



**Utrecht University**



# **Why do they do it?**

Differences in motivation to become a mentor and the effect  
on their intent to remain

Master thesis Contemporary Social Problems  
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## Abstract

*This research gives an insight into the motivations that student mentors value in their mentor job, and how this affects their intent to remain and lowest acceptable hourly wage. The main theoretical constructs that are tested in relation to intent to remain are intrinsic motivation, altruism, extrinsic motivation, and human capital. Besides this the effect of intrinsic motivation on lowest acceptable hourly wage is tested, the effect of the level of importance of social capital on the level of importance of human capital, the effect of more mentoring experience on the level of social identification, and the effect of gender on the constructs of altruism, extrinsic motivation, and human capital. The research has been done on basis of a survey among Glasgow Caledonian University student mentors. Additionally a policy advice has been given regarding improvement of the level of the Common Good Attributes present in the mentor job and suggestions have been given to improve recruitment and retention of mentors within the organisation.*

**Keywords:** ‘Mentor’ ‘Intrinsic motivation’ ‘Altruism’ ‘Extrinsic motivation’ ‘Social capital’ ‘Human capital’ ‘Social identification’

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## 1. Introduction

‘To be motivated means *to be moved* to do something’ (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 54). Motivations to do a certain action can differ severely per person, situation, and action. The motivations to volunteer have been researched often, over a long time, and between various disciplines like sociology, psychology, and economics. People are defined as unmotivated when they feel no impetus or inspiration to start acting, whereas people who are energized or feel activated due to a certain reason are considered motivated (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Motivation is essential for both paid and unpaid volunteering, to initially sign up and for organisations to retain these people. This research revolves around the Glasgow Caledonian University (GCU) mentors and will look into their motivations to start mentoring, continue mentoring, and possible policy improvements by the organisation. Mentoring in this thesis is seen as a form of paid volunteering. In the world of unpaid volunteers, paid volunteers, and regular employment, managers have the difficult task to keep the people around them motivated, to increase or sustain productivity. Often the concept of motivation is viewed as if it is something that people do or do not have, or just in a low versus high scale. While in fact it is not as unidimensional as assumed by some. Often a clear divide is made between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Anderson and Moore, 1978; Bénabou and Tirole, 2003; Gagne and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Besides this divide there are differences as well, as presented in Gagne and Deci (2005) who show that extrinsic motivation is not a “pale and impoverished, yet powerful” tool as presented in deCharms (1968), but rather a spectrum ranging from pure external extrinsic motivation to internalised extrinsic motivation.

Besides the typical divide of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation this research shall also look into the motives of gaining social capital (Bourdieu, 1984; Calhoun, LiPuma, and Postone, 1993; Webb, Schirato, and Danaher, 2002) and human capital (Becker, 1975; Becker, 1994; Mincer and Polachek, 1974; Unger, 1991) as main motivation to start their mentoring work. Bourdieu (1984) argues that even though a person might have the same educational degree as someone else, there will still be noticeable differences in social capital, influencing his or her class level and the amount of useful connections and so affecting his or her level of competition in the career market. Calhoun et al. (1993) describes how power relations shape the social relation between the lower and upper class. Calhoun et al. (1993) state that “the social world can be conceived as a multidimensional space that can be constructed empirically by discovering the main factors of differentiation which account for the differences observed in a given social universe, or, in other words, by discovering the power or *forms of capital* which

are or can become efficient, like aces in a game of cards” (p. 69). People compete for scarce goods, in this case to reach a better position on the job market. They try to acquire as much capital as possible, to have that extra ‘ace up their sleeve’. Where Bourdieu sees capital as a social struggle for power, Becker (1994) calculates human capital in a more economical way. Becker (1994) sees education and training as the best ways of investing in a human being, and argues that it reaps high monetary results over time, even with the cost of education considered. Skills training of employees on the job, in this case the GCU mentors, increases productivity by learning new skills and perfecting old ones (Becker, 1975). Due to the both general and specific training given to the mentors, their productivity on the job will increase and on top of this their employability later on in life. From working with the Caledonian Club, the mentors could increase both forms of abovementioned capital. Social capital improves by increasing their network and human capital improves by receiving on-the-job training. This is why besides intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the motivation to gain social and human capital shall be included as well.

Finally this research shall look into the motivational reasons to remain a paid volunteer after the possible initial goals of intrinsic motivation, and the acquirement of social and human capital have been met. Using the social identity theory developed by Henri Tajfel (1978, 1981; Tajfel and Turner, 1985) and John Turner (1975, 1982, 1984, 1985), and further described by Ashforth and Mael (1989), and the role identity theory by Piliavin and colleagues (Callero, Howard, and Piliavin, 1987; Grube and Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin and Callero, 1991; Piliavin, Grube, and Callero, 2002). Both these theories argue that a person creates a certain connection to a group or social concept after continued interaction. The social identification process links an individual to an organisation and via this way the person internalises the values of the organisation over time, making the organisation a part of his or her identity (Boezeman and Ellemers, 2007). This social process is one explanation why both paid and unpaid volunteers stay with an organisation for an extended period of time and do not quit or change organisations as fast as a simple cost-benefit calculation would suggest.

As the GCU mentors in this research receive compensation for their social work, this research is in a unique position to add to the debate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. There has been a considerable amount of research on the effects intrinsic and extrinsic motivators have on each other but the conclusions often differ. Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (2001) state that “the finding that extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation has been highly controversial since it first appeared (Deci, 1971)” (p. 1), with authors like Deci et al. (2001) claiming that extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation, and some authors

like Cameron and Pierce (1994) arguing that the undermining effects of extrinsic motivators on intrinsic motivation are minimal and largely inconsequential. Deci et al. (2001) however disagree with the previously named findings and controversy. They argue that extrinsic rewards do undermine intrinsic motivation and that the research of Cameron and Pierce (1994) is not properly executed.

Both in research into the motivational reasons of paid student mentors (Gerstein, Wilkeson, and Anderson, 2004) and unpaid student volunteers (Holdsworth, 2010) the same main themes are found. In both categories of paid and unpaid volunteers the altruistic motive is the strongest one. The motives do differ per sex. Men tend to emphasize the gained skill and pay more while women emphasize both altruistic reasons and reasons in line with gaining human capital (Gerstein et al., 2004). The divide in motives between men and women and the phenomenon that paid volunteers still state their main motivation is an altruistic one shall also be looked at in this research. Holdsworth (2010) also found that even though “I wanted to help someone or the community” was the strongest motivational reason to become a volunteer with 69,2% of students stating this as one of their reasons, the students who volunteered in an area that also related to their study were most strongly motivated by gaining skills and employability. Both Gerstein et al. (2004) and Holdsworth (2010) found that altruism, egoism, social capital, and gaining skills and employability were among the highest occurring motivations for both paid and unpaid volunteers to become mentors. Both Gerstein et al. (2004) and Holdsworth (2010) in this way support the main themes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, social capital, and human capital as showed previously. This research shall test these findings of Gerstein et al. (2004) and Holdsworth (2010) and see if they are still accurate.

Glasgow has traditionally been a city with multiple social problems. The educational environment in Glasgow has been lagging behind on national averages in multiple areas, and an estimated one in three children in Glasgow is living in poverty, increasing to two in five for the most impoverished areas (McKendrick et al., 2014). 58% of Glasgow’s pupils live in Scotland’s 20% most deprived areas. These numbers have been decreasing since 2001, however they have not caught up with the national averages. To combat these lower educational outcomes and increase the Glasgow averages the Caledonian Club was created (McKendrick and Brown, 2017). The Caledonian Club is an initiative created by the Glasgow Caledonian University (GCU) in 2008. It is a ‘long-term commitment by GCU to raise the aspirations and outcomes of children in partner schools over a generation’ (McKendrick and Brown, 2017). It believes in a ‘theory of change’ that sees the Caledonian Club as an anchor, part of the pupil’s lifeworld, enabler, and possible inspirational ‘tipping point’ in the life of the children they work

with. The anchor refers to being a stable and constant presence in the life of the pupils they work with. The 'lifeworld' part argues that due to the recurring presence in their lives, university becomes a familiar realm to the children and they see that it is occupied by people just like them, from neighbourhoods just like theirs. The Caledonian Club is an enabler in the sense that through presenting opportunities for further development, it assists children to raise their potential for university-level study. The tipping point is the crucial part of the theory of change. GCU acknowledges that deprived children in Glasgow face too many challenges for the work of the Caledonian Club to be sufficient in its own. However, it might just be the inspirational tipping point that causes a child to end up in a university-level study instead of a lower education level. With their work the Caledonian Club aspires to at least narrow the educational gap of progression into higher education between its schools and the Glasgow benchmark, and more preferably completely eradicate this gap (McKendrick and Brown, 2017).

The projects of the Caledonian Club range from nursery to the sixth grade of secondary school, working with children between three and eighteen years old. The nursery project revolves around showing the parents the university and raising the parents' aspirations for their child from a young age onwards. The Caledonian Club has researched the profile of the pupils' parents. This shows that 69% of the parents have enjoyed school, however, the parents often have low levels of school qualifications. 18% reported not having a Scottish Higher level or above, and 25% left school without any school qualification. The parents often left school at an early age and 66% left for work or work-related training. Only 6% progressed to university (McKendrick and Brown, 2017). The projects that work with the pupils themselves range from second grade in primary school all the way to the sixth grade of secondary school. These projects aim to increase the aspirations of the pupils to perform better and eventually end up in on a university level degree. They cover activities like creating an illustrated book, newsletter, or mural, university tours, information on student work and life, career options for students, and a multiple day business related challenge where they can study multiple topics over the course of two days to discover what truly interests them. Additionally, when a student is close to starting university they can shadow a currently enrolled student for a day (McKendrick and Brown, 2017). These projects are divided over four main programme areas of the Caledonian Club. The mentors work in either just one area or multiple ones over time. The first programme area is 'Arts and Language' which focuses on 'providing opportunities for pupils to explore, develop, and celebrate their creativity' (Caledonian Club Programme Areas, 2017). These focus on the younger pupils in primary school. The second programme area is 'Future



Aspirations' which deals with enhancing aspirations of secondary school pupils. The third one is 'Transition'; this area focuses on the moments just before a pupil goes to primary school and just after a pupil arrived at secondary school. The fourth one is a big upcoming area and a project on its own; the 'Literacy Programme'. This is an eight-week programme with primary two pupils to improve on multiple aspects of their literacy (Caledonian Club, 2017). The Caledonian Club works with school in five different communities in Glasgow; these are the All Saints cluster, the Drumchapel cluster, the Springburn cluster, the St Margaret Mary's cluster, and the Whitehill cluster. Together these five clusters consist of sixteen nurseries, primary and secondary schools (Glasgow City Council, 2014). The work of the Caledonian Club contributes to the Scottish Attainment Challenge, launched in February 2015 by Scottish First Minister Nicola Sturgeon. Although the Caledonian Club is not a formal part of the Scottish Attainment Challenge, their goals overlap in most areas. The Scottish Attainment Challenge focuses on closing the educational gap of the most deprived areas as described above (Scottish Government, 2017).

