through the same

stages as informal relationships. Kram's initiation phase for an informal relationship is marked by excitement and attraction where as initial interactions of formal pairs are often described as awkward. Therefore, the majority of practitioners, along with some academic scholars include the precursor of an orientation or preparation phase in the formal mentoring program (Bearman, et al. 2007). Other differences between Kram's work lies in where the agreements are negotiated and how the relationship closes. Figure 4 represents a synthesis of the literature and is not specifically identified by a single author.

Figure 4 – Phases in Formal Mentoring Relationships



Zachary lists the phases as; tilling the soil (preparing), planting the seeds (negotiating), nurturing growth (enabling), and reaping the harvest (coming to closure) (Zachary 2000). Note that in Zachary's Mentoring text, discussion of the

redefinition phase does not exist until her Organizational work in 2005. Other authors combine separation or closure and redefinition (Partnerships n.d.). However, in the literature redefinition is addressed enough to be considered a legitimate phase.

Zachary and the University of Baylor describe the first phase as a prequel, reading each other's bios and taking orientation classes (Zachary 2000) (Baylor n.d.). The preparation phase is characterized by self-assessment and reflection in the areas of readiness and personal motivation. A variety of timelines for each of the stages are suggested in the literature. Although the timelines are listed as guidelines, they are so dissimilar in scope it was not possible to synthesize them into a single recommendation from literature.

The negotiation phase is where the partners become acquainted and find common ground. It is at this stage where the foundation of the relationship is built and it is filled with positive expectation. Rapport and trust are developed and interests, values, goals, and dreams are discussed. Bell relates that rapport is comprised of four rudiments: Leveling communication, gifting gestures, receptivity for feelings and reflective responses (Bell 2002). During this kinship phase, sound mentoring agreements need to be negotiated, developed and executed. The purpose of the contract (either written or verbal) is to frame how the protégé's development will occur as a result of the mentoring activities and to delineate mutual responsibilities and boundaries. To focus the agreement the partners should first establish the role

of the mentor. Defining the role is completely contextual in nature and should clarify the mentor's prime responsibility whether they are to act as role model, observer, guide, coach, or combination of various roles. Then, the protégé's draft development plan and goals are identified along with a general roadmap on how to get there (Murray 2001). Success measurement, accountability structure and protocols regarding dealing with difficulties are also addressed. Since planting the seeds is the process of getting to know each other, partners should experience a level of safety and comfort in their relationship and also be familiar with each other's background, current work and personal situation upon conclusion of this phase (Lacey 1999).

The third phase is enabling or cultivation. In this nurturing growth stage, the bulk of the career development and psychosocial functions occur and it is where most of the time is spent. Intrinsic growth is cultivated through the construction of the learning environment and the concepts of mentoring are put to work. Objectives are met; new challenges are presented and achieved. This main event phase is characterized by listening, sharing, confiding, supporting, accepting and changing. The relationship continues to mature and take shape and the processes are monitored and assessed. Meaningful feedback and reflection take place and any derailment should be confronted and tackled.

The closure or separation phase occurs both structurally and psychologically and marks a significant change in the relationship functions (Kram 1988). The protégé becomes more established and autonomous. Separation is another tool for growth

in healthy mentoring relationships. It should have an element of celebratory rite of passage providing a symbol of closure (Bell 2002). The ending of the active phase of mentoring is indicative of success (Johnson and Ridley 2004). To avoid closure would reduce the value of the mentoriship and stunt the protégé's growth.

For some, the last phase, redefinition, is characterized by an equal peer-like friendship, while for others no interpersonal contact continues. The key is to have the discussion that defines how the relationship will change once the learning goals and objectives have been met or the timeline has extinguished (Zachary and Fischler 2009). The partners determine how or if the relationship moves on, say thank you, celebrate the past and focus on the future.

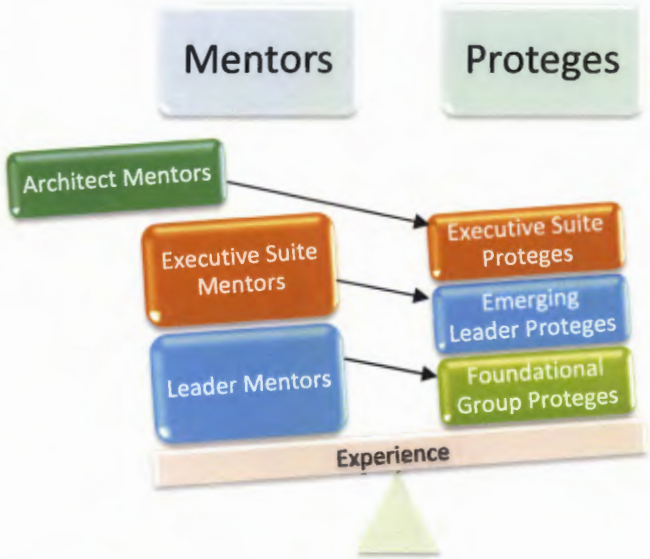
Stages of Career Development

As previously identified, mentoring takes on different forms. There are alternative model structures as well as different phases in the mentoring relationship. Another aspect of mentoring is recognizing the various developmental stages of participants.

In general, different requirements of being mentored and mentoring occur at different stages of an individual's career (see Figure 5). Typically a new employee would be considered a foundation group protégé and would be mentored by a leader mentor who is most often a mid-level manager or expert in their field. The leader mentor would normally provide process and skill-based mentoring. As the

protégé develops into an emerging leader they would next be mentored by an internal executive-suite mentor who would most often be providing knowledge transfer. At this stage, the protégé is poised to become a leader mentor themselves or move on to be an executive suite protégé. At this level, an executive architect mentor could provide insight and knowledge from an external perspective to the

Figure 5 – Mentoring During Different Career Development Stages



executive protégé (Mossop 2007). Reiterating the fact that each mentoring program differs and contains its own nuances, individual needs and desires remain at the basis of any mentoring program.

Benefits of Mentoring

It is widely espoused in the literature that mentoring impacts mentors, protégés and organizations positively. Even program coordinators have indicated positive outcomes. Mentoring enhances the social capital and relationship network that

permeates the entire organization. According to the Mentoring Solutions White Paper, 76% of the top 25 firms of Fortune magazine's 100 Best Companies to Work for in America offer mentoring programs. The paper suggests that "mentoring can be a very effective component of an organization's overall comprehensive development strategy" (Gray 2005). The top three benefits listed by the White Paper include:

- honed my mentoring skills (68.5%)
- made me explore new ideas/career possibilities (58%)
- made me feel valuable to the organization (52.6%)

Other benefits were: Tested my leadership skills (42.1%), made me more objective (42.1%), tested my management skills (26.3%), made me decide to stay with the organization (16%), and made me more promotable (10.5%). Both non-respondents and unsure survey respondents each totaled 9.5%. Only 4.7% indicated that mentoring offered little or no value.

It is important to reiterate the fact that not all mentoring programs are created equal. Therefore, the array of benefits experienced by the stakeholders will vary according to the culture of the organization, quality of the program, experience of the mentor, enthusiasm of the protégé, and the chemistry of the match.

Benefits for the Protégé

Results of the meta-analysis performed by Allen, Eby et al illustrated that mentored individuals receive a greater degree of objective benefits such as promotions and compensation increases and subjective benefits such as; career satisfaction and job satisfaction, than their un-mentored counterparts (Allen, Eby and Poteet, et al. 2004). Margaret Heffernan states that "mentoring is the single most valuable ingredient in a successful career" as it enables protégés to navigate the informal organizational systems (Heffernan and Saj-Nicole 2005) and increases the speed of integrating into a new role. Clutterbuck separates protégé benefits into three components: Developmental outcomes, career outcomes, and emotional outcomes. The tangible developmental outcomes include: knowledge, accelerated learning, technical competence, and behavioural competence such as better listening skills, relational skills, and improved attitude. Objective career outcomes encompass career planning, achievement of career goals, greater compensation, and more promotions (Horvath, Wasko and Bradley 2008) (Allen, Eby and Poteet, et al. 2004). Intangible psychosocial (emotional) outcomes involve increased confidence, increased self-efficacy, greater self awareness, altruistic satisfaction, reflective space, status, and intellectual challenge (Clutterbuck 2004) (Eby and Lockwood 2005). The protégé's work becomes more meaningful and satisfying because they are more connected to the organization and they have a trusted sounding board in their mentor (Zachary 2005).

