‘Knowing the field’ is a vital part of research indicating that one is aware of the main theories, structures, debates and propositions in a topic area and, what is the active thinking about it. Without this knowledge it is meaningless to put together a research proposal and almost impossible to carry out research with any hope of success.

This chapter reviews the pertinent literature related to mentoring and has been done with the purpose of collecting and critically reviewing the research literature available on the concept, its components, types, functions, phases, nature and quality of the relationship between the parties involved and would
serve to point out what has and has not been investigated, develop a general explanation for observed variations in the phenomenon, learn how others have defined and measured key concepts and identify potential relationships between concepts. It would also be instructional to know of the current thoughts on the relevance and significance of (i) mentoring in higher education, (ii) mentoring in professional education and (iii) mentoring in management education. The review includes studies that can legitimately be classified as empirical in nature; a small number of non-empirical comparative materials have also been included.

Mentoring is a relationship between two people with learning and development as its purpose. It is an encouraging and empowering intervention, which has attracted the attention of trainers, educators and policy makers interested in initial preparation and continuing professional development. Within colleges and universities, planned mentoring is being used to improve retention and graduation rates among demographically underrepresented students, faculty and administrators (Redmond, 1990; Ross-Thomas and Bryant, 1994 and Shultz et al., 2001). Mentoring among undergraduates and graduate students is also being encouraged to improve student’s levels of academic achievements, assist at-risk students, and promote growth in graduate programmes and the professoriate (Jaccobi, 1991 and Waldeck et al., 1997). Ambitious claims have been made of the actual or potential benefits of mentoring, such as the development of students or newly qualified staff into skilled professionals (Oliver and Aggleton, 2002).

It has been observed that in an increasingly competitive environment, business schools must combine experience inside and outside the classroom to provide students with both education and real world knowledge necessary to succeed in business. It would be ideal to employ a mentoring programme to
foster strong links between the current students, alumni and business community along side the faculty members in order to succeed in their venture. Mentoring current MBA students is a great way to help future business leaders. Through participation in a mentoring programme, students can explore career paths, obtain an inside view of industries, learn how executives meet difficult challenges, and gain insight into corporate strategy. Students’ experience with the mentor helps them make better career choice and a smooth transition into the business world upon graduation.

2.1 Mentor

A mentor is an adult who offers continued support, guidance and contributes towards the development of an individual. He is an influential person who significantly helps the protégé achieve major goals in life. Garrick and Alexander (1994) say a mentor is now defined as a person who takes, or is given the responsibility for another’s learning and general development. Alleman (2002) defines mentor as a person with greater rank, experience and/or expertise who teaches, counsels, inspires, guides and helps another person to develop both personally and professionally. A mentor is also an experienced influential member of an organization who provides career guidance, psychosocial support and organizational information to a less experienced organisational member, i.e. a protégé.

Levinson et al. (1978) argued that ideally a mentor should be approximately half a generation older (i.e., 8 to 15 years) than a protégé. If the mentor is much older, the relationship may take on qualities of a parent and child relationship, and if the mentor is too close in age to the protégé, the pair may become more like friends or peers. A young mentor is not perceived as matching his or her role well. A younger individual may elicit stereotypes of being inexperienced and naïve; this certainly does not fit the typical
characteristics of a mentor. However, there is evidence in the literature that the age matching process is not necessarily symmetrical (Perry et al., 1996).

Ragins (1997) and several others suggest that women are more likely than men to provide emotional support and informal theoretical perspectives suggest that men may be more apt to provide career mentoring whereas women may be more appropriate to provide psychosocial mentoring. Allen and Eby (2004) reported of mentors providing more psychosocial support to females than to male protégés with no difference in career mentoring. Mentors in an informal mentoring relationship reported no differences in mentoring provided to their protégés than did mentors in formal mentoring relationships. Typically, mentors are experienced individuals committed to facilitating upward mobility and providing support for a protégé’s personal and professional development (Role, 1979; Klauss, 1981; Hunt and Michael, 1983; Kram, 1985 and Noe, 1988a). Mentors can increase a protégé’s exposure and visibility in situations where decision makers can see and appreciate their competence, abilities and special talents (Kram, 1985 and Noe, 1988a, b). Mentors also encourage protégés by sponsoring, supporting, acknowledging and advocating their abilities (Kram, 1983, 1985). A mentor’s protection consists of actions that either minimize the likelihood of a protégé getting involved in controversial situations or reduce unnecessary risks that threaten a protégé’s reputation (Noe, 1988a).

Research has provided evidence of the benefits of mentoring as higher productivity, better performance ratings, development of leaders, advancement of minorities and reduced turnover. In addition, participants acquire greater knowledge of the business, politics, policies, products and customers. Levinson et al. (1978) express the mentor’s benefits as follows. Being a mentor with young adults is one of the most significant relationship available to a man in middle adulthood. The distinctive satisfaction of a mentor lies in
furthering the development of young men and women - facilitating their efforts to form and live out their dreams, to lead better lives according to their own values and abilities.

A mentoring relationship is a close, individualized relationship that develops over time between a B-school student and a faculty member and that includes both care and guidance. Although there is a connection between mentors and advisors, not all mentors are advisors and not all advisors are mentors. Mentors, as defined by The Council of Graduate Schools, are advisors, people with career experience willing to share their knowledge; supporters, people who give emotional and moral encouragement; tutors, people who give specific feedback on one’s performance; masters, in the sense of employers to whom one is apprenticed; sponsors, sources of information about and aid in obtaining opportunities; models of identity, of the kind of person one should be to be an academic (Zelditch, 1990).

2.2 Protégé

An individual who is under the protection, care or patronage of another person is called a protégé. Alleman and Clarke (2002) opines that a protégé is the less experienced person in a mentoring relationship. Phillips Jones (2001) says the word protégé came from the French verb, protéger, meaning to protect, and is used to denote both men and women who are helped to reach their career and life goals by mentors. The term protégé is replaced by mentees, although several publications and organizations still use protégé. Others prefer terms such as mentoree, associate, trainee, partner, aspirant, learner or participant.

The important elements the protégé brings to mentoring experience are initial interpersonal maturity, self confidence, reaction to stress, ability to
benefit from constructive feedback, personal determination to succeed which are all components that can directly impact the possibility of a successful mentoring relationship (Cohen and Norman, 1999).

The benefits derived by protégés from their experience in a mentoring dyad need little highlighting. A short assorted list derived from the literature includes access to the mentor’s network, acquiring skills and knowledge, improved promotion opportunities, status, obtaining a role model etc., (Phillips Jones, 1982). The sense of being needed, of being recognised professionally, does much for improving or recovering the lost self-esteem.

Alleman (2002) has identified an impressive range of organisational benefits from mentor-protégé relationships. Some of these are: increased productivity by both partners; better assessments gained by both partners; management and technical skills improved; latent talent discovered; leadership qualities refined; performance improvement; rusting managers challenged to grow and better recruitment and retention of skilled staff. Management morale tends to be high as there are available sources of counsel. Protégés can feel significant as individuals, not merely as a manipulated commodity. Finally, there is a prevailing sense of humaneness, since the mentor-protégé relationship involves greater intimacy, sharing of value systems and feelings, disclosure of personal data and boastings and confessions. Murray and Owen (1991) identified several benefits of formal mentoring programs including increased productivity, improved recruitment efforts, motivation of senior staff and enhancement of services offered by the organisation.

Good mentoring is not accomplished easily. It depends on selection of mentors and how mentors and protégés are assigned and matched to each other, type of mentoring relationship and time allotted for mentoring (Little, 1990). While
the value and quality of mentoring depends partly on the quality of the mentors, very few studies have examined personality predictors of the willingness to mentor (Niehoff, 2006). Allen and Eby (2003) found that a pro-social personality predicted the willingness to mentor others, and (Hunt and Michael, 1983) felt personality is a motivator of mentoring activity. Effectiveness of mentoring relationship also depends on quality. Relational quality encompasses satisfaction with relationship, perceived benefits accrued to both individuals (i.e., mutuality), and relational depth (Hinde, 1981; Huston and Burgess, 1979 and Kram, 1985).

It is meaningless to think that all human interactions are pleasant experiences. It is not surprising, then, that the intimacy of the mentor-protégé relationship can result in bitterness. Practical mentors will be prepared for the situations which can diminish the value of the mentoring dyad. Clark et al. (1986) use the expressions of ‘the Matthew effect’ and ‘the Salieri phenomenon’ to describe related disadvantages in mentor-protégé relationships. The Matthew effect comes from St. Matthew’s gospel: ‘For to everyone that hath shall be given, and he shall abound; but, from him that hath not, that also which he seemed to have shall be taken away’ (Douay Version, Matthew 25:29) and the Salieri phenomenon is based on the story of Salieri, the court composer, who acted as musical gatekeeper and kept the genius of Mozart from being publicly recognised. When a mentor prevents the outstanding work of a protégé receiving just acclaim, the Salieri phenomenon is operating. Jealousy can develop, with or without reason, because of the creation of the mentor-protégé link. This is even more probable if the link involves cross-sex mentoring. Mentors can become jealous of gifted protégés who might be perceived as a professional threat. By the nature of the mentor role, there is a difference between mentor and protégé in learning, experience, expertise or other qualities. However, it is also possible for a mentor to be
younger in age than the protégé. An example of this could be found in a mature, aged student returning to study.

The goal of an undergraduate student may be obtaining knowledge, while the goal of the graduate (B–school student) could be the ability to contribute to the growing field of knowledge. Mentoring is an important mechanism that enables graduate students to acquire the body of knowledge and skills they need as well as an understanding of the way their discipline operates. Research shows that students who have mentoring relationships have higher productivity levels, a higher level of involvement with their departments, and greater satisfaction with their programs (Green and Bauer, 1995).

2.3 Types of mentoring

Mentoring is generally classified into two namely, formal mentoring and informal mentoring. Formal and informal mentoring have increasingly been seen as part of a human resource strategy in which organisations seek to develop their human resources in a way that leads to competitive success (McKeen and Burke, 1989; Wright and Werther, 1991 and Cunningham and Eberle, 1993). Informal mentoring comprises mentoring relationships where the mentor and the protégé, on their own accord, agree that the protégé will trust the mentor to counsel or teach him or her (Noe, 1988a). Informal mentoring tends to germinate as a result of work or non-work issues that lead the mentor and protégé to realize they have shared interests, admiration, and commitment, which makes informal mentorships more in-depth and personal (Chao et al., 1992; Lawson, 1996 and Noe, 1988b).

Formal mentorship refers to mentoring relationships where a third party sanctions an agreement between the mentor and the protégé, whereby the protégé should trust the mentor (Noe, 1988a, 1988b).
Both informal and formal mentoring can be intra-organisational and inter-organisational relationship in form (Ragins, 1997). Intra-organisational mentorships refer to those mentoring relationships in which both the mentor and the protégé are employed by the same organisation. Inter-organizational mentorships pertain to mentoring relationships where the mentor and protégé are employed by different organisations.

The following are different types of formal mentoring programs which cater to organisations’ and individual needs (Lacey, 2001).

2.3.1 One-to-one mentoring

One mentor works with one protégé in a close one-to-one hierarchical relationship. This model is expensive over time and severely limits the numbers of matching that can be made. It provides a guaranteed commitment of the mentor to each mentee (Lacey, 2001).

