

# The Influences of Generational Values and Experiences on Mentorship Programs

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this concurrent mixed-methods research study was to investigate the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived values, to gain insight into how these values may influence mentorship needs in both formal and informal mentorship programs. For the first time in history, organizations can have up to five generations in the workforce. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that up to 40% of people aged 55 and older are actively employed, with those aged 64 to 74 expected to have the fastest-growing labor force participation rate through 2024. Failed multigenerational mentorship programs, human resource issues, and workforce conflicts can result in annual losses of nearly \$605 billion. A total of 472 respondents from five generational cohorts completed Schwartz's cross-cultural human values questionnaire (PVQ-RR) and four additional open-ended questions to address the research questions. The quantitative causal-comparative analysis examined the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived human values. A statistically significant difference was reported for 13 of the 19 values. The qualitative thematic analysis resulted in unique and similar themes for each generation. The six major themes included all generations viewing trust as an essential value in mentorship programs and being discouraged by the unavailability of negative mentors. Applying the findings from this research can address multigenerational issues in the global workforce, including stereotypical perceptions, conflicts, mentorship processes, and financial losses. The mixed methods results also provided a deeper understanding of the similarities and differences between self-perceived generational cohort values and their needs, which can be applied to build or strengthen bridges between generations.

## Introduction/Background

For the first time in history, organizations can have up to five generations in the workforce, and a sixth generation, Generation Alpha, is expected to enter the workforce by 2026 (Allen, 2018). According to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, up to 40% of people aged 55 and older are actively seeking or holding jobs, with those aged 64 to 74 expected to have the fastest-growing labor force participation rate through 2024 (Toossi & Torpey, 2017). With up to five generations working within business organizations today, conflicts can arise due to misunderstandings or stereotypical perceptions (Robbins & Judge, 2018). Failed multigenerational mentorship programs, human resource management issues, and workforce conflicts can result in losses of nearly \$605 billion annually (Brightenburg et al., 2020). Browne (2021) suggests that the 2020s are considered by many to be the first decade in which up to five distinct generations could be found working in the workplace simultaneously, with a wide range of differences, including worldviews, expectations of work, expectations of one another, and general values.

Job commitment, helping others, and work ethic are areas where multigenerational workforce stereotypes can arise and potentially lead to hostile work attitudes (Moore & Krause, 2021). Research indicates a lack of understanding of generational cohorts in workforce research (Robbins & Judge, 2018). Another gap in business research is the lack of insight into designing mentorship processes for multigenerational mentorship programs that incorporate human values and multigenerational workforce mentorship preferences (Browne, 2021; Schwartz, 1994). This concurrent mixed-methods research study aimed to investigate the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived values, with the goal of better understanding the multigenerational workforce and how those values may influence informal or formal mentorship needs in the workplace (Browne, 2021; Gadomska-Lila, 2020; Pruett, 2020).

The quantitative portion of this study utilized a survey instrument. The qualitative portion included four open-ended questions at the end of the survey. The research participants, also referred to as the research population, consisted of workforce members aged 18 years or older from up to five generational cohorts in the United States and potentially other English-speaking countries (Creswell & Creswell, 2019). The anonymous random population included multiple generations, including the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials, and Generation Z, who were or are working in various industries for organizations of all sizes located in the United States.

This research study extended prior research by addressing the indicated gaps, including mentorship research that seeks participants from five working generations (Browne, 2021; Moore & Krause, 2021; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Addressing these research gaps may provide insights to help organizations save money and create more successful mentorship programs that incorporate multigenerational human values and mentorship preferences. The potential insights from this research could help understand the values of each generational cohort, shed light on workforce preferences, reduce workforce conflict, and inform general leadership strategies.

Mentorship is found in writings as early as 800 BCE, in Homer's poem *The Odyssey*, where a man named Mentor was asked to serve as a teacher, advisor, and friend to the king's son, Telemachus, while he was away at war (Hopwood & Bradbury, 2021). One-on-one apprenticeships have been utilized since ancient times through to the present, employing both formal and informal mentorship processes (Browne, 2021). Today's organizations often have workforces comprising up to five generations. Conflict can occur in the workforce due to a lack of understanding or stereotypical perceptions, resulting in losses of up to \$605 billion annually (Brightenburg et al., 2020; Robbins & Judge, 2018).

Human values can serve a person's interests, motivate them to act, provide justification for actions or judgments, and be acquired through social group values or unique learning experiences (Schwartz, 1994). The theory of human values was developed by Schwartz and is rooted in the framework of human needs. Schwartz defines values as "desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity" (p. 16). Moore and Krause (2021) suggested that job commitment, helping others, and work ethics are areas where generational stereotypes can occur and potentially lead to hostile work attitudes. Moore and Krause conducted a quantitative study to examine the relationship between the perceived stereotypes of generational cohorts and their work-related attitudes. The findings identified gaps in research across generational cohorts, as studies have mainly focused on Generation Y or compared only two or three cohorts.

Browne (2021) noted that distinct generations can be found working in the workplace simultaneously, exhibiting wide-ranging differences, including worldviews, work expectations, expectations of one another, and general values. Research that provides a deeper understanding of multigenerational human values could aid in constructing and maintaining more effective mentor-mentee relationships, resulting in a "win-win" outcome for everyone (p. 13).

The gaps identified in research indicate a lack of generational cohort understanding, a lack of successful mentorship program insights involving multigenerational workforces, and a lack of any known research examining these factors in conjunction with self-perceived human values (Browne, 2021; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Gaining insight into generational cohort self-perceived human values and their relationship to or influence on mentorship programs can also provide insight into preparing and delivering more effective mentorship programs, and save costs for organizations (Browne, 2021; Leka & De Alwis, 2016).

## **Literature Review**

The following literature review included: a) formal and informal mentorship programs, b) human values in research and business, c) generational cohorts, and d) a multigenerational workforce. Research studies indicate a lack of understanding of generational cohorts in the workforce (Robbins & Judge, 2018). In today's workforce, organizations can comprise up to five generations, and conflict may arise due to a lack of understanding or stereotypical perceptions (Robbins & Judge, 2018). Failed multigenerational mentorship programs, human resource management issues, and workforce conflicts can result in losses of nearly \$605 billion annually

(Brightenburg et al., 2020). Research addressing the existing gap in understanding human values and multigenerational workforce mentorship preferences may help improve leadership practices and reduce costs (Browne, 2021; Schwartz, 1994). Browne (2021) explained that one-on-one apprenticeships have been utilized since ancient times through to the present day in both formal and informal mentorship processes. Human values can serve a person's interests, motivate them to act, provide justification for actions or judgments, and can be acquired through social group values or unique learning experiences (Schwartz, 1994). Research that provides a deeper understanding of multigenerational human values could aid in constructing and maintaining more effective mentor-mentee relationships, resulting in a "win-win" outcome for everyone (p. 13).

The theoretical framework for this study consisted of the theory of generations and the theory of basic human values.

### *Theory of Generations*

Karl Mannheim, a German sociologist, is the principal founder of the theory of generations, as described in a 1928 essay. This essay explains how people are influenced by their socio-historical experiences, creating a generational unit that can shape future events (Nilsen, 2014). DeMartini (1985) noted that the purpose of Mannheim's paper was to examine the potential problems associated with the emergence of new cohorts, which can create conflict or lead to the rejection of traditions by older generations. DeMartini summarized the components of Mannheim's paper and called for awareness that the transition from one generation to another can be incomplete due to the new generation's cultural rejection. Mannheim proposed that the resulting conflict creates lasting social change effects. This theory provides a basic foundational understanding of multigenerational cohort variables in quantitative research. This theory explicitly supports this research study by providing a rationale for differences in each generation's characteristics and explaining why conflict may exist among cohorts. Where Mannheim first identified the theory of generation units and the consequential conflict that creates social change, Norman Ryder took this theory to a new level of understanding.

Norman Ryder, a demographer, followed up on Mannheim's research to further develop the generational cohort theory, proposing that people who share social and historical defining moments are shaped by them (Nilsen, 2014; Ryder, 1965). Approaching the theory from a demographic lens, Ryder's focus was on the concept that a generational cohort forms around experiencing a key historical event and sharing similar demographic characteristics. Generations were often thought to be a product of aging, creating common groups with similar life stages. Ryder also suggested that a significant historical event, such as a war, has a greater influence on creating a generational cohort than age demographics. Ryder's theory builds on Mannheim's initial theory by developing a further understanding of how the lasting social changes caused by generational units can be further defined as generational cohorts. Identifying these cohorts, shaped by historical and demographic experiences, can then be researched to capitalize on the differences they reveal (p. 843). This was the birth of targeted marketing or management efforts aimed at a specific cohort. This theory provides a framework for the quantitative analysis of self-perceived multigenerational cohort needs and their effects on the adoption of formal and

informal mentorship programs. This theory aligns specifically with the quantitative RQ1 research question to gain insight into the relationship between generational cohort and participants' self-perceived values in formal or informal mentorship programs.

### ***Theory of Basic Human Values***

Shalom Schwartz (1994) developed the theory of basic human values from research rooted in cross-cultural psychology. The theory of basic human values stems from the framework of human needs. Schwartz defines values as "desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity" (p. 16). Values serve a person's interests, can motivate them to act, justify actions or judgments, and can be acquired through social group values or unique learning experiences (p. 17). This theory and measurement of values tool is based on the methodology of value concepts developed by Rokeach (Rokeach, 1973). Schwartz (2012) states that "theory of basic human values defines ten broad values according to the motivation that underlies each of them" (p. 4). This theory provides a lens into the ten basic human personal values, the dynamic relationships among them, their origins, and their cross-cultural recognition. Schwartz shared that people value what they feel is important to them. There can be differences in the level of importance or in what people value. The theory of basic human values presents six core features that comprise the concept of values. These features are also derived from the publications of other theorists (see Table 1). These six core features exist in all values.

**Table 1**

*The Nature of Values in the Theory of Basic Human Values*

Values are beliefs linked inextricably to effects.	Values refer to desirable goals that motivate action.	Values transcend specific actions and situations.	Values serve as standards or criteria.	Values are ordered by their relative importance.	The relative importance of multiple values guides action.
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*Note:* Schwartz, 1992,2012, 2021. PVQ-RR Value Questions Used by Permission.

The cross-cultural application of the theory of basic human values also has a "surprising consensus regarding the hierarchical order of the values" across different societies and representative samples, with the importance of the ten basic values being similar. This is an important aspect as the 57 values, organized into ten basic or nineteen more narrowly defined value types, and categorized by motivational goals, can be recognized across cultures. As Schwartz (2012) sought to develop a theoretical framework to identify relationships among value types based on the conflicts and compatibilities encountered when people pursue these values, he developed a values survey using a Likert scale. A more recent version of Schwartz's survey was used for this research study.

### **Formal and Informal Mentorship Programs**

Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) noted that a mentor is someone who acts as a teacher or guide, providing skilled expertise, perspectives, resources, and modeling to help a mentee who is committed to receiving and acting on the guidance provided (pp. 34–35). Hopwood and

Bradbury explained that a mentorship is typically an agreement to transfer knowledge that benefits both the organization, and the individuals engaged in the mentor-mentee relationship. Browne (2021) noted that today's organizations often have workforces comprising up to five generations that must collaborate. Browne also explained that mentorship programs can be formal or informal and use many processes depending on the organization's needs and culture. Failed multigenerational mentorship programs, human resource management issues, and workforce conflicts can result in losses of nearly \$605 billion annually due to a lack of understanding of stereotypical perceptions (Brightenburg et al., 2020; Robbins & Judge, 2018).

Whether formal or informal, insights into multigenerational cohort perceptions of their values and mentorship preferences could potentially help leadership reduce these losses while increasing productivity and success within the organization (Browne, 2021; Schwartz, 1994). Muschallik and Pull (2016) noted that, while many programs exist, the literature has failed to examine the effects of informal mentoring compared to formal mentorship programs. They claimed to have presented the first-ever empirical evidence showing that mentees with only an informal mentor were no more productive than those with no mentor (Muschallik & Pull, 2016). This is a powerful claim in support of organizations adopting a formal approach to mentorship programs rather than an informal one. While this research indicates that a formal approach yields more positive outcomes and that organizations should consider several factors when designing their mentor programs, further research suggests that organizations should also consider the duration of their programs.

### *Customized Mentor Programs*

Muschallik and Pull (2016) argue that not just any mentor program will work and call for businesses to create a formal program, as their findings showed that the results of an informal mentor program were equivalent to having no program at all. St-Jean and Tremblay (2020) suggest that further research is needed to investigate factors such as the duration of mentor-mentee relationship programs to enhance the program's effectiveness. Considering the COVID-19 pandemic, the #MeToo movement, changing gender definitions, and issues related to race and cultural diversity, the value and need for organizations to develop effective mentorship programs are even more crucial (Schipani & Dworkin, 2019). Hernandez et al. (2016) reported that Millennials will comprise most of the workforce by 2025 and called for the design of mentor programs to help the younger generation develop connections and loyalty to their company. This will also assist the younger generation "by reaping the benefits of well-trained, dedicated employees who operate within an increasingly productive team, because members of the team share a common vision and a trust in leadership" (Hernandez et al., 2016, p.44). Using Ryder's generational cohort theory as a foundation, which builds on Mannheim's initial theory, identifying generational cohort values, created by historical and demographic experiences, can assist in designing more effective customized mentor programs while reducing mentor process conflict (Schwartz, 2022).