As shown by McKendrick et al. (2014) and Wilson et al. (2014) there is a significant gap in progress into higher education for the most deprived 20% of Scotland and the 20% least deprived. Wilson et al. (2014) argues from a constructivist approach that people build their understanding of the world through their experiences. This also goes for the deprived pupils in the communities that the Caledonian Club works with. It is assumed that the pupils often have low aspirations in regard to progress into higher education. Wilson et al. (2014) argues the main reason for this is that policies aimed on diminishing the existing social barriers are failing. Besides low educational aspirations, the pupils from a lower socio-economic background often have less social capital than youth from average or high socio-economic backgrounds. By being mentored by a university student, the deprived pupils will gain more social capital, feel they are worthy of knowledge and have the same chances of achieving positive outcomes in education as those from higher socio-economic classes. These results are also found by a recent meta-analysis of 73 mentoring programmes in the USA (DuBois et al, 2011). This study by DuBois et al. (2011), as described in Wilson et al. (2014), found results that "supported the overall effectiveness of mentoring in improving outcomes for young people across the social, emotional, academic and behavioural domains" (Wilson et al., 2014, p. 22). This could in turn improve the balance of different socio-economic backgrounds entering university, and eventually contribute to lessening the education gap between the socio-economic classes (Wilson et al., 2014). To get these mentors to work with pupils from lower socio-economic backgrounds their motivations to do so need to be understood. Understanding these motivations

can help the recruitment and intent to remain at the organisation. Additional societal relevance is that this thesis will also provide organisations with the knowledge to more efficiently attract and retain both unpaid and paid volunteers, resulting in a bigger workforce for social work and more thriving organisations. This can in turn positively stimulate active membership in democratic society (De Tocqueville, 1945). De Tocqueville (1945) believed that voluntary and social work organisations were an essential intermediary between the general population and their government. Active membership in organisations in this way contributes to the generalized trust in society. Putnam, Leonardi, and Nanetti (1994) later revitalised this theory and added the notion of social capital to De Tocqueville's work. Being a member of an organisation and performing either voluntary or paid social work can enhance the trust, norms, and networks between these members of society and in this way improve the efficiency of society. By being a member of an organisation, people increase their social capital but also increase their organisational skills (i.e., organising a meeting) and are therefore more likely to be active in political society (Wilson and Musick, 1999).

As stated previously, this thesis will also add to the scientific debate and enhancement of knowledge on paid volunteers and mentoring. This research is in a unique position to test the effect of pay on volunteer work. The research will look into the intrinsic and extrinsic divide, the accumulation of social and human capital, and the social identities the mentors shape for themselves, and measure which of these processes has the strongest influence on the decision to become a mentor and to remain a mentor. By adding social capital (Bourdieu, 1984), human capital (Becker, 1994), and the social identity of the mentor (Charng, Piliavin, and Callero, 1988; Tajfel and Turner, 1985) this research will try to break through the simple dichotomy of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and add to the broader understanding of motivational reasons of mentors. Besides this, these previously named theories are often based on somewhat dated data. Testing these theories in a contemporary setting will either strengthen them by proving their worth once more, or show that these theories do not apply to this setting, and thus might be in need of an update or can be refuted. Science cannot fully prove, but it can disprove. This is why it is always useful to re-test theories and see if they can be falsified (Lakatos, 1976).

The Glasgow Caledonian University has a university wide policy to implement the 'Common Good Curriculum' and its four main attributes both in the students' modules and extracurricular activities like mentoring. The four main attributes are: 'active global citizenship', 'entrepreneurial mind-set', 'responsible leadership', and 'confidence'. Besides the research into the motivational reasons of the GCU outreach mentors to become and stay a

mentor, the policy part of this thesis shall look into possible improvements for the Caledonian Club and GCU outreach in general to align themselves better with the Common Good Curriculum and the four main attributes connected to this. In the final chapter a more in depth description shall be given on the Common Good Curriculum and the possible improvements that can be made to align the mentor job better with these values.

This brings us to the main research questions at hand. As described previously the motivations of the Caledonian Club mentors will be tested on the social constructs of intrinsic motivations, extrinsic motivations, social and human capital, and their social identity. The descriptive questions shall be defined as *“What are the most important motivations of mentors who sign up for the Caledonian Club?”* and *“How does mentoring affect the view of the Caledonian Club mentors on inequality in the community?”*.

The explanatory research questions shall revolve around the main theoretical concepts and their effect on intent to stay and minimum amount of pay required and are defined as *“How do intrinsic, extrinsic, social capital, and human capital motives, and the social identity of mentors affect their intent to continue mentoring and minimum of pay required to continue mentoring?”* and *“Does this effect differ between men and women?”*.

The policy part of this thesis shall take a critical look at the current Caledonian Club mentoring system and look at possible policy improvements. The main topics here are *“How does the GCU mentoring system align with the Common Good Curriculum and how can this improve?”* and *“How can the recruitment and retention of mentors be improved?”*.

## 2. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework shall focus on the main social constructs that have an effect on becoming or continuing to be a mentor, resulting in hypotheses at the end of each subject. This research acknowledges that the multiple motivations can be shared within the same individual, and does not see them as fully separate pillars.

### *2.1 Personal fulfilment: Intrinsic motivation and altruism*

The most clearly heard motivations to become a member or do any type of social work have always been intrinsic motivation and altruism (Anderson and Moore, 1978; Gerstein et al., 2004; Holdsworth, 2010). Ryan and Deci (2000) define intrinsic motivation as “doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable” (p. 55) and in this research altruism will be seen as selfless concern for the well-being of others. Both these concepts revolve around doing something purely because the individual feels like doing it, without any clear advantages to the individual except for personal fulfilment. Calling upon someone’s altruism has always been a source of recruitment for organisations working with both paid and unpaid volunteers (Hartenian and Lilly, 2009). Hartenian and Lilly (2009) found that people who volunteer for altruistic reasons are the ones that are most reliable to continue to be a volunteer. Gerstein et al. (2004) found that paid volunteers like mentors also state that intrinsic motivation and altruistic reasons is their biggest motivator to be a mentor. Gerstein et al. (2004) did however find that the paid volunteers stated to a greater extent than the unpaid mentors that they did it for altruistic and intrinsic reasons. This shows a possibility of socially desirable answers, emphasizing altruism more due to the fact that the mentors receive pay and want to compensate for that. According to Benabou and Tirole (2003) however, intrinsic motivation can be decreased by external rewards in the long run. This effect has been tested via multiple experiments beginning with Deci (1975, as described in Benabou and Tirole, 2003). Benabou and Tirole (2003) found that people who get no reward for a task will enjoy the task more on an intrinsic level. People who get a reward might do the task better on the short run but lose their intrinsic motivation over a longer period, and thus need external control at that point (Gagne and Deci, 2005). Following the argumentation of Benabou and Tirole (2003) and Gagne and Deci (2005), paying the mentors less or nothing for their work could increase their intrinsic motivation to do their mentoring work. This could be explained by the mechanism described in Baron and Kreps (1999) that people come to conclusions about themselves based on their own behaviour; if they perceive they need to be externally motivated to do a certain

task, they will feel their only motivation to do so is external. This undermines their personal feeling of accomplishment. Additionally, intrinsic motivation has shown to increase when the task is interesting, challenging, and involves substantial initiative (Baron and Kreps, 1999; Gagne and Deci, 2005). Giving paid volunteers more say in the work they perform and create a more interesting and challenging work environment would in this sense lower the need for external motivators like pay. Anderson and Moore (1978) conducted a literature study on more than 700 articles and concluded that an altruistic feeling, a feeling of usefulness, and gaining self-fulfilment and personal development were the top reasons for volunteers to sign up for social work. This is in line with the main social constructs of intrinsic motivation, altruism and gaining human capital. The article concluded that intrinsic motivation and self-fulfilment were the biggest motivators to sign up and continue with social work. Increasing the enjoyment people have in their work can increase the sign up of new people and strengthen the continuation rate.

The attitude of the company that employs the paid volunteers can also shape the amount of intrinsic motivation experienced by the paid volunteers. The less emphasis on monetary gains in the rewards system, the more the employees will perceive themselves to be working for the company and intrinsic reasons (Baron and Kreps, 1999). The reward system that a company uses should focus on creating self-perceptions that focus on building human capital and 'doing it for the greater good'. Besides initial sign up and the retaining of mentors, intrinsic motivation is also a powerful tool to make mentors take that extra step and perform above 'just enough' and strive for the best (Baron and Kreps, 1999). When people cannot see a clear external reason for their work they can either believe their efforts are wasted or that there is a higher purpose to their work, i.e. 'doing it for the greater good'. Since people do not like to waste effort, they tend to go for the second option. This will psychologically induce commitment to their work (Baron and Kreps, 1999). Baron and Kreps (1999) state that commitment has a strong self-reinforcing tendency; the more effort is invested in the work, the more difficult it is to let go. This is called 'escalating commitment'. This effect is strongest when people got involved voluntarily. So retaining the paid volunteers based on their intrinsic motivation will increase their commitment and make the continuation rates more certain for organisations. If looked at the different genders, Gerstein et al. (2004) found that especially female mentors tend to value altruism within mentoring stronger than the male mentors. This leads to the expectations that a higher level of intrinsic motivation will cause less emphasis on extrinsic motivation like pay, and both more intrinsic motivation and altruism will lead to more

intent to remain at the organisation. Finally it is expected that female mentors will value their altruistic reasons more than their male counterparts. This results in the following hypotheses:

H1: Mentors experiencing more intrinsic motivation will be willing to work for lower hourly wages.

H2: Mentors experiencing more intrinsic motivation will have a higher intent to remain.

H3: Mentors experiencing more altruistic motivation will have a higher intent to remain.

H4: Female mentors will value altruism more than male mentors.

## 2.2 *Extrinsic motivation*

“If you want people to perform better, you reward them, right? Bonuses, commissions, their own reality show. Incentivize them. But that’s not happening here. You’ve got an incentive designed to sharpen thinking and accelerate creativity, and it does just the opposite. It dulls thinking and blocks creativity.”

—Dan Pink, *The Puzzle of Motivation* (2009)

A more economical view would argue that people make a cost-benefit analysis in their choice to work and let extrinsic rewards determine if they are willing to do a certain job. Multiple psychological and sociological studies however have shown that extrinsic motivators might only have a positive effect on performance in the short run, but in the long run or even already from the beginning extrinsic motivators undermine intrinsic motivation and creativity (Baron and Kreps, 1999; Ryan and Deci, 2000; Gagne and Deci, 2005; Deci and Ryan, 2008; Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Ford, 2014). Early views on extrinsic motivation argued it was a one-sided, blunt, and powerful tool to motivate people to work (DeCharms, 1968, as described in Ryan and Deci, 2000). Already for more than four decades the undermining effect of extrinsic motivators on intrinsic motivation has been researched (Cerasoli et al., 2014).

Over this time Deci and Ryan (2008) and Gagne and Deci (2005) created and expanded the ‘self-determination theory’. The self-determination theory is a macro theory on human motivation and differentiates between multiple types of motivation. Besides the classic intrinsic-extrinsic divide it also splits up extrinsic motivation based on the level of internalisation of the organisational values by the subject, in this case the mentor. Gagne and Deci (2005) describe the spectrum of motivation a person can be on, with the biggest divide being autonomous versus controlled motivation. Autonomous motivation comprises both true intrinsic motivation and the types of extrinsic motivation where people have identified with the

values of the work and organisation, and preferably will have integrated these values with their perception of self. When people are autonomously motivated they feel an endorsement of their actions. Controlled motivation consists of the stages in extrinsic motivation that requires supervision and a reward-punishment balance to keep people productive (Deci and Ryan, 2008). Gagne and Deci (2005) describe the stages within the complete spectrum as – from least to most autonomous motivated – amotivation, external regulation, introjection, identification, integration, and intrinsic motivation. A person can be amotivated, meaning they are not at all motivated to do a certain task, not by extrinsic nor intrinsic motivators. After this comes the first stage of controlled motivation, external regulation. This is the prototype of extrinsic motivation. If a person needs to be externally regulated they are solely working because they get external rewards for the job and have not internalised the values of the job or organisation at all. A good example of this is when employees only work when they are closely monitored, and try to do as little as possible when they are unsupervised. The second and final stage of controlled motivation is introjected regulation. This type of motivation is somewhat external and has already partially internalised the regulation of action and is moved by factors such as approval, avoiding shame, self-esteem, and ego. The least internal form of autonomous motivation is identification, this somewhat internal form makes people experience more freedom, since they feel the work is in line with their personal goals and identities. They feel the job reflects parts of them and will therefore be keener on working from their own initiative. It creates a semi-autonomous feeling. The most internal form of extrinsic motivation is integration. This form of motivation gives people a full sense that the work there are doing is an essential part of who they are, this causes that the extrinsically motivated work becomes fully autonomous. People experiencing this type of motivation will keep to the regulations even though they are not being monitored. In general it goes that the more internalised the regulation is, the more autonomous the extrinsic motivation will be. The final stage of autonomous motivation is clear intrinsic motivation, where people just participate in the job because they inherently enjoy it (Gagne and Deci, 2005). These makes up the spectrum of amotivated, extrinsically motivated, and intrinsically motivated stages in the self-determination theory, divided over controlled and autonomous motivation.