2.3.2 Mentoring hubs

This model includes a mentor working with a number of mentees simultaneously. On some occasions the mentor works with each mentee individually and on other occasions the mentor would be with all the mentees as a group. This allows and encourages the mentor to peer-coach each other and develop significant peer relationships. This model increases the number of matches that can be made but requires larger time and commitment on the part of the mentor. It is very difficult to guarantee equal commitment to each mentee. The mentees in this type of matching will need to be more self-reliant and take more responsibility for their own development (Lacey, 2001).

2.3.3 On-site mentoring

In this model the mentor is usually considered to be someone in a more senior position than the mentee but is not mandatory. Effective mentors can
also be a more experienced peer. Most organisations practice on site mentoring (Lacey, 2001).

2.3.4 Off-site mentoring

Large organisations have the ability to locate mentors from a variety of work sites. The mentee has the opportunity to see a variety of ways of working and management styles. The mentor is different from the mentee’s direct line manager. Management of leadership skills can be transferred from one setting to many others (Lacey, 2001).

2.3.5 Group mentoring

In group mentoring, a number of mentees are brought together with a few mentors. The group meets on a regular basis and jointly chooses topics relevant to the mentees. This group setting allows mentees to gain insight from more than one mentor, in addition to receiving peer mentoring from the other mentees.

Group mentoring increases the diversity of the mentoring network. Because the mentees normally set the agenda for the group, the group approach can have the advantage of better suiting their needs but is perhaps less tailored to individual needs compared to a one-to-one relationship. A critical factor in group mentoring is the trust built among group members. Normally this requires a strong confidential bond and “leaving status at the doors.” The ability to provide this type of environment is affected by the size of the group, which normally does not exceed 15 members, both mentees and mentors together (Marilu Good Year, 2006).

2.3.6 Peer mentoring

Miller (2002) opines when people of similar age and / or status take on the roles of mentor and mentee, it is called as peer mentoring and is more likely to be of the one-to-one type of mentoring. Mentors in peer mentoring
can be of the same age, peer age (1-3 years of age difference) or cross age (4 years or more). In case of further or higher education, they may be of the same age. The use of relatively high-ability students to help their less able peers is based on the assumption that they are likely to be more effective mentors. Peer mentoring involves one student as a mentor and the other as mentee. It can be intra-institutional where mentors and mentees are drawn from the same institute. Cross institutional programmes involve mentors and mentees from different institutions. The main aim of peer mentoring has been the subject learning. Concerned with supporting basic skills, they also include the development of high-order knowledge and skills in higher education or in professional development.

### 2.3.7 Telementoring

Telementoring involves the use of distance technology to develop the mentoring relationships. Telementoring can use e-mail, text, audio or video conferencing or a combination of these varied means of communication. It has been defined as the use of e-mail or computer conferencing systems to support a mentoring relationship when a face-to-face relationship is impractical (O’Neill et al., 1996). Telementoring was first used for the professional development of teachers in curriculum development and use of new technologies. In 1993 the University of Texas launched the first, and most ambitious, telementoring programme for the students. E-mentoring is probably the most common form of telementoring, where a telemmentor is paired with a mentee. Such relationship can be called telementorships (Harris et al., 1996). Telementoring has the potential to be a key element of a school’s links with the community (Nellen, nd).

### 2.3.8 Network mentoring

Network mentoring model focuses on the ways in which the mentor and protégé operate which are naturally affirming and empowering. In this model,
the ‘initiation phase’ begins as the mentor provides education and role modeling for the protégé. The mentor’s subsequent undertaking of the function of sponsoring involves the risk of greater commitment to the protégé which marks the onset of the ‘cultivation phase’. As mentor and protégé actively engage in the functions which emerge during the cultivation phase, their relationship grows stronger and correspondingly the overall width and breadth of the mentoring functions expand. As the mentor provides the later functions, however, less time may be allotted to some of the earlier functions, which will eventually disappear altogether. The waxing and waning of functions continues during the ‘separation phase’ at which time ambivalence is experienced as mentor and protégé begin a process of psychological disengagement. By the time the relationship has progressed to the ‘redefinition phase’, the primary function of the mentor becomes one of moving from a transitional figure to a friend/peer (Haring’s et al., 1983).

2.4 Functions of mentoring

The overall function fulfilled by a mentor can be explicitly taken to be of facilitating and helping the protégé to achieve a shift from being on the margin to a more engaging role as a participant of the mainstream life referred to as the ‘protégé maturation’. This maturation process comprises two important dimensions classified as ‘career function’ and ‘psychosocial function’ (Kram, 1983).

2.4.1 Career function

Career functions are those aspects of mentoring that prepare the protégé for career advancement. These functions include nominating the protégé for desirable projects, lateral moves and promotions; providing the protégé with assignments that increase his/her visibility to organisational decision makers and exposure to future opportunities; sharing ideas, providing feedback and suggesting strategies for accomplishing work objectives; reducing unnecessary
risks that might threaten the protégé’s reputation; and providing challenging work assignments (Noe, 1988).

2.4.2 Psychosocial function

Psychosocial functions enhance the protégé’s sense of competence, identity and work role effectiveness. These function include serving as a role model of appropriate attitudes, values and behaviours for the protégé; conveying unconditional positive regard (acceptance and confirmation); providing a forum in which the protégé is encouraged to talk openly about anxiety and fears (counseling) and interacting informally with the protégé at work (friendship). Kram (1985) suggests that greater the number of functions provided by the mentor, more beneficial the relationship will be to the protégé. The functions that actually occur between the mentor and protégé differ with specific needs of the protégé involved. It depends on the purpose and intensity of the relationship.

The mentoring functions listed are meant to stimulate thinking about the range of behaviours that characterize mentor–protégé relations, and raise questions about the relative frequency and effectiveness of these behaviours within higher education environments. It is observed that youth fail to develop certain qualities, attitudes, habits and patterns of behaviour which are widely recognised as essential to their effectively assuming and successfully acting in adult roles. Adolescence, the period of development immediately preceding adulthood, invites attention of adults in all societies (Coleman and Husen, 1985; Condon, 1987 and Halles and Leis, 1989). By the end of adolescence the young man or woman is expected to have learnt appropriate social roles and skills and, by implication, to accept obligations to the community for safeguarding its functions. Among the various developmental tasks occurring in the transition from adolescence to adulthood are the acquisition of adaptive social and psychological capacities, skills, values, and habits which serve to
establish the individual in a culturally appropriate adult role (Rosenthal, 1987; Taylor et al., 1979 and Keefe and Padila, 1987). Psychosocial functions can assist individuals early in their career by developing competence, confidence, and a clear sense of professional identity (Greiman, 2002). According to Hall (1986), these psychosocial functions “enhance a sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role”.

The psychosocial functions are role modeling, counseling, acceptance and friendship. In 1990, Ragins and McFarlin identified that cross-gender mentoring may bring about a social and parenting function. As a result, Greiman (2002) added the social function to his study of mentor and fresh teachers. The role modeling function is “demonstrating valued behaviors, attitudes and/or skills that aid the junior in achieving competence, confidence, and a clear professional identity” (Hall, 1986). The counseling function is when a mentor is “providing a helpful and confidential forum for exploring personal and professional dilemmas”. When a mentor provides “mutual caring and intimacy that extends beyond the requirements of daily work tasks” and is “sharing experiences outside the immediate work setting,” then the mentor is providing the friendship function. In providing support related to the acceptance function, a mentor is “providing ongoing support, respect, and admiration, which strengthens self-confidence and self-image”. Greiman (2002) identified the social function as one that includes “social interaction and informal exchanges about work and outside work experiences.” Greiman (2002) found that there were no significant differences between the extent mentors met psychosocial needs, as perceived by fresh teachers and mentors. Mentors and fresh teachers agreed that mentors were providing the psychosocial functions of acceptance, counselling, friendship and role modeling to a large extent.

According to Inkeles et al. (1998) the concept of ‘adolescent maturity’, understood as readiness to assume competently the roles typical for men and
women in a modern industrial society, is measured across six psychosocial qualities of efficacy, perseverance, planfulness, responsibility, individualism, and cooperativeness that can be effectively ascertained in the five domains of school, family, peer group, work, and community.

### 2.5 Phases of mentoring

Although developmental relationships vary in length, they generally proceed through four predictable yet not entirely distinct phases: 1. initiation phase, during which time the relationship is started; 2. cultivation phase, during which time the range of functions provided expands to maximum possible limits; 3. separation phase, during which the established nature of the relationship is substantially altered by structural changes in the organisational context and/or by psychological changes within one or both individuals and 4. a redefinition phase, during which time the relationship evolves a new form that is significantly different from the past, or the relationship ends entirely.

Each phase is characterized by particular affective experiences, developmental functions, and interaction patterns that are shaped by individual needs and surrounding organizational circumstances.

This dynamic perspective delineates how a mentor relationship can enhance both the individuals development as it unfolds. When primary tasks are complementary, a mentor relationship is likely to reach the cultivation phase and provide a range of career and psychosocial functions that enable the young adult to meet the challenges of initiation into the worlds of work, and the senior adult to meet the challenges of reappraisal at midlife. When, however, the young adult begins to feel established and more autonomous, she/he no longer will look toward the senior adult for the same kind of guidance and support. If the senior adult has other avenues for creative
expression of generative needs and can accept continued growth and advancement in the younger adult, then the relationship will follow its course through separation and redefinition.

**Exhibit 1.0 Phases of the Mentor Relationship**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Turning points*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initiation</td>
<td>A period of six months to a year during which the relationship gets started and begins to have importance for both managers.</td>
<td>▪ Fantasies become concrete expectations. ▪ Expectations are met; senior manager provides coaching, challenging work, visibility; junior manager provides technical assistance, respect and desire to be coached. ▪ There are opportunities for interaction around work tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultivation</td>
<td>A period of two to five years during which time the range of career and psychosocial functions provided expand to a maximum.</td>
<td>▪ Both individuals continue to benefit from the relationship. ▪ Opportunities for meaningful and more frequent interaction increase. ▪ Emotional bond deepens and intimacy increases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separation</td>
<td>A period of six months to two years after a significant change in the structural role relationship and / or in the emotional experience of the relationship.</td>
<td>▪ Junior manager no longer wants guidance but rather the opportunity to work more autonomously. ▪ Senior manager faces midlife crisis and is less available to provide mentoring functions. ▪ Job rotation or promotions limits opportunities for continued interaction; career and psychosocial functions can no longer be provided. ▪ Blocked opportunity creates resentment and hostility that disrupt positive interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redefinition</td>
<td>An indefinite period after the separation phase, during which time the relationship is ended or takes on significantly different characteristics, making it a more peer like friendship.</td>
<td>▪ Stresses of separation diminish, and new relationships are formed. ▪ The mentor relationship is no longer needed in its previous form. ▪ Resentment and anger diminish; gratitude and appreciation increase. ▪ Peer status is achieved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kram (1983) Examples of the most frequently observed psychological and organisational factors that cause movement into the relationship phase.
2.6 Mentor-Protégé relationships

Mentoring functions exist as a part of many activities and relationships (Kanter, 1977 and Shapiro et al., 1978). Several terms have been used to describe dyadic relationships such as; teacher-student; master-apprentice; sponsor-token and mentor-protégé. Change is inevitable in life and when encountered with, people meet it with a degree of reluctance largely because of the apprehension about what the new situation would demand of them. Change can be frightening; adaptation to new circumstances is accomplished quite quickly by some, but for others it can be distressing. Some newcomers adapt effectively to their new positions through personal qualities, while others are assisted by one or more of their new colleagues. In the process of this kind dyadic socialisation, mentors can prepare the new entrants to get rid of the shock and make the entry comfortable. This is an important facet of mentor-protégé relationships. If it is important to assist a colleague overcome difficulty of any kind, or to help a colleague rise up in the profession, then mentoring is important.