Benefits for the Mentor

Studies on mentor benefits in academic literature are not as plentiful as those relating to protégé benefits. However, the literature suggests that mentors benefit in areas of career revitalization, personal satisfaction, organizational power (Ramaswami and Dreher 2007), and a loyal base of support (Allen 2007) (Parise and Forret 2008). Ramaswami and Dreher denote that the bulk of the mentor benefits fall in the psychosocial functions but career outcomes do exist. On a psychosocial level, mentors benefit from the intergenerational differences (versus stagnation), gaining new perspectives, "cognitive rejuvenation," and a host of energizing emotions such as satisfaction, pride, happiness, contentment and excitement (Philips-Jones n.d.) (Zey 1993). From a career standpoint, mentor's can learn the latest trends in their field or fresh skills from their high-potential protégé (Lockwood, Carr Evans and Eby 2007). They can showcase their capability for leadership and developing talent which leads to a higher degree of respect in the organization (Ragins and Scandura 1999). Protégé success can also lead to greater credibility and enhanced reputation for the mentor. Mentors can review and validate their own skills because teaching others helps solidify what they know. As agents of corporate culture; mentors can improve their own job satisfaction, job performance, and career advancement. For mentors, being active in a mentoring program can open doors to job promotion and better salaries. They are able to bask in the shear appreciation of their protégés and benefit from the value of helping others.

Benefits for the Organization

According to Christina Underhill, research indicates that mentoring assists in the development of motivated employees who are engaged, empowered and successful contributors to the organization. It also enhances organizational attractiveness, aids in effective succession planning, improves organizational communication, and builds a supportive network creating an amicable environment (Shahani n.d.).

An active mentoring program signals to the employees that the organization cares about individual development thus making the organization more attractive. In regards to recruiting, a study by Horvath, Wasko and Bradley surveyed 254 undergrads seeking fulltime employment. Their results indicated that organizations with a mentoring program were more attractive to the graduates especially those with a high degree of learning orientation (Horvath, Wasko and Bradley 2008). Improved applicant attraction leads to improved organizational human capital allowing firms to hire individuals with the best skills or those most capable of succeeding. Building intellectual capital, either grown in-house or bought externally, ultimately leads to competitive advantage for the organization.

A mentoring program reduces employee turnover by improving organizational commitment therefore saving on rehiring costs. It enables the workforce to meet adaptive challenges and facilitates learning, resiliency, and visionary thinking. The

increase in organizational learning improves the quality of work and productivity. The enriched relationships caused by mentoring allow for more collaboration, humanizing the workplace, and facilitating leadership (Zachary 2005). It also contributes to the long-term health and stability of the organization (Underhill 2006) by managing knowledge and facilitating communication, which strengthens the organization and speeds up learning. The spin-offs of organizational mentoring can also benefit customers, clients, and the community at large.

Benefits for the Program Coordinator

The program coordinator acts as a mentor to the mentors. Growth for the program coordinator occurs in people, management, technical, research, and organizational skills. They experience a prolific amount of networking and learn to be more resourceful and goal-oriented (Gray, MentorInk Newsletter 2009).

Pitfalls of Mentoring

Although literature is very clear regarding the benefits of mentoring, numerous challenges are evident as well. Mentoring will consistently create issues in regards to trust and confidence. Unclear purpose and goals, misalignment with corporate strategy, or no anchor in company culture will cause instability. Mentoring will fail if support and involvement from senior management is lacking (Eby, Lockwood and Butts 2006) or if there is a deficiency in skills training. Flawed mentoring also occurs if business outcomes are undefined and untracked or if matching criteria is

not established. In the literature, both mentors and protégés identified partnership mismatch, scheduling challenges, and geographic distance as major defects with formal mentoring programs (Eby and Lockwood 2005). Lastly, the concern exists that if the mentoring partner does not succeed or fails in an area such as integrity that this will reflect badly on the other participant.

When mentoring relationships are diverse (cross-gendered or involving visible minorities) a few more difficulties arise. Noe noted that lack of access to information networks, tokenism, stereotype attribution and socialization practices were barriers specific to cross-gendered mentorships (Noe 1998). According to Heffernan, men don't want to be mentored by women because of gossip and innuendo, nor do they want to appear sexist (Heffernan and Saj-Nicole 2005). However, traditionally an objective of mentoring seemed targeted at assimilating women into the dominant masculine corporate culture rather than integrating the best of masculine and feminine characteristics (McKeen and Bujaki 2007).

Pitfalls for the Protégé

Heffernen states that the over-expectation problem is acute for protégés, particularly in women and minorities (Heffernan and Saj-Nicole 2005). Other challenges occur when mentors pass on obsolete values especially in times of rapid change or if they are cynical or, project a bad attitude about the organization. Serious problems arise if the mentor is not psychologically or positionally secure for

the mentorship, viewing their younger enthusiastic protégé as a threat. Mentors can unwittingly provide incomplete, incorrect, or politicized information based on their personal opinions and beliefs. Mentor neglect (when mentors do not have the time to adequately build or maintain the relationship), structural separation (when a mentor gets promoted or takes on other external responsibilities), mentor stifling (when a mentor suppresses the protégé's fresh new ideas), or mentor manipulation (when a mentor exploits the protégé) also cause discord in the relationship and negative protégé experiences.

Pitfalls for the Mentor

Feelings of personal inadequacy or concern over their developmental contribution to their protégé are noted problems in formal mentoring programs. Also, if the relationship has deteriorated, fear of being backstabbed or exploited by their protégé may exist. Mentors may also deem the cost of involvement as too high, where the time required is not worth the effort. (Parise and Forret 2008).

One other dilemma, especially for the mentor, is to express unbiased opinions. Most individual's thoughts and ideas are skewed in relationship to their own world view and values. A mentor in the role of counselor or coach needs to keep these in check.

Pitfalls for the Organization

A poorly drafted formal mentoring program is not sustainable; when it fails all the costs associated with creating mentoring program will be lost to the organization. Where mentoring relationships are marginal, they may not cause serious harm, but they certainly limit benefits. Dysfunctional relationships may cause negative performance, increased stress, and employee withdrawal in terms of both absenteeism and turnover. Behaviours such as; bullying, intimidation, over-aggressiveness, abuse of power, or over-submissiveness all have negative effects on the organization and the individuals involved in the program (Scandura and Pelligrini 2007).

A reduction in staff morale may appear if non-mentored individuals see the mentors as showing favoritism to their protégés. This jealousy may also have negative connotations for individuals considering applying to the program.

Components of a Formal Mentoring Program

Researchers agree that a recipe for a successful formal mentoring program is elusive and although studies of best practices exist, empirically driven answers are rare (Bearman, et al. 2007). Thankfully a blend of academic and practitioner literature offers some guidance.

As a foundation, all sustainable workplace mentoring programs must (1) align with organizational strategy, (2) train participants, and (3) monitor and evaluate the program. To achieve success, organizations need to emphasize their support for the mentoring program and ensure that the participants perceive that support (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007) (Eby, Lockwood and Butts 2006).