Both autonomous and controlled motivation influence people's behaviour towards their job, and stand in contrast to amotivation. The expectation in this research is that the Caledonian Club mentors will fall under the autonomous motivated, being extrinsically rewarded for their work but getting pride from it and a feeling their work is in line with their personal values and goals. If the mentors will be in the controlled motivation spectrum they will value their pay

more, and if they reside more towards the autonomous spectrum they will appreciate the values of the organisation and score higher on intrinsic motivation. Besides this Gerstein et al. (2004) found that paid male volunteers value their pay more than their female counterparts, these arguments result in the following hypotheses:

H5: Mentors who signed up due to extrinsic motivation will work on basis of ‘external regulation’ and thus share fewer values on helping the community.

H6: Male mentors will value extrinsic motivation more than female mentors.

### *2.3 Social capital*

Pierre Bourdieu wrote his book ‘Distinction: a social critique on the judgement of taste’ (1984) in which he conceptualised economic, social, cultural, and symbolic capital. Economic capital covers the tangible rewards like money, social capital revolves around the network a person has, cultural capital is culturally valued taste and the consumption patterns a person has, and symbolic capital, which is a crucial source of power and covers i.e. prestige, honour and attention. The effects of social capital and networks on career advancement and employability have been researched extensively but are possibly most well known via the concepts by Bourdieu described above (1984) and ‘weak ties’ by Granovetter (1973). In the view of Bourdieu (1984) social capital is something a person can possess in a higher or lower degree. Bourdieu consistently sees social capital simply as a resource or a form of wealth which yields power (Calhoun et al., 1993). It can be used to gain a powerful position through employment of social connections that someone has in their network. The more people someone has in their network the more useful the network becomes, for instance in increasing job opportunities. The types of social connections were described by Granovetter (1973) as strong or weak ties, with weak ties being very useful to a person’s network. Strong ties often remain within the same social network but weak ties lie between them and are therefore more useful to carry information between social cliques that otherwise would not have entered the network. For students and people about to enter the job market, improving their social capital is useful to improve their employability. Fitch (1987, as described in Gerstein et al., 2004) found that students initially get motivated to become a mentor by their current social circle, however improving on this social circle via mentoring was also an important factor to sign up. Additionally, instead of just expanding their social network the mentors who sign up also end up in a new network full of university level students. These will often already possess the right habitus and capital and in this way make valuable additions to a person’s social capital



(Bourdieu, 1984). Habitus is seen as embodied class, and the amount of capital someone possesses changes in relation to their position in the field, or the type of field they are in general. So the field (i.e. a topic of conversation or a certain activity) a person finds himself or herself in determines the amount of capital he or she possesses. People have more knowledge in their own environment and less in unfamiliar areas (Bourdieu, 1984). Creating a bigger social network will increase the amount of knowledge available in certain areas via their connections. Besides increasing the amount of connections in someone's network, Kiptot and Franzel (2014) found social capital has more non-monetary pay-offs like reciprocity, recognition, gaining confidence, and enhanced social status.

The competition for capital within a certain field is explained by Bourdieu via two important concepts, reproduction and transformation (Webb et al., 2002). People strive for the acquisition of capital within certain fields, however, they are also limited by practical issues, i.e. imposed limitations due to their place in the field, educational background, social connections, and their social class position. Furthermore, the people with the least amount of capital tend to be less ambitious and more satisfied with their current state than people with higher levels of capital. This is also in line with the 'social identity theory' developed principally by Henri Tajfel (1978, 1981; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) and John Turner (1975, 1982, 1984, 1985) which will be discussed in more detail later. As stated by Bourdieu 'the subjective hope of profit tends to be adjusted to the objective probability of profit' (Webb et al., 2002, p. 23). This leads to reproduction of the social class a person is already in. This also shows that the people with higher levels of capital, i.e., people in university education, also strive for more capital. Showing itself in a higher education, more specific skills, and a higher chance they will try and improve their capital. Students are already attending the highest educational degree they can achieve at that moment, but depending on the person can still improve significantly on their social connections and eventually their social class. That is why this research shall test the strength of increasing social capital as a motivation to sign up.

Studies on the motivational reasons for (un)paid volunteers found that increasing social capital or social connections was always prominently present (Anderson, 1978; Gerstein et al., 2004; Holdsworth, 2010). This research shall see if this is the case as well among the Caledonian Club mentors and if increasing their social capital is seen as an improvement to their employability. These arguments result in the following hypotheses:

H7: Mentors who signed up to increase their social capital will more often see their mentoring as an improvement to their employability.

#### *2.4 Human capital*

"The most valuable of all capital is that invested in human beings."

—Alfred Marshall, *Principles of Economics* (1890, p. 469)

Both economist Gary Becker and sociologist Pierre Bourdieu developed and popularised the concept of capital. Becker (1975, 1994) sees human capital as a more direct investment in a person's skillset and Bourdieu (1984) describes human capital indirectly via a combination of economic, social, cultural, and symbolic capital. Becker (1965, as described in Unger, 1991) defines human capital as activities which enhance a person's labour market value and in this way the value of the household. According to Becker (1994) education and training are the most important investments in human capital; they cause a great increase in a person's income, even with the initial costs of education considered. Besides this investments in health can also increase human capital. Mincer and Polachek (1974, as described in Unger, 1991) state that work experience is also a means of increasing human capital, since skills and knowledge gained on the job would improve their worth. When the health of a person is not in optimal state the work experience can become discontinuous due to illness, besides this the work experience can be discontinuous due to lay-offs or childbearing. Within the younger segment of society the work experience is already low so gaining experience is a way to increase the employability. Anderson and Moore (1978) found that especially among the younger respondents opportunities of personal development, and thus increasing their human capital was a strong motivator. Bourdieu (1984) already illustrated the competition between classes on educational level with the quote "One important factor in intensifying this competition has doubtless been the fact that those fractions of the dominant class and middle class who are richest in economic capital have had to make greatly increased use of the educational system in order to ensure their social reproduction" (p. 132). Now more than 30 years later gaining high education has become less of a challenge legally and financially compared to the 1980's. The recent years have seen a shift of higher percentages of the population being schooled on a university level (Stromquist and Monkman, 2014). This does however apply more strongly for the middle and upper class than the more deprived population. What used to be a competition for the best education is shifting towards a competition for work experience among people who are already highly educated. The educational degree still impacts employability significantly, but gaining extra human capital in via mentoring in university has become an important way to compete for jobs.

As stated in the beginning of the theoretical framework, this research acknowledges that different motivations can influence each other or can be both present, this is also true for the different forms of capital. Human capital corresponds with social capital in the way that social capital shapes the way people look at education and mentoring. Both Becker (1994) and Bourdieu (1984) agree on the fact that the family and the habitus that is given to a person from this social environment influences the degree to which a person looks at high education and increasing social and human capital as important aspects in life. The fact that the subjects in this research are already attending university level education and increasing their employability via mentoring shows that they value higher education and increasing their employability. In this line of argumentation it is therefore to be expected that mentors who signed up to increase their human capital will have a higher intent to remain since they value the work experience and the employability that comes with it. If looked at the different genders, Gerstein et al. (2004) found that especially women tend to value the development of their human capital within mentoring stronger than their male counterparts. This results in the following hypotheses:

H8: Mentors who sign up to increase their human capital will have a high intent to remain.

H9: Female mentors will value gaining human capital more than male mentors.

### *2.5 Social identification*

So far the motives to start mentoring have been discussed, however some effects only occur once a person has already started mentoring. As a last concept in the theoretical framework, this research shall cover social identification as a motive to *continue* mentoring. The concept of social identification is part of the “social identity theory” which is a socio-psychological theory developed principally by Henri Tajfel (1978, 1981; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) and John Turner (1975, 1982, 1984, 1985) but covered extensively in Ashforth and Mael (1989). The social identity theory argues that people categorise themselves in various social categories, these can be organizational membership like the GCU mentors, but also religious affiliation, gender, or age cohort (Tajfel and Turner, 1985, as described by Ashforth and Mael, 1989). People can of course belong to multiple categories, even though the values of these various categories might clash on some areas. The categories that a person can be in are defined by how people see the stereotypical characteristics of the members (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). This process of social classification has two functions; firstly it categorises the others in the social environment in categories, providing an individual with a systematic means of defining

the people in his or her social environment. When a person is put into a certain category, he or she is assigned the stereotypical characteristics that belong to that group (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Secondly, it enables the individual to define him- or herself into a certain category or categories. This is done on basis of someone's self-concept, and this in turn is made up of the personal identity (physical attributes, abilities, interests) and the social identity which encompasses certain group classifications. Social classification is thus the "perception of oneness with or the belongingness to some human aggregate" (Ashforth and Mael, 1989, p. 21). These perceptions of oneness are however relational, people often compare themselves to others instead of clearly defining themselves. This group affiliation where the person feels he or she is experiencing the same successes and failures of the group can even persist in negative situations, since the person feels he or she is partially defined by this group and feels the characteristics that apply to this group are relevant to him- or herself (Ashforth and Mael, 1989).

Finkelstein (2009) describes the self-concept in a very similar way to the social identity theory, but instead calling it the role identity theory. This theory was primarily developed by Piliavin and others (Callero, Howard, and Piliavin, 1987; Grube and Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin and Callero, 1991; Piliavin, Grube, and Callero, 2002). The role identity adds to the social identity theory in the way that it has a more precise focus on the multiple identities instead of how exactly the self-concept links to one category. The role identity theory argues that one person has multiple identities that are created through ongoing social interactions. According to Finkelstein "The more others identify one with a particular role, the more the individual internalises the role and incorporates it into the self-concept" (2009, p. 653). Over time, the role gets more incorporated in the self-concept and the individual tries to keep his behaviour in line accordingly. So, by developing a 'mentor identity' the work becomes not so much a separate action, but who someone is and recognised by others. This social identification causes the individual to receive satisfaction from certain activities that are in line with their own self-concept. When a person is new to a certain organisation there will be a desire for an identity belonging to the organisation, this causes increased commitment to the organisation to quickly build a self-definition within the social group. This can also trigger escalating commitment as described earlier (Baron and Kreps, 1999). The longer the GCU mentors will be part of the Caledonian Club or the mentoring program as a whole, the more they will incorporate being a mentor in their self-concept. This will connect them to the organisation and increase their likelihood to stay. This effect can however possibly be lessened by university leavers after

graduation. Using the social identity theory and the role identity theory leads to the following hypotheses:

H10: Mentors who have been working for a longer time will have a stronger shared identity.

H11: Mentors who have a stronger shared identity will have a higher intent to remain.

### *2.6 Control variables*

Besides these main variables this research shall include age, gender, and religiousness as control variables. Age will be included since being either relatively younger or older can possibly influence someone's motives towards signing up.