Evidences supporting the importance of mentor-protégé relationships have accumulated. Mentoring relationships have tangible benefits for students in terms of productivity (Crane, 1965; Cronan-Hillix et al., 1986 and Reskin, 1979) and initial job placement (Long, 1978). Roche (1979) suggests that mentors are the most beneficial when they instruct protégés on the informal aspects of their career and help them become socialised into a professional environment. In a survey of graduate students in psychology at a large Midwestern University, Cronan-Hillix et al. (1986) show that graduate students with mentors are more productive than those without mentors. The researchers also indicate that good mentors can be hard to find; not all mentors
are good, and matching interests and personalities is important for a successful mentor-protégé relationship.

Mentoring is considered as an established management development intervention and an important resource for learning and coping with organisational change (Rigsby et al., 1998). It is considered an important training and development tool in the academic literature of Hunt and Micheal (1983). Jennings (1991) found that most corporate presidents had a successful mentoring relationship and that the mentoring process was a major contributing factor to their success. Schein (1978) defined the mentoring relationship within the organisation and examined the extent to which organisational life is influenced by the development of necessary technical, interpersonal and political skills.

Academic literature says the benefits of mentoring relationship extend not only the protégé but also the mentor and the organisation (Fagenson et al., 1989 and Burke et al., 1994). Mentors can gain personal prestige, recognition and self satisfaction as well as developing a network of supporters (Clutterbuck, 1991). Tabbron et al. (1997) considered mentoring as a way of unlocking talent in the organisation and ensuring individuals are given additional support. Mentoring relationship can offer significant reward for the students through the contextualisation of their learning and also through personal development (Levinson et al., 1978).

2.6.1 Mentorship as a social exchange

Theoretical perspectives such as social exchange (Homans, 1958) provide a useful framework for examining dyadic issues related to perceived cost and benefits of mentoring. Social exchange theory has been cited extensively in support of many recent mentoring studies (Scandura and
Schriesheim, 1994 and Young and Perrewe, 2000b). The idea behind social exchange is that the mentoring relationship, like any relationship, involves costs and benefits associated with participation in the relationship. Costs to the mentor could include time, efforts, and risks associated with working with a visible protégé, whereas benefits include career revitalization and learning (Kram, 1985). Similarly, costs to the protégé include time, effort, and risks associated with offending influential others (Kram, 1985 and Scandura, 1998), whereas benefits include visibility, knowledge and advice (Kram, 1985).

According to Young and Perrewe (2000a), once a relationship is initiated, exchange of behaviours takes place. Mentors provide career and social support behaviours to protégés; however, protégés in turn reciprocate with related career and social behaviors. So, for example, when a mentor suggests that a protégé participate in a special project, the protégé can either accept or decline the project and participate enthusiastically or tentatively. The mentor is likely to react to the protégé’s reciprocal behavior, which incites additional behavior from the protégé, and the cycle of exchange behaviors between a mentor and protégé continues throughout the relationship. According to exchange theory, when benefits outweigh costs, individuals will be more likely to remain in the relationship. As costs outweigh benefits, individuals are more likely to consider terminating the relationship. Perceived costs and benefits are embedded in mentoring support and the exchange that takes place throughout the relationship (Young and Perrewe, 2000a). Efforts to support a mentoring partner or reciprocate support with positive behaviours involve costs of time and energy, whereas positive tangible and intangible outcomes such as increased opportunities, compensation, feelings of friendship and accomplishment represent benefits.
2.7 Formal mentoring

Attention is now turned to the relevance of mentoring on adult life in organisation and formal career situations after having discussed the earlier research positions and available information on mentoring and the various components that naturally form part of the phenomenon.

The term mentoring was adopted within the business context during the late 1970s, to describe someone who encourages career development and personal skills (Levinson et al., 1978). Informal and formal mentoring relationships and their impact in the business world have been gaining importance all these years. This movement occurred because organisations could see the advantage of implementing formal mentoring programs as they enabled potential learning and growth for employees on the job (Ehrich and Hansford, 1999). Five major trends that have influenced the growth of formal mentoring programs in business are the quest for innovation, the merger explosion, the changing composition of the workforce, the upcoming labour shortage, and the emergence of the cross-cultural corporations (Zey, 1984).

Mentoring is accepted as a means for facilitating learning in the work place, and is designed to make use of guided learning to build up the knowledge and skills required for high performers (Tovey, 1999). In many organisations, both private and public sector, mentoring is being considered a means for promoting and enabling the development of new and promising individuals (Jowett and Stead, 1994). Wiggans (1994) says a few organisations are setting up mentoring as part of their wider staff development or training programmes while others use mentors as part of positive strategies to encourage and retain staff.

According to Mathew (2003), the use of formal mentoring has moved beyond private sector organisations into public sector organisation as well and the
outcomes from these programmes include more motivated and skilled people; improved interaction among functional areas and departments; increased support systems and networks in times of change; improved networking and communication; increased self-confidence and job satisfaction; better understanding of organisational culture and values; better perception of career prospects and opportunities to discuss career planning and better resource utilization.

Chao et al. (1992) conducted a field survey comparing protégées who were involved in mentorship programmes and people who did not have mentors. Respondents involved in informal mentoring and formal mentoring were compared along psychosocial and career related mentoring functions. All the three groups were compared. Results indicated that protégés in informal mentoring received more career related support from their mentors and higher salaries than protégés in formal mentorship. For all outcome variables it was found that protégés in informal mentoring relationship received more favourable outcomes than those who did not have a mentor.

Ehrich et al. (2004) in a research based article examined the positive and more problematic outcomes of mentoring for the mentor, mentee and the organisation. This article comprises of the findings of two other databases, namely, 151 research-based articles from business context and 82 articles from medical contexts and the commonalities across the three databases is highlighted. The article also mentions about the key issues which should be focused for successfully establishing a mentoring programme.

Allen et al. (2006a) in their study examined the perceived programme effectiveness from the perspective of both mentor and the protégé. The results indicate that voluntary participation may be key to retaining willing mentors within a program across time, both mentor and protégé characteristics in the
matching process moderates the perceived programme effectiveness through their relationship with mentor, programme commitment and understanding. Armstrong et al. (2002) in their study involving mentor-protégé dyads indicate that cognitive style was found to work indirectly through its influence on other variables to enhance mutual liking and psychosocial and career mentoring functions. Gender composition also was found to have significant impact on the mentoring process. Dyads with female mentors and male protégés were found to be the least favourable combination.

Allen et al. (2006b) examined the perceived design features of formal mentoring programs and outcomes from both mentor and protégé perspectives. The outcomes of mentoring such as career and psychosocial mentoring, role modeling and mentorship quality were examined. The results indicated that the mentoring process and training perceived as high in quality were consistently related to the outcome variables.

Wanberg et al. (2006) examined the predictors and outcomes of mentoring received by participants of a 12 month formal mentoring programme. Based on relationship theory, they examined how the personality of the individuals in the mentoring dyad, perceived similarity, and mentor perceived support for mentoring contributed to relationship outcome. The results further portrayed the relationship between protégée reported similarity to the mentor and psychosocial mentoring. It makes intuitive sense that friendship, role modeling, counselling and acceptance would occur more often among pairs for whom there was perception of similarity.

2.8 Mentoring in higher education

Busch (1985) sampled a large number of professors working with graduate students in educational programs in state colleges and universities
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across the United States to study mentoring relationship from the mentor’s perspectives. The author found that professors–mentors see benefits for themselves as well as for mentees in the relationship. Younger professors reported more depth in the relationships; whereas older mentors reported more breadth in their relationships.

Wilde et al. (1991) explored the mentoring relationships in graduate schools of education from the perspectives of mentees. A sample of professors and student mentees were chosen from the education department for the study. The results indicated that the students received both career and psychological aspects in their mentoring relationships. The mentees reported benefits, not only to themselves but also to their mentors in their relationships. The structure of mentoring was perceived differently by male and female students. Both the sexes reported strong occurrence of the psychological component of mutual support. There was age variation with regard to pervasiveness of career development. The older the student, the less professional development occurs in mentoring.

Jadwick (1997) measured the perceptions of effectiveness between faculty and protégés involved in formal mentoring relationships in higher education. The author claims this as an initial study. The subjects were drawn from a non-probability sample of 35 faculty and 53 protégés active in a mentor program. The subjects were administered the 55–item Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale; an Instrument based on adult development psychology theories and transactional process of learning with six behavioural mentoring functions: relationship emphasis, information emphasis, facilitative focus, confrontive focus, mentor model and student vision. The results indicated that the perception of mentor and protégé resulted in effective mean scores in case of relationship emphasis and facilitative focus, the perception of mentors and
protégés were less effective in the case of information emphasis, student vision and confrontive focus, and very effective in the case of mentor model.

Larose et al. (2005) in their study examined the impact of teacher-student mentoring relationship on the academic adjustment of at-risk college students. Academic adjustment and performance were assessed before five months after involvement in mentoring and after the last mentoring meeting and the study showed the quality of mentoring relationships facilitates college students’ social adjustment and institutional attachment for the students with high level of relatedness and autonomy than for the other groups. In addition, students with low relatedness presented lower academics and emotional adjustment in college than students with no mentors.

Hezlett et al. (2005) in their study, which is one of the first to examine the process of protégé learning, found protégés to be learning mostly through observing their mentors, from mentors’ explanations and by interacting with their mentors. Less frequently, protégés learned from asking questions, shadowing, trial and error, working with their mentors and receiving encouragement.

### 2.9 Mentoring in professional education

There are debates about the association between different models of mentoring and specific professional contexts. Legislative, organisational and professional contexts are of primary importance in determining how mentoring comes to be applied (Parsloe and Wray, 2000). Teacher mentors function as gate keepers to the teaching profession. In nursing, mentors also have an assessment role, but the title of mentor is often regarded as interchangeable with that of the more traditional “preceptor” who is generally responsible for supervising the professional practice of student nurses (UKCC, 1999 and
Morton-Cooper and Palmer, 2000). The medical profession has resisted external regulation and within it, mentoring has had a far lower profile. Its introduction has been largely internally driven and focused upon the continuing professional development (Freeman, 1998 and SCOPME, 1998). By comparing mentoring in different professional context, it is clear that there is a relationship between the model of mentoring promoted, and the extent to which the profession is externally regulated.

In a profession, a mentor is described as someone who provides an enabling relationship that facilitates another’s personal growth and development. The relationship is dynamic, reciprocal and can be emotionally intense. With such a relationship, the mentor assists in career development and guides the mentoree through the organisational, social and political networks’ (Morton–Cooper and Palmer, 1993).