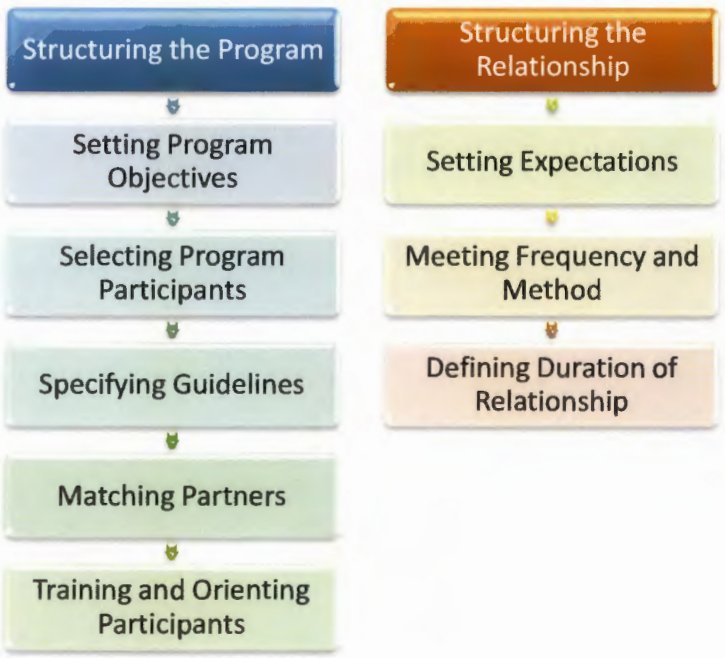
Training the participants prior to the onset of a formal mentoring relationship is also universally endorsed in the literature. Studies show that the quality of training received had a direct influence on program effectiveness (Allen, Eby and Lentz 2006). In a 2001 survey by CMSI, 96.1% of organizations (that hosted a mentoring program) polled responded that they considered preparation and training as important (Klasen and Clutterbuck 2002). In this context, orientation training entails a combination of; defining mentoring, declaring program objectives, reviewing roles/responsibilities, clarifying expectations, understanding limitations, and avoiding typical problems (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007). Additional education could be provided in the area of; listening and communication skills, ethics, trust development, coaching techniques, goal setting and learning plan development (Mossop, Masterful Mentors: Developing the Best 2007).

Monitoring and evaluating the program serves an array of purposes. Primarily, monitoring assists in identifying dyads in trouble and intervening as necessary. These check-ups can be performed by the mentoring administrator or by the

partners themselves. Evaluation is important to track the success of the program in regards to achieving objectives and from a cost-benefit approach

In addition to the three cornerstones defined above, practitioner literature includes two key figureheads as necessary components in the design of a quality mentoring program; a skilled champion and a credible internal coordinator (Mossop, Mentoring Needs a Skilled Champion 2007) (Mossop, Mentoring: The Role of Mentoring Coordinator 2007) (Klasen and Clutterbuck 2002). Scholars also advocate that formal mentorships also call for program and relationship structure. Figure 6 summarizes the essential ingredients of these two structures.

Figure 6 – Structure Required in Formal Mentoring



Program Structure

The program goals and objectives can be established after the feasibility study that assesses the organizational readiness (gauging the current attitudes, and understanding of mentoring concepts) and terms have been defined. The blueprint of the objectives is contingent upon the organizational needs and would adjust according to the goals be it knowledge transfer, leadership development, change management, retention, or diversity, etc.

To select program participants, organizations can call for volunteers or request nominations. It is fundamentally important that the participants possess some of the characteristics of ideal mentors and protégés that were listed at the beginning of this paper. It is particularly beneficial if potential mentors enjoy helping others and have a high level of knowledge, skills and abilities. They need to be available as well as be the role model the organization wants protégés to emulate. In terms of protégé selection, a best practice is difficult to identify as choice is determined based on the program objectives. Survey data found that the top four groups targeted were; "new hires, anyone in the organization, high-potential employees, and those in professional and managerial ranks" (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007).

Practitioner authors depict voluntary participation as a guideline for a successful mentoring experience. Scholars concurred, stating that virtually all organizations reported voluntary mentor participation (Parise and Forret 2008).

The most frequent criticism of a formal mentoring program deals directly with the matching process. Scholars differ in their opinion in regards to the number of organizational levels separating the dyads and whether or not they should be from the same department. Some suggest that mentors should be a minimum of two levels higher than their protégé where others express that mentors only one level above would provide a more valuable experience. Some propose that direct supervisors are more relatable although they could cause workgroup inequities. It appears that the majority of active programs use mentors who were are at least two ranks higher and outside the lines of reporting (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007).

Further examination regarding matching partners reveals that those one can identify with generally formulate better partners. The pitfall to this approach is that primarily white males with a mainstream ethnic or religious affiliation may consistently be chosen. Participant forms should include questions on positive and negative preferences, experience, interests, learning styles, communication style and personality. This would be used as a tool to aid the matching process. Most scholars agree that mentoring partners should have some input regarding their match and that random matching is rarely used. The literature is unclear, however, as to how much say is necessary to add sufficient value to the formal program (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007).

Training and Monitoring

Training and monitoring have specifically been addressed at the beginning of this section as they are two of the three foundation stones in a formal mentoring program. However, it is important to note that training for the program would not only transpire in the orientation stage, but also at mid-cycle and at the conclusion of the formal relationship (Lacey 1999). Supplemental to the points already discussed, it is significant to note that all training in a formal mentoring program (whether it be from the coordinator teaching the participants or the mentor educating their protégé) needs to honour the principles of andragogy. Adult learners are influenced by situational/individual differences and goals/purposes of learning. Andragogy differs significantly from pedagogy in that adults need to know; why, what, and how when it comes to learning. Their motivation to learn is based on context and problem solving and their life experiences enrich the learning process. Adults also need to be internally motivated and self-directed. They typically become ready to learn when they need to perform a task or cope with a life situation (Knowles, Holton III and Swanson 2005). Andragogy is most successful when it is a flexible process in which the adult is involved in diagnosing, planning, implementing, and evaluating their own learning.

Relationship Structure

In the literature, the majority of mentoring pairs set their expectations and goals together. In some programs, vision for the relationship is set by the organization.

Scholars suggest that mentors be given latitude to address the best way they can help their protégés. Certain programs require the protégé to examine their developmental needs with their supervisor prior to meeting with their mentor. Organizational behaviour literature is definitive that positive outcomes result from setting clearly defined SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, and time-bound) goals.

Time is an extremely valuable commodity. To determine the method and frequency in which the dyads interact is challenging. Studies show that participants report greater benefit the more frequently they interact especially during the early stages of the relationship (Allen, Eby and Lentz 2006). Surveys indicate that a wide range of timelines exist in regards to meeting frequencey. The majority of programs recommended monthly meetings (P-Sontage, Vappie and Wanberg 2007). Almost half of the 41 companies polled by Finkelstein and Poteet advocated that the partners meet monthly, 15% suggested weekly, 12% advised longer time frames such as every few months, and some did not specify at all (Finkelstein and Poteet 2007). The consensus is that regular meetings, whether endorsed in policy or not, provide improved benefits. The method in which the partners met did not have a bearing on quality if at least some of the interactions were face-to-face.

The duration of the various programs studied for the most part was time-limited rather that goal-limited. The majority of the programs fell in the range of nine to twenty-four months, where the most common period was twelve months.

LIMITATION

The limitations in the literature expose a "clash in scientific observation and experience of practitioners" (Clutterbuck 2004) when it comes to whether formal or informal mentoring programs create the greatest benefit. Practitioners consistently subscribe to the fact that formal structure outweighs informal attraction where academics traditionally tend to prefer informal programs. More recent academic literature discusses the value of formal programs particularly if some partner choice is given to the participants. Other limitations described by meta-analytical researchers expressed concern that the majority (60% since the last critical review in 1983) of the studies available did not include a test group, only descriptive self-reporting with low response rates (Underhill 2006). Another limitation discussed the fact that mentoring can't "unambiguously" be linked to the positive outcomes as there may be other causal factors (Eby, Allen, et al. 2008) (Parise and Forret 2008) (Underhill 2006).