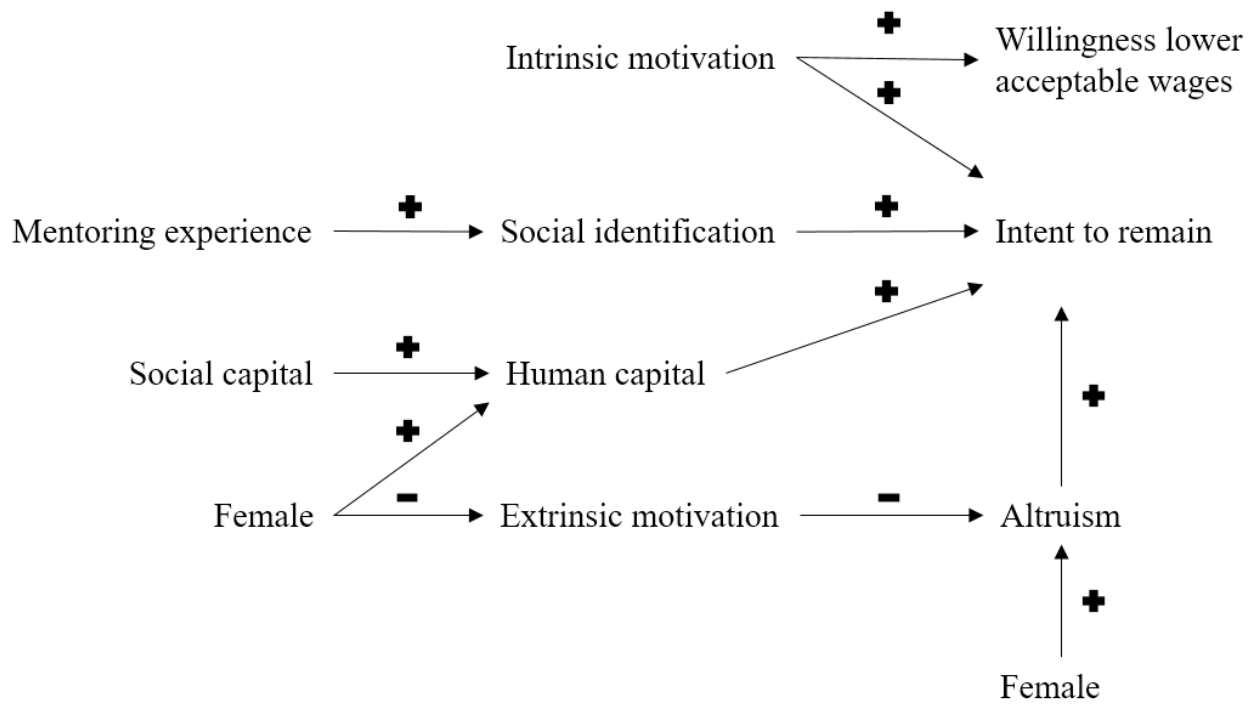
Gender will be included as a control variable since Holdsworth (2010), Gerstein et al. (2004), and Kiptot and Franzel (2014) all found various differences between men and women in terms of motives to become a mentor or aspects they valued most. The effects of gender on extrinsic motivation and human capital will already be tested as hypothesis since these differences are to be expected according to the existing literature, however gender will also stay active as a control variable in the other regression models.

Finally religiousness shall be included as a control variable. Kiptot and Franzel (2014) found that unpaid volunteers are influenced "not only by personal and community interests, but also strong cultural and religious beliefs" (p. 241). This research expects that religiousness might have an effect on the altruistic and intrinsic motivation constructs, since religion often advertises altruism as an important trait to possess. This could have an effect on the religious respondents in the survey.

2.7 *Conceptual model*

Placed below is a visual representation of the relations between the concepts to conclude the theoretical framework.

**Figure 1: Conceptual model**



### 3. Methodology

The following chapter shall focus on the process leading up to the final results testing the hypotheses. First the information on the data shall be provided, followed by the methods of research and the way the concepts were operationalised, and the chapter shall conclude with some statements on the validity of the research.

#### 3.1 Data

To measure the concepts described in the theoretical framework this research used a self-designed survey administered via the internet. The survey consisted of a collection of demographical questions, motivations to start and quit mentoring, and multiple statements measuring the concepts from the theoretical framework. It primarily consisted of closed questions, and the motivational statements were all gathered on a seven-point Likert scale plus opt-out options for respondents who were unsure about their answer or did not feel comfortable answering the question. The statements were a mix of self-designed statements and statements which were already verified via other published work (Boezeman and Ellemers, 2009; Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, and Miene, 1998; Crowne and Marlowe, 1960; De Graaf, Kalmijn, Kraaykamp, and Monden, 2010; Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, and Villeneuve, 2009).

The survey was spread to the mentors of the Glasgow Caledonian University; these are the Caledonian Club mentors, and the mentors who worked for other projects of the university with similar mentoring descriptions. The mentors are a mix of both current and previous mentors. The survey was spread via multiple emails to the student email addresses of the mentors. In total one original invitation was send followed by three reminders which all resulted in a new spike of respondents. Before sending out the survey, it was reviewed and adjusted multiple times to improve the quality and clarity of the survey. Additionally a group of five students tested the survey before eventually sending it to the respondents. Possible limitations in the response rate could have been that students do not regularly check their student email, especially not previous mentors, and the survey was send out between the 1<sup>st</sup> and 22<sup>nd</sup> of May, possibly aligning with a busier period for some students in regards to exams. In total 199 current mentors and 492 previous mentors where approached via their university email with 103 mentors starting the survey and 86 mentors fully completing the survey till the end. Since the survey was only send to respondents who fit within the research parameters all respondents who filled in the survey were also used in the research.

### *3.2 Methods*

The formulated hypotheses resulting from the explanatory research questions were tested via multiple linear regression in SPSS. This type of regression is applied to see how the dependent variables “intent to remain” and “willingness to work for lower hourly wages” relate to the independent variables showed in the conceptual model.

The hypotheses that were tested via multiple linear regression all take into account the control variables of age, sex, and level of religiousness. The descriptive research questions about the most important motivations to sign up as a mentor and the effect that being a mentor has on the worldview of the mentors regarding inequality in society and in education in specific were looked at by comparing the mean scores of these questions to show which ones had the strongest presence. The different scores of motivations were compared to each other and the same goes for the answers the respondents gave on the three statements on the effect mentoring had on their view on certain issues. The policy part of this thesis encompassing a critical look at the values of the Common Good Curriculum and how they are represented in the GCU mentoring system is done by comparing the scores the mentors themselves gave on how well they feel certain values are presented in the mentoring work. The four main attributes were split up into two statements per attribute to more fully represent their meaning. These eight statements were sent to five students and a staff member to be graded on their clarity and completeness. In the research these eight statements were merged per attribute to represent how well that certain attribute is represented in the mentor job. Finally relying on the main results of the descriptive and explanatory research questions and the results of these eight statements an advice was given on possible improvements to recruit mentors.

To create variables that more efficiently measure a certain concept some variables were measured by combining several items. These variables were both tested on their internal validity via a factor analyses and reliability by the Cronbach Alpha and their scores are listed below. The variables that could not be combined into one general variable were tested via bivariate correlation to see if adding them separately or just selecting one would be the best option. Unfortunately due to the small N of this research a combined factor analysis of all the concepts was not feasible. The values below are therefore from factor analyses per concept.



### 3.3 Operationalization

#### *Acceptable wage (dependent variable)*

Acceptable wage is the dependent variable for hypothesis one. It is measured by a single statement asking the respondents “what would be the minimum amount of hourly wage you would still be a mentor for?”. Respondents could answer on a seven-point Likert scale, with possible answers ranging from 0 GBP (Great Britain Pound) to 15 GBP.

#### *Intent to remain (dependent variable)*

Intent to remain is the dependent variable for hypotheses two, three, eight, and ten, and was measured with the question “If currently working as a mentor, how likely is it that you will continue your work as a mentor in the next academic year?”. Respondents could answer on a five-point Likert scale with answer possibilities “very unlikely”, “unlikely”, “between likely and unlikely”, “likely”, and “very likely”. Since this question is only answered by the current mentors and not the previous ones, it unfortunately has a low N (N=49). This statement was used in the regression analysis in its current form.

#### *Intrinsic motivation*

To measure the level of intrinsic motivation a respondent experiences from mentoring the following statements were used; “I will perform better if I genuinely enjoy my mentoring job”, “I derive satisfaction from completing tasks during my mentoring job” and “I mentor because I genuinely enjoy it”. These statements could be answered via a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “very strongly disagree” to “very strongly agree”. The average scores to these statements have been combined to form the variable measuring the level of intrinsic motivation among mentors. Since all three statements have the same seven-point range, a combined variable was created with the mean of the answers to the separate statements, one being the lowest level of intrinsic motivation and seven being the highest. The first and third statement were created for this research, the second statement is taken from an already verified scale by Tremblay et al. (2009) measuring intrinsic motivation. Factor analysis was then used to measure the internal validity of this combined variable. It found one factor (Eigenvalue 1.698 explaining 56,59% of the variance). On top of this a reliability analysis was done and found a Cronbach Alpha scale of 0.603. The Cronbach Alpha is commonly accepted to be reliable at a score of 0,7. The score found here is thus somewhat on the low side, this could however be caused by the relatively low N in the survey.

### *Altruism*

Altruism was both used as an independent variable to 'intent to remain' and as a dependent variable to the level of extrinsic motivation the mentors' experience. To measure the level of altruism experienced by the respondents to sign up or continue to be a mentor three statements were used; "I am concerned about those less fortunate than me", "I feel it is important to help others", and "I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving". These statements were again answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "very strongly disagree" to "very strongly agree", and the answers were combined into one variable measuring altruism. This combined variable is the mean of the answers given in the initial three statements, with a score of one being the lowest level of altruism and seven being the highest. The three statements measuring altruism were gathered from the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) measuring volunteer attitudes and designed by Clary et al. (1998). This scale by Clary et al. (1998) has already proven its internal validity and consistency in numerous other researches and also once again in this current research. Factor analysis was used to measure the internal validity of this combined variable. It found one factor (Eigenvalue 2,402 explaining 80,07% of the variance). On top of this a reliability analysis was done and found a Cronbach Alpha scale of 0.852. This is well above the commonly accepted border of 0.7. These scores show that these statements are suited to be measured as one concept and were therefore combined into a single variable measuring altruism.

### *Extrinsic motivation*

The level of external motivation felt by the respondents was originally measured via three statements; "Being paid makes the work more enjoyable", "The wage was an important reason I got into mentoring work", and "I will perform better if I get paid for what I do". These three statements were again answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "very strongly agree" to "very strongly disagree" and were all three designed for this research. These three statements were tested on their internal validity and internal consistency. The factor analysis showed one factor (Eigenvalue 1.658 explaining 55,25% of the variance). Additionally, a reliability analysis was done and found a Cronbach Alpha scale of 0.584. These measurements show that these statements are unfortunately unfit to be combined into one general concept measuring extrinsic motivation. Afterwards a bivariate correlation analysis was used to see how strong the statements correlate with each other. All three statements have a significant correlation to each other ranging from 0,210\* to 0,418\* showing that these statements would be interchangeable in measuring the concept of extrinsic motivation separately and would not

add to the research by all three separately being added to the regression. Therefore the first and third statement were dropped and extrinsic motivation is measured by the statement “The wage was an important reason I got into mentoring work”, since this statement lies closest to the concept.

### *Human capital*

To measure the strength of gaining human capital in joining up or continuing to be a mentor three statements were used; “The work as a mentor connects to my aspired career”, “Mentoring can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work”, and “I became a mentor because the experience will look good on my C.V. These three statements were answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “very strongly agree” to “very strongly disagree”. However the factor and reliability analyses showed the third statement lessened the internal validity and consistency, therefore only the first two variables were combined to form the variable measuring human capital. The first statement was designed for this research and the second and third statements were taken from the VFI by Clary et al. (1998). After removing the third variable the factor analysis found one factor (Eigenvalue 1,628 explaining 81,40% of variance), and the reliability analysis found a Cronbach Alpha score of 0,772 stating a good internal consistency improved from the original 55,45% variance explained and Cronbach Alpha score of 0,576 when all three statements were included. Therefore we can assume this combined variable is a good representation of the measurement of human capital.