Hayes (1998) studied the relationship between nurse practitioner students and their clinical teachers (preceptors) may have an impact on students' confidence in their ability to take on the advanced practice role of the nurse practitioner. The study investigated the relationship between nurse practitioner students' perceptions of mentoring by their clinical preceptors and student’s self-efficacy. Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory and Biddle's Role Theory provided the framework for the research. The results indicate that mentoring has an impact on graduate nursing program philosophy, clinical placement management strategies and preceptor selection.

Kaul (1996) examined the nature and extent of the influence of mentor relationship in the development of talent and to explore the life goals of the talented subjects from among the post graduate students from three national universities in India namely, Jawaharlal Nehru University, Jamia Milia Islamia
and University of Delhi, belonging to the faculties of science, social science, commerce, management, law, engineering and medicine. The results revealed that the phenomenon of mentorship is quite pervasive in the Indian educational setting. Majority of the respondents preferred male mentors. The students of engineering and medicine said they came in contact with the mentor when they were pursuing their professional education while the management students opined that they contacted the mentor at the primary level. Almost all the students had older mentors and a majority of them were over 40 years of age. Finally, the results revealed that students from all the three universities scored the highest mean on personal-happiness and prestigious goal and lowest on religious and artistic goals.

### 2.10 Mentoring in management education

Management institutions, as already mentioned in the introduction chapter, are being increasingly considered the seat for the holistic development of students and strive to create a learning environment rather than a teaching environment. Business schools, therefore, must be able to ensure that students are provided with adequate knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes that are needed for achieving success in any business environment. The students should be exposed to challenges which will sharpen their skills and make them relevant and effective in the real business world.

Although there is little information on the use of mentoring programmes by business schools, there are many articles citing successful implementation of mentoring programs in business. Allen et al. (1997) in their study say it is particularly important to examine the mentoring experiences of business graduate students (MBAs). As future business leaders, their educational mentoring experiences are likely to have an immediate impact on not only
their career successes but also on their interests in serving as mentors to others in their immediate academic setting or later in the employment context.

Schelee (2000) described the state of mentoring programs in business schools. His findings indicate that a mentoring programme attempts to bridge the gap between academic training and students’ successful entry into the business world. Mentoring programs also reflect an increased interest in the professional preparation of students (Cunningham, 1995) and training of managerial skills such as goal setting, self awareness and career management (Biggelow, 1995). In spite of all these benefits the study revealed that almost 59 per cent of the business schools did not have a formal mentoring program.

Levesque et al. (2005) in their study identified the difference between men and women’s perception of the mentoring function. The data was collected from 637 graduate respondents (alumni) of a top-tier MBA program. The study revealed that the two sexes are similar in their perceptions of the most valued mentoring behavior. The two mentoring behaviors found to be significantly important to women than men were championing and acceptance and confirmation. Championing was one of the five mentoring behaviors identified most by both men and women, with women perceiving it as significantly more important than did men.

A Canadian survey (Simpson et al., 2005) of 225 MBA graduates revealed that the most popular reason for taking the MBA programme was to improve job opportunities followed by the desire for a career change with the least favoured choice of obtaining general life-related skills. Some age and gender differences were also noticed with respect to salary or status expectation and credibility enhancement. Men in the study were more hopeful of gaining increased confidence from having a fuller skill set, whereas women
were expecting to gain confidence from feelings of self-worth. This study was in fact suggested the mentoring experiences that the students of an MBA necessarily have in the course of their studentship that help them achieve their personal and career goals. Mentoring dimension of the MBA programme typically equips the students become politically savvy and avoid traps and dead ends in life generally and in career in particular. On the whole, management education, with its mentoring component, helps students achieve their fuller potential and encourage them to be proactive.

The researcher, in the light of the theoretical and empirical information presented so far, proposed to undertake a study to evaluate and establish the significance of mentoring phenomenon prevailing in management institutes in the state of Kerala, whether or not it is part of the formal faculty environment. The study was conceived to demonstrate ‘protégé maturity’ among the students as the culminating outcome of ‘effective mentoring’ brought about by legitimate ‘mentoring activities’ that can be moderated by the socio-demographic backgrounds and personality orientations that precipitate the psycho-social dispositions of the teachers who act as mentors in B-schools.

2.11 Significance of mentor’s personal profile

The influence of relational demography, especially with respect to gender and ethnicity, on mentoring relationship has repeatedly been recognized but there has been little investigation of its effect on indirect mentoring relationships (Ensher and Murphy, 1997 and Godshalk and Sosik, 2000). Mentors are more experienced in the organisation than protégés, resulting in tenure differences between mentors and protégés (Levinson et al., 1978). Studies exploring the effect of tenure diversity within intact groups have generally found that heterogeneity with respect to tenure has resulted in
compromised functioning and higher level of turnover (Wagner et al., 1984; O’Reilly et al., 1989; Zenger and Lawerence, 1989; Jackson et al., 1991 and Wiersema and Bird, 1993). While tenure differences are expected between parties in a mentoring dyad, it is likely that as differences in tenure grow larger, and as age differences grow, there is likely to be less agreement between the mentoring partners about mentoring activities within the relationship (Fagenson- Eland et al., 2005).

In the seminal work on mentoring, it is suggested that the mentor should be eight to fifteen years older than the protégé, or the relationship might become more peer like (Levinson et al., 1978). One of the studies on age diversity within mentoring dyads found differences in vocational and psychosocial functions reported by the protégé based on age differences within the dyad, but agreement on these perceptions between the dyadic partners was not assessed (Finklestein et al., 2003). Gender has been studied as an important factor which influences groups and dyadic functioning (Shaw and Barret-Power, 1998; Ostroff and Atwater, 2003 and Chatman and O’Reilly, 2004).

The effects of gender are moderated by the relative proportion of men and women within groups, but in general, heterogeneity with respect to gender has a negative effect on group functioning (Pelled, 1996). Cross-gender mentoring relationships result in less mentoring and more expected difficulties than in same sex relationships (Noe, 1988; Ragins and McFarlin, 1990; Thomas, 1990; Gaskill, 1991 and Burke et al., 1993). Differences in outcomes for men and women in terms of receiving mentoring and mentoring outcomes have been evidenced in research (Burke et al., 1990; Burke and McKeen, 1996; Ragins, 1997 and Ragins and Cotton, 1991).
Heterogeneity with respect to the educational level has also been found to have an effect on group functioning. Individuals who are the most dissimilar from the work group in terms of education have been found to be the least well integrated (Kirchmeyer, 1995).

Dreher and Ash (1990) examined the role played by mentorship in the career outcomes of men and women. In particular, the goal was to explore gender differences in mentoring experiences and the degree to which mentoring is differently associated with the career outcomes of men and women in managerial and professional occupations. The study revealed that individuals who had extensive mentoring relationship reported receiving more promotions, had higher incomes and were more satisfied with their pay and benefits than individuals who had less extensive mentoring relationships. It also revealed that there was no gender difference with regard to the frequency of mentoring activities and gender did not moderate mentoring outcome relationships.

Ragin and Cotton (1999) examined the effects of the types of mentoring relationship and the gender compositions of the relationship on mentoring functions and career outcomes. The results indicate that men were significantly more likely to have formal mentors than women and the type of mentoring relationship was found to be related to mentoring and career outcomes. Female protégés with female mentors were significantly more likely to engage in social activities with their mentors than female protégés with male mentors. Male protégés with female mentors were significantly less likely than all other gender combinations to report that their mentor provided exceptances roles. Protégés with a history of male mentors reported more promotions over the last 10 years, than protégés with a history of female mentors.
Wood and Lindroff (2001) in their study tested the prediction that there will be sex difference in how middle managers perceive promotion requirements, and that such differences will be influenced by societal expectations of gender appropriateness, in which women expected to display communal (nurturing, interpersonal and sensitive) and men agentic (independent, assertive and ambitious) qualities and behavior. No sex differences were found in the percentage of middle managers who felt that everyone in the organization has the same opportunities for promotion or in the personal aspirations of middle managers to achieve senior promotions. Women reported that individual qualities such as potential for development, personality and mentoring relationships had influenced their promotion, whereas men believed that years of experiences had influenced their promotion. Further women believed that lack of personal interest, family reasons or negative stereotyping would be the reasons why future promotions may not occur, while men thought that politics, personal inadequacy or lack of opportunities would be the cause.

Allen and Eby (2004) examined the relationship between mentor gender, protégé gender, mentorship characteristics (mentorship type, mentorship duration and mentor experiences) and mentoring functions provided as reported by mentors. The researchers proposed that mentoring effectiveness would vary as a function of the gender of the mentorship participants and the characteristics of the relationship. The findings revealed that mentors reported providing more psychosocial mentoring to female protégés than to male protégés but no differences in career mentoring were observed. Mentors in informal mentoring relationship reported no differences in mentoring provided to their protégés than did mentors in formal mentoring relationships. Mentor experiences were the only variable to contribute uniquely to both psychosocial and career related mentoring.
Levesque et al. (2005) identified the difference between men and women’s perception of the mentoring function. The findings revealed two mentoring behavior significantly important to women than to men were championing and acceptance and confirmation. Championing was one of the five mentoring behavior identified by both men and women, with women perceiving it as significantly more important than did men.

Fagenson–Eland et al. (2005) examined the influence of demographic differences on mentors and protégés perceptions of developmental support and frequency of communication. This research is one of the few studies that used mentoring dyads and focused on how the participants view the mentoring relationship. Data on demographics (organizational tenure, age, gender and educational level), mentoring functions and frequency of communication were collected from both the mentor and protégé in 27 mentoring dyads from two medium sized high technology companies. The study revealed dissimilarity between the mentee and protégé on organizational tenure, age, gender and educational level. The correlation between mentors and protégés perception of communication frequency was positive and significant. It also indicated that younger protégés perceive more developmental support and more frequent communication from their mentors.

Simpson et al. (2005) explored gender difference in career benefits from the MBA program, as well as from a national culture in which more official policies have been initiated and supported to promote women in management. The results indicated significant differences in terms of the profile of male and female MBA graduates. The study revealed that the most popular reason for taking the MBA was to improve job opportunities followed by the desire for a career change. The least popular choice was the desire to obtain general skills.
However some age and gender differences emerged with respect to salary or status, confidence and credibility.

Young et al. (2006) in their study focused on issues of gender and mentoring through several theoretical lenses–similarity attraction paradigm, power dependence, social exchange, biological and psychological theories—to provide a more comprehensive view of mentoring from a gender based perspective.

Dua (2007) in her study explored the relationship between gender, mentoring and graduate student success for women in doctoral degree granting programs in the USA. The focus of this study was on feminist mentoring compared to more traditional models. The study revealed the relationship with female mentors, characterized by mutual empowerment, empathy, reciprocity, role flexibility, acceptance and caring that allows female student to develop a professional identity.

The personal profile of teachers comprises of 1) socio-demographic variables and 2) personality profile of teachers. Researchers consistently found that the demographic characteristics of both mentor and protégé (i.e., age, gender, rank, experience and race) can affect perceptions of the mentoring relationship as well as its outcomes (Murray, 1991; Thomas, 1993; Turban, 1994 and Mullen, 1999).

The present study attempts to investigate and understand if socio-demographic factors like age, gender, designation, educational qualification, teaching experience and industrial experience influence the effectiveness of mentoring in B-schools.