When employees are more willing due to supervisor support and less affected by work exhaustion than traditional thinking might assume, this highlights the importance of researching all factors when deciding whether to implement a program or when designing one to mentor

employees. Other researchers agree and have also sought to identify and fill gaps in a successful mentor program (Muschallik & Pull, 2016). St-Jean and Tremblay (2020) suggest that studies have “under-explored” the effects of the length of a mentor program (p. 424). In their study, St-Jean and Tremblay (2020) included 219 participants and 106 follow-ups and aimed to investigate the impact of the duration of a mentor program on self-efficacy. Their findings revealed that the positive effects of mentoring for long-term, goal-oriented mentees decreased after mentoring ended. While long-term support is crucial for assisting those with a low learning goal orientation, their findings also showed that it can help mentees maintain a higher level of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which can benefit the organization’s outcomes (St-Jean & Tremblay, 2020). In designing a successful mentoring program, organizations must consider several key factors, and further research is needed to understand how outlier factors and key areas of organizational behavior impact mentor-mentee outcomes.

### ***Value-Added Benefits and Networking***

Neck et al. (2019) reported the potential value of using networking to gain early access to industry information, acquire additional skill sets, and leverage connections with other experts or influential mentors. Neck et al. additionally noted that networking, including mentoring across companies, can increase consumer retention rates and enhance brand loyalty by promoting partnerships with other companies committed to sustainability. Hopwood and Bradbury (2021) also suggested that a "networked mentor" has connections that can assist the mentee both in making connections to move toward expressed goals or future success while avoiding pitfalls the mentor has already navigated (p. 34).

### **Human Values in Research and Business**

Many researchers see human values as strong, deep-seated motivations that can provide guidance and understanding into the norms, beliefs, desirable goals, attitudes, opinions, and actions of humans (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992, 2003). Schwartz (2001), a professor from the department of psychology at The Hebrew University, explained that research into values had previously been more "piecemeal" and less integrated and that a value theory and instrument representing broader and basic motivations were needed for more relevance to be applied to a wide variety of attitudes and behaviors. Schwartz presented other popular value scales including: a) Inglehart's (1971) scale which measures a person's values indirectly (such as how people feel about goals for a company and not for themselves,) b) Rokeach's (1973) scale which asks a person to rank two sets of 18 values and is considered not to be based on solid theory as well as leaving out power and tradition values, and c) the Hofstede (1980) scale which suggested measuring four value dimensions and is not considered helpful in linking values to behaviors and opinions. While these summaries were derived from Schwartz's research, other researchers have reached similar conclusions (Mills et al., 2009).

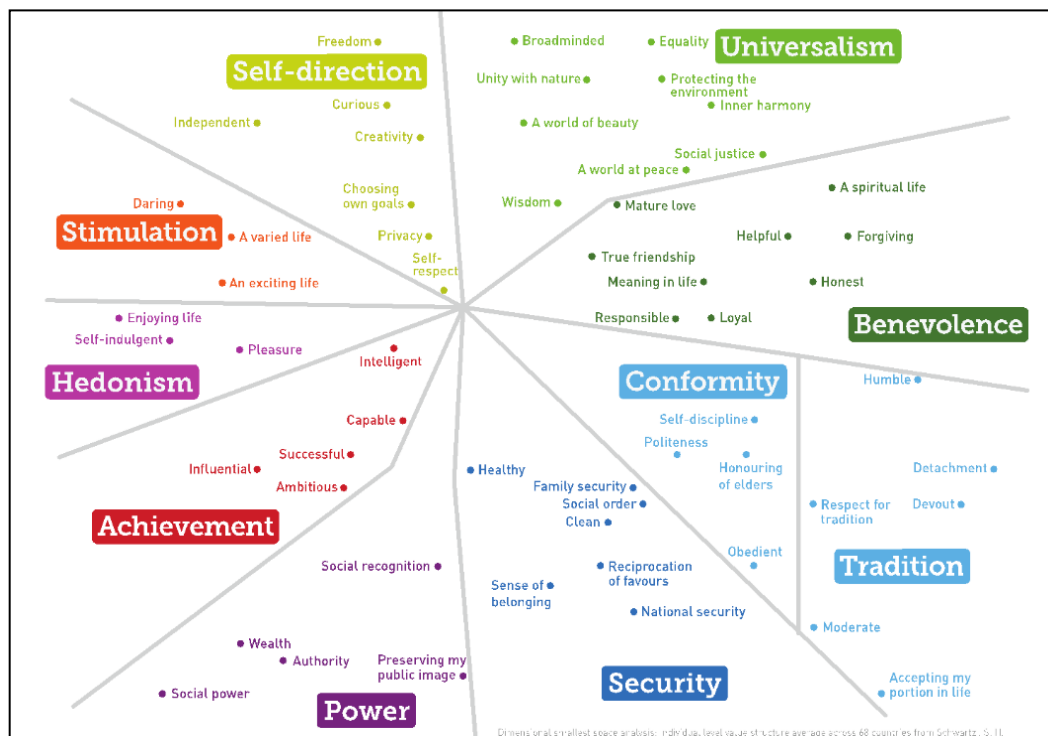
Building on Rokeach's (1973) value-concept methodology, Schwartz (1992, 1994) developed and presented the theory of fundamental human values. Schwartz sought to create a theoretical structure to find relationships between value types, based on the conflicts and compatibilities encountered when people pursue these values. From his research findings, Schwartz identified 59

values and organized them into ten value types or orientations, categorized by motivational goals, which can be recognized across cultures and help predict and explain participants' attitudes, opinions, and actions. Schwartz explained how understanding human values can shed light on social changes in societies and even nations. Torres et al. (2016) further explained that Schwartz indicated values also guide "the selection and evaluation of actions, policies, people and events that compose criteria for judgements" (p. 342). Thus, understanding human values within generational cohorts could provide insight into judgment criteria and behavioral choices for the multigenerational workforce. However, it is worth noting that linking values to direct expressions of behavior has been suggested to require further research. Schwartz's (1992, 1994)

Four higher-order values have been expanded to ten fundamental values or orientations, which in turn have been further expanded into nineteen values or orientations (see Table 2). To "evaluate the match between the observed and the theorized content and structure of value types", Schwartz (1994) conducted an analysis and presented a value structure prototype from the first 36 samples and 19 countries to relate the data to the theory and show that there was a match between the theory and the values. This study has been replicated multiple times, and Potts (2015) presented a color-coded version with 97 samples from 44 countries, involving 25,863 participants (see Figure 2). Schwartz's (1994) basic values are systematically connected and not unrelated. Schwartz did not include happiness as a value because people achieve it by obtaining other values (p. 5).

## Figure 2

*Dimensional Smallest Space Analysis: Individual Level Value Structure Averaged Across 68 Countries*



Note: Schwartz (1994), Pg 31; Potts (2015).

**Table 2**  
*The Values of the Value Theory by Shalom Schwartz*

Higher order values	Basic values	More narrowly defined values
Openness to change	Self-direction—Independent thought and action, choosing, creating, and exploring	Self-direction-thought: Freedom to cultivate one's own ideas and abilities (three items) Self-direction-action: Freedom to determine one's own actions (three items)
	Stimulation—Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life	Stimulation: Definition unchanged (three items)
	Hedonism—Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself	Hedonism <sup>a</sup> : Definition unchanged (two items)
Self-enhancement	Achievement—Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards	Achievement: Definition unchanged (three items)
	Power—Control or dominance over people and resources	Power-dominance: Power through exercising control over people (two items) Power-resources: Power through control of material and social resources (two items)
Conservation		Face <sup>b</sup> : Security and power through maintaining one's public image and avoiding humiliation (two items)
	Security—Safety, harmony, and stability of society, relationships, and self	Security-personal: Safety in one's immediate environment (two items) Security-societal: Safety and stability in the wider society (three items)
	Conformity—The restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses that are likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms	Conformity-rules: Compliance with rules, laws, and formal obligations (two items) Conformity-interpersonal: Avoidance of upsetting or harming other people (three items)
	Tradition—Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provides	Tradition: Maintaining and preserving cultural, family, or religious traditions (three items)
		Humility <sup>c</sup> : Recognizing one's insignificance in the larger scheme of things (two items)
Self-transcendence	Benevolence—Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact	Benevolence-dependability: Being a reliable and trustworthy member of the ingroup (two items) Benevolence-caring: Devotion to the welfare of ingroup members (three items)
	Universalism—Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of <i>all</i> people and of nature	Universalism-concern: Commitment to equality, justice, and protection for all people (three items)
		Universalism-nature: Preservation of the natural environment (three items)
		Universalism-tolerance: Acceptance and understanding of those who are different from oneself (two items)

Source: Schwartz et al. (2012).

<sup>a</sup>Hedonism is located on the border of openness and self-enhancement values. We included hedonism in the model for openness.

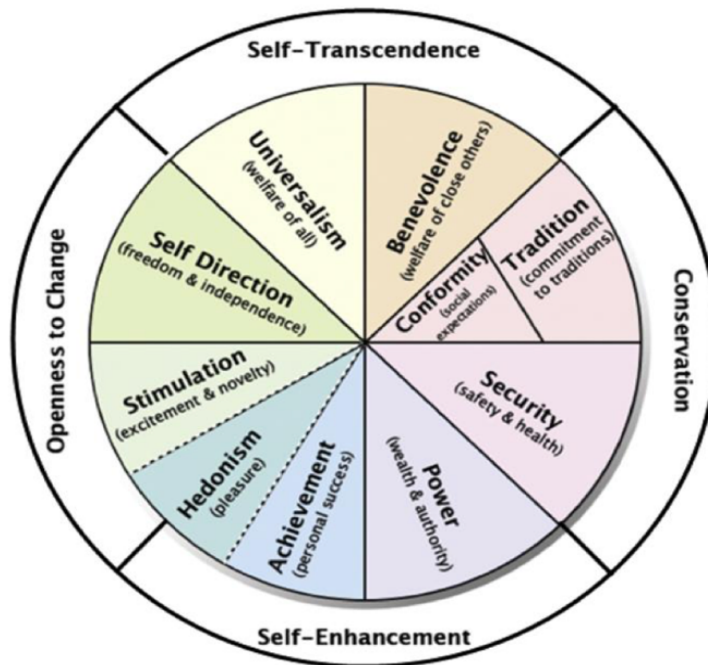
<sup>b</sup>Face is located on the border of self-enhancement and conservation values. We included face in the model for conservation.

<sup>c</sup>Humility is located on the border of conservation and self-transcendence values. We included humility in the model for conservation.

Schwartz (1994, 2006, 2022) further explained that his value theory also encompasses the dynamic relationship between values, in which actions taken in pursuit of one value can have consequences that may be either conflicting or congruent with the pursuit of other values. Schwartz's circular models present the theoretical postulation of the pattern of relations between conflict and congruity among the ten and nineteen values (see Figures 2, 3, and 4). These models illustrate a motivational continuum: the closer two values are, the more similar their underlying motivations are, and the further apart the values are, the more distinct their motivations are. It is worth noting that, after sampling from 67 nations, the underlying broad human motivations may be universal in structure for compatibilities and oppositions, while having very different levels of importance across the ten value types (p. 270).

### Figure 3

*Theoretical Model of Relations among the Ten Motivational Types of Values*



*Note:* Schwartz, 2003, Pg 270; Gavish, 2022.

Building on the foundations of previous research and developing his own values theory, Schwartz (1992, 2001, 2003) subsequently developed the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) to measure the ten fundamental human values that can influence human actions. The results of the survey provide value differences and possible motivational relationships between values insight that can be recognized across cultures and utilized by psychologists, sociologists, business organizations, and others interested in understanding human values and human actions. This measurement system survey structure, with each type tested for reliability and validity, allows a researcher to view a system of value priorities as an integrated whole, considering other variables. Schwartz shared that measuring the self-reported importance people attribute to values is "lip service" when providing the basis for the values surveys developed, so it is essential to relate the self-reports to actual behaviors (p. 271). Schwartz has provided evidence of a

systematic relationship between value priorities and actual behaviors, as established by research studies conducted in at least 20 countries worldwide. Mills et al. (2009) conducted a review of multiple value scales and concluded that Schwartz's value theory was the most advanced. The SVS was validated by nearly 64,000 people in 67 countries, with a confirming analysis conducted with 11,000 people in 27 countries for revalidation (pg. 479).

In seeking to develop a more concrete and less complex survey, Schwartz (2003) subsequently developed the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) to measure the same values as the Schwartz Values Survey (SVS), utilizing 40 portrait values. The PVQ has been tested for reliability and validity using versions measured and revised with 31 samples in 21 languages across 18 nations, resulting in a simplified version that 11-year-olds in Canada, Israel, and Uganda can easily understand. This version is considered a simple task in research (p. 274). Schwartz (2003) then presented updated research to assist the European Social Survey (European Social Survey, 2001; ESS, 2020) in developing a 21-question version, known as the Human Values Scale (HVS), also referred to as the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVS) short-form. The European Social Survey (2020) is a cross-national survey based on Schwartz's 21-question Human Values Survey and conducted in up to 40 countries.

The goal of the survey has been to understand the changing public values and attitudes and to map these changes across Europe's nations, thereby guiding policymakers and academics. The ESS has been administered every 2 years since 2001 to at least 1,500 participants aged 15 or older, using strict random probability sampling, rigorous translation protocols, and achieving a high response rate. In the creation of this 21-question version of the Human value Survey with 21 questions, Schwartz (2001) explained that, in addition to his previous research, it was important to note that values can transcend specific actions and therefore can be applied across situations such as honesty being applied to work, school, sports, and business, etc. Schwartz also noted that values can be ordered and form a system of value priorities. Therefore, "cultures and individuals can be characterized by their systems of value priorities" (p. 262). The researcher proposed that this may also be applied to generational cohorts.