### *Social capital*

To measure the importance of gaining social capital respondents attach to mentoring the following statements were used; “My friends do volunteer or mentoring work as well”, “I started mentoring to get to know new people”, and “I can make new contacts that might help my business or career”. In line with the above statements these statements were also answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “very strongly agree” to “very strongly disagree”. The first and last statement of these three were taken from the VFI by Clary et al. (1998) measuring the social aspect of volunteering, and the second statement was designed for the research. A factor analysis and reliability analysis were used to measure the internal validity and consistency of these variables. The factor analyses including these three variables found one factor (Eigenvalue 1,322 explaining 44,07% of variance). The Cronbach Alpha reliability analysis produced a score of 0,336 with very little possible improvement by deleting one of the statements. The analyses show that these three statements are unfit to be combined into one

general variable measuring social capital. Afterwards a bivariate correlation analysis was used between the three variables of social capital and found no significant correlations between the three variables showing they do measure various aspects of social capital, therefore it was decided to include all three statements separate in the hypothesis to see their effect on the human capital variable (hypothesis 7).

### *Social identification*

Social identification was measured via three statements; “I feel like part of the family at my mentoring job/Caledonian Club”, “Being a GCU mentor (for the Caledonian Club or in general) has personal meaning to me”, and “I feel as if the problems of the Caledonian Club are my own”. These statements were also answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “very strongly agree” to “very strongly disagree”. The statements were taken from the research of Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) which developed a scale for measuring social identification with the organisation. Again a factor and reliability analysis was done to measure the internal validity and consistency. The factor analyses including these three variables found one factor (Eigenvalue 1,917 explaining 60,90% of variance). The Cronbach Alpha reliability analysis produced a score of 0,699 which lies acceptably close to the border of 0,7. These results show that these three statements are fit to be combined into one general variable measuring the level of social identification of the mentors experience with the Caledonian Club or their mentoring job in general. The combined variable was created by combining the three statements and creating a mean score between them. So just as the previous combined variables this variable has a scale ranging from one to seven with seven being the most social identification a mentor can experience.

### *Mentoring experience*

Mentoring experience was measured by combining the variables of how long the respondents have been a mentor, and with what intensity they have been mentoring. The variable “For how long have you been a GCU mentor in total?” (N=97) could be answered on a six-point Likert scale ranging from “less than one month” to “more than three years”. The variable “How regularly did/do you work as a mentor on average?” (N=97) could be answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “about one day a month” to “(almost) every day”. This second variable originally had an N of 88 but to minimise loss of respondents in an already small survey the nine respondents who answered the first statement but not the second were given the mean of the second statement as their answers to that statement. This original mean was

2,21 out of 6. The variables were combined by taking the scores and created a combined mean on a six-point Likert scale with N=97. The combination of the time and frequency of mentoring gives a more comprehensive measurement of the respondent's mentoring experience.

### *View on inequality*

The view on inequality of the mentors and how their mentoring job has helped change it was measured via three statements: "mentoring allows me to gain a new perspective on things", "mentoring impacted the way I look at inequality within society", and "mentoring impacted the way I look at unequal education". These statements were designed for this research. Like most of the variables mentioned before these statements could be answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "very strongly disagree" to "very strongly agree". The view on inequality variable was only used for the second descriptive research question so was not included in any regression analyses. However a factor and reliability analysis was done to measure if these statements indeed do measure the same construct. The factor analysis showed one factor (Eigenvalue 1,994 explaining 66,45% of variance) and the reliability analysis showed a Cronbach Alpha score of 0,860. This indeed shows that these three statements measure the same construct.

### *Common Good Curriculum*

The 'Common Good Curriculum' makes up the four core values that GCU wants to emphasise in the curriculum of their students, both in provided courses and extra activities like the GCU outreach mentor job. The four core values are: 'active global citizenship', 'entrepreneurial mind-set', 'responsible leadership', and 'confidence'. More information on the Common Good Curriculum will follow in the policy recommendation at the end of this research. These four values were all split up in two statements each to properly measure their content. The two 'active global citizenship' statements are: "my mentoring work encourages me to actively think about and address social challenges" and "being a mentor increases my participation in society". The two 'entrepreneurial mind-set' statements are: "being a mentor helps me identify opportunities for change" and "my mentor work stimulates an entrepreneurial mind-set". The two 'responsible leadership' statements are: "my mentoring work has increased my leadership qualities" and "my mentoring work stimulates me to exercise empathy, resilience, and professionalism". The final two statements on 'confidence' are: "my mentoring work boosts my confidence in my life in general" and "I believe I am making a positive difference to society by working as a mentor". These statements could all be answered on the same seven-point

Likert scale ranging from “very strongly disagree” to “very strongly agree”. The Common Good Curriculum variable will only be used for the first part of the policy recommendation so it was not included in any regression analyses. However a reliability analysis was done to measure the internal consistency of the four separate constructs. The reliability analyses showed a Cronbach Alpha score of 0,845 for ‘active global citizenship’, a score of 0,694 for ‘entrepreneurial mind-set’, a score of 0,700 for ‘responsible leadership’, and finally a score of 0,747 for ‘confidence’. This shows an acceptable level of reliability for all four concepts.

### *Social desirability*

Since the statements surrounding some of these concepts (especially lowest acceptable wage), might be considered as sensitive, a social desirability scale was also created. The scale is directly copied from a widely used already existing scale designed by Crowne and Marlowe (1960). This scale consists of five statements which can be answered with either yes or no. The respondents gain one point if they give a socially desirable answer and gain zero points when they answer ‘truthfully’. This scale is useful to see if the respondents are very susceptible to social desirability or not. This way it can be checked if the sensitive answers they gave are close to the truth. These five statements were then combined into one variable measuring social desirability ranging from zero (completely honest) to five (susceptible to giving socially desirable answers).

### *Control variables*

This research used three control variables; age, sex, and religiousness. To measure the age a multiple choice question was answered with options per cohort of two years (16-17, 18-19, etc.) until 30 years old. Sex is being measured by the respondent being male, female, transgender, or other. Religiousness is measured via a five-point Likert scale with answer options: “not at all”, “slightly”, “I am religious but not actively practice my religion”, “I am religious but only sometimes practice my religion”, and “I am religious and actively practice my religion”.

### *3.4 Validity*

To ensure internal validity all combined variables were subject to factor analyses and Cronbach Alpha reliability analyses. To strengthen the external validity most of the combined variables and statements were created via already existing and often repeated scales shown earlier in the methodology, with the VFI (Clary et al., 1998) being the most prominent and often used of those scales. This research does acknowledge that the low N and the fact that data was only collected in Glasgow does lessen the external validity of the results and conclusions will be drawn up with this in mind.

## **4. Results**

In this chapter shall review the results of this research. Firstly the descriptive statistics will be discussed. After this the results of the descriptive research questions shall be reviewed regarding the main motivations to sign up and the effect being a mentor has on the world view of the respondents. Thirdly the results of the explanatory research questions shall be reviewed.

### *4.1 Descriptive statistics*

Table 1 shows the variables used within the regressions, the independent, dependent, and control variables. The N per variable differs due to the fact that some questions were filled in by a different amount of people. Within the actual regressions testing the hypotheses the N per model is equal. To give a good representation of the N per model and because the mean and standard deviation might differ a small amount, table 11 through 16 show the variables used in the six regression models created to test the hypotheses. These models unfortunately differ in N between each other, but since the N was already low it would not have been feasible to create an equal N for all the models and thus not use a high percentage of respondents. To improve readability these models have been added to the appendix of this research. Table 1 below shows an overview of the variables used over the six regression models combined. Their mean and standard deviation are taken over the maximum amount of people that filled in the question. Table 1 will only be used as an overview and to answer the very first research question as will be explained in more detail in the next paragraph.

**Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the main motivations, dependent and control variables**

<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Intent to remain	49	3,83	1,64
Acceptable hourly wage	81	3,32	1,22
Intrinsic motivation	89	6,40	0,58
Altruism	89	6,16	0,88
Extrinsic motivation	89	4,84	1,48
Social capital:			
Friends volunteer as well	88	4,61	1,98
Started mentoring to get to know new people	89	4,37	1,65
Make new contacts that might help my career	87	4,62	1,37
Human capital	89	4,73	1,57
Social identification	89	5,07	1,17
Social desirability	63	4,17	1,10
Age	87	4,66*	1,85
Sex	83	0,73**	0,44
Religiousness	84	1,86	1,28

\*Age mean translates to 23,8 years old

\*\*Female=1



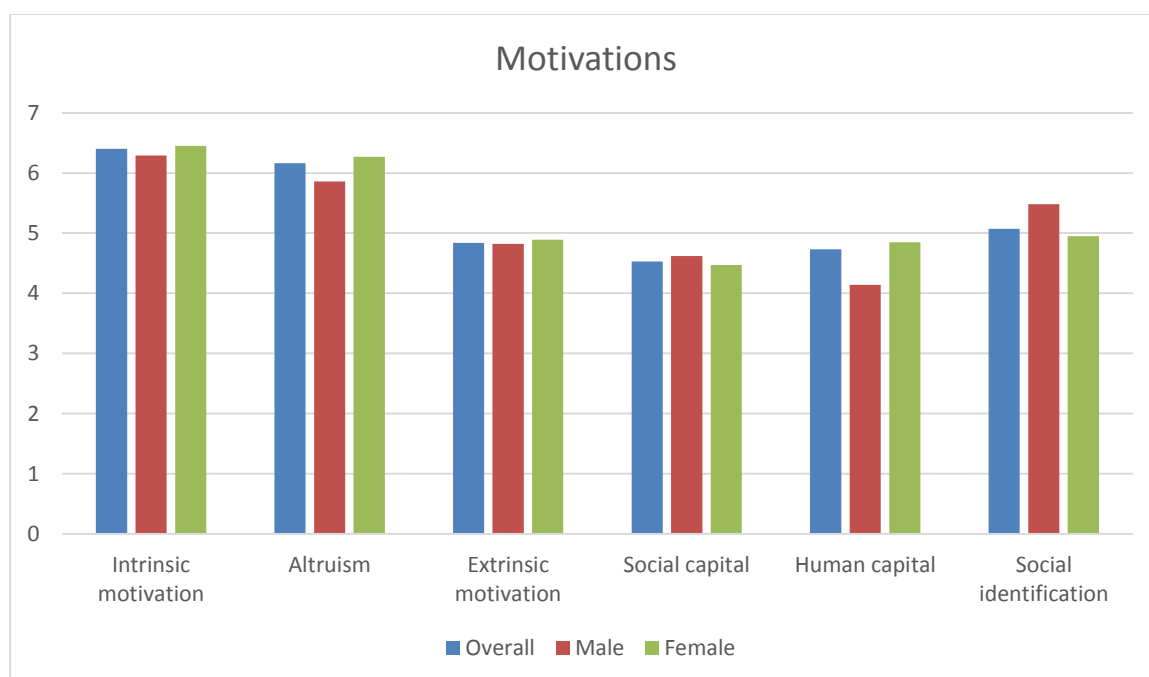
#### *4.2 Results of the research questions*