2.12 Mentor’s personality

Examining personality types opens a window to a better understanding of the personal preferences and people's ways of functioning. In the context of
mentoring, consideration of individual personality types can provide important insights into how mentors interact, make decisions, and perceive different situations interpersonally and take actions in the workplace. Looking at personality differences is particularly helpful in the areas of growth and development of self and of those one proposes to help. For mentors, learning about their personality types and its implications is an interesting and insightful tool for self-reflection and discovery.

Only very few studies have examined the significance of personality-related predictors to the process of mentoring. Allen and her colleagues (Allen, 2003 and Allen et al., 1997a) found that pro-social personality features like empathy and readiness to help others predicted the willingness to mentor others. Other researchers supported locus of control (Allen et al., 1997b and Turban and Dougherty, 1994) and upward striving (Allen et al. 1997b and Hunt and Micheal, 1983) as personality-based motivators of mentoring activities. Waters (2004) found that the personality characteristics of mentor and protégé, specifically agreeableness, openness, and extraversion were significant predictors of protégé–mentor agreement about the provision of psychosocial support. Lima Lizzette (2004) investigated the relationship between mentor characteristics (motivational tendencies and personality traits) and protégé outcomes. A motivational approach was taken in the sense that motivation to mentor, as well as personality characteristics of the mentor were considered with regard to their ability to predict the type of mentoring provided and outcomes for the protégé.

Literature review seems to suggest the need for exploring and analysing the possible linkages between the personality characteristics of individuals motivated to mentor others, the type of mentoring inputs they provide and the quality of mentoring outcomes. It would also be instructive to know which
mentor personality characteristics or traits influence the type and quality of mentoring. The researcher understands that, given the available literature on personality and mentoring, a typical set of personality traits could be instrumental in deciding the mentoring activities resorted to by the mentors as well as the quality of mentoring outcomes.

Personality has been conceptualized from a variety of theoretical perspectives, and at various levels of abstraction or breadth (John et al., 1991 and McAdams, 1995). Each of these has made unique contributions to the understanding of individual differences. Some of the researchers reported on the importance of individual differences on the part of mentors in general. Roche (1979) identified certain key personal characteristics that explain the mentors’ power, position, insightfulness and respectability. Hunt and Michael (1983) found that mentors have to be high in self confidence and considerate about the needs and advancement of the mentees while Cronan-Hillix et al. (1986) attempted to differentiate between good and bad mentors in terms of their characteristics.

The Big Five Personality Factors has been considerably debated upon in recent times. Many researchers view the Big Five Factors as useful predictors of outcomes and performances in different contexts (Hogan, 1991; Cortina et al., 1992 and Salgado, 1997). The five personality factors that constitute this model are: 1) Extraversion – sociability, dominance ambition, positive emotionality and excitement – seeking; 2) Agreeableness – cooperation, trustfulness, compliance, and affability; 3) Emotional Stability – lack of anxiety, hostility, depression and personal insecurity; 4) Conscientiousness – dependability, achievement striving and planfulness and 5) Openness to Experience – intellects, creativity, unconventionality and broad-mindedness (Barrick et al., 2001). These personality factors have been shown
to be stable across the lifespan (Conley, 1984 and Costa and McCrae, 1988) and have a genetic influence (Bouchard, 1997). They also consistently emerge despite different measurement approaches, languages, cultures and using ratings from different sources (Digman and Shemelyov, 1996). Barrick et al. (2001) conclude “while there is no universal agreement on the Big Five model, it is a useful taxonomy and currently the one considered most useful in personality research”.

Some of the factors have been pointed out as more predictive than others. The adjectives used to describe the Big Five Factors also reflect the ideal mentor characteristics as seen in the literature. To illustrate, good mentors are described as agreeable, compassionate, people oriented and willing to share their expertise with others; mentors have also been depicted as conscientious, honest and trustworthy, dedicated and achievement oriented, extraverted, confident and effective in communicating with others. Conversely, bad and dysfunctional mentors have been described to be exploitative, dishonest, manipulative and unwilling to help others (Lizzette, 2004). Thus it seems reasonable to adopt the Big Five Factor Taxonomy as a worthwhile framework to unearth the personality implications for the mentors in explaining their initiatives, activities and effectiveness of the outcomes.

It was found that extraversion and neuroticism act as mediators between goals and subjective well being of individuals. Bono et al. (2007) revealed that people high on extraversion and neuroticism react differently to stress, cardiac arousal and performance. Rammstedt (2007) identified an increase in agreeableness and conscientiousness scores with age and that extraversion decreases across the life span of the individual. Females were found to be less emotionally stable or high on neuroticism, agreeableness conscientiousness and openness as compared to their male counterparts. The clearest and largest
effect was found for openness: the more educated the respondents, the higher the self-reported openness. Furthermore, extraversion and conscientiousness proved to be affected by the educational level. Moon et al. (2003) found that neuroticism was not significantly correlated with commitment. After a thorough review of both the personality and mentoring literature, it was thought that the Big Five dimensions were relevant to the current study.

2.12.1 Conscientiousness

Conscientious individual tend to be careful, dependable, thorough, responsible, organized and planful (Barrick and Mount, 1991). “Because highly conscientious people are hardworking, achievement oriented, and perseverant, they tend to do what needs to be done to accomplish work” (LePine and VanDyne, 2001). A number of studies have demonstrated that conscientious individuals tend to be more successful at a variety of tasks due to persistence, self-discipline and achievement orientation. Holland et al. (1993) found that the importance of achievement, working hard and persisting in the face of obstacles is highly related to conscientiousness.

Conscientiousness has been linked to achievement, competence, and discipline. Costa and McCrae (1992) have noted that high conscientiousness is associated with academic and occupational achievements. Additionally, conscientious individuals tend to engage in active planning and problem-solving strategies when they encounter challenging tasks (Watson and Hubbard, 1996). Conscientiousness individuals are known for their strong work ethic, reliability and diligence. Such individuals are likely to engage in activities that support the overall functioning of their organisation and operationalise their sense of duty. These individuals are committed to engage in actions that benefit their organization.
2.12.2 Agreeableness

Individuals who are high on agreeableness tend to be courageous, flexible, trusting, good natured, cooperative, forgiving, empathetic, soft-hearted and tolerant, avoid controversy and differ with others when conflict arises (Wanberg and Kammeyer–Mueller, 2000). Because of these tendencies, they are more likely to have positive interactions with others (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Similarly, Graziano et al. (1996) found that agreeable people minimize interpersonal conflict by being less aggressive or by provoking less aggression in others.

Mentoring, in some cases, constitutes an altruistic activity. Those who engage in mentoring activities may be motivated to mentor out of a willingness to help others, often at the cost of their own time and expense. A number of studies have shown that agreeable individuals may be well suited to the task of providing mentoring function to protégés given that agreeableness, which is considered a socially oriented characteristic (Costa and McCrae, 1992), tends to be related to altruism. In addition, Graziano et al. (1996) suggested that agreeable individuals are motivated to maintain harmonious social relationship with others. It may be that agreeable individuals may be motivated to mentor in order to benefit other students or the university in some manner given that this motive tends to be altruistic in nature. In addition, those who are high on agreeableness tend to be motivated to maintain interpersonal relationships, an important function of the mentoring relationship (Graziano et al., 1996).

2.12.3 Extraversion

Wilson (1981) reports extraverts are more open to social influences, may also be willing to engage in the emotions prescribed by their job roles.
Furthermore, extraverts have the ability to better regulate their emotional expressions, as they have been found to be better at communications. People who are extraverted are sociable, gregarious, assertive, talkative and active (Costa and McCrae, 1992). There is evidence that extraversion is linked with positive peer relations because it consists of characteristics such as sociability, social interest and a preference for social interaction (Elphick et al., 1998). Although there is some debate about the core dimensions of extraversion (e.g.) reward sensitivity: (Lucas et al., 2000); or sociability; (Ashton et al., 2002). Extraversion relates to the individual’s energy levels and positive affectivity, traits that may promote positive and cooperative interactions with others in the course of accomplishing work (LePine and Van Dyne, 2001).

Psychosocial functions seem dependent upon a high level of interpersonal interest in others. Functions (i.e., psychosocial) that “enhance personal development and an increasing sense of competence and self-worth, like role modeling, or friendship, are common to those relationships characterized by considerable interpersonal intimacy” (Kram, 1985, p.9). Mentors who excel in interpersonal situations may feel more comfortable acting as a role model or friend to a protégé because they enjoy interacting with others and may have become proficient at making others feel comfortable and secure. Mentoring is an interpersonal relationship that requires individuals who enjoy engaging others in conversation and seek out relationships with others. Extraverted mentors may spend more time getting to know their protégé, thus strengthening the bond between the two partners. Mentors who are extraverted may be more likely to provide psychosocial functions, which require a high level of social interaction, since they excel in interpersonal relations.
Extraverts are generally positive, social, energetic, joyful and interested in other people (Costa and McCrae, 1992). In addition, research suggests that these individuals tend to be more sympathetic towards others, engage in organizational citizenship behaviors, and place a high value on the company and welfare of others. Extraverted mentors might be motivated to mentor in order to benefit others given that they are generally sympathetic, have positive attitudes and genuinely care about others. Thus, it seems likely that individuals high on extraversion would be more motivated to mentor in order to benefit others since they are generally positive individuals.

2.12.4 Openness

Openness is an important personality facet among the big five personality traits. McCrae and Costa (1985a) say it is one of the most widely researched domain among the personality traits. Intellectual curiosity is an aspect of openness that has long been recognised (Fiske, 1949). McCrae (1987) is also of the same opinion, and says openness is modestly related to measures of intelligence and somewhat more strongly related to measures of divergent thinking, an ability generally thought to contribute to creativity. The elements of openness are active imagination, aesthetic sensitivity, attentiveness to inner feelings, preference for variety and intellectual curiosity. Individuals high on openness are curious about both inner and outer worlds, and their lives are experientially richer. They are willing to entertain novel ideas and unconventional values, and they experience both positive and negative emotions more keenly than do closed individuals (Costa and McCrae, 1992). While men or women who score low on openness tend to be conventional in behaviour and conservative in outlook. They prefer the familiar to the novel, and their emotional responses are somewhat muted. Although openness and closedness may influence the form of psychological
defence used there is no evidence that closedness itself is a generalized
defensive reaction. Instead, it seems likely that closed people should not be
viewed as authoritarians (McCrae and Costa, in press-a).

2.12.5 Neuroticism

Neuroticism was initially designed to measure emotionality (Eysenck et
al., 1964) and has been identified as a major personality dimension by nearly
all subsequent investigators (John, 1990). In adulthood, neuroticism is stable
over time (McCrae and Costa, 1990); high levels are associated with risk for
major depression both cross-sectionally (Hirschfeld and Klerman, 1979 and
Wetzel et al., 1980) and prospectively (Hirschfeld and Klerman, 1979) genetic
risk factors for neuroticism and major depression are closely related.