Chowdhury (2019) noted that values are tied to ethics and morals that guide human judgment, helping individuals choose actions based on potential consequences, and thus are crucial for understanding in fields such as education, sociology, philosophy, psychology, and business. This supports the previous research presented by Torres et al. (2016). Chowdhury also shared that

Schwartz's PVQ survey is regarded as one of the top three surveys that can be used universally to measure personal value systems and to assist in evaluating potential underlying motivations of human actions or perceptions. Chowdhury reported that the two-nation study also indicated that reducing the number of questions to create the PVQ 21-question short form did not compromise the test's reliability or validity, and that the new version remains valid across ages, genders, life stages, and cultures.

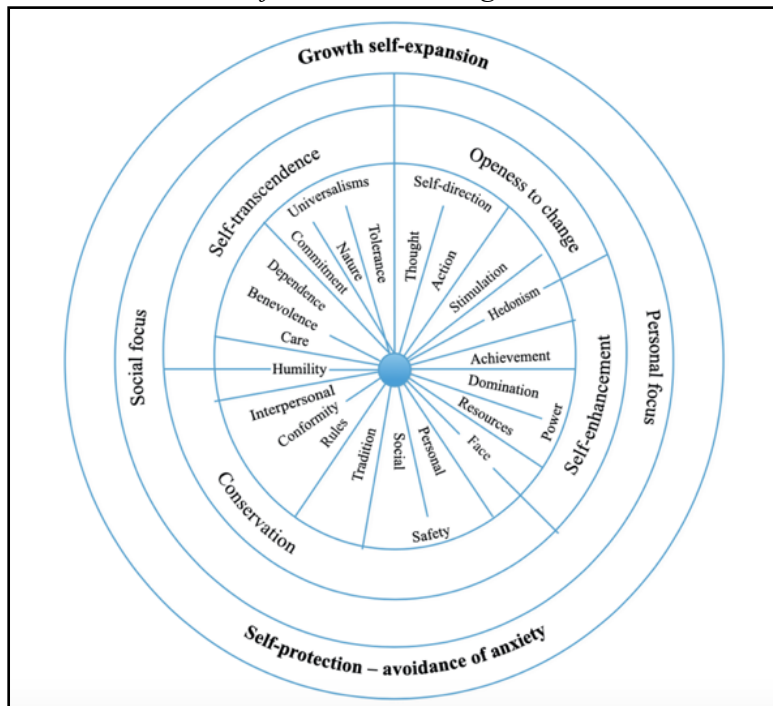
Schwartz (2016) once again refined his values theory in 2012 to include 19 values that are more narrowly defined than the previous 10 yet still encompass the original 10 (see Figure 4; Torres et al., 2016). This suggested new model is also represented in a circle to indicate the various

relationships between the 19 values and the 4 motivational types, as well as the values oriented towards oneself or others (institutions or people), and to anxiety or self-protection (p. 343).

This narrowing of values provides "finer distinctions" that can "provide new insights into the relations of values to attitudes, behaviors, personality, and demographics" (p. 1009). Schwartz and Cieciuch (2021) presented findings showing that the PVQ-RR, developed to measure the 19 more narrowly defined values in 32 languages, is a "sound measure for all higher order and almost all more narrowly defined values across 49 cultural groups. Future research can confidently apply the PVQ-RR to study correlations of values with other variables and to compare correlations across cultural groups" (p. 1018). The PVQ-RR has been established as a reliable and valid measure of human values, with evaluations conducted in 32 languages and 49 cultural groups (N = 53,472) (p. 1005).

#### Figure 4

*Theoretical Model of Relations among the Nineteen Motivational Types of Values*



*Note:* Adapted from Schwartz et al. (2012), Pg 343; Torres et al. (2016).

Schwartz (2012, 2022) explained that multiple values typically influence a person's behaviors, motivations, actions, and attitudes. As a person's values are ordered by importance in relation to one another, this forms their system of priorities and individual characteristics (p. 13). Schwartz also shared that the universal structure of relations among values was standard across the many countries included in his study. Schwartz explained that the universality of values likely stems from their ability to help humans cope with their needs, coordinate social interactions, and promote welfare and social well-being. As organizations seek to understand the values that may underlie their employees' behaviors, motivations, actions, and attitudes, there is a high probability that these insights could improve many aspects of their multigenerational workforce.

### ***Trust as a Value and in Business***

Many researchers disagree on how to define trust and debate whether it is a value, an attitude, a belief, a moral principle, or a combination of these attributes that exists within a person (Simpson, 2012). Uslaner (2008) argues that values should not change with one's day-to-day experiences, and this research shows that trust remains essentially unchanged. Uslaner explained that trust is grounded in moral values and presented moralistic trust as the idea that most people share your basic moral values.

Jones and George (1998) suggested that organizations strive to establish unconditional trust rather than conditional trust by providing opportunities for people to foster more synergistic relationships and interpersonal connections. Ortiz-Ospina and Roser (2016) argued that a person's level of trust is important to examine, as it is a fundamental part of our social capital and a key contributor to "sustaining well-being outcomes including economic development" (p. 1). Ortiz-Ospina and Roser reported on the General Social Survey (GSS), which has asked United States respondents since 1972 if most people can be trusted. The findings showed that interpersonal trust (trust between people) has decreased over the past 40 years, from 46.3% in 1972 to 31.99% in 2018 (p. 4). Devos et al. (2002) conducted a study examining people's value priorities concerning their trust in institutions and suggested that trust is a variable. A person's value priorities can predict a person's level of trust toward institutions. Given the numerous aspects of trust, this study aimed to investigate people's perceptions of trust as a value and its impact on mentee and mentor program experiences.

### ***Applying Values Research in the Business Industry***

Weber (2015) conducted research using the Rokeach Value Survey to examine managers' value orientations (MVOs), assess the importance managers assign to values, and determine whether those values change across generations. Weber suggested that understanding values is considered an integral part of management decision-making, and companies should care about behaviors that can affect or influence an organization. The significant finding revealed that managers' values do change. Managers from the late 1980s were less concerned with morals or ethics than managers of today, and more concerned with competency. Findings also included how managers from the 1980s and today both valued being "challenged by self-rewarding performance measures and the quest for personal achievement," and their identities are related to their personal value orientations (p. 501). Weber suggests that future studies examining MVO can provide more insight into how the values managers bring to the organization may influence ethical decisions and leadership practices.

Mills et al. (2009) presented an article on the benefits of gaining a better understanding of the approaches used in the United Kingdom construction management industry to meet or exceed shareholders' expectations and to develop more effective, integrated teams that deliver excellent services and products. The authors presented value theory research, arguing that people have value priorities that can be projected onto others, which can bring in bias and affect relationships within and outside the workplace, as well as client relations. The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) was reported to be based on the current most advanced values theory and thus selected as the

method for conducting the three case studies. The findings concluded that measuring social value can provide managers with insights that help them create profiles of human values, priorities, and then apply these insights to improve construction industry performance. Mills et al. suggest that future research could provide greater insight into becoming more productive, understanding value-related attitudes, making better value judgments, consensus strategies, and avoiding conflicts.

Ang (2021) conducted a literature review examining the relationship between personal values and behaviors, with a focus on online shopping behavior. Schwartz's PVQ-RR 19 values theory was a predominant aspect of the author's research. The literature suggests that while values can be associated with various behaviors and attitudes, behaviors can be compliant even if they do not align with a person's priority values (Lee et al., 2022). The findings suggested that further research is needed to understand the connection between values and behaviors.

### **Generational Cohorts**

Karl Mannheim, a German sociologist, is the principal founder of the theory of generations, as described in a 1928 essay. This theory posits that people are influenced by their socio-historical experiences over time, creating generational units or cohorts that can shape future events (Lee, 2020; Nilsen, 2014). Strauss and Howe (1991) argued that a generation forms roughly every 20 years, develops tendencies or values through shared societal experiences, and lives to around 80 years, give or take. For the first time in history, organizations are expected to have up to five generations in the workforce, and the sixth generation is anticipated to enter the workforce by 2026 (Allen, 2018). Parry and Urwin (2011) suggested that a specific cohort is defined by "entering a system at the same time" (p.4). The authors further suggested that a cohort should only be considered as a separate generational cohort "if it exhibited separate and distinct values and attitudes because it shared social, economic, and political events, when contrasted to other cohorts" (p. 4).

While many researchers suggest there are 8 generational cohorts, this research study explored the five generations that are or have been a part of the multigenerational workforce, including a) the Silent Generation, b) Baby Boomers, c) Generation X, d) Millennials, e) Generation Z, and (f) Generation Alpha (Allen, 2018). The Lost Generation (1883-1900), The Greatest Generation (1901 to 1927), Generation Alpha (early 2010s to mid-2020s), and a potential new cohort some refer to as Generation C will not be explored in this study, as they are not currently in the workforce or alive (Allen, 2018). It is worth noting that not all researchers agree on generational cohort definitions.

Debevec et al. (2013) presented a study that proposed how the Millennials were possibly splitting into two generational cohorts due to the perceived effects of the Great Recession occurring through June 2009 being perceived by college students as a cataclysmic event (P. 5). The generational cohorts for this research study have continued with the mainstream view that Millennials are all in one cohort.

### ***Silent Generation***

Broughton (2021) noted that the Silent Generation, comprising nearly 75 million people born between 1928 and 1945, is sometimes referred to as the post-war generation and has lived through the Great Depression (Williams, 2008). They generally believe in duty before fun, hard work, dedication, and respect for rules. They typically would stay with a life company and expect the same values in return (along with a pension). They enjoy certificates, plaques, and tangible rewards, as well as acknowledgments and communications that show appreciation and respect, especially from younger generations. Organizations that seem to change their policies or fail to follow through can be viewed as unreliable. Thus, this generation can appear rigid to other generations and is typically more conservative than the general population (Fisher, 2020). It is worth noting that research indicates that not all beliefs are limited to one generation. For instance, a study found that both the Silent Generation and Generation Y (also known as Millennials) prefer an organization that can offer long-term security and stability (Dries et al., 2008).

### ***Baby Boomer***

Lee (2020) noted that Baby Boomers (also known as the Me generation) were born from 1945 through 1964 and emerged from the end of the Second World War. They are considered the second generation in the workforce, comprising approximately 80 million individuals (Williams, 2008). Lee reported that this generation tends to believe in working to live. They believe that long hours, being on time, commitment, achieving results, and loyalty are all essential to being dedicated. Dedication and loyalty often cause Baby Boomers to prioritize work over family. Therefore, they feel companies, or other people, should be as loyal and dedicated as they are. This generation also tends towards optimism and has seen many types of leadership programs and processes come and go. Dries et al. (2008) reported that nearly 80,000,000 American Baby Boomers comprise 45% of the generational workforce and are often referred to as "free agents," who prioritize individual rights over those of family or organizational teams. This trend can also be observed in some members of Generation Y and Generation X cohorts (p. 2).

### ***Generation X***

Williams (2008) defined the 46 million Generation X members, born between 1965 and 1980, as individuals who prefer independence coupled with feedback to check their course headings. They are hardworking, goal-driven individuals who want to know the "why" behind things and dislike being micromanaged. Broughton (2021) reported that Generation X emerged at the end of the Vietnam War and experienced challenging situations, including more broken homes, which tend to make them more family-focused, and concerns about economic crises, government issues, and scandals. Broughton also shared that they tend to be creative, self-directed, and pragmatic. They value knowledge as well.

### ***Generation Y or Millennials***

Lee (2020) reported that the 76 million Millennials born between 1981 and 2000 are considered

the most educated generation. Lee shared that Millennials were generally optimistic, confident, and civic-minded. It is worth noting that some researchers date the birth of Millennials from 1981 to 1995 (Manolica et al., 2022). Williams (2008) offered that they prefer strong leadership, are globally minded, and enjoy work that can make a difference in the world. Williams also shared that Millennials are overly sensitive because they grew up in a world where competition has become less intense, leading to a less driven nature. Handley et al. (2018) reported that this watered-down approach can also lead Millennials to have an unrealistic view of their ability to achieve the goals they desire. They have also experienced many tragedies, including mass shootings, the September 11 attacks, and global events as they unfold through new global technological advancements, with effects on their generation still being researched.

### ***Generation Z***

Manolica et al. (2022) define Generation Z as the digital age generation, also known as the children of the internet, born between 1995 and 2010. They possess multitasking skills considered greater than those of previous-generation cohorts, believe that anything is possible, have a high level of self-reliance, are results-oriented, and care about the well-being of others and the planet. Manolica et al. also noted that Generation Z is generally well-educated and due to technological advancements, is projected to have longer lives, greater wealth than their predecessors, and higher living standards. Technology impacts every sector of their lives, and Manolica et al.'s research, focused on college seniors, indicated that they are open-minded, and that freedom of expression is vital to them. They are relatively new to the workforce and still defining their values, preferences, and how they will respond to social media influences. Research is ongoing for this generation.

### ***Generation Alpha***

Drugas (2022) describes this youngest generation, beginning around 2010, as even more curious, self-determined, and creative than Generation Z. They are sometimes also referred to as the second digital generation, screenagers, or screamagers because there is an indication that the dependence on technology has brought relational, emotional, and ill-tempered tendencies. While Drugas shared that it may be "too early to speak about a new generation", it is worth exploring this new set of workers who are starting to enter the workforce alongside the other generations as they turn 16 in 2026. Tootell et al. (2014) presented their findings on Generation Alpha at a Hawaiian conference, sharing how they are at a much higher level of digital sophistication.

Tootell et al. note that one of Generation Alpha's childhood experiences is the human or "gestural interface that involves the user providing input to the device by using their fingers to create single and multiple touch gestures on the screen" (p. 2). As the human interface with gaming, computing, phones, or personal screens increases, there is an expected influence on their education and future careers. Tootell et al. support the idea of education moving towards more gamification or technology-based play for learning, incorporating both extrinsic and intrinsic skills, along with a multi-level reward structure. As this can be observed in current education, future employers should take note, as this may also impact the workplace expectations and

reward systems of this generation, which is expected to enter the workforce between 2024 and 2026 (Allen, 2018).