##### *The most important motivations to sign up to become a mentor*

The very first question of this research asks: “*What are the most important motivations of mentors who sign up for the Caledonian Club*”. Table 1 shows the main motivations measured in this research. They were all answered on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from ‘very strongly disagree’ to ‘very strongly agree’. By taking the mean score of every variable measuring a certain motivation, the motivations can be ranked from most to least important. As seen above ‘intrinsic motivation’ scores the highest with a mean of 6,40 out of 7. This translates to an answer between ‘strongly agree’ and ‘very strongly agree’ to the statements of importance of intrinsic motivation. Altruistic value comes in second with a mean of 6,16 out of 7. As third in the ranking is ‘social identification’ with an average score of 5,07 out of 7. Although this is a motivation which is important for the continuation of mentoring, it is still a strong one according to the mean score. Extrinsic motivation and human capital lie close together, with extrinsic motivation coming in as the fourth most important motivation out of all six with an average score of 4,84 out of 7, measured by the importance the mentors give to the wage they get for doing their job. Extrinsic motivation scores a 4,84 on average as can be read from Table 1. Arguably this score is lower because it is possibly seen as ‘greedy’ or ‘selfish’ to state the wage was an important reason to start the mentor job, that is why this research also ran a regression with the stated extrinsic motivation statement “The wage was an important reason I got into mentoring work” as a dependent variable and social desirability as independent. This found a significant negative relation ( $p = 0,028$ ) between the level of social desirability and the value given to extrinsic motivation. This shows that this variable could indeed be low due to the respondents being afraid to sound ‘greedy’ or ‘selfish’. This would mean that the variable of extrinsic motivation might score higher in reality in comparison to the other motivations than what is shown in these results. Solely looking at the mean scores of the motivations it can be argued that the GCU mentors lean more towards the identification or integration forms of autonomous motivation, as described in the ‘self-determination theory’ by Deci and Ryan (2008) and Gagne and Deci (2005), since they value intrinsic motivation the most and the importance of wage is relatively low in comparison. However the significant relation found between extrinsic motivation and socially desirable answers makes it hard to firmly state this. The second least important motivation is gaining human capital, scoring 4,73 out of 7, which translates to an answer between ‘neither agree nor disagree’ and ‘agree slightly’. Lowest on the list are the scores on the three social capital statements. Ranging from 4,37 to 4,62. These show that mentors do not care highly about gaining more social capital when they

sign up for the mentor job. These results are in line with already existing literature previously discussed in the theoretical framework (Anderson and Moore, 1978; Gerstein et al., 2004; Holdsworth, 2010) stating that personal fulfilment is mostly the main motivator to sign up for unpaid or paid volunteer work. This outcome also shows how the term ‘paid volunteer’ for the mentors is accurate, due to their high appreciation of intrinsic motivation and altruism, and low appreciation of extrinsic motivation. However, the results did show a significant relation between extrinsic motivation and social desirability so extrinsic motivation might play a bigger role in reality. It is however not possible to state how impactful this effect would be. For a visual representation, the mean scores of the motivations and their differences for male or female are presented in figure two as seen below.

**Figure 2: Histogram presenting the mean scores of the motivations**



#### *Effect of mentor work on the way mentors look at inequality*

The second descriptive research question “*How does mentoring affect the view of the Caledonian Club mentors on inequality in the community?*” is answered by three separate statements as described in the methodology and of which the results are shown in table 3. All three statements score between a five and six. A five in this regard would be ‘agree slightly’ and six translates to ‘agree strongly’. The results below show that the mentors stated their mentor job had the biggest impact on gaining a new perspective on things, as this lies quite

close to the ‘agree strongly’. The impact mentoring had on the way the respondents looked at unequal education came in second with a score somewhat more towards ‘agree strongly’ than ‘agree slightly’ and the way mentoring affected their way of looking at inequality within society had the least impact of the three statements. This is understandable since the mentors mostly work with lesser privileged children on lower education levels, and are not so much confronted with other inequalities in society. When these statements were split between men and woman only very small differences in mean score were found, showing that men and woman on average rate the effect of their mentor job on their ‘world view’ the same (the scores did not differ more than 0,2 either way between sex). When split between current and previous mentors however a more consistent difference is found; the current mentors score on average 0,28 higher per statement than the previous mentors, while this difference in mean was mixed between men and women. In general it can be stated that mentoring indeed has an impact on the ‘world view’ of the mentors since the average overall score of 5,67 shows a moderate agreement towards the statements.

**Table 3. Effect of the mentor job on the view on inequality by the mentors**

<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Mentoring allows me to gain a new perspective on things	88	5,93	0,98
It impacted the way I look at inequality within society	88	5,48	1,36
It impacted the way I look at unequal education	89	5,64	1,44
Combined mean of the three statements	89	5,67	1,14

The next section of the results shall review the results of the regressions testing the hypotheses answering the explanatory research questions. In total six regressions were done of which the results are presented in table 4 through 9. To test the research questions eleven hypotheses were formed to test all the relations between concepts. These hypotheses shall be reviewed below.

*Relation between intrinsic motivation and acceptable hourly wage*

The first regression tests hypothesis 1: '*Mentors experiencing more intrinsic motivation will be willing to work for lower hourly wages*'. The results of the regression testing this hypothesis can be seen in table 4. As with all regressions the control variables age, sex, and religiousness are added in the first model, and the independent variable(s) in the second, in this case intrinsic motivation. The relation between intrinsic motivation and acceptable hourly wage is negative, meaning the higher the intrinsic motivation of the mentor, the lower their lowest acceptable wage is. This supports the theory and is in line with expectation, however the relation of -0,151 is too weak to be significant. Hypothesis 1: '*Mentors experiencing more intrinsic motivation will be willing to work for lower hourly wages*' therefore has to be rejected, since the relation is in line with expectation but too weak to cause a significant effect.

**Table 4. Results of the multiple regression analysis of intrinsic motivation on acceptable hourly wage (hypothesis 1)**

	M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE
<b>Age</b>	0,062	0,078	0,070	0,079
<b>Sex</b>	0,052	0,332	0,066	0,334
<b>Religiousness</b>	0,127	0,114	0,123	0,114
<b>Intrinsic motivation</b>			-0,151	0,252

$N = 75$

$B^*$  = significant with a  $p < 0.05$

$\dagger$  = significant with a  $p < 0.1$

Reference category = Sex: Male, Religiousness: Not religious

Dependent variable = Acceptable hourly wage

*Relation between intrinsic motivation and intent to remain*

The second regression (table 5) takes intent to remain as a dependent variable and tests the relation of intrinsic motivation, altruism, human capital, and social identification to this concept. Intrinsic motivation is shown to have a positive relation of 0,214 with intent to remain, meaning the direction is in line with the discussed literature and expectation. The relation is however too weak to be significant. Hypothesis 2: *'Mentors experiencing more intrinsic motivation will have a higher intent to remain'* therefore has to be rejected, since the relation is in line with expectation but too weak to cause a significant effect.

**Table 5. Results of the multiple regression analysis of intrinsic motivation, altruism, human capital, and social identification on intent to remain (hypotheses 2, 3, 8, and 11)**

	M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE
Age	-0,250 †	0,140	-0,277 †	0,156
Sex	1,501*	0,515	1,178 †	0,633
Religiousness	0,010	0,193	0,033	0,203
Intrinsic motivation			0,214	0,595
Altruism			-0,119	0,419
Human capital			0,104	0,255
Social identification			-0,305	0,268

*N* = 40

*B*\* = significant with a *p* < 0.05

† = significant with a *p* < 0.1

Reference category = Sex: Male, Religiousness: Not religious

Dependent variable = Intent to remain

*Relation between altruism and intent to remain*

The relation between altruism and intent to remain is tested in hypothesis 3. This hypothesis is tested in the second regression (table 5) as well. Altruism is shown to have a negative relation of -0,119 with intent to remain. This relation is not strong enough to be significant and even goes in the wrong direction, going against the discussed theory and expectation. This causes hypothesis 3: *'Mentors experiencing more altruistic motivation will have a higher intent to remain'* to be rejected, since it is both not significant and not in line with expectation.

### *Relation between Altruism and sex*

Altruism has been used as an independent variable on intent to remain but also as a dependent variable to sex (H4) and extrinsic motivation (H5). The results of the relation between sex and altruism are shown in table 6. Being female is positively related to altruism with a B of 0,457 (M2), this is both in line with the expectation and significant. Both in model 1 without extrinsic motivation and in model 2 with extrinsic motivation included. This shows that the female mentors value altruism more in their work than their male counterparts. Hypothesis 4: *'Female mentors will value altruism more than male mentors'* can therefore be accepted.

**Table 6. Results of the multiple regression analysis of being female and extrinsic motivation on altruism (hypotheses 4 and 5)**

	M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE
<b>Age</b>	-0,012	0,052	-0,018	0,052
<b>Sex</b>	0,467*	0,224	0,457*	0,222
<b>Religiousness</b>	-0,035	0,078	-0,041	0,077
<b>Extrinsic motivation</b>			-0,101	0,067

*N* = 81

*B*\* = significant with a *p* < 0.05

† = significant with a *p* < 0.1

Reference category = Sex: Male, Religiousness: Not religious

Dependent variable = Altruism

### *Relation between extrinsic motivation and values towards helping the community*

Hypothesis 5 assumes a negative relation between extrinsic motivation and altruism, stating that people who sign up to be a mentor because of the pay will share less values on helping the community. The results of this regression are shown in table 6. The regression indeed confirms a negative relation between extrinsic motivation and altruism, but this relation is too weak to be significant. Hypothesis 5: *'Mentors who signed up due to extrinsic motivation will work on basis of 'external regulation' and thus share fewer values on helping the community'* therefore needs to be rejected.

### *Relation between extrinsic motivation and sex*

The results to hypothesis 6 can be seen in table 7, showing the relation of being female to extrinsic motivation. The regression indeed found a negative relation ( $B = -0,106$ ), showing that being female has a negative effect on the value someone attaches to wage. This relation is however not significant, and therefore hypothesis 6: *'Male mentors will value extrinsic motivation more than female mentors'* can be rejected.

**Table 7. Results of the regression analysis of being female on extrinsic motivation (hypothesis 6)**

	M1	
	B	SE
<b>Age</b>	-0,057	0,089
<b>Sex</b>	-0,106	0,381
<b>Religiousness</b>	-0,053	0,132

$N = 81$

$B^*$  = significant with a  $p < 0.05$

$\dagger$  = significant with a  $p < 0.1$

Reference category = Sex: Male, Religiousness: Not religious

Dependent variable = Extrinsic motivation

### *Relation between social capital and human capital*

The relation between social capital and human capital is tested via three separate statements representing social capital. Hypothesis 7 assumes a positive relation between social capital and human capital. Table 8 shows the regression results testing this hypothesis. Statement one; 'my friends do volunteering or mentoring work as well' has a slight positive relation to human capital ( $B = 0,071$ ), but this is too weak to be significant. Statement two; 'I started mentoring to get to know new people' resulted in a very weak negative relation, so the second statement has to be rejected as well. The third statement however; 'I can make new contacts that might help my business or career' shows a significant positive relation to human capital ( $B=0,204$ ). All in all it can be said that hypothesis 7: *'Mentors who signed up to increase their social capital will more often see their mentoring as an improvement to their employability'* is partially supported.

**Table 8. Results of the multiple regression analysis of the social capital statements and being female on human capital (hypotheses 7 and 9)**

	M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE
Age	-0,071	0,072	-0,046	0,072
Sex	0,447	0,302	0,457†	0,300
Religiousness	-0,153	0,105	-0,041	0,105
Friends do volunteering as well			0,071	0,067
Started to get to know new people			-0,049	0,081
New contacts that might help my career			0,204*	0,102

*N* = 78

*B*\* = significant with a *p* < 0.05

† = significant with a *p* < 0.1

Reference category = Sex: Male, Religiousness: Not religious

Dependent variable = Human capital

#### *Relation between human capital and intent to remain*

The relation between human capital and intent to remain is shown in table 5, which combines the various variables to show their result on intent to remain. Hypothesis 8 expects a positive relation between human capital and intent to remain. The regression results in table 10 indeed show a positive relation between these two concepts (*B* = 0,104), only unfortunately this relation is too weak to be significant. Therefore hypothesis 8: *'Mentors who sign up to increase their human capital will have a high intent to remain'* can be rejected.

#### *Relation between human capital and sex*

Table 8 shows the results of hypothesis 9. It was expected that female mentors value their personal development and therefore gaining human capital more than their male counterparts. The regression also found support for this hypothesis. Being female has a positive relation to valuing the human capital aspect (*B* = 0,561) and is marginally significant with a sig. of 0,066. Since the *N* on all models is relatively low for quantitative analysis, it would be quite possible that with a larger sample size these positive relations could be somewhat stronger than they are currently represented. This argument goes for all hypotheses, and especially those regarding intent to remain, since these use only roughly half the amount of respondents than the other



hypotheses. In conclusion, hypothesis 9: 'Female mentors will value gaining human capital more than male mentors' can be cautiously accepted, bearing in mind the value of 0,066.