DISCUSSION

Mentoring resembles three developmental learning theories; (1) scaffolding which assists in career outcomes, (2) intent participation and (3) self-efficacy both of which are linked to psychosocial outcomes. Scaffolding is stage-appropriate skill building where the mentor builds a temporary platform in which the protégé can develop their knowledge, skills and abilities, learn conceptual structure, vocabulary, and common practices. Intent participation is based on "observation in anticipation

of engaging in an activity." Lastly, self-efficacy which means the belief in one's abilities is a predictor of actual ability. Self-efficacy is developed through: "Graduated mastery (found in scaffolding), vicarious role modeling (present in intent participation), social persuasion (which is positive feedback and encouragement), and emotional experience (related to anxiety versus enthusiasm)" (Bearman, et al. 2007). According to Bearman's research, the reason why mentoring works is because of the positive effects mentoring creates in the area of self-efficacy.

The need for continuous learning is colossal in today's competitive business environment. When pooled with a yearning for human relationship, a mentoring program fosters organizational vigor. For the City of Prince George (CPG) a mentoring program already aligns with the City's Corporate Plan that states:

"Our employees are:
our most important resource and the
foundation of our organization and
service to the community"

as well as the corporate values of:

honesty and integrity
courageous leadership
innovation
commitment, energy and enthusiasm
and respect

(City of Prince George Corporate Plan 2007). Mentoring has been on the corporate radar for years as it has been discussed in the Human Resource Department, listed in the Leadership Development Draft Outline, and acknowledged in the Annual Report.

CPG protégés would profit from courageous leadership, energy, and enthusiasm of the seasoned leaders infused throughout the organization. Benefits identified in the literature review such as; greater organizational commitment, improved morale, job satisfaction, accelerated leadership development, better succession planning, increased retention, and reduced stress would directly flow into the CPG.

Research Question #1

The key elements in a successful, sustainable mentoring program for the CPG are best summarized in the works of practitioners Catharine Mossop of Sage Mentors Inc. and Lois Zachary of Leadership Development Services. Mossop's seven "best practice" pillars are:

1. Mentoring program goals must link to CPG's strategic direction.
2. The program design must be structured.
3. A skilled champion is required.
4. The program needs a credible internal coordinator.
5. Training and preparation is provided to the mentors and protégés clarifying responsibilities and ethical dimensions of the relationship.
6. A mentor for the mentors is available to support the mentorship role and relationship with protégés.
7. Program evaluation is linked to the goals and strategic direction of the CPG.

As discussed previously, mentorship aligns with the corporate plan however the specific goals for the program need to be defined. In response to the Succession Management Guidebook (written by the CPG's Director of Corporate Services) which highlights the fact that a large number of CPG's workforce is made up of "Baby Boomers" the initiation of a pilot formal mentoring program is suggested for the

purpose of (1) capturing the intellectual property and planning for succession of key leaders as this is the area that is exposed to the greatest retirement risk, and (2) retaining and accelerating the development of current high potentials to eventually fill those crucial positions.

The focal point remains on the senior management team as they are the ones who direct the entire organization (see Appendix 2). It would be optimal to find the skilled champion amongst their ranks because to remain sustainable a mentoring program necessitates "an incumbent, an emerging leader, and a veteran leader steering the mentoring agenda" (Zachary 2005).

The program design for the formal mentorship pilot will provide structure, policies, guidelines and assistance in facilitating mentoring relationships. Meeting monthly, the other desirable elements in the framework for CPG's pilot model include a one-to-one relationship between mentor and protégé to allow for a developmental learning plan tailored to the individual protégé. It is recommended to follow Clutterbuck's guidance that the relationship is non-directive, in that it is the protégé who takes proactive prime responsibility in agenda setting and the mentor's role is that of an enabling facilitator which adheres to the principles of andragogy. It is understood that the objective career outcomes along with the subjective emotional and psychological support are equally important for overall protégé development. Therefore, both career and psychosocial outcomes will be encouraged remaining dependent on the learning needs of the protégé.

This pilot will be voluntary in nature, allowing for some partner assignment choice for the mentor as they are scarce in the organization. However, the protégé will be allowed to refuse a mentor without negative repercussions. Personality type testing such as Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) should be offered to the participants during the preparing phase. The purpose being to help the dyads better understand their own and their partner's psychological type resulting in identifying differences that can be a source of misunderstanding and miscommunication (Briggs Myers, Kirby and Myers 1998). MBTI would not be used as a method to match sameness, rather as an instrument for cultivating awareness toward normal personality differences.

The process would start with a cross-functional Implementation Team who would spear-head the marketing scheme to promote the pilot via intranet, bulletin boards and internal media release. The team would include the internal coordinator (who acts as the mentor to the mentors), an HR staff member and other gifted, interested, enthusiastic individuals. Next, a call for and nomination of participants would occur. Candidates would complete an Application and Skills Assessment Inventory. Prospective protégés would be required to review with their supervisor and submit Section A of the Employee Learning Plan provided by HR in their "Making the Most of Training – A Guide for Supervisors. All dyads would work through negotiating a Mentoring Agreement. An example of the Mentoring Model is found in Appendix 3.

Research Question #2

The answer to the question of significant differences between the formal mentoring programs discussed in the literature and that of the CPG is twofold. First, since the CPG does not currently have an active formal mentoring program than the answer is obvious that the CPG differs from the literature. However the next step is to view the question from the perspective of whether or not the literature can be applied to the CPG. Although some of the studies surveyed federal government employees, none specifically stated that they interviewed municipal government workers. I do not see this as a problem in developing a mentoring framework for the CPG as a lot of the inquiry relates to social learning theory, leader member exchange theory, five factor model of personality, and organizational behaviour none of which are industry specific.

Research Question #3

When discussing the cost and benefits of a mentoring program, one must first identify the costs associated with an external hire. Identified at the International Mentoring Conference in Las Vegas in April of 2008; the costs of integration and productivity of a new external hire can be up to three times salary. Therefore, replacement cost of one top talent is six times annual salary - the cost of one loss and one replacement. The recruiting fee for one executive is generally $35,000 or more. Rey Carr's cost estimate on employee replacement is more conservative. Although Carr does not clarify the level of the employee, he states that the cost is

two times salary plus lost productivity (Butyn 2007). Consequently, there are substantial costs associated with losing and buying talent as opposed to retaining and growing talent internally. According to Murray, "the acid test of a commitment to developing people is whether upper-level managers would rather grow competence than buy it" (Murray 2001).

To provide a proper estimate on the value or benefit of mentoring the Phillips Method is a credible way to calculate the development return on investment (ROI) (Phillips 2003). This method works best if it is applied to only one program that can be linked to a direct payoff so the impact can be isolated. The formula is based on the following (Mossop 2008):

A. = Raw Value – the attributed annual value of savings or gains before reductions to achieve a realistic value.
B. = Confidence Factor – assign a confidence value that addresses the question, "How confident am I that the raw value number is accurate?" and record in a percent.
C. = Direct Influence Factor – the degree to which the program directly influenced the savings or gains in a percent (other factors taken into consideration might include an overall company mandate to change, a change in business or other processes that may have influenced the outcome).
D. = Attributed Benefits – the sum total of all adjusted and attributed values for all participants in the program.
E. = Attributed Costs. The total of all attributed costs for the program including; design, facilitation, hourly rate of participants off the regular work, facilities etc.