### ***Generational Cohort Values Research***

Gadomska-Lila (2020), a professor at the University of Szczecin, conducted a qualitative study to examine the value systems of four generations of employees, which included Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y, and Generation Z. The author also explored the differences and similarities between values that are appreciated by the different cohorts. The analyses confirm significant differences in the value systems of different employee generations, as well as some similarities. The findings suggest that human resource management, the creation of effective working conditions, and the selection of leadership styles can be informed by insights gained from this understanding. This research study also provides support for the usefulness to organizations by gaining insights into the differences and similarities of values for intergenerational management strategies and intergenerational training or mentoring processes.

### **Multigenerational Workforce**

Today's organizations can have workforces consisting of up to five generations, and the sixth generation is expected to enter the workforce by 2026 (Allen, 2018). Managing multiple generations in an organizational workforce can be challenging, and conflict can arise due to a lack of understanding or stereotypical perceptions, resulting in annual losses of up to \$605 billion (Brightenburg et al., 2020; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Gaining more profound insights into the multigenerational workforce can help managers and organizations develop more effective leadership strategies to enhance employees' productivity and well-being while reducing potential losses (Lee, 2020).

### ***Generational Differences in the Workforce***

Parry and Urwin (2011) suggested that there was a mixed view on whether work values differ by age or by membership in a specific generational cohort. The authors suggest that literature indicates that generational differences in work values can influence various aspects of managing a multigenerational workforce, including recruitment, training, reward preferences, management style preferences, and work arrangements (p. 2). The review of findings indicated that a mixed viewpoint persists, contending that while acknowledging differences in values and preferences based on age or other factors can be helpful for management, a case still needs to be made for generations as a key factor.

### ***Communicating Vision and Values to a Multigenerational Workforce***

Peralta (2021) conducted a qualitative research study to identify potential strategies leaders can use to communicate an organization's values and vision to a multigenerational workforce. This multiple case study interviewed five financial leaders in the New York area. Using thematic analysis, the findings indicated that patience, communication modes, and generational differences were common themes. The research findings suggest that organizations should

provide leadership and management training on communication strategies tailored to each generational cohort. This training can help develop a more proactive and strategic approach to communicating goals and vision.

### ***Reward Strategies for a Multigenerational Workforce***

Bussin and van Rooy (2014) conducted a quantitative study examining the relationship between perceived impact on reward strategies and generational cohorts working in the financial industry in South Africa. Six thousand three hundred sixteen employees were surveyed. The findings suggested that rewards were not perceived the same across the multigenerational workforce. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used for the analysis. The findings also supported international literature on generational preference for rewards. The implications for organizations and management suggest that offering a wider variety of rewards is beneficial. These reward options could motivate multiple generations in the workforce. It was also suggested that the options be presented in a manner that is fair to every cohort employee. The authors also suggested businesses would benefit from creating customized rewards based on generational research. Future research was suggested to understand the reward perceptions of multiple generations. Human value-based research may provide additional insight into what generations value and perceive as a reward.

### ***Mentoring Within the Multigenerational Workforce***

Browne (2021) examined the presence of four generations within the workforces of three large private companies (5,000+ employees). Using a qualitative survey, Browne interviewed 10 mentees and mentors. The research also utilized social behavior theory in “adoption of a critical-realist philosophical stance aligned with Davies and Harre’s (1990) observation that narrative storytelling draws on contextual resources respondents derive from socially constructed and objective realities” (p. 248). The findings indicated that while reverse mentoring has merit, organizations need to utilize the older generation, who are staying in the workforce longer, as mentors.

## **Methods**

The purpose of this concurrent mixed-methods research study was to investigate the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived values, to gain insight into how these values may influence mentorship needs in both formal and informal mentorship programs.

The quantitative portion of this study utilized an online survey instrument (see Appendix A). The qualitative portion included six open-ended questions at the end of the survey. The population included workforce members aged 18 years or older from up to 5 generational cohorts in the United States and other English-speaking countries. The online survey was translated into Spanish, given separately, analyzed separately, and then the scores were combined for overall analysis.

The total sample size, based on G\*Power 3.1 power analyses, was 105 participants per generation (see Figures 4 and 5). The quantitative analysis was conducted using SPSS software.

The independent variable was the generational cohort groups, defined by the age ranges for each cohort. The dependent variable was the perceived human values for generational cohort participants. The qualitative results were analyzed using Dedoose coding software to conduct a thematic analysis, with key themes reported.

### **Research Questions:**

#### **Quantitative Research Question and Hypotheses:**

**RQ1:** Is there a difference in self-perceived values for participants based on generational cohort?

H1o: There is no significant difference in self-perceived values for participants based on generational cohort.

H1a: There is a significant difference in self-perceived values for participants based on generational cohort.

#### **Qualitative Research Question and Hypotheses:**

**RQ2:** How do generational cohort self-perceived values and experiences influence the mentorship needs for formal or informal mentorship programs?

#### **Open-Ended Questions:**

1. In either informal or formal mentorship experiences, if you have ever been mentored (trained, guided) by someone: What was positive and or negative about your experiences as a mentee? (Please include a brief description of your job title and industry for each experience you share)
2. In your mentorship experiences, if you have ever been a mentor (trained, guided) for someone else: What was positive and or negative about your experiences as a mentor? (Please include a brief description of your job title and industry for each experience you share)
3. How important is trust as a value to you?
4. How does or did trust affect your mentor or mentee experience (s)?
5. Would you be willing to be contacted for a personal interview? If yes (open box for email)

## **Results and Discussion**

The quantitative portion of this concurrent mixed-methods research was a causal-comparative analysis of data using SPSS to explore the relationship between generational cohort and participants' self-perceived human values. There was an initial total of 536 participants. The data analysis began by correcting individual scores for scale-use bias, as recommended by Dr. Schwartz (Schwartz, 2021). The instructions for correcting for scale use bias included (a) computing scores for the 19 values by taking the means of the items while checking for internal reliabilities for value scores, (b) computing each individual's mean score across the 57 value items which becomes the participant's Mean rating of all values or MRAT, and then (c) subtracting the MRAT from each of the 19 value scores to center the scores of each of the individual's 19 values around each participant's Mean (MRAT). After the centered scores were

calculated, excel files were organized into generational groups with "1" being assigned to the oldest generation and "6" being assigned to the seven participants who chose "other" as a response. All Likert scale responses were then assigned a numerical value in excel and the data was ready to import into the SPSS software for analysis.

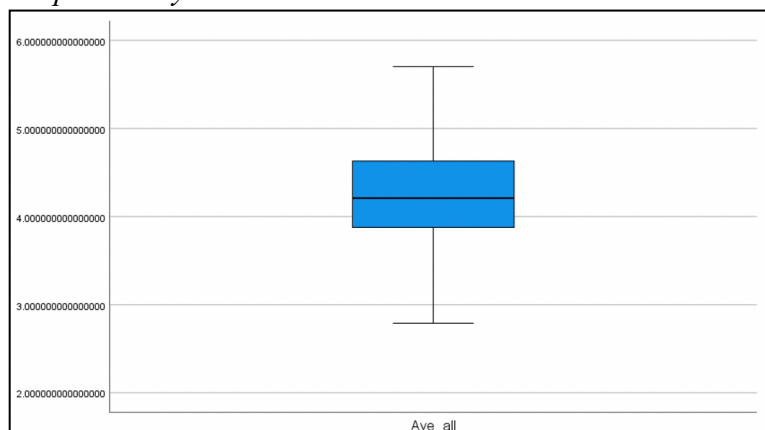
Preliminary statistical analyses were conducted to identify and remove outliers and confirm normality. An additional 64 participant responses were removed for further analysis. A one-way ANOVA was then ran on the remaining 472 participants to examine the correlation or variance between groups for the four higher-order values and the nineteen narrowed values. A Post Hoc Tukey analysis was conducted to further compare the nineteen narrowed values across the generational groups and determine if any differences existed between them. The preliminary analyses, demographics, one-way ANOVA analyses, and Post Hoc Tukey findings will be presented using descriptive statistics and narrative representation in the results section of this chapter.

For the qualitative portion, the 472 participants' responses were cleaned to remove improper or gibberish responses. The remaining 438 responses were separated into generations for coding and imported from Excel files into the online Dedoose coding software. A thematic analysis was conducted to identify the critical themes and subthemes in participants' open-ended responses. If the open-ended responses did not provide sufficient data for thematic coding, the number of interviews recommended for qualitative studies typically ranges from 12 to 30 (Baker & Edwards, 2012). Interviews were not needed for this research study as the total number of qualitative participants was 438. The qualitative research findings will be presented in the results section of this chapter using both graphic and narrative representations.

### Initial Quantitative Analysis

An outlier analysis of the data was conducted to remove all outliers that included missing data or values that did not fall within acceptable ranges (Creswell & Creswell, 2019). The initial analysis of the 494 participants and two subsequent analyses of the data resulted in the removal of 4.5% (22 participants), leaving 472 participants in the study for further analysis. The box plot indicated that no outliers remained within the data set (see Figure 5).

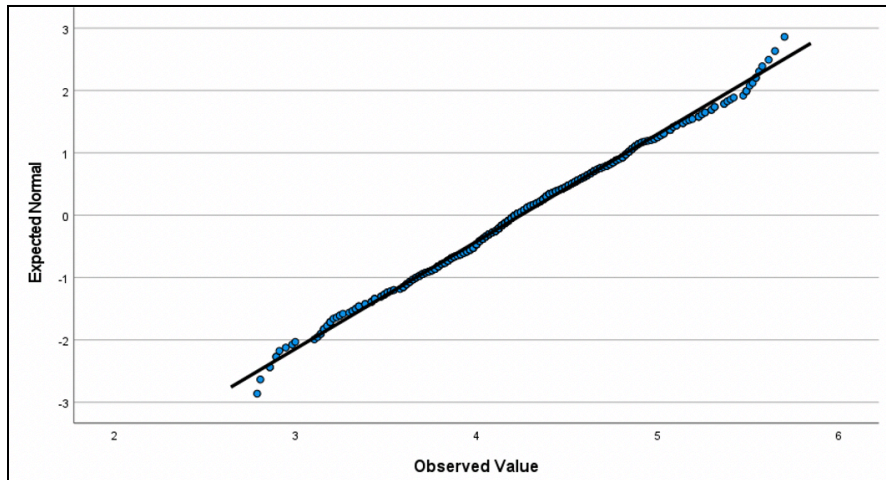
**Figure 5**  
*Boxplot Analysis*



A quantile-quantile (Q-Q) probability plot also indicated that the data sets from each generation in the sample population followed the same distribution and mostly fell along the line. This shows that the data is normally distributed (see Figure 6). The few points, just off the line, are still falling within a reasonably straight line, which is considered within normal distribution and therefore not an issue for the next steps in analyzing the data.

**Figure 6**

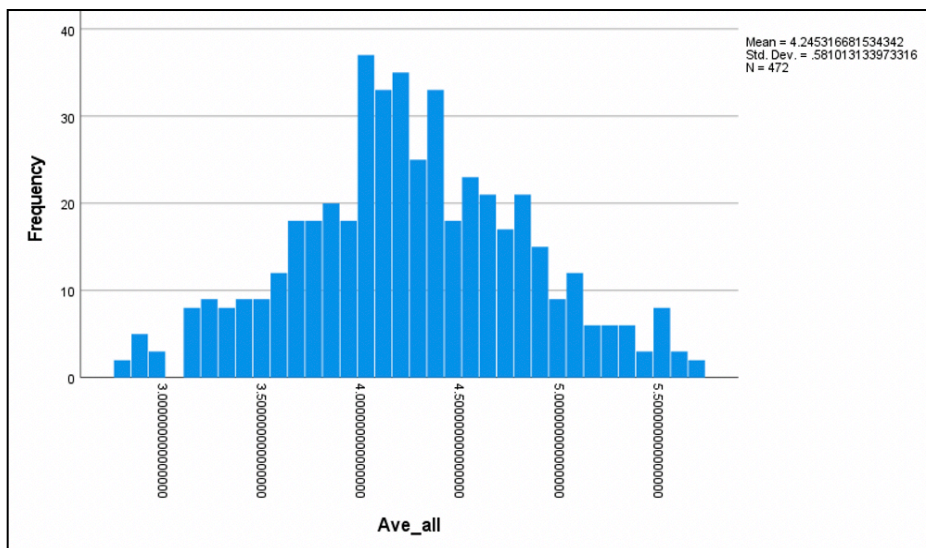
*Normal Q-Q Plot of Ave\_all*



The histogram analysis provided a graphical representation of the distribution of the numerical data or scores in intervals from 0 to 6. The histogram is a symmetrical bell curve, indicating that the data are normally distributed (Green & Salkind, 2008; see Figure 7).

**Figure 7**

*Histogram*



To further confirm the data, a statistical test for normality indicated a normal distribution ( $p = 0.120$ ), which is above 0.05 (Liu et al., 1999; see Figure 8).

### Figure 8

#### *Tests of Normality*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Ave a 	.033	472	.200*	.995	472	.120

\*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.  
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Further descriptive testing included the mean, median, maximum, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis. Both skewness and kurtosis should be between -1 and 1 (Green & Salkind, 2008; see Figure 9). The skewness score of 0.112 and the kurtosis score of 0.224 also support a normal distribution.