The general tendency to experience negative effects such as fear,
sadness, embarrassment, anger, guilt and disgust are the core of the
neuroticism domain. Men and women high on neuroticism are prone to have
irrational ideas, to be less able to control their impulses, and to cope less than
others with stress. Individuals who score low on neuroticism are emotionally
stable. They are usually calm, even-tempered, and relaxed and they are able to
face stressful situations without becoming upset or rattled (Costa and McCrae,
1992). Larsen and Ketekar (1991) found that individuals high on neuroticism
were more responsive to a negative affect manipulation than the low scorers.
Further more, regulating personality congruent emotions may also be less
stressful, as Cote and Moskowitz (1998) reported that when individuals high
on neuroticism engaged in trait congruent behaviours, they experienced
increased feelings of well being. When faced with a role requiring the
expression of enthusiasm, however, individuals high on neuroticism may tend
to express only the outward displays of the required positive emotion. Such
outward displays of a personality is incongruent emotion and may also require
individuals high on neuroticism to simultaneously suppress negative affect, which has shown to be stressful (Gross and Levenson, 1997). Individuals high on neuroticism find it difficult and are more stressed when asked to exhibit enthusiasm, while they are more comfortable when asked to exhibit anger/irritation. Across jobs, neuroticism is generally negatively associated with performance, individuals high on neuroticism tend to perform poorly both in positive and negative emotional tasks (Barrick et al., 2001).

Of all the big five personality traits, openness and conscientiousness promise to be of particular interest in the area of educational psychology (McCrae, 1987). Openness is modestly related to measures of intelligence and somewhat more strongly related to measures of divergent thinking, an ability generally thought to contribute to creativity. Conscientious people consider themselves, and are rated by others as being, more intelligent, and scores of this domain is a useful supplement and has the ability to measure predictors of academic and later-life success (McCrae and Costa, 1987).

2.13 Mentoring activities

Mentors decide to utilise planned activities to foster the mentoring relationship and to contribute to a mentee’s personal and professional development. Activities form the basis for developing and maintaining a trusting and caring relationship between mentors and mentees. Regardless of the type of mentoring program, it is important to sponsor a mix of activities that support program goals and encourage interaction among all participants in addition to one-to-one activities. Activities help to foster a sense of community for both mentors and mentees, providing informal support for the mentors and a strong support system for mentees.
Sanghi and Robins (2006) opines that mentoring role includes, coaching, counseling and sponsorship. As a coach, mentors help to develop their protégés skills. As counselor mentors provide support and help bolster their protégés self confidence. As sponsor, mentors actively intervene on behalf of their protégés, lobby to get their protégé’s visible assignment and politic to get their protégé’s reward such as promotions and salary increases.

The way mentoring occurs for mentors and protégés is idiosyncratic. Mentoring for one pair is different from the way mentoring occurs for others (Mary Ann and Nancy Sindelar, 1992). Daloz (1986) suggests that mentors offer their protégés support, challenge and vision. They support their protégé through listening, providing structure, expressing positive expectations, serving as advocate, sharing with their protégés and making it special.

Successful mentors are good teachers. They can present ideas clearly, listen well and empathize with the problems of their protégés. They also share experiences with the protégés, act as role models, share contacts, and provide guidance through the political maze of the organisation. They provide advice and guide on how to survive and get ahead in the organization and act as a sign board for ideas.

Beardwell and Holden (1995) say that a mentor helps the protégé to identify and develop his potential, question and reflect on his performance. The mentor 1) stimulates, 2) encourages, 3) guides, 4) supports, 5) cautions and 6) gives. These activities contribute to the development of the higher order skills needed in life and careers. Alleman and Clarke (2002) found that mentors use a set of specific and identifiable activities. These behaviours can be measured. Mentoring activities are multi-faceted, and contain items assessing nine activity categories characteristic of typical mentors, such as
teach the job, counseling, endorse activities, sponsor, protect, teach politics, career help, challenging tasks, friendship and demonstrate trust. The amount and quality of mentoring activity must be measured, not merely in terms of frequency of contact but what actually happened during that contact and how much mentoring took place.

Mentoring relationship may require both mentor and mentee to engage in challenging activities, utilise new skills and exhibit different behaviour (Pittenger and Heimann, 2000). Although there is an understanding about roles and possible ways to carry out the roles, the nature of the relationships as well as the level of learning varies. To credit the mentoring program with success, however, it is necessary to demonstrate that mentoring activities were also successful. Hence the researcher identified the mentoring activities as the independent variable and chose to study its influence on mentoring effectiveness.

2.14 Effectiveness of mentoring

Informal mentoring is seen as occurring naturally in young people’s lives, through the support they receive from parents, teachers and others, and in the normal course of their lives as they interact with, seek out, learn from and are guided by older people and quite often by peers with more experience.

Formal mentoring seeks to replicate some aspects of this natural mentoring. It aims to provide young people with support and guidance through planned relationships which are purposeful in that they focus on young people’s social and learning development and the purpose of formal mentoring varies with the needs of the students and status in life that they are prepared for.

Mentoring relationships are different from the often numerous professional relationships young people experience e.g., with teachers,
counselors, social workers, where mentors are generally volunteers and there is an emotional and social element to the relationship. However, some professional relationships might include an element of mentoring. Mentoring also differs from role modelling, although it can be regarded as a particular example of role modelling. Role modelling focuses on how the role model is perceived by the young people concerned and the young person’s desired goal, whereas mentoring focuses on explicit action or activities by the mentor to assist the young person to reach their goal. Effective mentoring:

- is a relationship that focuses on the needs of the mentee
- fosters caring and supportive relationships
- encourages all mentees to develop to their fullest potential; and
- is a strategy to develop active partnerships.

This outline of effective mentoring brings together three key elements underlying the rationale for formal mentoring programs for young people. They are: a focus on the young person’s needs; mentoring is essentially about relationships; and the close connection between mentoring and the wider community, whereby effective mentoring both develops and strengthens many levels of community partnerships. There is still much that is not clear about how formal mentoring relations between adults and young people actually work. Perhaps this is not surprising since relationships are one of the most complex aspects of human functioning. It may be that some young people naturally draw support from others, or it may be the involvement of a caring and supportive adult that engages the young person.

Many formal mentoring programs aim to help young people’s learning and/or assist them to make more informed decisions about education, training and employment. Education, training and employment systems have become
more complex. The different options and pathways available offer a greater range of opportunities but they sometimes make it more difficult for young people to make the best informed choices. Some young people have access to resources, through schools, their families and communities, to help them navigate their way through the education and training systems. Many do not. Even those who are relatively well informed sometimes find it difficult to find their way ‘through the system’. In many respects, entering employment now has different challenges than in the past. Young people are generally expected to be ‘work ready’ when they enter employment. The capacity for employers and more experienced workers to provide mentoring and support in the early stages of employment has generally diminished. Colleges generally and B-schools specifically have responded to this reality by putting considerable effort into preparing young people for employment and helping them through the various ‘transition’ points along the way. The available evidence is that well planned and organised formal mentoring programs can provide strong individual support, advice and guidance for young people and help in practical ways at important ‘transitions’ points in their lives. Across the very diverse field of mentoring, and depending on the young person’s needs, some mentoring focuses primarily on the relationship and the journey which the mentor and young person share. Others see the relationship as the basis for a more clearly defined purpose such as helping young people to make more informed decisions in relation to education, work or life, helping them to set personal goals, and helping them to gain work experience and pathways to employment. Whatever the particular focus, the relationship is always the context and the positive impacts of mentoring are likely to be greatly reduced or even harmful when this is not the prime consideration. In practice, the relationship and its purpose are frequently intertwined. In programs with focus on direct assistance or skill development, relationships often reach a new level.
when an emotional and social bond is formed, and in programs built on providing social and emotional support, skills are developed and assistance given as part of the relationship. Mentoring relationships are seen as mutually beneficial and reciprocal, having positive outcomes for mentors as well as mentees.

The effectiveness of a mentoring relationship from the perspective of the mentor may be reflected in a number of factors. An important aspect of mentoring effectiveness is the relationship quality. Relational quality encompasses satisfaction with the relationship, perceived benefits accrued to both individuals (i.e., mutuality), and relational depth (Huston and Burgess, 1979; Hinde, 1981 and Kram, 1985). Kram (1985) discusses how mentorship can vary greatly in terms of quality and depth, suggesting that higher quality relationships are the basis for more effective mentoring relationships.

Cohen (1993) is of the opinion that while the benefits of mentor protégé programmes in higher education have been evaluated, a gap between the professional obligation of faculty mentors to evaluate their own adult psychological competencies with responses from faculty colleagues and protégés needs to be studied to reveal faculty mentor effectiveness in mentoring relationships in higher education. The principles of adult mentoring scale developed by Norman H. Cohen in 1993 for the purpose of assessing the behavioural mentoring functions advocated by prominent adult education scholars is most likely to be significant in relationship between mentors such as faculty, counselors and administrators and their protégés.

The six behavioural mentoring functions of the mentor role and a description of each are as follows: a) relationship emphasis - conveys through active, empathetic listening a genuine understanding and acceptance of
protégé’s feelings. b) information emphasis - directly requests detailed information from and offers specific suggestions to protégés about their current plans and progress in achieving personal, educational and career goals. c) facilitative focus – guides protégés through a reasonably in-depth review of an exploration of their interests, abilities, ideas and beliefs. d) confrontive focus – respectfully challenges protégé’s explanations for, or avoidance of decisions and actions relevant to their development as adult learners. e) mentor - model - shares (self-disclosure) life experience and feelings as a role model to protégés in order to personalize and enrich the relationship. f) student-vision-stimulates protégé’s critical thinking with regard to envisioning their own future and to developing their personal and professional potential.

Jadwick (1997) measured the perceptions of effectiveness between faculty mentors and protégés involved in formal mentoring relationship in higher education. The results revealed that faculty mentors and protégés’ perception of effectiveness resulted in variety of findings for the six behavioural mentoring functions. Relationship emphasis and facilitative focus for faculty mentors and protégés resulted in effective mean scores; information emphasis and student vision mean scores of faculty mentors resulted in less effective mean scores while information emphasis and student vision mean scores of protégés resulted in effective mean scores. Faculty mentors and protégé mean score for confrontive focus resulted in less effective scores while the mentor-model mean score for faculty mentor and protégés revealed very effective scores.

Allen and Eby (2003) focused on mentorship effectiveness from the perspective of the mentor and in identifying factors related to a positive mentoring experience for the mentor. The respondents were members of a professional women’s business association employed in accounting related
occupations. The study revealed that perceived similarity was consistently associated with mentor reports of relationship learning and quality. Mentorship type was not directly related to mentorship effectiveness, but did interact with mentorship duration. There was significant relationship between mentorship duration and mentoring effectiveness for formal mentors and not for informal mentors. Finally the results indicated that it was very important to consider time in the study of mentoring relationships.

Pittenger and Heimann (2000) hold that effective mentoring typically involves role modelling, and so it is important that an organisation has a positive culture with a shared understanding of organisational purpose and objectives. Effective mentoring relationships require good interpersonal skills. So much of the training received in educational institutions and the workplace involves technical, job-related skills, often at the expense of attention to develop other skill areas. In mentoring relationships mentors are expected to provide psychosocial and career support to their mentee (Kram, 1985). Traditionally, studies measuring mentorship effectiveness focus on variables such as promotion rate increases, upward mobility and speed of career advancement (Aryee et al., 1996). For psychosocial outcomes, they tend to focus on factors related to interpersonal relationships such as sense of identity, intimacy, socialisation and commitment (Heimann, 1996). Not all relationships are equally effective. Evidence has indicated that mentoring arrangements are more likely to be successful if they operate within a certain framework, which includes a number of individual and organisational characteristics (Noe, 1988 and Whitely et al., 1992).