Formula:

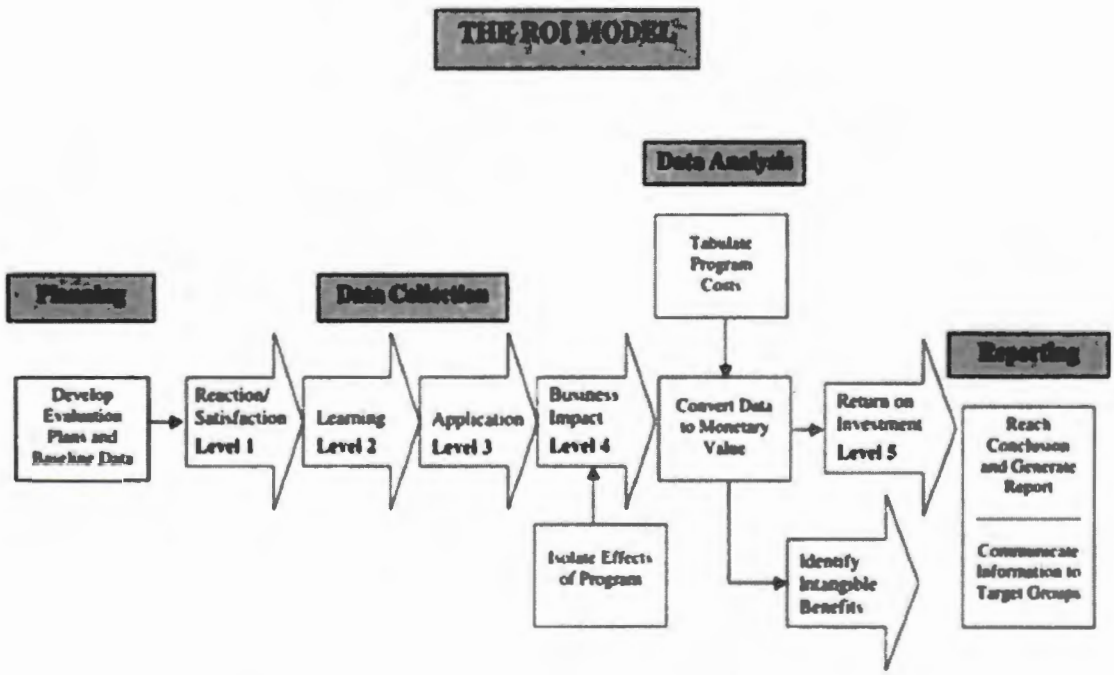
$$(A \times B) \times C = D$$
$$(\sum D / E) \times 100 = ROI$$

In other words:

(Raw Value x Confidence factor) x Direct Influence Factor = Attributed Benefits
(Sum of Attributed Benefits / Attributed Costs) x 100 = Return on Investment

In a not-for-profit organization such as the CPG this will present a solid business case for the investment. Following in Figure 7 is a pictorial view of the logical, systematic process Jack J. Phillips developed in his ROI Model (Phillips 2003, p32).

Figure 7 – Jack J. Phillips' ROI Model



Other constructive benefits are identified in a U.S. national poll conducted by the Welfare to Work Partnership in 1999 regarding the impact of mentoring on the workforce (Gray 2005);

- 75% reported improved work performance,
- 67% reported higher job retention,
- 63% reported reduced absenteeism, and
- 52% reported that mentoring resulted in cost savings for the company.

Since mentoring is tailored to each individual it is 100% applicable to the recipient whereas most standard formal training programs designed, to meet everyone's needs, thereby becoming only 15 to 20% relevant to each individual (Gray 2005).

The majority of mentor-protégé interaction occurs outside of normal working hours. Therefore, the cost associated with a mentoring program is heavily tied to the time required for the Mentoring Coordinator to research, train, implement monitor, and evaluate the program (see Figure 8).

Figure 8 – Table of Estimated Hours Required per Mentoring Program

TASK	ESTIMATED HOURS
Research	12.5 – 13.8 hours
Benchmarking	10.7 – 12.7 hours
Document Need for Program	8.6 – 11.4 hours
Planning	12.5 – 14.4 hours
Publicity	11.0 – 12.9 hours
Selection	10.3 – 12.7 hours
Matching	10.3 – 13.0 hours
Training	12.8 – 13.5 hours
Trainer Preparation	10.3 – 12.4 hours
Monitoring	11.2 – 13.2 hours
Determine Protégé Benefits	8.7 – 11.1 hours
Determine Mentor Benefits	4.7 – 7.2 hours
Determine Return on Investment	7.5 – 10.1 hours
Total Estimated Hours	**131.1 – 158.4 hours**

(Gray 2005)

To more adequately ascertain the value and costs of a mentoring program for the CPG, actual participants would need to be identified to prepare the calculations.

RECOMMENDATION

Combining an examination of the mentoring literature with what is known about the needs and corporate culture at the City of Prince George, a formal mentoring program is recommended to capture the corporate DNA, enhance succession

planning, increase retention rates, assist in diversity, and intensify organizational attraction.

The five phases of program design and implementation, as identified in the components of a formal mentoring program section in the literature review are (Mossop 2007):

- Feasibility – building the business case and laying the foundation,
- Blueprint – generating the design, creating the plan, and establishing the goals for the program,
- Construction – marketing, communication, and program launch
- Operation – processes that support the program
- Close – review, evaluate and improve the program

Succession planning is critical. Appendix 1 indicates that 35.8% of the entire employee population of the City of Prince George is at risk of retiring. Departmentally, Development and Operations have the highest exposure of 45.9% followed closely by Corporate Services at 44.0%, Administrative Services at 43.3%, City Manager's Office at 30.8%, and finally Community Services at 17.4%. The range in risk Divisionally is quite large, with Bylaw at the high end with 73.7% and Aquatics at the low end with 6.9%. Over half (53.1%) of the key leadership positions (directors and management) are currently at some level of risk. This risk needs to be addressed.

Further research is required specifically focusing on organizational cultural readiness, senior management endorsement and willingness to participate. Additional areas to pursue are possible mentoring partnerships with other

organizations such as the Regional District, Northern Health, First Nations groups, the College of New Caledonia, the University of Northern British Columbia, and other municipalities.

The implementation would be a phased process, starting with a small internal pilot that collaborates with the union and advances toward the broader partnerships. Sustainability rests in the arms of continuing high level support from senior organizational officials and an anchoring in the corporate culture, Integrated Community Sustainability Plan and Corporate Plan.

CONCLUSION

In light of the immense and burgeoning volumes of data on mentoring both in the forms of scholarly research and practitioner literature, to synthesize the information proved to be exigent. However, in this changing organizational environment where a traditional pattern of moving up a "defined organizational ladder" is not as prevalent and issues of balancing work, family, and community are more relevant, the requirement of "meta-skills" (creative adaptation to new experiences, roles or processes) is necessary (Bearman, et al. 2007). Mentoring assists in developing those meta-skills and is a smart way of doing business that would benefit any organization. For the City of Prince George, mentoring would also assist with the corporate succession plan and in a utopian world; everyone would be a mentored mentor.