### Figure 9

#### *Descriptives*

	Statistic	Std. Error
Ave a Mean	4.24531668	.026743297
	1534345	190070
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound 4.19276574 Upper Bound 4.29786761	8909969
5% Trimmed Mean	4.24433376 2844021	
Median	4.21052631 5789470	
Variance	.338	
Std. Deviation	.581013133 973314	
Minimum	2.78947368 4210530	
Maximum	5.70175438 5964910	
Range	2.91228070 1754380	
Interquartile Range	.754385964 912280	
Skewness	.030	.112
Kurtosis	-.168	.224

Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the internal consistency (reliability) of the research survey items. The closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the research instrument. A score greater than .7 is considered a reliable Cronbach's alpha score (Green & Salkind, 2008). The obtained score of 0.927 is well above 0.7; therefore, the survey items are reliable and should yield consistent results (see Figure 10).

**Figure 10**  
*Reliability Statistics*

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.927	57

The total number of participants was 472. Per Creswell's (2009) expert suggestion, an effect size of .25 and a power of .95 were used to guide the G\*Power analysis, resulting in a minimum required sample size of 305 participants per group. The minimum required sample size was reached for this study. The second power analysis, conducted to confirm the results, indicated that a sample size of 105 per group would yield a power of 0.950129. The Silent Generation did not reach the suggested minimum sample size due to difficulty finding participants. An initial power analysis indicated that, although this group was small, it would not significantly affect the overall analysis; therefore, it was included. The millennials were also under the suggested number by 14 participants. The SPSS analysis indicated that the research data were normally distributed at each measurement. Qualitative thematic coding typically involves sample sizes of 20-50 (Marshall et al., 2013; Creswell, 2014). Qualitative thematic coding sample sizes are near or exceed the suggested sizes. Therefore, all five cohort sample sizes were considered adequate to proceed with analysis for both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of this mixed-methods research study.

### **Detailed Quantitative Analysis**

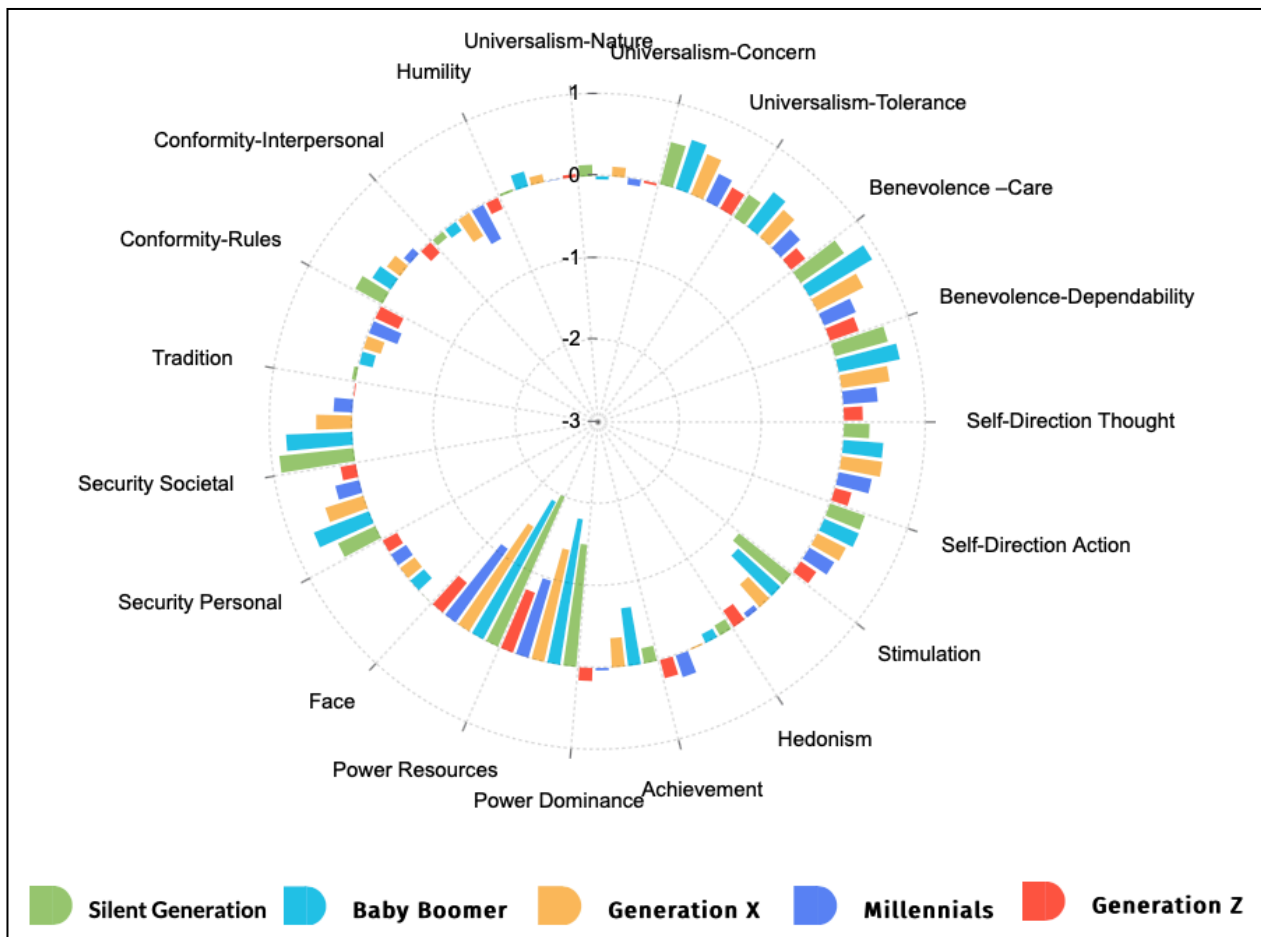
To analyze the quantitative aspect of this mixed-methods research study, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine the correlation or variance between the multigenerational cohorts for the four higher-order values and the nineteen narrowed values. An additional Post Hoc Tukey analysis was conducted further to examine group differences in the four higher-order values and to determine whether the generational groups differed from one another. The findings will be presented using descriptive statistics and narrative representation.

The independent variable was the generational cohort. The dependent variable was the participants' self-perceived values. The following was the quantitative research question for this mixed-methods study: RQ1: Is there a difference in self-perceived values among participants by generational cohort?

A descriptive analysis provided the mean for each of the 19 values across the four generational cohorts. The following general cohort definitions were used to define the groups for SPSS analysis (a) the Silent Generation birthdate ranges from 1928 and 1944, (b) the Baby Boomer generation birthdate ranges from 1945 to 1964, (c) the Generation X birthdate ranges from 1965 to 1980, (d) the Millennials, also known as Generation Y, birthdate ranges from 1981 to 1994, and (e) the Generation Z birthdate ranges from 1995 to 2010 (Lee, 2020; Manolica et al., 2022; Williams, 2008).

The 7 participants who indicated no generational affiliation were excluded from the reports. A polar area graph was created to show the higher scores or positive values and the lower scores or negative values as reported in the descriptive analysis. Polar graphs are also used to present multiple levels and groups in a single graph, providing a general overview of the data. A cohort's lower scores are directed towards the 0 point towards the center of the circle, while a cohort's higher scores are pointed outward from the 0 point or the middle circle. The assigned color for the generational cohort is also shown on the polar area graph (see Figure 11).

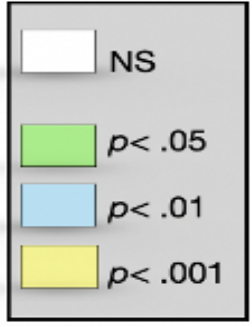
**Figure 11**  
*Descriptives: Mean Scores for the 19 Human Values for Five Generational Cohorts*



A one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the effect of generational cohorts on the four higher-order self-perceived human values. Variances were homogeneous ( $P > .05$ ) for self-transcendence and conservation, and ( $p < .05$  for openness to change and self-enhancement. Corrections were applied to run the one-way ANOVA for all groups and values. There was a significant difference ( $P < .05$ ) between all groups for the four higher-order human values (see Table 3). As  $p < .05$  for each higher-order value, the null hypothesis ( $H_1o$ ) was rejected.

**Table 3**

*One-Way ANOVA Between Groups- 4 Higher-Order Human Values*

4 Higher-Order Human Values	Sig	
Self-transcendence	<.001	
Conservation	<.001	
Openness to change	.037	
Self-enhancement.	<.001	

A one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the effect of generational cohorts on the 19 narrowly defined self-perceived human values. A one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference in human values among the five generational cohorts. No outliers were included in the analysis.

Variances were homogeneous for all 19 values ( $P > .05$ ), except for lower p-values for self-directed thought, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power dominance, and societal security. Corrections were applied to run the one-way ANOVA for all groups and values. There was a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) between multigenerational cohorts for self-directed thought ( $p = .009$ ), stimulation ( $p < .001$ ), hedonism ( $p < .001$ ), achievement ( $p < .001$ ), power-dominance ( $p < .001$ ), power-resources ( $p < .001$ ), security-personal ( $p < .001$ ), security-societal ( $p < .001$ ), conformity-rules ( $p < .001$ ), universalism - concern ( $p = .015$ ), universalism-tolerance ( $p = .033$ ), benevolence caring ( $p < .001$ ), and benevolence dependability ( $p < .001$ ).

There was no significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) between the multigenerational cohorts for self-directed action ( $p = .405$ ), face ( $p = .956$ ), tradition ( $p = .503$ ), conformity-interpersonal ( $p = .056$ ), humility ( $p = .348$ ), and universalism-nature ( $p = .568$ ) (see Table 4). As  $p < .05$  for at least one of the 19 values, the null hypothesis ( $H_1o$ ) was rejected.

**Table 4**  
*One-Way ANOVA Between Groups*

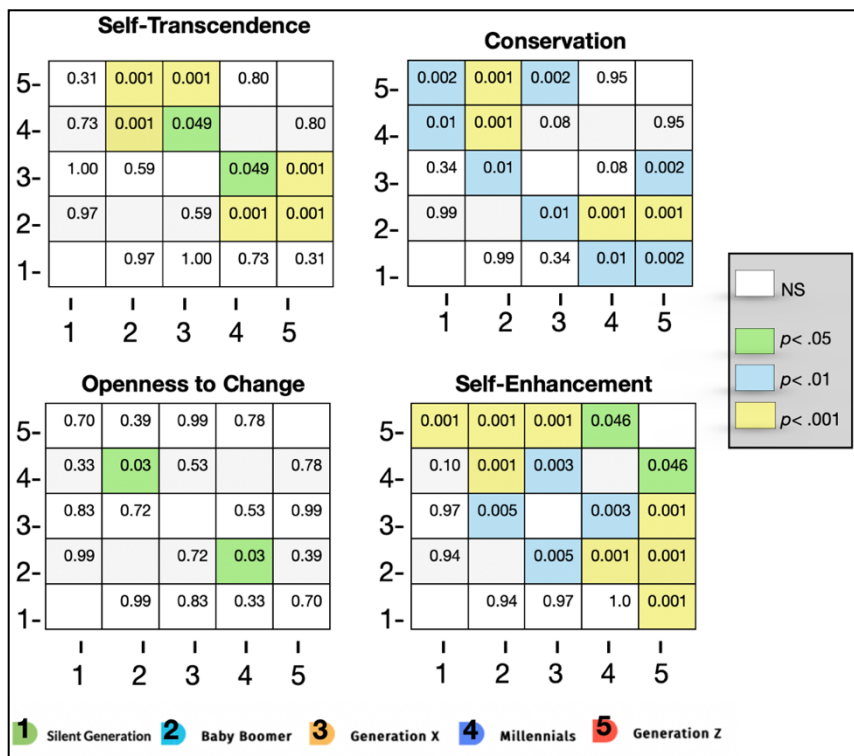
		<b>ANOVA</b>				
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
C- Self- Dir Tho	Between Groups	8.024	5	1.605	3.121	.009
	Within Groups	239.596	466	.514		
	Total	247.620	471			
C-Self Dir Act	Between Groups	3.606	5	.721	1.020	.405
	Within Groups	329.534	466	.707		
	Total	333.140	471			
C-Stimulation	Between Groups	36.045	5	7.209	10.159	<.001
	Within Groups	330.671	466	.710		
	Total	366.716	471			
C-Hedonism	Between Groups	13.347	5	2.669	5.132	<.001
	Within Groups	242.373	466	.520		
	Total	255.719	471			
C-Achievement	Between Groups	59.931	5	11.986	22.863	<.001
	Within Groups	244.300	466	.524		
	Total	304.231	471			
C-Power Dom	Between Groups	69.886	5	13.977	11.281	<.001
	Within Groups	577.386	466	1.239		
	Total	647.272	471			
C-Power Resour	Between Groups	147.392	5	29.478	22.660	<.001
	Within Groups	606.208	466	1.301		
	Total	753.600	471			

C- Face	Between Groups	.706	5	.141	.214	.956
	Within Groups	307.342	466	.660		
	Total	308.049	471			
C-Security Pers	Between Groups	20.165	5	4.033	6.281	<.001
	Within Groups	299.237	466	.642		
	Total	319.401	471			
C-Security Soc	Between Groups	57.183	5	11.437	21.541	<.001
	Within Groups	247.414	466	.531		
	Total	304.596	471			
C- Tradition	Between Groups	4.706	5	.941	.867	.503
	Within Groups	505.860	466	1.086		
	Total	510.565	471			
C-Conform Rules	Between Groups	15.717	5	3.143	4.302	<.001
	Within Groups	340.531	466	.731		
	Total	356.248	471			
C-Conform Inter	Between Groups	8.135	5	1.627	2.174	.056
	Within Groups	348.765	466	.748		
	Total	356.901	471			
C- Humility	Between Groups	3.219	5	.644	1.122	.348
	Within Groups	267.421	466	.574		
	Total	270.640	471			
C-Uni Nature	Between Groups	2.995	5	.599	.775	.568
	Within Groups	360.278	466	.773		
	Total	363.273	471			
C-Uni Concern	Between Groups	8.618	5	1.724	2.867	.015
	Within Groups	280.095	466	.601		
	Total	288.713	471			

C-Uni Toleran	Between Groups	6.976	5	1.395	2.444	.033
	Within Groups	266.002	466	.571		
	Total	272.978	471			
AC Benevol Care	Between Groups	20.054	5	4.011	9.317	<.001
	Within Groups	200.592	466	.430		
	Total	220.646	471			
C- Benevol Depen	Between Groups	19.184	5	3.837	8.770	<.001
	Within Groups	203.868	466	.437		
	Total	223.053	471			

The ANOVA test revealed statistically significant differences; therefore, a Tukey Post Hoc analysis was conducted to examine the differences between the generational cohorts more specifically. While a planned contrast ANOVA could have been used, a Tukey Post Hoc Test was chosen for multiple comparisons between generational cohorts for each of the four higher-order values and the 19 more narrowly defined values. In essence, the value for each cohort was compared with those of the other four cohorts to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference. A color key indicates comparisons with statistically significant differences, reported as p-values (see Figures 12 and 13).