#### *Relation between mentoring experience and social identification*

The results of the relation between mentoring experience and social identification is shown in table 9. The results found a very strong positive relation ( $B = 0,542$ ) between having more mentoring experience and identifying more strongly with the mentor identity. This relation is significant with a  $p$  of 0,000. Adding the mentoring experience variable also causes a significant increase in the  $R^2$  of the model, increasing the  $R^2$  to 0,213. This causes hypothesis 10: 'Mentors who have been working for a longer time will have a stronger shared identity' to be accepted. Besides this it is interesting to note that the control variable of sex also has a significant positive relation ( $p = 0,049$ ) to social identification, showing that women identify stronger with the mentor identity than the male mentors.

**Table 9. Results of the multiple regression analysis of mentoring experience on social identification (hypothesis 10)**

	M1		M2*	
	B	SE	B	SE
<b>Age</b>	-0,027	0,071	-0,083	0,066
<b>Sex</b>	-0,463	0,305	0,558*	0,280
<b>Religiousness</b>	-0,096	0,106	0,125	0,097
<b>Mentoring experience</b>			0,542**	0,134

$N = 81$

$B^*$  = significant with a  $p < 0.05$

$B^{**}$  = significant with a  $p < 0.001$

$\dagger$  = significant with a  $p < 0.1$

$M^*$  = significant increase in  $R^2$  in relation to previous model

Reference category = Sex: Male, Religiousness: Not religious, Mentoring experience: Little experience

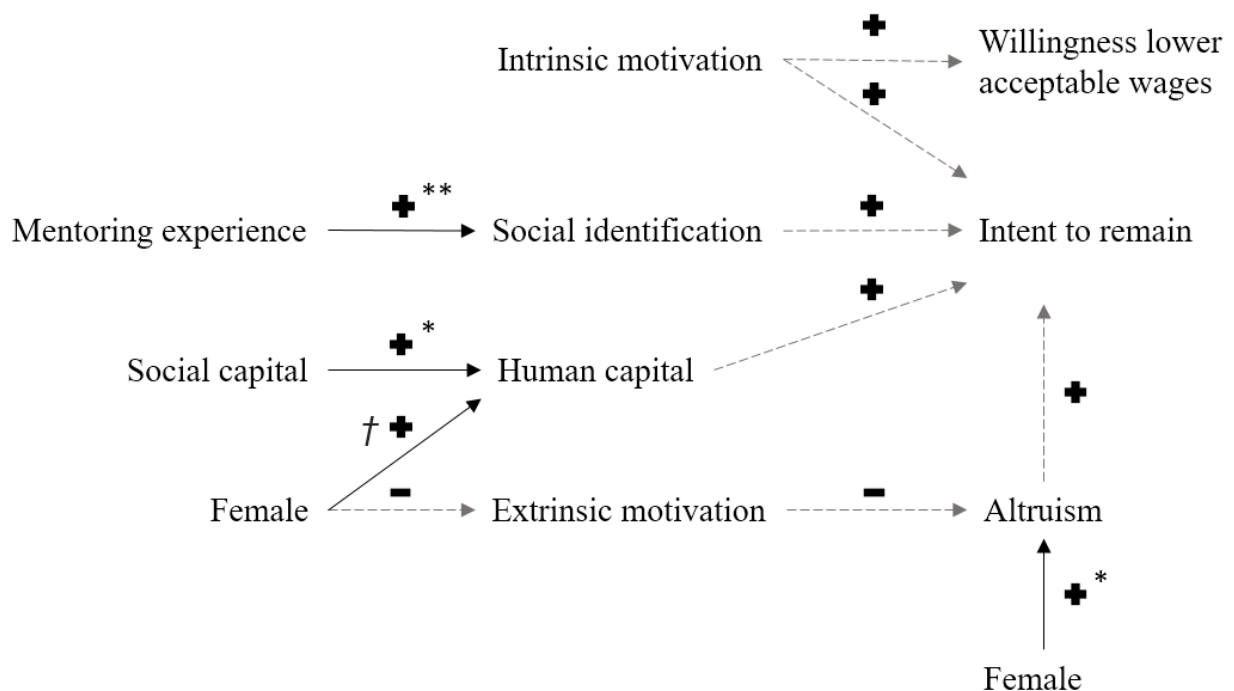
Dependent variable = Social identification

#### *Relation between social identification and intent to remain*

Hypothesis 11 is an extension to hypothesis 10 and states that a higher level of social identification should in turn lead to more intent to remain, since the respondent sees him- or herself as part of a group. The results of this hypothesis are shown in table 5 which makes for an interesting result. This hypothesis leading from a strongly significant one is not significant at all when it comes to intent to remain, but is even negative with a  $B$  of -0,305. But when

looked at the control variables a possible explanation for this change is given. The control variable of age is negatively marginally significant to intent to remain ( $p = 0,087$ ) showing that the older a respondent gets, the lower his or her intent to remain. This has not so much to do with age as it has to do with the year of study. As the study progresses a person ages, but mentors do not see their job as a viable full-time option after they graduate, so will quit their mentoring job after graduation. This causes a negative relation between age and intent to remain. This in turn directly influences the variable of social identification on intent to remain, since even though the mentors have a higher social identification with being a mentor, they are also closer to graduation so will have a lower chance of continuing their mentor job in the next academic year. This speculation is also backed by the data on reasons for stopping being a mentor, which will be discussed in chapter seven. Besides this possible explanation of this unexpected outcome, hypothesis 11: ‘Mentors who have a stronger shared identity will have a higher intent to remain’ has to be rejected.

**Figure 3: Conceptual model including regression results**



† = significant with a  $p < 0.1$   
 \* = significant with a  $p < 0.05$   
 \*\* = significant with a  $p < 0.001$   
 --- = no significant relation found

## 5. Conclusion

In this chapter the main questions of this research will be answered and a short summary of the research shall be given.

This research started with the main question on what motivates mentors to both sign up for this role and subsequently what keeps them motivated to stay a mentor. The theoretical framework led to believe that intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, building of social and human capital, and social identification would be strong motivations to either start or continue mentoring. This led to the descriptive research questions:

*“What are the most important motivations of mentors who sign up for the Caledonian Club? and “How does mentoring affect the view of the Caledonian Club mentors on inequality in the community?”.*

Furthermore the theoretical framework led to the presumption that intrinsic motivation, altruism, human capital, and social identification could be significant predictors of the intent to remain among mentors. Besides this the theoretical framework led to the expectations that the level of extrinsic motivation and sex would have a significant impact on altruism, social capital and sex would have a significant impact on human capital, more mentoring experience would have a significant impact on the level of social identification mentors experience, and more intrinsic motivation would have a significant effect on the level of the lowest acceptable wage to be a mentor for. These variables led to the full research question of:

*“How do intrinsic, extrinsic, social capital, and human capital motives, and the social identity of mentors affect their intent to continue mentoring and minimum of pay required to continue mentoring?” and “Does this effect differ between men and women?”.*

The policy part of this research and the two questions involved with this will be discussed in the section after the conclusion and discussion of the research questions. The first descriptive research question; “What are the most important motivations of mentors who sign up for the Caledonian Club?” was answered by taking the means of the scores the respondents gave these variables. As shown in the results intrinsic motivation and altruism were the concepts that were most influential as motivators to mentor. This supports the term ‘paid volunteer’ for the

mentors, showing that even though they get paid for their services, they still value the typical volunteer motivations most. This would mean that the student mentors of GCU are susceptible to the more common volunteer arguments like being able to help other with what they do, rather than promoting a comfortable hourly wage to attract and retain new mentors. These results are in line with the theoretical framework, with Anderson and Moore (1978), Gerstein et al., (2004) and Holdsworth (2010) all finding that intrinsic motivation and altruism are the strongest motivators, both in paid and unpaid volunteers. In line with reasoning of Tirole (2003) and Gagne and Deci (2005), lowering their hourly pay or emphasizing the wage less would possibly increase their intrinsic motivation, but since this study is done at one point in time and with no control group, it is not possible to reach a conclusion on that.

The second descriptive research question; “How does mentoring affect the view of the Caledonian Club mentors on inequality in the community?” was measured via three statements. The first statement measured gaining a new perspective on things, the second measured the way of looking at inequality within society and the third measured the way of looking at unequal education. As shown in the results the first statement resulted in the highest mean, the statement regarding unequal education had the second highest score and the statement on inequality within society had the lowest mean. Overall the mean score was 5,67 out of 7 showing a slight to high agreement with the statements. Additionally when the results were split between previous and current mentors, it became clear that the previous mentors scored on average 0,28 lower per statement than the current mentors. This could indicate that the GCU mentoring programs have either emphasized their impact on unequal education and inequality in society more, or since the previous mentors have stopped mentoring their memories on their impact on inequality have faded slightly, or post-GCU experiences could have altered their thinking.

Following the descriptive research questions eleven hypotheses were tested, all aimed at separate relations between the relevant concepts discussed in the theoretical framework. The main regression testing the effect of intrinsic motivation, altruism, human capital and social identification on intent to remain (H2, H3, H8, and H11) unfortunately yielded no significant results. Two aspects could have probably improved these results; firstly a higher N would have caused a model with more statistical power which could have possibly led to more significant results. Secondly an interesting relation is found between social identification, intent to remain and the control variable age. As discussed in the results gaining more mentoring experience led to a significant higher level of social identification (H10), and therefore finding support for Finkelstein’s (2009) role identity theory and accepting hypothesis 10. The concept of social

identification however in turn had no significant relation to intent to remain (H11). Age did however show a marginally significant negative relation to intent to remain. It can be assumed that this is not due to the respondents ageing, but getting closer to graduation. As main reason for quitting their mentor job the previous mentors stated 'graduating', showing that even though the work itself is graded very positively, the mentors do not see continuing their mentor job after graduation as an option. This in turn lowers the score on 'intent to remain'. So it could be speculated that social identification has a stronger effect on intent to remain in a continuous mentor job than this research currently shows. Furthermore the relation between intrinsic motivation and lower acceptable hourly wage (H1) was in line with the expectation but unfortunately too weak to be significant. The same can be said of the relation between extrinsic motivation and altruism (H5) having the expected negative relation but not a significant one.

The theoretical framework also differentiated by sex when it came to the variables of altruism, extrinsic motivation, and human capital. As shown by Gerstein et al. (2004) female mentors tend to value their altruistic motives more than their male counterparts. This was indeed confirmed as well by this research, with a significant positive relation between being female and altruism hypothesis 4 could be accepted. Hypothesis 6 stated that being female would have a diminishing effect on the value attached to extrinsic motivation, based on the study by Gerstein et al. (2004). This hypothesis could unfortunately not be accepted, since the relation found between being female and extrinsic motivation was not supported by the results. The third and final hypothesis regarding the effect of sex is as well derived from the study of Gerstein et al. (2004) stating that being female has a positive effect on the value attached to increasing human capital. This research found a marginally significant positive relation between being female and human capital and therefore can cautiously accept the hypothesis

The final hypothesis is hypothesis 7 testing the relationship between social capital and human capital. This relation was described in the theoretical framework by Bourdieu (1984), Fitch (1987, as described in Gerstein et al., 2004), and Webb et al., (2002), showing social capital as an important way to increase human capital and employability in general. The concept of social capital was split up in three different statements measuring various aspects of social capital. The first two statements regarding the current social circle and gaining new social contacts were found to be too weak to be significant. The third statement however; 'I can make new contacts that might help my business or career' was found to significantly positively relate to gaining human capital. Because of this reason it is difficult to fully reject or accept this hypothesis.