2.15 Protégé maturity (transition through mentoring)

Common expectation in any society is that its youth develop certain qualities, attitudes, habits and patterns of behaviour widely recognised as essential
Chapter 2

to their effective assuming and successful enactment of the adult roles. Adolescence, the period in psychosocial development immediately preceding adulthood, invites attention in all societies. By the end of adolescence, the young man or woman is expected to have learned appropriate social roles and skills, and by implication, accept obligations to the community for safeguarding its functions. Among the various developmental tasks to be fulfilled in the transition from adolescence to adulthood are the acquisition of adaptive social and psychological capacities, skills, values, and habits that serve to establish the individual in a culturally appropriate adult role (Taylor et al., 1979; Keefe and Padila, 1987 and Rosenthal, 1987). Psychosocial functions can assist individuals early in their career by developing competence, confidence, and a clear sense of professional identity (Greiman, 2002). According to Hall (1986), the psychosocial functions would serve to “enhance a sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role”. The psychosocial functions include role modeling, counseling, friendship and acceptance. The role modeling function is “demonstrating valued behaviors, attitudes and/or skills that aid the junior in achieving competence, confidence, and a clear professional identity” (Hall, 1986). The counseling function is when a mentor is helpful and offers a confidential forum for exploring personal and professional dilemmas. When a mentor shows “mutual caring and intimacy that extends beyond the requirements of daily work tasks” and is “sharing experiences outside the immediate work setting”, then the friendship function is provided. In realising support related to the acceptance function, a mentor “provides ongoing support, respect, and admiration, which strengthens self-confidence and self-image”.

One of the most important but less studied adaptive psychosocial qualities is responsibility. Early on, Brown and Landsberger (1960) took on the task of definition and measurement of “the sense of responsibility” in
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young workers. More recently studies by Werner and Smith (1982) and have provided us with clear empirical evidence about its importance. They found that responsibility, along with socialisation, achievement, conformity, and communality were the most important personality characteristics in predicting resilience in an adolescent population.

The mentor relationship can significantly enhance psycho-social development in early adulthood and also in the mid-career stage of the more experienced individual (Kram, 1985). An individual who is entering the adult world and the world of work is likely to encounter a variety of developmental tasks that are reflected in concerns about self, career, and family (Bray et al., 1978; Schein, 1978; Super, 1957 and Valliant, 1977).

A young adult, in the first stage of career is likely to be engaged in forming an occupational identity, forming a dream, and forming intimate relationships (Levinson et al., 1978). Learning the ropes of organisational life encompasses the development of requisite technical, interpersonal and political skills, as well as a sense of competence in a particular work context or occupation (Berlew and Hall, 1966; Hall, 1976; Schein and Van Mannen, 1977 and Webber, 1976). Thus the young adult is likely to seek relationships at work that provide opportunities for resolving the dilemmas posed in early adult and career years.

Childhood and adolescence are the periods of growing up and adulthood is a period of settling down to patterns of life and new social expectations. The young adult is expected to play new roles, such as that of spouse, parent, and breadwinner, and to develop new attitudes, interests and values in keeping with the new roles. These make early adulthood period difficult in the life span (Hurlock, 1990). Examination of literature indicates that the psychosocial
qualities of young adults have been studied only sparsely. A study of this developmental phase and its characteristic transformations provides a baseline assessment of previous experience, and as well, possible insights into the adaptive psychological and social capacities involved in the transition to the adult status (Clausen, 1991). This was considered important from the conceptual perspective of the present study and has been treated as the outcome variable.

### 2.16 Learning in mentoring

Humanist approaches to learning recognize the power in every human being to learn in a self-directed way, finding the suitable method and medium for whatever the person desires to learn, with the following beliefs: a) People are ok; they are basically good, b) A person is a whole person, c) Human beings are driven to transform and grow, d) The ‘abundance’ model rather than the ‘deficiency’ one is suitable for personal development and e) Humans operate with a spiritual dimension.

Evolutionary mentoring and life coaching require trust in the client and confidence in the client’s capacity for development. Evolutionary mentors and life coaches hold the belief that clients are fundamentally sincere and desire to change and develop. In addition, humanist principles of learning emphasize the significance of being authentic rather than being impersonal. Rogers (1983) described the conditions for learning and development as ‘person-centered’, a statement that grows from the humanistic belief in the ‘actualizing tendency’ of human beings, the striving towards growth and development present in every person. Rogers offers three conditions for a person-centered climate:

- Congruence, i.e. genuineness, realness, sharing feelings and attitudes rather than opinions and judgments;
Unconditional positive regard (UPR), i.e. acceptance and ‘praising’ of the other;

- Empathy, i.e. understanding of the others’ feelings, experience and attitudes and communicating that understanding.

If teachers can understand the learning styles of individual students, they are in a better position to anticipate their perceptions, their behaviours, understanding and misunderstanding. The way in which a learner prefers to learn is indicative of his learning styles. According to Brookfield (1986), one important element in facilitating adult learning is helping learners to become aware of their learning stages and the idiosyncratic learning styles.

### 2.16.1 Learning cycle

Kolb (1984) developed the concept of a learning cycle; the model suggests that individuals have a learning preference that is located in one of four distinct stages. The most explanatory framework for the evolutionary learning relationship and transaction happening between a mentor and learner seems to follow a learning style, based on Kolb’s learning cycle that proposes four modes of a) learning-concrete experience, b) reflective observation, c) abstract conceptualisation and d) active experimentation. He maintains that a learner would begin learning at any point in the cycle and then continue around the cycle during the learning process. Wolf and Kolb (1984) considered that experiential learning theory offers a model of learning and adaptation processes that reflect the stages of human growth and development and are consistent with human cognition. An individual learns from concrete experience through the reflection on the experiences from a number of perspectives. The individual then reforms learning on the basis of that reflection and then test out their learning through discussions and problem
solving. A learning style has been defined as a distinctive and habitual manner of acquiring knowledge, skills or attitudes through study or experience (Sadler-Smith, 1999). Woood (1997) believes that using these learning styles inventory to pair mentors to protégés may generate a useful dialogue on the similarities and differences between the parties. It may allow them to focus discussions on the learning process that will take place. Woood further explains that an examination of the learning styles will offer an insight to the mentor as to how to coach the protégé or provide an indicator of how the mentor could further develop the protégé’s ability to learn from experience. In a mentoring situation each stage demands deliberate attention before moving on to the next. Following the cycle can ease an individual out of a constant pattern of ‘doing’ without improving, by setting aside time for reflection and creativity. Many cultures influence people to skip the reflection stage, partly because of the assumption about the way people should spend their time. If someone is reflecting it is considered perfectly acceptable to interrupt because “they’re not doing anything”. In the abstract conceptualisation phase ideas and possibilities for action are created by looking for links between potential actions and patterns of behaviour.

Reflection and experimentation require an element of risk-taking; a mentee risks being shown as wrong about a solution and the mentor risks in having supported something which may not work out. However, if these risks are not taken, practice will never move on, and people/services will not grow and develop. Inherent in this approach is that experimentation is seen as an opportunity for growth and development. It follows then, that mistakes are seen as opportunities for growth and learning and not as opportunities to blame.
2.16.2 Stages of learning

Honey and Mumford (1992) have adopted a learning cycle approach to indicate four stages of the learning process as visualised below.

The activists are ‘here and now’, gregarious, seeks challenge and immediate experience, open minded, bored with implementation and long-term consolidation, and constantly involve themselves with other people (Mumford, 1995).

The reflector likes to stand back and review experiences from different perspectives; collect data and analyse them before coming to a conclusion; likes to consider all possible angles and indications before making a move; tends to be cautious; enjoys observing other people in action; often takes back seat in meetings (Mumford, 1995).

The theorists are keen on assumptions, principles, theories, models and system thinking; praise rationality and logic; tend to be detached and analytical; are unhappy with the subjective or ambiguous; are tidy and fit tasks into rational skills (Mumford, 1995).
The pragmatists search out new ideas or techniques which might apply in their situation; take the first opportunity to experiment with applications; respond to problems and opportunities as a challenge; are keen to use relevant ideas from management courses; like to get on with things with clear purpose (Mumford, 1995).

The four different learning styles are strongly associated with four stages of the learning cycle and researchers have suggested that if the learning styles of the coach or mentor and the learners are similar, the relationship will be more rewarding.

2.17 Social learning

Researchers (Erkut and Mokros, 1984) have noted that social learning theory or social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) provides theoretical foundations for construing changes that happen in mentoring. Bandura’s theory focuses on cognitive concepts, the way children and adults operate on their social experiences and how these cognitions then influence behaviour and development. Bandura introduced the notion of modeling or vicarious learning as a form of social learning. In 1986, Bandura renamed, Social Learning Theory to Social Cognitive Theory, with the introduction of concepts including self-efficacy. The Social Cognitive Theory defines human behaviour as a triadic, dynamic, and reciprocal interaction of personal factors, behaviour, and the environment.

Jones (1989) suggested that the Social Cognitive Theory determines the mind as an active force that constructs one’s reality, selectively encodes information, performs behaviour on the basis of values and expectations, and imposes structure on its own actions. Through feedback and reciprocity, a person’s own reality is formed by the interaction of the environment
(including other people, mentors) and one’s cognitions. Also, cognitions change over time as a function of maturation and experience (McCormack Brown, 1998). Therefore, through an understanding of the process involved in one’s construction, human behaviour can be understood, predicted, and changed.

Bandura (1989) further noted that human beings are able to model observed behaviour through cognitive processes. Symbols provide the mechanism that allows for cognitive problem solving and foresighted action. Observational learning allows one to develop a concept of how a new behaviour is formed without actually performing the behaviour. Also, the observer is most likely to attend to, and model behaviours of people that are most like themselves and those that they associate with the most. Bandura (1986) believed that modeling was an important way of teaching people overt behaviour and also one of the most powerful means of transmitting values, attitudes, and patterns of thought and behaviour. Further, the theorist believed people could learn not only by imitating the overt behaviour of others, but also by observing how others were affected by situations that occurred in their lives. Reciprocally, the vicarious success experience of others provides incentives for individuals to undertake challenges. Bandura also noted that expectations of behavioural outcomes, more so than actual outcomes, influence the likelihood that behaviour will be performed again. While social learning theory describes the role of modeling in learning, it does not deal with other aspects of mentoring such as professional or emotional support (Jacobi, 1991).

### 2.17.1 Self – Efficacy

Bandura (1994) defined self-efficacy as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine
how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. They set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. They approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to depression.

Bouffard-Bouchard et al. (1991) corroborated Collins’ (1982) finding that students with stronger belief in their efficacy were able to solve more problems, rework those in which they failed, and work more accurately than children of equal ability with less self-efficacy.

Bandura (1997) further noted that efficacy beliefs are intimately involved in the cultivation of cognitive competencies. These mediators include cognitive, motivational, affective, and selective processes. Bandura found three ways in which efficacy beliefs operate as contributors to the development of cognitive competencies governing academic achievement: student’s beliefs in their efficacy to master different academic subjects; teachers’ beliefs in their personal efficacy to motivate and promote learning in
their students; and faculties’ collective sense of efficacy that their students can accomplish significant academic progress.