**Figure 12**  
*Tukey Post Hoc Analysis - Four Higher-Order Values*



The Tukey Post Hoc analysis indicated that all four higher-order values differed significantly (see Figure 13). The statistically significant differences for self-transcendence can be found between Generations Z and the Millennials when compared to Baby Boomers and Generation X. The statistically significant differences for conservation can be found between Generations Z, the Millennials, and Generation X when compared to the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers and Generation X. There was only one statistically significant difference for openness to change between Millennials and Baby Boomers. Statistically significant differences in self-enhancement can be found between Generation Z and every other cohort. At the same time, the Millennials and Generation Z had statistically significant differences with every cohort except the Silent Generation.

**Figure 13**  
Tukey Post Hoc Analysis - 19 More Narrowly Defined Values

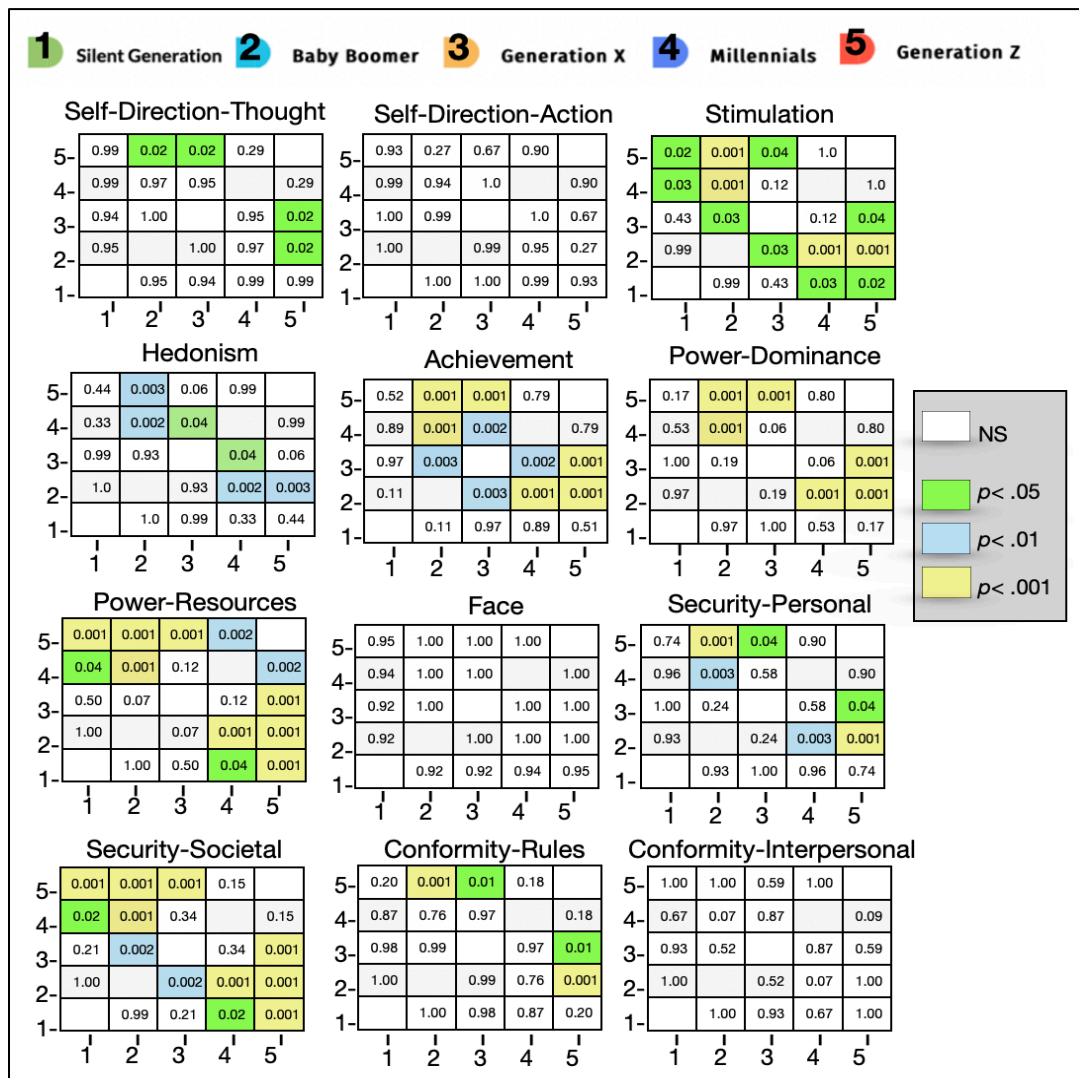
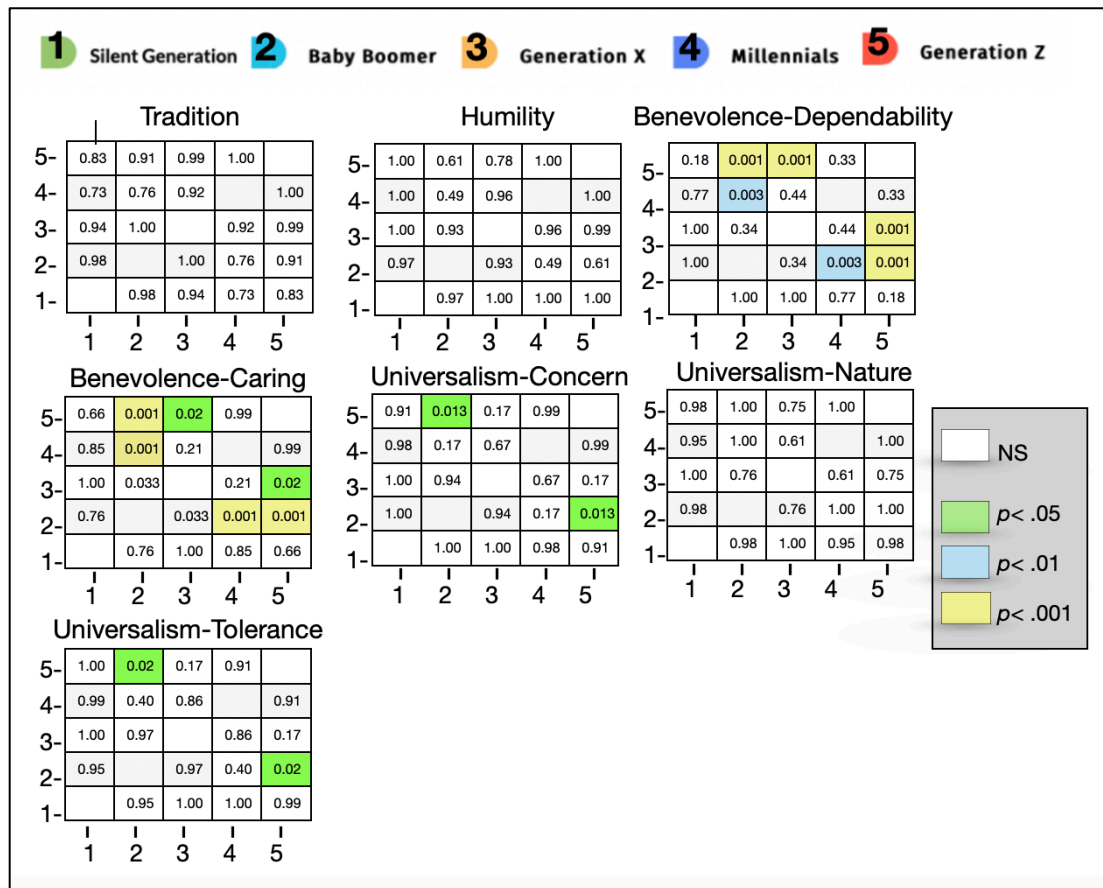


Figure 13 (continued)



As shown in the Tukey Post Hoc analysis results, statistically significant differences were found between the generational cohorts in 13 of the 19 more narrowly defined human values (see Figure 17). The greatest number of statistically significant differences can be observed in stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power-resources, and societal security. Self-direction, personal security, conformity rules, benevolence-dependability, benevolence-caring, universalism concern, and universal tolerance also indicated statistically significant differences between one- to three-generational cohorts. Generation Z had the most statistically significant differences overall. There were no statistically significant differences for self-direction-action, face, conformity-interpersonal, tradition, humility, and universalism-nature.

### Qualitative Analysis

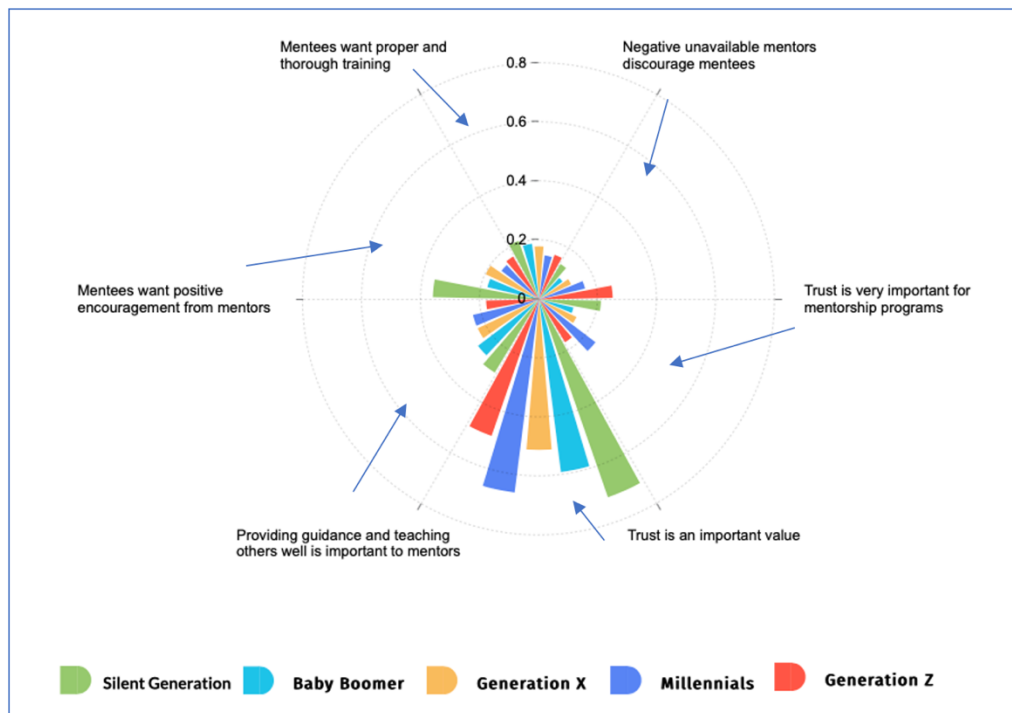
To analyze the qualitative aspect of this mixed-methods benevolence research study, the four open-ended questions were thematically coded in Dedoose, using the software to identify themes after compiling the open-ended responses in Excel (Dixon, 2014). Qualitative thematic coding typically involves sample sizes of 20-50 (Marshall et al., 2013; Creswell, 2014). The total sample required significant data cleaning to remove responses with no content or gibberish. After cleaning the responses, the total sample was 438 participants.

The generational cohorts used for the thematic analysis included (a) 14 Silent Generation-1928 to 1944, (b) 102 Baby Boomer-1945 to 1964, (c) 108 Generation X-1965 to 1980, (d) 91 Millennials (Generation Y)- 1981 to 1994, and (f) 123 Generation Z- 1995 to 2010 (Lee, 2020; Manolica et al., 2022; Williams, 2008). While the Silent Generation sample is under 20, 14 participants is still considered enough, by some researchers, to retain in the qualitative data (Marshall et al., 2013). Each generation was coded separately for each research question, categorized to identify the emerging themes for each question. The primary qualitative research question for this mixed-methods study was as follows: RQ2: How do self-perceived values and experiences of members of generational cohorts influence their mentorship needs for formal or informal mentorship programs? The results for the four open-ended survey question thematic codes will be presented individually for each cohort. The primary qualitative research question aimed to gain insight into how generational cohorts self-perceive their values and experiences, and how these perceptions influence the mentorship needs for formal or informal mentorship programs. Therefore, themes were identified within each question category, derived from codes that emerged from each participant's responses. The main themes were presented by generational cohort, as the research question aimed to identify the results of each cohort separately.

Six main themes were common to all the generational cohorts. Trust was the most prevalent theme across all generational cohorts, underscoring its importance as a core value. The remaining common themes included a) mentees want positive encouragement from mentors, b) mentees want proper and thorough training, c) negative and unavailable mentors discourage mentees, d) providing guidance and teaching others well is important to mentors, and e) trust is crucial for mentorship programs. A polar area graph was created to show the common themes for all 438 participants in the generational cohorts (see Figure 14).