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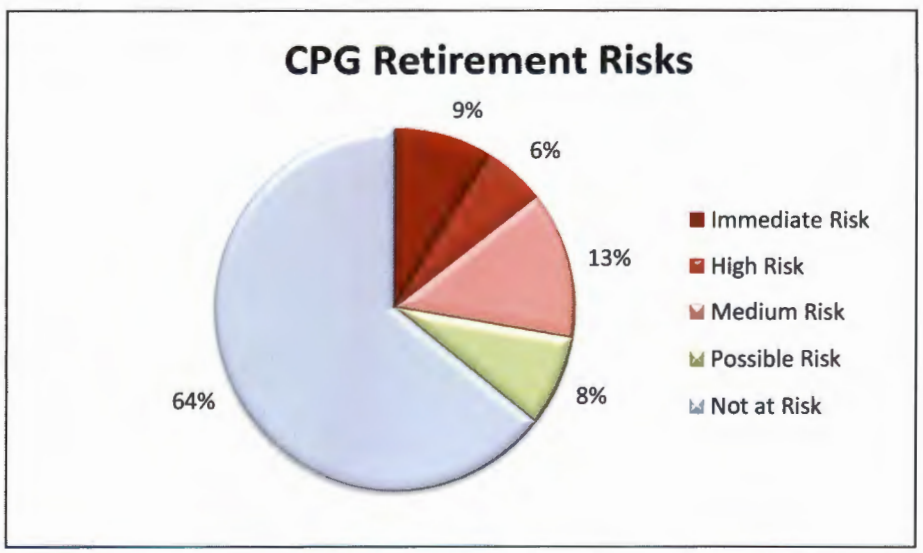
Appendix 1 – Retirement Risk Statistics

CITYWIDE Retirement Risks

Rule of 90 (Rule of 80 for IAFF) is age + years of pensionable service. At the age where an employee reaches their threshold they are eligible to receive their unreduced pension. For example if an employee started at 30 yrs of age and works non-stop, they would be eligible for an unreduced pension at 60 instead of 65. Firefighters have a mandatory retirement age of 55, so their pension eligibility is calculated using 80 instead of 90.

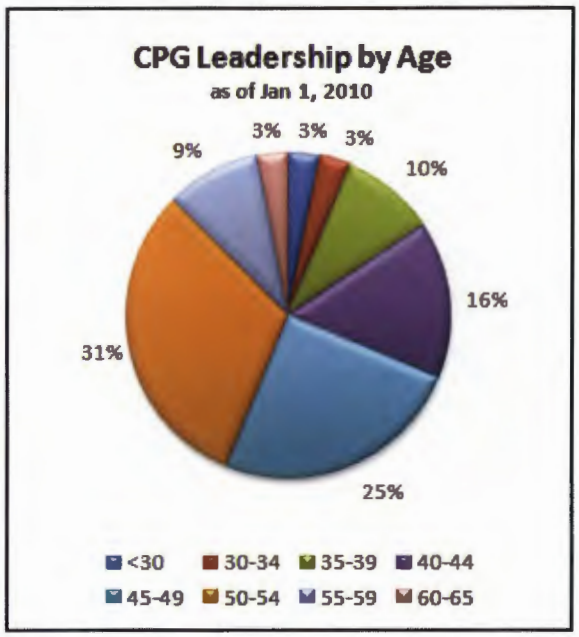
Immediate Risk	67
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	14
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3 years	9
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3 years	44
High Risk	42
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	8
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3-5 years	2
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3-5 years	32
Medium Risk	101
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	41
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 5-10 years	19
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 5-10 years	41
Possible Risk	61
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54 yrs)	61
Total City Employees	758
Total Positions at Risk	271
% of City	**35.8%**



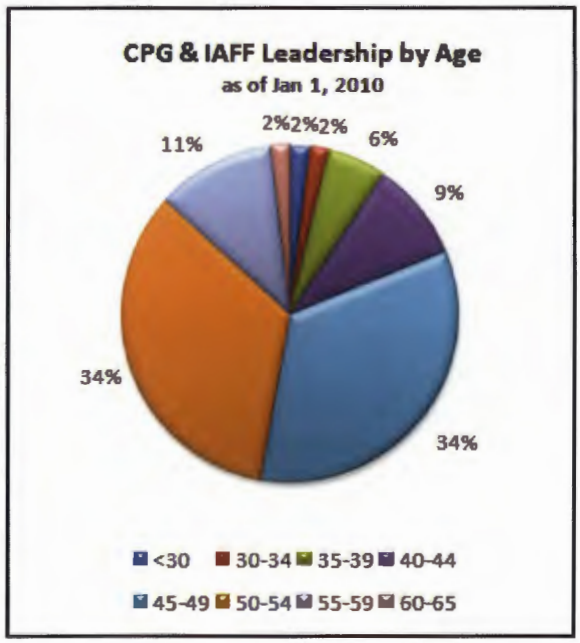
Appendix 1, continued

City Leadership

CPG Leadershp Retirement Risks *Does not include IAFF Chiefs or Captains*	
Immediate Risk	**3**
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	1
90 Rule within 3 years	2
High Risk	**2**
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	0
90 Rule within 3-5 years	2
Medium Risk	**8**
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	1
90 Rule within 5-10 years	7
Possible Risk	**4**
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54)	4
Total Leadership Employees	**32**
Total Positions at Risk	**17**
% of Leadership	**53.1%**



CPG & IAFF Leadership Retirement Risks *Includes IAFF Chiefs and Captains*	
Immediate Risk	**17**
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	1
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3 years	5
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3 years	11
High Risk	**6**
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	0
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3-5 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3-5 years	6
Medium Risk	**10**
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	1
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 5-10 years	2
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 5-10 years	7
Possible Risk	**4**
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54 y	4
Total CPG & IAFF Leadership Employees	**53**
Total Positions at Risk	**37**
% of City	**69.8%**

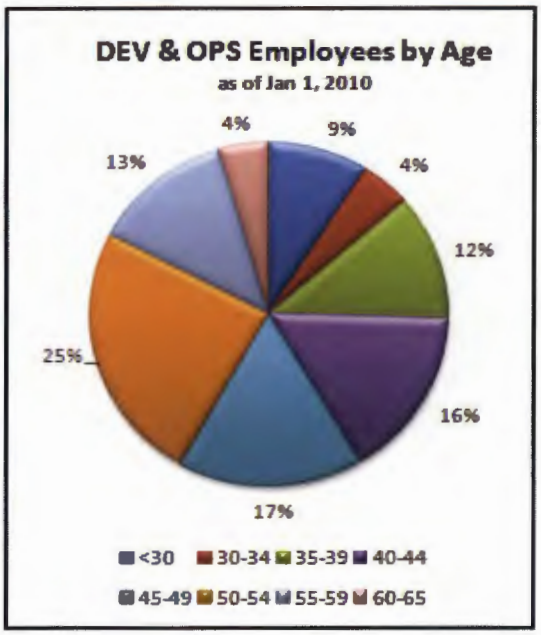


Note: Leadership for the purpose of the above statistics is defined as; the City Manager, directors, managers, and key persons such as the Chief Engineer and the Chief Building Inspector. The distinction between the two leadership statistics rests on the inclusion/exclusion of International Association of Fire Fighters (IAFF) chiefs and captains.

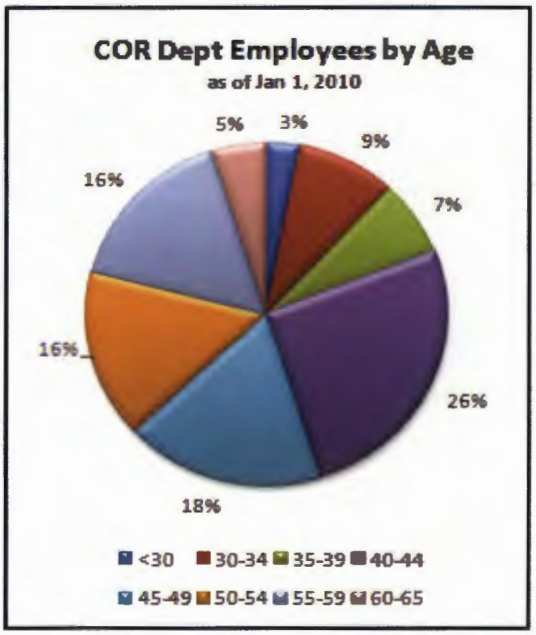
Appendix 1, continued

Development & Operations and Corporate Services

DEV & OPS Retirement Risks	
Immediate Risk	26
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	5
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3 years	21
High Risk	21
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	2
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3-5 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3-5 years	19
Medium Risk	36
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	17
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 5-10 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 5-10 years	19
Possible Risk	18
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54)	18
Total DEV & OPS Dept	**220**
Total Positions at Risk	**101**
% of DEV & OPS Dept	**45.9%**