Overall this research showed promising results, showing the expected relation between concepts however most were too weak to be significant. Besides this it has confirmed that female mentors do attach more importance to their altruistic values and gaining human capital than their male counterparts, and that more mentoring experience leads to a significantly higher level of social identification with the mentor identity, supporting the role identity theory by Finkelstein (2009).

## 6. Discussion

This chapter shall provide a critical reflection on the research and discuss some limitations and recommendations for further research. The first limitation is the fact that this research has been carried out within one organisation and within one geographical area (Glasgow, Scotland). The results presented in this research hold up for the population of the GCU mentors but could be improved by incorporating multiple mentoring organisations and preferably throughout the United Kingdom or Europe in general. This way the conclusions drawn in this research would have broader support.

A second possible limitation occurring when collecting data within one geographical area is the ‘snowball effect’; the group of mentors working from GCU are all students of the same university and therefore a possibility exists that via verbal promotion they got their own social circle to sign up for a mentoring job as well, creating a skewed result in the values and main motivations due to a overrepresentation of certain groups. This however is purely speculation and cannot be traced via quantitative methods.

This brings us to a third limitation; this research is based on a literature study to form the initial expectations on main motivations and hypotheses. If this research would also have been able to use qualitative methods in the explorative part, some motivations might have come to light that now have possibly been overlooked due to the fact that the data was gathered via a mostly multiple choice survey. Speaking to the respondents via interviews or focus groups might have added some useful details. This was unfortunately not feasible in the timeframe, and therefore will remain a recommendation for further research.

The fourth limitation is the lack of a control group. All the respondents in this research did at some point sign up for the mentoring job, however including respondents in the results who are students at GCU or comparable universities who decided not to sign up might cause an interesting comparison. The concepts of view on inequality and the main motivations to sign up would be interesting to compare to non-mentors. This is again a recommendation for future research.

The fifth limitation slightly ties back to the first and second limitation as well. Only gathering data within one organisation with around 200 active mentors and 600 previous one’s caused the N of this research to be fairly low, with an N of 81 in the largest regression model and an N of 40 in the smallest. Replicating this research with a higher N and including the above recommendations would make for statistically stronger and more comprehensive results, with possibly more significant relations as well.

## 7. Policy results and recommendation

This final section of the research shall look at the theories and results and formulate them into concrete advice for the organisation, both the Caledonian Club and the Glasgow Caledonian University in general. The two policy research questions were formulated and shall be answered below.

### 7.1 *The Common Good Curriculum*

The first policy question asked: *“How does the GCU mentoring system align with the Common Good Curriculum and how can this improve?”*. First this research shall explain the Common Good Curriculum and its attributes in more detail. The Common Good Curriculum consists of the core values that the university wants to promote; integrity, creativity, responsibility, and responsible leadership (Glasgow Caledonian University, 2017). This curriculum is split up in four main attributes which are underpinned by their core values: active and global citizenship, an entrepreneurial mind-set, responsible leadership skills, and confidence. Active and global citizenship entails “recognising and actively seeking to address global social challenges; participating in the community at a local, national or global level”. An entrepreneurial mind-set is defined as “identifying opportunities for change; creating solutions, and putting these into practice in response to identified real world problems”. Responsible leadership is defined as “developing solutions that are ethical, visionary, realistic and sustainable; exercising empathy, resilience and professionalism”. And lastly, confidence is defined as “challenging yourself and continually learning from experience; believing you can make a positive difference by what you do” (Glasgow Caledonian University, 2017). These four attributes were split up into two statements per attribute, making for a total of eight statements. These are described in more detail in the methodology. The scores per two statements belonging to a certain attribute were then combined and their mean score taken as the overall score on how well this attribute is represented in their mentoring job. These scores are presented in table 15 as seen below. As seen ‘confidence’ and ‘responsible leadership’ lie very close together as a first and second place, with the highest mean of 5,97 out of 7 for the confidence attribute. The ‘responsible leadership’ attribute only scores 0,01 lower with a score of 5,96 out of 7. It is fairly safe to say that these means translate to ‘agree strongly’ which is 6 out of 7. This shows that the respondents agree strongly that these attributes are represented in their mentor job. The active and global citizenship scored a 5,54 out of 7 meaning a score in between ‘agree slightly’ and ‘agree strongly’. The entrepreneurial mind-set clearly scored lowest of the four attributes with



a score of 5,19 out of 7. This shows a clear area of improvement for the Caledonian Club to properly stimulate all four attributes of the Common Good Curriculum. When looked separately at the statements it is shown that “my mentoring work stimulates an entrepreneurial mind-set” clearly scores the lowest out of the eight statements, with a 4,89 out of 7, translating to a low ‘agree slightly’. Possible improvements to this aspect could be for the Caledonian Club to emphasize taking initiative among their mentors, giving the mentors more freedom to think about opportunities and the best way to engage them. A second suggestion would be to stimulate the mentors to think about projects that could add to the range of projects already offered by GCU outreach in general, but are still missing. Having the mentors initiate and help run their own projects could help their skills as an entrepreneur. This could improve the self-reliance within the mentors and make them more independent and better capable of working without direct supervision.

During my internship for the Caledonian Club Research and Evaluation Unit it also became clear that both mentors and students of GCU have a low awareness of what the Common Good Curriculum and their attributes entail. This is a point of improvement not so much for GCU outreach as it is for the Glasgow Caledonian University. The university wants to promote these values in the curriculum of their students, but as long as the students remain largely unaware of these values, no bottom-up feedback can be given on how these intended attributes are received by the population that should be affected by them. This is why a clear communication channel should be established by the university, preferably via a university-wide email or letter to all students and staff. This will ensure all students will hear about these attributes and will also hear about them from the same source. Results from 15 interviews with staff members and a focus group with four students showed support for this argument (MacFarlane, 2017). The staff members showed some awareness of the Common Good Attributes. However, there was considerable confusion and debate as to what the third attribute: ‘entrepreneurial mind-set’ would entail in practice. This could also contribute to the third attribute scoring the lowest of all four. If the staff members who are responsible for carrying out these attributes in the modules and extracurricular activities like mentoring are not fully aware how it translates towards the students, it will be hard to properly include these attributes. If the university wants to improve their Common Good Curriculum and the corresponding attributes, it should be very open to feedback and communicate these values clearly, which it currently does not.

**Table 10. Levels of Common Good Attributes present in mentor job**

<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Active and global citizenship	88	5,54	1,27
Entrepreneurial mind-set	89	5,19	1,14
Responsible leadership	89	5,97	0,75
Confidence	89	5,96	0,81

### *7.2 Recruitment and retention advice*

The second part of the policy chapter will look into recruitment and retention advice. Via this way the mentors can continue to be a mentor for longer and also build a better relationship with the children they are working with. The policy question stated: “*How can the recruitment and retention of mentors be improved?*”. Firstly the already mentioned relation with graduating will be discussed. The regression found a marginally significant negative relation between age and intent to remain. It was then speculated that this was not due to age but due to graduation. This is very clearly backed by other questions from the survey. The current mentors were asked what reasons *could be* for them to stop being a mentor, and previous mentors were asked what the reasons were they actually stopped. 51 current mentors and 46 previous mentors filled in these two separate questions, and even though both questions gave a possibility of giving multiple answers, the reason is very clear. Of the 51 current mentors that filled in the question, 46 (74,2%) stated graduating would be a reason for them to stop mentoring, this was by far the highest scoring answer, with ‘an unfriendly atmosphere between co-workers’ and ‘not being respected by the Caledonian Club or GCU outreach’ coming in at the second and third place with 18 respondents stating this as an answer (29%). This shows that the Caledonian Club and GCU outreach should be careful to show respect to their mentors and ensure a friendly atmosphere between co-workers, but when comparing these prospective reasons for quitting with the actual reasons of quitting from the previous mentors, it is clear that graduation is the main reason to stop mentoring. Of the previous mentors that filled in their respective question on quitting being a mentor, an overwhelming 44 out of 46 (95,7%) stated they did so due to them graduating. The second biggest reason for quitting; ‘I got another job’ was only stated by 4 out of 46 previous mentors (8,7%). If GCU outreach wants to grow and have a higher percentage of mentors staying with them, they should work on making the mentor job a viable

option after graduation, removing the stigma on being a mentor after your graduation and creating an option to make more hours, to make it a viable option for a starting full-time job. This is also supported by the National Mentoring Partnership (2005) stating that a mentor should share a close trusting relationship with the mentee, this is stimulated by mentoring the same mentee over a longer period of time and with higher frequency. When a mentor stays active after their graduation, they can keep improving the bond they have with certain mentees, instead of the mentee having to get used to a new mentor. Alternatively, if making the mentoring job a viable option after graduation is not achievable, recruiting mentors in their first year of study would be the second best option. This way they can stay a mentor for the duration of their study, which is usually between three to four years. This way the effect of recruiting new mentors and giving them the training they need will have the best cost-benefit balance both for GCU outreach and the mentor-mentee relationship.

Besides the abovementioned arguments on the recruitment and retention of mentors, forming an advisory group of interested mentors and staff members could have a beneficial relation in regards to possible dissatisfactions that might be present under the mentors, and could help create a better retention rate after graduation by approaching the mentors to try and keep them involved. Additionally this research has created a demographic overview of the mentors working for GCU outreach, an advisory group could keep updating this data by collecting new demographic data every few years to see how the hurdle of quitting due to graduating is progressing and just in general to stay up to date about their own mentors. Besides this the advisory group could improve on the already collected data by tracking the hours of training and the quality of training the mentors are receiving, the number of work hours the mentors are getting monthly and the amount of hours they are in contact with the same mentee groups, and start collecting and properly updating data on the mentees themselves.

## Appendix

**Table 11. Descriptive statistics of the first model testing explanatory variables on acceptable hourly wage (H1).**

Variables	<i>n</i>	M	SD
Hourly wages	75	3,28	1,24
Intrinsic motivation	75	6,40	0,59
Age	75	4,84	1,91
Sex	75	0,73	0,47
Religiousness	75	1,87	1,28

*\*Female=1*

**Table 12. Descriptive statistics of the second model testing explanatory variables on intent to remain (H2, H3, H8, and H11).**

Variables	<i>n</i>	M	SD
Intent to remain	40	3,65	1,70
Intrinsic motivation	40	6,39	0,59
Altruism	40	6,17	0,91
Human capital	40	4,72	1,22
Social identification	40	5,10	1,20
Age	40	3,88	1,77
Sex	40	0,65	0,48
Religiousness	40	1,80	1,29

*\*Female=1*

*\*N low due to only current mentors filling out statement on intent to remain*

**Table 13. Descriptive statistics of the third model testing explanatory variables on altruism (H4 and H5).**

<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Altruism	81	6,15	0,88
Extrinsic motivation	81	4,89	1,46
Age	81	4,72	1,89
Sex	81	0,74	0,44
Religiousness	81	1,84	1,25

*\*Female=1*

**Table 14. Descriptive statistics of the fourth model testing explanatory variables on extrinsic motivation (H6).**

<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Extrinsic motivation	81	4,89	1,46
Age	81	4,73	1,89
Sex	81	0,74	0,44
Religiousness	81	1,84	1,25

*\*Female=1*

**Table 15. Descriptive statistics of the fifth model testing explanatory variables on human capital (H7 and H9).**

<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Human capital	78	4,85	1,18
Friends volunteer as well	78	4,60	2,02
Started mentoring to get to know new people	78	4,37	1,69
Make new contacts that might help my career	78	4,53	1,37
Age	78	4,68	1,88
Sex	78	0,73	0,45
Religiousness	78	1,86	1,27

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*\*Female=1*

**Table 16. Descriptive statistics of the sixth model testing explanatory variables on social identification (H10).**

<b>Variables</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Social identification	81	5,06	1,19
Mentoring experience	81	3,46	0,93
Age	81	4,73	1,89
Sex	81	0,74	0,44
Religiousness	81	1,84	1,25

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*\*Female=1*

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