**Figure 14**

*Main Common Themes for Generational Cohorts.*



## Recommendations and Conclusions

Everyone seems to be working, no matter their age. Younger people are working, while older people struggle to afford retirement. According to the United States Bureau of Labor and Statistics, up to 40% of people 55 years and older are actively pursuing a job, or working, with ages 64 to 74 expected to be the fastest growing labor force participation rate through 2024 because they cannot afford to retire (Toossi & Torpey, 2017). Browne (2021) suggests that 2020 was considered by many to be the first decade in which up to five distinct generations could be found working in the workplace simultaneously, with wide-ranging differences, including worldviews, expectations of work, expectations of one another, and general values. Job commitment, helping others, and work ethics are areas where multigenerational workforce stereotypes can occur and potentially lead to hostile work attitudes (Moore & Krause, 2021).

For the first time in history, organizations have five generations in the workforce, and a sixth generation, Generation Alpha, is expected to enter the workforce by 2024-2026 (Allen, 2018). Failed multigenerational mentorship programs, human resource management issues, and workforce conflicts can result in losses of nearly \$605 billion annually (Brightenburg et al., 2020). Research indicates a lack of understanding of generational cohorts in workforce research (Robbins & Judge, 2018). Another gap in business research is the lack of insight into designing mentorship processes for multigenerational mentorship programs that incorporate human values and multigenerational workforce mentorship preferences (Browne, 2021; Schwartz, 1994). This concurrent mixed-methods research study aimed to investigate the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived values, with the goal of better understanding the multigenerational workforce and how these values may influence informal or formal mentorship needs in the workplace (Browne, 2021; Gadomska-Lila, 2020; Pruett, 2020).

The 472 research participants comprised workforce members aged 18 years or older from up to 5 generational cohorts, located in the United States and potentially in other English-speaking countries (Creswell & Creswell, 2019). The anonymous random population included multiple generations, including the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials, and Generation Z, who were or are working in various industries for organizations of all sizes located in the United States. The quantitative portion of this study utilized a survey instrument and SPSS for statistical analysis. The qualitative portion of the survey included four open-ended questions, and participant responses were coded for common themes within each generational cohort using Dedoose.

This research study extended prior research by addressing the indicated gaps, including mentorship research that seeks participants from five working generations (Browne, 2021; Moore & Krause, 2021; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Addressing these research gaps can provide insights to help organizations save money and create more successful mentorship programs that incorporate multigenerational human values and mentorship preferences. The results and insights from this research can also aid in understanding the values of each generational cohort, thereby shedding light on workforce preferences, reducing workforce conflict, and informing general leadership and management strategies across organizations.

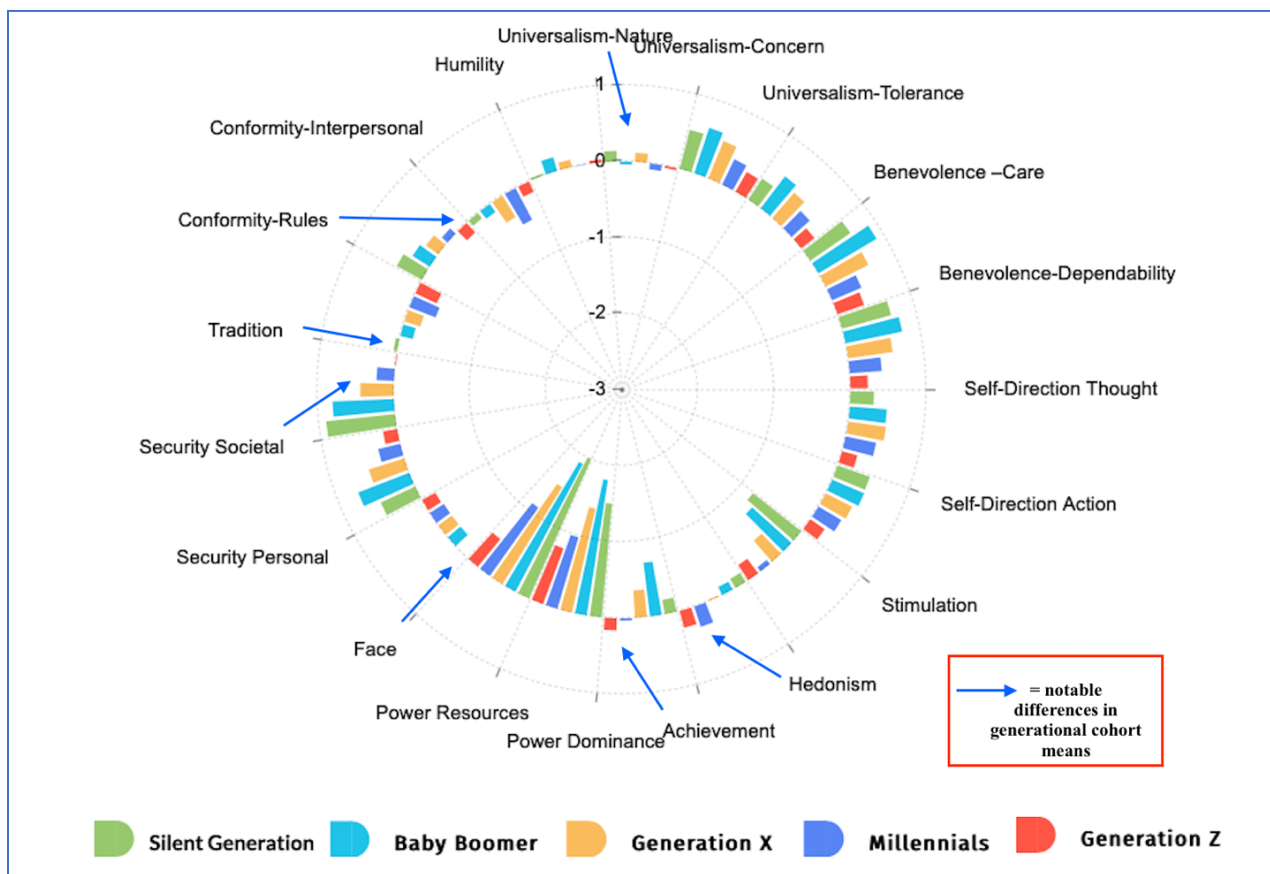
## Quantitative Discussion

The quantitative portion of this concurrent mixed-methods research was a causal-comparative analysis of data using SPSS to explore the relationship between generational cohort and participants' self-perceived human values. As  $p < .05$  for at least one of the 19 values, the null hypothesis (H1o) was rejected.

The results revealed that there was a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) between multigenerational cohorts for self-directed thought ( $p = .009$ ), stimulation ( $p < .001$ ), hedonism ( $p < .001$ ), achievement ( $p < .001$ ), power-dominance ( $p < .001$ ), power-resources ( $p < .001$ ), security-personal ( $p < .001$ ), security-societal ( $p < .001$ ), conformity-rules ( $p < .001$ ), universalism-concern ( $p = .015$ ), universalism-tolerance ( $p = .033$ ), benevolence caring ( $p < .001$ ), and benevolence dependability ( $p < .001$ ). There was no significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) between the multigenerational cohorts for self-directed action ( $p = .405$ ), face ( $p = .956$ ), tradition ( $p = .503$ ), conformity-interpersonal ( $p = .056$ ), humility ( $p = .348$ ), and universalism-nature ( $p = .568$ ) (see Table 10). The mean scores for the five generational cohorts are discussed next (see Figure 15).

**Figure 15**

*Highlights of the Five Generational Cohort Mean Scores for the 19 Human Values*



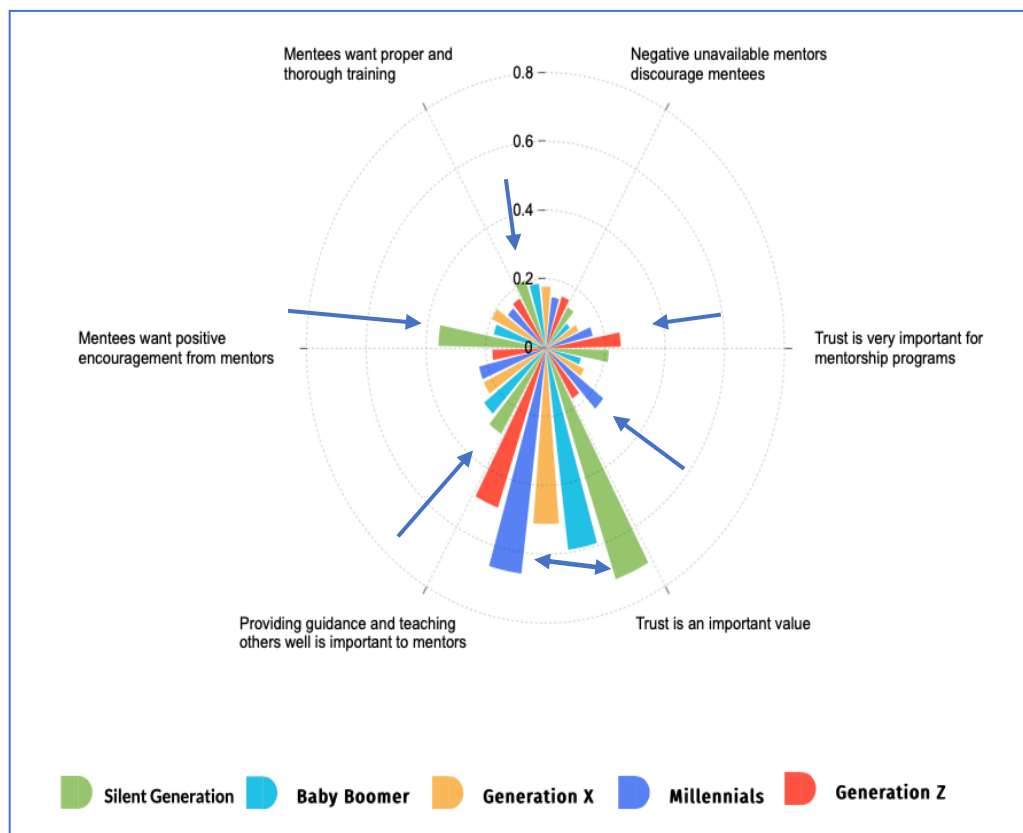
The conclusions drawn from these quantitative findings align with the current literature and expand our understanding of human values across multigenerational cohorts. The statistically significant differences found for 13 of the 19 human values ( $p < .05$ ) support the rejection of the null hypothesis (H1o). The summary of these findings highlights the key differences between these cohorts. It concludes that these differences in human values should be considered when providing leadership to this multigenerational workforce across any industry or endeavor.

## Qualitative Discussion

The results for the overall main themes, common to all generational cohorts, are presented in a polar area graph, with blue arrows pointing to key aspects from the findings (see Figure 15).

**Figure 15**

*Key Aspects of Main Themes for Generational Cohorts.*



Trust as an important value, while the most common theme for all generational cohorts, was of higher importance to the Silent Generation and the Millennials. Conversely, these two generations may be more affected than other generations when trust is broken. The other theme, involving trust as an essential component of mentorship programs, had the highest response rate among Baby Boomers, followed by the Silent Generation and Generation Z. Again, it is worth noting that these generations value this aspect more than others. Trust is often broken in a

mentor-mentee relationship, and the mentorship process may fall apart more quickly for them than for other generations.

Providing guidance and teaching others well, as a mentor, was identified as a key theme. An interesting aspect of this theme is the gradual decrease in importance as the cohort ages. Therefore, the Silent Generation feels this is more important than other generations, and the levels decrease with each generation. This is a key theme to keep in mind when asking multiple generations to teach each other.

The theme of mentees wanting positive encouragement from mentors was significant to the Silent Generation, with almost double the responses compared to other generational cohorts. Generation X responses were the second highest for this generation. While everyone typically appreciates encouragement, this result suggests that the Silent Generation and Generation X may require it more. This can also indicate that the Silent Generation has had more experience as mentors, and that their experiences are reflected in the responses, showing that mentees respond more effectively when encouraged in mentorship programs.

The central theme, indicating that mentees want proper and thorough training, is also highest among the Silent Generation, which may result from their willingness to share their wisdom based on their experiences. The level of importance also continued to decline with each younger generation, yet rose slightly for Generation Z. This result indicates that the youngest generation in the workforce does want proper, thorough training. Older generations in mentor programs who may not place the same importance on this theme may not provide what the Generation Z workforce wants or needs.

The only central negative theme that emerged was that negative and unavailable mentors discourage mentees. This key theme received the most responses from Generation Z, nearly double the responses from the other generations. This generation also reported the most significant number of negative experiences among all the generations' responses. While their scores were about half as high, this was also a more important theme for Millennials and the Silent Generation. While this theme emerged across all generational cohorts, it is essential to acknowledge the impact mentors can have on these generations when mentors are unavailable or negative in the mentorship process.

In sum, the problem this concurrent mixed-methods research study sought to address was the lack of understanding regarding the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived values, aiming to gain insight into how those values may influence mentorship needs in formal or informal mentorship programs (Browne, 2021; Gadomska-Lila, 2020; Pruet, 2020). The findings presented in this study have adequately addressed the problem and purpose of this research. The findings confirm that the human values of generational cohorts do influence their mentorship needs, as revealed by the consistency between each cohort's human values scores and their identified themes. These findings have also provided insight into developing more effective multigenerational mentorship programs, reducing intergenerational conflict, and mitigating losses associated with multigenerational workforce issues, including turnover and financial costs.