COR Department Retirement Risks	
Immediate Risk	6
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	1
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3 years	5
High Risk	9
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	3
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3-5 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3-5 years	6
Medium Risk	20
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	13
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 5-10 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 5-10 years	7
Possible Risk	9
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54 y	9
Total COR Dept Employees	**100**
Total Positions at Risk	**44**
% of COR Dept	**44.0%**

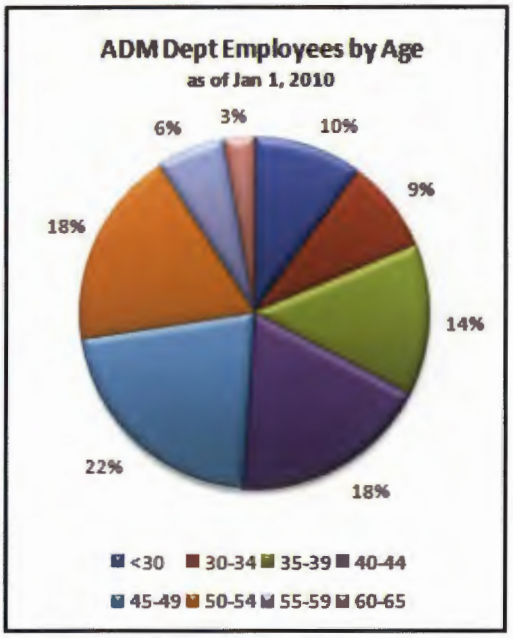


*** Employees that fall into more than one risk category are only counted once (in the first category that they fall into) - please refer to colour coded data to see additional risk factors for individual employees***

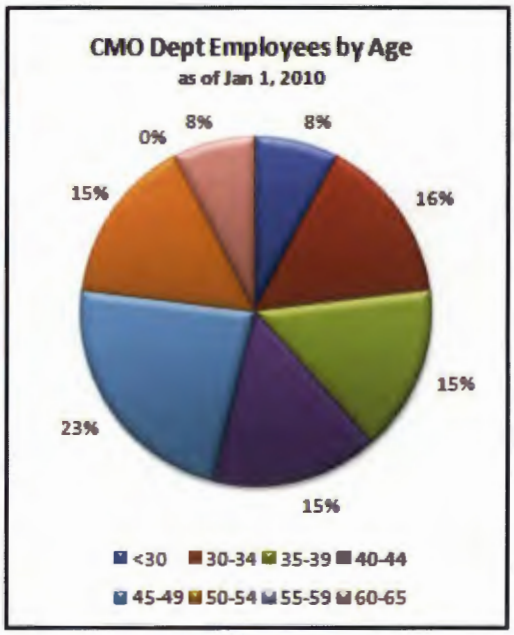
Appendix 1, continued

Administrative Services and City Manager's Office

ADM Department Retirement Risks	
Immediate Risk	26
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	3
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3 years	9
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3 years	14
High Risk	9
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	2
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3-5 years	2
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3-5 years	5
Medium Risk	37
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	8
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 5-10 years	19
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 5-10 years	10
Possible Risk	18
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54)	18
Total Employees in Department	**208**
Total Positions at Risk	**90**
% of ADM Department	**43.3%**



CMO Department Retirement Risks	
Immediate Risk	1
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	1
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3 years	0
High Risk	0
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	0
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3-5 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3-5 years	0
Medium Risk	3
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	0
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 5-10 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 5-10 years	3
Possible Risk	18
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54)	0
Total CMO Dept Employees	**13**
Total Positions at Risk	**4**
% of CMO Dept	**30.8%**

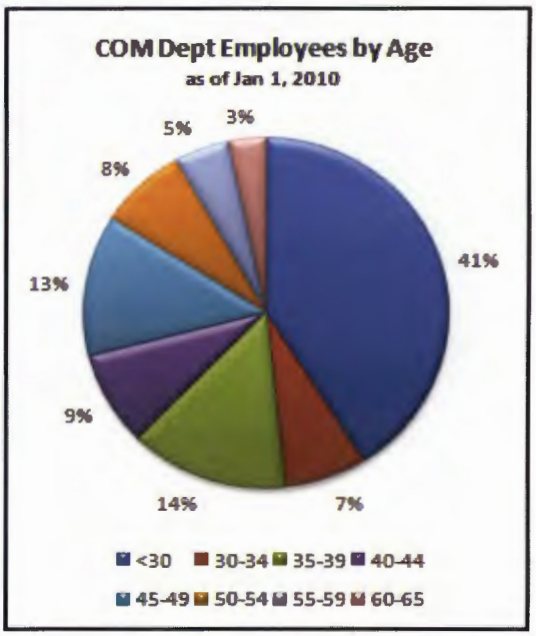


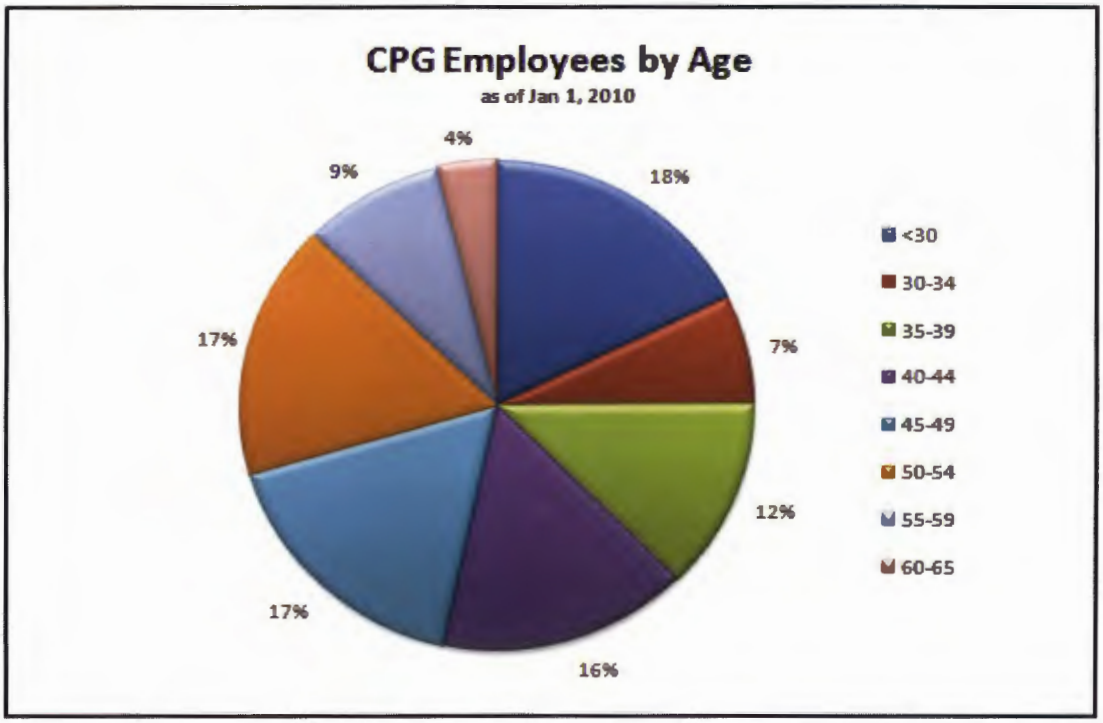
*** Employees that fall into more than one risk category are only counted once (in the first category that they fall into) - please refer to colour coded data to see additional risk factors for individual employees***

Appendix 1, continued

Community Services and City Wide Age Distribution

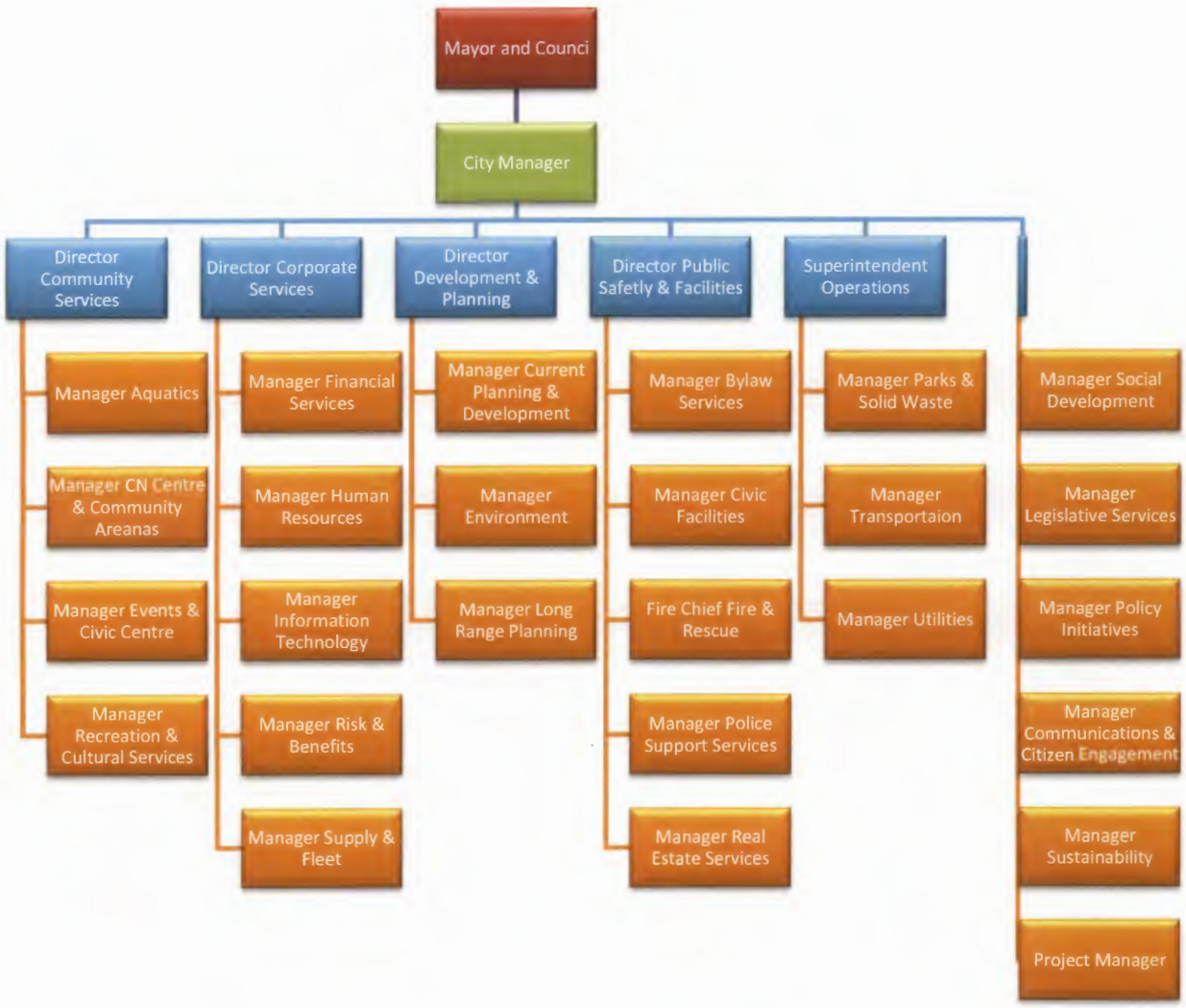
COM Department Retirement Risks	
Immediate Risk	
Is or will turn 65 within 3 years	4
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3 years	4
High Risk	
Is or will turn 65 within 5 years	2
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 3-5 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 3-5 years	2
Medium Risk	
Is or will turn 65 within 5-10 years	9
IAFF Mandatory Retirement within 5-10 years	0
90 Rule or IAFF 80 Rule within 5-10 years	2
Possible Risk	
Can retire in 5-10 years w/reduced pension (50-54 y	13
Total COM Dept Employees	**207**
Total Positions at Risk	**36**
% of COM Dept	**17.4%**



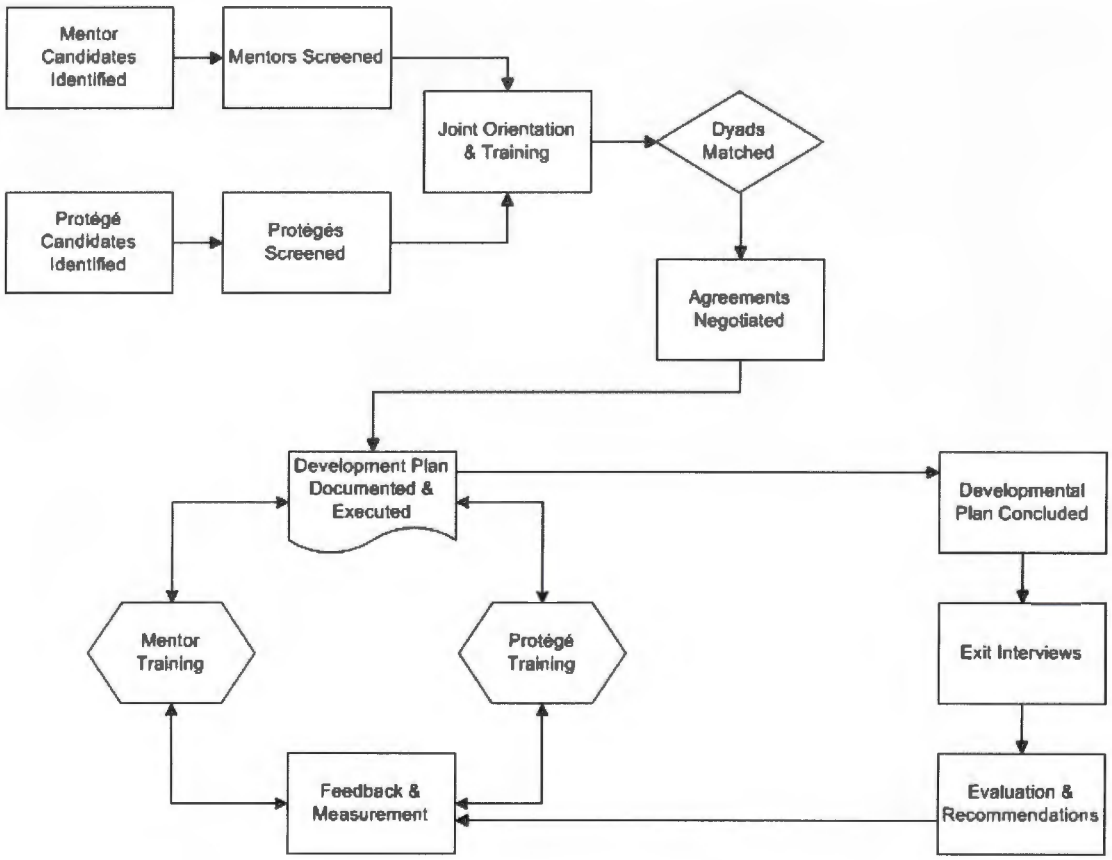


Appendix 2 – CPG Organizational Chart

As of March 30, 2010



Appendix 3 – CPG Mentoring Model



This diagram is based on the Trinity College Mentoring Program but it is a hybrid that contains ideas from the activity flow for RINA Accountancy Corporation and MMHA's Facilitated Mentoring Implementation Flow (Murray 2001 p76, 87, &92.)