## Implications

The implications for this research study are divided into two sections: theoretical implications and practical professional implications.

### Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, the study has significant implications for multigenerational workforce management and multigenerational mentorship programs, as well as providing further insights into multigenerational cohorts and their self-perceived human values. The findings of this research study provided further insight into the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived values, aiming to understand how these values may influence mentorship needs in formal or informal mentorship programs. The results indicated a statistically significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) between the generational cohort's human values and the influence of these values, as reported in the identified themes, on their mentorship needs.

The findings from this study can provide statistically significant quantitative and qualitative data to examine and supplement the body of research on multiple generations, including the theory of generations. As Norman Ryder followed up on Mannheim's research to further develop the generational cohort theory, he contributed to the emergence of targeted marketing and management efforts aimed at specific cohorts (Nilsen, 2014; Ryder, 1965). This research study has continued this research by providing insight into specific generational needs for mentorship and multigenerational workforces. The findings from this study can also provide statistically significant quantitative and qualitative data to supplement the body of research on multiple generations and the theory of human values. Schwartz (2012) shared that the theory of basic human values stems from the framework of human needs. Values serve a person's interests, can motivate them to act, justify actions or judgments, and can be acquired through social group values or unique learning experiences (p. 17). As Schwartz explained, people value what they perceive as important to them; these research findings can provide further insights into the values of each generational cohort that participated in this study. This research study's results also extended prior research by addressing the indicated gaps, including mentorship research that seeks participants from five working generations (Browne, 2021; Moore & Krause, 2021; Robbins & Judge, 2018).

The main limitation of these research findings include (a) the limited control the limited generalizability of the Silent Generation's quantitative findings. The Silent Generation proved more challenging to reach with a survey link, and the time constraints for completing this research did not permit extended efforts. Additionally, Qualtrics was also unable to obtain paid participants for this age group. While the power analysis indicated that a sample size of 14 was acceptable, it is not ideal. While some researchers have suggested that 14 participants are sufficient for a qualitative study, the findings may also have limited generalizability for the Silent Generation, (b) the obtained sample size may have limited transferability or generalizing of the research findings to each general cohort populations, (c) the sample population may have had a limited representative of all five cohort populations, (d) time constraints for sample collection may have placed a limit on obtaining acceptable responses, and (e) the lack of control over complete participant responses on the survey.

## **Implications for Professional Practice**

Mentorship programs and managing up to five generations in the workforce are both domains in business administration. With five generations now existing in the workforce, understanding the values, needs, differences, and mentorship strategies for management and business leaders can assist with the overall effectiveness of an organization's workforce and provide cost savings (Brightenburg et al., 2020). This research provided statistically significant evidence that generational cohorts share some common human values and exhibit many distinct human values. These values affect their interactions and mentorship programs in the workforce. By examining the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived human values, these findings can shed a new light on developing more effective mentorship programs for organizations or individuals who provide training or mentorship to the multigenerational workforce.

These findings can also help guide mentorship programs. They can be utilized in organizations, such as higher education or public programs, that provide mentor-mentee-type services to one or more generations to create a general profile, enabling more effective and efficient service customization. These findings can also be used to design more effective support systems that meet the needs and goals of both the organization and those it serves.

The application of the findings from this research study to business administration can also be extended to the body of research on multigenerational cohort human values, multigenerational workforce preferences, multigenerational workforce mentorship preferences, and conflict-reduction strategies across different cohorts (Browne, 2021; Pruett, 2020). Gaining insight into mentorship programs that span multiple generations can also promote knowledge sharing across industries. These research findings could also inspire the sharing of these insights across multiple industries, while motivating further research that could lead to increased productivity and reduced costs in a global, multigenerational work environment. After all, multigenerational workforces exist worldwide, and they all share human values, needs, motivations, and preferences that organizations should consider.

## **Recommendations**

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

This concurrent mixed-methods research study examined the relationship between generational cohorts and their self-perceived human values to gain insight into how those values may influence mentorship needs in formal or informal mentorship programs. Mentorship training occurs on both informal and formal levels worldwide across various industries and services. These findings were limited to English and Spanish translations. Future research could expand this study to include multigenerational research on human values and mentorship needs across multiple languages, cultures, ethnicities, and regions, thereby providing a more diverse and global perspective.

Future research could expand on this study by increasing participation from the Silent Generation to gain a deeper understanding of their human values, mentorship needs, and the wisdom they can share from their experiences. Although special permissions would be required for IRB approval of this possible study, additional research could expand it by including Generation Alpha when they turn 14 and can legally work in most states (Allen, 2018). Future research could also expand this study to include the self-perceived human values of multiple generations and their influence on other areas, such as management needs, corporate social responsibility, and other specific areas where a multigenerational population is engaged together in some capacity.

### **Recommendations for Practice**

For the first time in history, organizations have five generations in the workforce, and a sixth generation, Generation Alpha, is inching towards having formal jobs by 2024-2026 (Allen, 2018). Failed multigenerational mentorship programs, human resource management issues, and workforce conflicts can result in losses of nearly \$605 billion annually (Brightenburg et al., 2020).

There are current gaps in business research that include a) how to design mentorship processes for multigenerational mentorship program where human values and multigenerational workforce mentorship preferences are incorporated, b) a lack of generational cohort understanding in workforce research, and c) how to address the multigenerational conflicts in the workforce (Browne, 2021; Robbins & Judge, 2018; Schwartz, 1994). The quantitative findings from this research study revealed statistically significant differences ( $p < .05$ ), and the qualitative findings identified common themes influenced by those values that can help address these gaps.

Organizations and leaders must invest in understanding the diverse human values of their multigenerational workforce to develop more effective and efficient mentorship training programs. Additionally, by utilizing these findings and pursuing a multigenerational understanding of human values, people can help reduce their tendency towards stereotypes and negative work attitudes (Moore & Krause, 2021).

Applying the findings from this research towards programs that help a multigenerational workforce understand one another better, reduces stereotypical perceptions, and reduces conflicts, it can provide more effective support to one another, potentially helping reduce losses of up to \$605 billion annually (Brightenburg et al., 2020; Robbins & Judge, 2018). Additionally, applying these research findings on a global scale through mentorship programs and other workforce development initiatives worldwide can help global companies build a more synergistic workforce that combines the best of all generations. After all, we are greater, working better together... as a whole team, than just as parts.

### **Concluding Remarks**

Today, we can have up to five generations working alongside one another in many industries. It is a fact that everyone seems to be working, regardless of age. Younger people are working, and older people cannot afford to retire. According to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics,

up to 40% of people 55 years and older are actively pursuing a job, or working, with ages 64 to 74 expected to be the fastest growing labor force participation rate through 2024 because they can't afford to retire (Toossi & Torpey, 2017). Generation Alpha is poised to join the workforce within the next year or two. One would hope that having more people in the workforce would inspire economic growth and camaraderie through sharing the burden of work and yet over 605 billion is lost annually because of failed mentorship programs, conflicts, human resource management issues, and other concerns these generations face while working and training together (Brightenburg et al., 2020).

We can do better. We need to do better. Leaders and businesses need to understand what each generation values in life and the workplace, and how those values shape their behaviors and motivations. They also need to know how each generation prefers to be trained or mentored, because having five generations in the workforce brings with it a high probability that some type of training will need to take place. Organizations can reduce turnover, mitigate conflict, increase productivity, and minimize losses, making this research a worthwhile investment for improvement. Learning can lead to growth. Growing can lead to succeeding. In this global, multigenerational workforce, amid the issues we face as a global society, understanding human values and their influence on our needs is crucial. Whether these findings are applied to mentorship programs or any other area where multiple generations participate, we all benefit as a global society when we have a deeper understanding of one another.

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## APPENDIX A

### Survey Instrument

A) Informed Consent Form (Must agree or participant is removed from the survey)

B) Part 1 – Demographics

This online survey should take an estimated 10 to 20 minutes on average.

Remember, when you reach the last question, you will automatically be entered into a random drawing to win one of six \$50 gift certificates to Amazon or Starbucks. Don't forget to specify which card you want to be entered into the random drawing for and provide an email you would like the gift card sent (if you win). The email will not be used for any other purpose nor collected or saved in any data bank. It will be deleted.

Thank you for your time!

First Section: Brief general descriptions - Typically 1 minute:

1) Please select the range that includes the year you were born:

1928 to 1944  1945 to 1964  1965 to 1980  1981 to 1994  1995 to 2010

I do not fall in these ranges

2) Education: How many years of education have you completed?

Drop Down Menu: No schooling, grades K-12, 1-3 years of college; Bachelor's Degree; Some graduate courses; Masters; Doctoral courses; Doctorate Degree

3) Occupation: What is your current occupation or your occupation when last employed?  
(Open Box)

4) What is your ethnicity: Hispanic; Black or African American; White or Caucasian; American Indian or Alaska Native; Asian; Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander; Other: Please specify (open box)

5) What is your primary language? English, Spanish, Other: Please specify (open box).

6) Which best describes your gender? : Male; Female. Non-binary; Other: A gender not listed (open box).

C) Part 2 – Quantitative Human Values PVQ-RR (Schwartz, 2022).

All 57 questions will have a 6-point likert scale response:

Not like me at all	Not like me	A little like me	Moderately like me	Like me	Very much like me
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Next Section: Typically 5-7 minutes:

Here we briefly describe different people. Please read each description and think about how much that person is or is not like you. Put an X in the box to the right that shows how much the person described is like you.

This survey is designed to target one person and for you to think about how much that person is or is not like you. Note: References to "him", "his", "her", "hers", "he", "she", or "they" should be considered universal terms for all participants who complete the PVQ RR. Please substitute your gender preference when reading and selecting your responses.

1. It is important to him to form his views independently.
2. It is important to him that his country is secure and stable.
3. It is important to him to have a good time.

4. It is important to him to avoid upsetting other people.
5. It is important to him that the weak and vulnerable in society be protected.
6. It is important to him that people do what he says they should.
7. It is important to him never to think he deserves more than other people.
8. It is important to him to care for nature.
9. It is important to him that no one should ever shame him.
10. It is important to him always to look for different things to do.
11. It is important to him to take care of people he is close to.
12. It is important to him to have the power that money can bring.
13. It is very important to him to avoid disease and protect his health.
14. It is important to him to be tolerant toward all kinds of people and groups.
15. It is important to him never to violate rules or regulations.
16. It is important to him to make his own decisions about his life.
17. It is important to him to have ambitions in life.
18. It is important to him to maintain traditional values and ways of thinking.
19. It is important to him that people he knows have full confidence in him.
20. It is important to him to be wealthy.
21. It is important to him to take part in activities to defend nature.
22. It is important to him never to annoy anyone.
23. It is important to him to develop his own opinions.
24. It is important to him to protect his public image.
25. It is very important to him to help the people dear to him.
26. It is important to him to be personally safe and secure.
27. It is important to him to be a dependable and trustworthy friend.
28. It is important to him to take risks that make life exciting.
29. It is important to him to have the power to make people do what he wants.
30. It is important to him to plan his activities independently.
31. It is important to him to follow rules even when no-one is watching.
32. It is important to him to be very successful.
33. It is important to him to follow his family's customs or the customs of a religion.
34. It is important to him to listen to and understand people who are different from him.
35. It is important to him to have a strong state that can defend its citizens.
36. It is important to him to enjoy life's pleasures.
37. It is important to him that every person in the world have equal opportunities in life.
38. It is important to him to be humble.
39. It is important to him to figure things out himself.
40. It is important to him to honor the traditional practices of his culture.
41. It is important to him to be the one who tells others what to do.
42. It is important to him to obey all the laws.
43. It is important to him to have all sorts of new experiences.
44. It is important to him to own expensive things that show his wealth
45. It is important to him to protect the natural environment from destruction or pollution.
46. It is important to him to take advantage of every opportunity to have fun.
47. It is important to him to concern himself with every need of his dear ones.
48. It is important to him that people recognize what he achieves.
49. It is important to him never to be humiliated.

50. It is important to him that his country protect itself against all threats.
51. It is important to him never to make other people angry.
52. It is important to him that everyone be treated justly, even people he doesn't know.
53. It is important to him to avoid anything dangerous.
54. It is important to him to be satisfied with what he has and not ask for more.
55. It is important to him that all his friends and family can rely on him completely.
56. It is important to him to be free to choose what he does by himself.
57. It is important to him to accept people even when he disagrees with them.

#### D) Part 3 –Open-Ended Questions

Last Section: Typically 5-10 minutes:

These questions are open-ended responses to share your thoughts on the following 4 questions. Please remember to submit your selection for the \$50 gift card random drawing you would like to be entered into. (Starbucks, Amazon)

1. In either informal or formal mentorship experiences, if you have ever been mentored (trained, guided) by someone: Please share any positive and or negative experiences you have had as a mentee (you were the one being guided or trained).

Please include a brief description of your job title and industry for each experience you choose to share.

2. In either informal or formal mentorship experiences, if you have ever been a mentor (trainer, guide) for someone else: Please share any positive and or negative experiences you have had as a mentor (you guided or trained someone else).

Please include a brief description of your job title and industry for each experience you share.

3. How important is trust as a value to you?

4. How does or did trust affect your mentor or mentee experience (s)?

5. Would you be willing to be contacted for a personal interview? If yes (open box for email)

6. Thank you for taking the time to contribute to this doctoral study by completing this survey!

If you are one of the 6 participants who win in the random drawing, please write which \$50 gift card (Starbucks or Amazon) you would prefer and the best email to send it to.

*Note to participants: No contact information will shared or used for any other purposes, only to send gift cards to winners. All shared emails will be deleted upon completion of the data collection and research per the International Review Board practices for research.*

Note: This survey will also be translated into Spanish and given as a separate online survey.