Schunk (1996) found that although efficacy beliefs are influenced by acquisition of cognitive skills, it is not a reflective concept. Accordingly, several factors may account for the predictive superiority of efficacy belief over acquired skills. Subjects vary in how they interpret, store, and recall their successes and failures. They evaluate social influences that contribute to efficacy beliefs independently of skills. Academic performances are the products of cognitive capabilities applied through motivational and other self-regulatory skills. Schunk concluded that perceived self-efficacy is a better predictor of intellectual performance than skills alone. Bandura and Schunk (1981) noted that perceived efficacy impacts directly on academic performance by affecting quality of thinking and effective use of acquired skills, and indirectly by heightening persistence in the search for solutions. The motivational link was convincingly demonstrated when efficacy beliefs were altered by arbitrary means without changing skills. Other researchers (Brown and Inouye, 1978 and Lyman et al., 1984) confirmed that individuals with high efficacy were persisters in trying to solve intractable or insoluble intellectual problems.

Further, researchers (Pajares et al., 1995; Pajares and Kranzler, 1995 and Pajares and Miller, 1994) found that efficacy beliefs play an influential mediating role in academic achievement. These factors included level of cognitive ability, prior educational preparation and attainment, gender, and attitudes toward academic activities.

Bandura (1991) found that those who do not set improvement goals are outperformed by those who set themselves goals for progressive improvement accompanied by feedback. Informative feedback enables one to achieve progress
leading to beliefs of personal efficacy not evident by level of performance attainments. Schunk and Swartz (1993) verified the benefits of combining training in strategies with feedback of progress in mastering them particularly where transferred skills are necessary. Locke and Latham (1990) identified that self-set goals increase satisfaction but do not improve performance over assigned goals. Researchers further noted that increased perceived efficacy is accompanied by higher academic attainments (Bandura, 1997).

In the area of social cognitive theory, Bandura (1997) adopted an ecological perspective on the contribution of efficacy beliefs to cognitive and social development. Family, education and peer influences operate as multiple interacting influences in shaping the student’s development.

At the university level, students need to choose which education directions to pursue and assume responsibility for their own learning. Students who have a high sense of efficacy are more successful in regulating their learning and achieve better academically than those who are uncertain about their intellectual capabilities (Pintrich and Schrauben, 1992). Multon et al. (1991) meta-analysis of academic achievement provided conclusive evidence showing that efficacy beliefs contribute significantly to scholastic performance. This was supported by other researchers (Shell et al., 1989) who found that beliefs in personal efficacy have substantially greater impact on academic performance than the personal, social, and occupational outcomes expected for proficient performance. Lent et al. (1993) suggested that students’ beliefs in their academic efficacy mediate the relationship between ability and educational goals and achievements. For the institutions, teachers, or researchers, these findings suggest that the development of scholarly careers, mastery experiences, modeling of strategies, and supportive feedback should be structured in ways that build a clear and strong sense of efficacy.
Researchers (Suls, 1986 and Wei, 1994) suggested that social comparison theory would support self-efficacy. They examined the process of seeking out people who are similar to help evaluate themselves. In this process, according to Suls (1986), individuals make causal attributions regarding beliefs or abilities on a given task.

2.17.2 Self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to how favourably individuals evaluate themselves (Brokner, 1988 and Tourban and Dougherty, 1994). High self-esteem individuals perceive themselves more positively and believe they are more capable and competent to cope with different situations and tasks (Brockner, 1988 and Tourban and Dougherty, 1994) as success experiences are attributed to a strong expectancy of further success (Dreher and Bretz, 1991).

2.18 Pygmalionism

According to Appelbaum et al. (1994) expectancy theory helps to suggest that “behavior is a function of a person’s expectancies about the future and the value of future outcomes”. An obvious manifestation of expectancy theory is the process of self-fulfilling prophecy.

In an organisation, leaders may hold prophecy or expectation about subordinates, and that subordinates may behave in such a way as to realize those expectations. Obviously, there can be self fulfilling prophecies that are detrimental or beneficial. To an individual or for the organization, the constructive management of self fulfilling prophecy is one way to enhance job satisfaction and employee motivation; and mentoring is one way to manage self fulfilling prophecy constructively. Another term for self fulfilling prophecy is the Pygmalion effect derived from Greek mythology. Mentoring is a typical example of the Pygmalion effect. In this particular case the mentor must act as
a possible Pygmalion to rate the process effectiveness. A positive Pygmalion is a mentor and must provide the climate, feedback, input and output so that all subordinates are given opportunities to experience satisfaction and realize their potential. If leaders want of encourage productivity, and satisfaction through self-fulfilling prophecy, they must accept mentoring as a viable leadership technique. According to Livingston (2003), Pygmalion effect is one of the missing links in the mentoring/leadership relationship. Most parents are aware that the teachers’ expectations about individual children become self-fulfilling prophecies; if a teacher believes a child is slow, the child will come to believe that and will indeed learn slowly. The lucky child who strikes a teacher as bright also picks up on that expectation and will rise to fulfill it. This finding has been confirmed so many times, and in such varied settings, that is no longer debated. The powerful influence of one’s expectations on another’s behaviour has long been recognised by physicians and behavioural scientists, and more recently, by teachers.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) of Harvard university demonstrated that a teacher’s expectation for a pupils intellectual competence can come to serve as an educational self-fulfilling prophecy. The early years in a business organisation when young people can be strongly influenced by management expectations, are critical in determining future performance and career progress. Berlew and Hall (1964) studied the career records of 18 college graduates who were hired as management trainees in one of AT and T’s operating companies and found that both expectations and performance in the first year correlated consistently with later performance and success.

In Rotters’ (1982, 1975) view, behaviour is a function of the expectation that the actions will lead to a particular reinforcement. People who perceive
events as determined by themselves perform better than to people who perceive events as controlled by chance (Ryckman, 1997).

2.19 Mentoring models

Incorporating elements of Kram’s psychosocial phases of mentoring, Schockett et al. (1983) Network Mentoring Model focuses on the ways in which the mentor and protégé operate, which are mutually affirming and empowering.

**A MODEL OF MENTORING**

Source: Schockett et al. (1983).

In this model, the initiation phase begins as the mentor provides education and role modeling for the protégé. The mentor’s subsequent undertaking of the function of sponsoring involves the risk of greater commitment to the protégé which marks the onset of the cultivation phase. As mentor and protégé actively engage in the functions which emerge during the cultivation phase, their relationship grows stronger and correspondingly the overall width and breadth of the mentoring functions expand. As the mentor provides later appearing functions, however, less time may be allotted to some of the earlier functions, which will eventually disappear altogether. The functions continue to progress and decline during the separation phase at which time ambivalence is experienced as mentor and protégé begin a process
of psychological disengagement. By the time the relationship has progressed to the redefinition phase, the primary function of the mentor is one of moving from a transitional figure to a friend/peer.

This model, while incorporating Kram’s psychosocial functions of initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition, reconceptualizes them to correspond in a manner which emphasizes the shifting nature of the mentor/protégé relationship. That is at any time during the relationship, the mentor may become a protégé, while the protégé becomes the mentor. Thus, “connected knowing” strategies are encouraged rather than those which support the more “traditional” roles of mentor and protégé discussed earlier. Generally, the ways in which mentors and protégés might together construct the experience have not received much attention. Although the literature, much of which focuses on mentoring relationships in business, industry and higher education, has acknowledged the importance of consensus between the mentor and protégé on the goals and objectives of the relationship, an implied acceptance of the unequal distribution of power has existed in which the mentor identifies the “promising” protégé whom he/she then agrees to enculturate into the norms of the organization. This perspective ignores the protégé’s “connections” which pre-date the mentoring relationship. It also assumes that altruism on the part of the mentor is the sole rationale guiding selection of the protégé. The networks and resources of the protégé which the mentor finds attractive are overlooked.

More recent research on career advancement mentoring (Henderson, 1990 and Mertz et al., 1990) suggests the importance reciprocity in the mentoring relationship. In this research, the authors found that potential mentors considered access to the networks of a prospective protégé a significant factor in their decision to mentor. Certainly this was true in examinations of more traditional same-sex
mentoring relationships involving white males in which the perceived potential of the protégé to open previously inaccessible networks or to create new networks for the mentor constituted an important selection criterion. It is the protégé’s co-equal ability to bring something of value to the mentoring relationship which is a major component of this Network Mentoring Model.

In a sense, network mentoring shares many of the characteristics described in the Holland (1995) and Heinrich (1995) studies. In both cases, protégés who described satisfying mentoring relationships were engaged in developmental relationships which went beyond the concept of the mentor/protégé dyad. A developmental relationship is one that provides support for an individual’s professional development and career enhancement. It is also a relationship in which the parties have knowledge of one another and from which both may potentially benefit. Thus developmental relationships are separated from connections to “heroes” after whom individuals may model themselves but with whom they do not have personal relationships, and form only temporary instrumental relationships that are of very short duration and require no mutuality between the parties (Thomas and Kram, 1987).

2.19.1 Hay’s mentoring model

Hay’s (1995) transformational mentoring model of seven stages emphasizes the quality of a relationship that recognizes and values the subjective, adopts humanistic principles and, because of its person-centered approach, promotes transformation. The relationship is defined as a developmental alliance, and the holographic model (for one session or the entire relationship) is in seven ‘a’ stages:

- alliance – getting to know each other and establishing a contract, the all-important building of a relationship within agreed boundaries.
• assessment – a reminder of Dicken’s character Fagin, who assessed the situation’, including the context and the ‘dream’.
• analysis – a chance to see things differently and become aware of potential opportunities and problems.
• alternatives – exploring options, even silly ones, and challenging or conforming.
• action planning – what each means and selection.
• application – how to proceed.
• appraisal – review the actions from last session.

2.20 Insights gained

Sufficient insight into the topic of study has been gathered from the aforesaid review of literature consisting of concepts, theories, models and review of previous studies. Mentoring constitutes a unique and personal relationship between two people - one who has achieved a certain level of experience on one side and on the other side one who is aspiring for a higher level.

Historically, participation in mentoring relationships was a common practice as an aid in vocational development. In the old university, a student learned in the [teacher's] home, the knight passed on the warrior's skills to a novice, and in the studio the master helped the young artist to develop. Master-apprentice, physician-intern, teacher-student are often mentoring-type connections. Unlike serving as a role model, which does not require any direct exchange, a mentor assumes active responsibility for the development to others an advisory/support based dyadic relationships that facilitate access to positions of leadership. The mentor-protégé dyad appears to be most intense or emotionally charged hierarchical, parental, exclusionary, and elitist type of relationship.
Mentoring has been a relationship of choice for professional development in the business arena for many years. A mentoring relationship involves a more experienced professional serving as a supportive and guiding role model for another professional who is less experienced in the field. Mentoring has also become a focus in the educational sphere. Graduate students are encouraged to seek out a mentor. New and junior faculty receives similar messages. Female students and female faculty are advised to solicit the help of a mentor to open doors they may be unable to penetrate on their own. This mentoring relationship can take place in a formal or informal setting, depending upon the goals of the organization.

Formal mentoring involves a structured and organized plan set out by an educational institution or organisation in identifying a mentor, match the mentor with an inexperienced protégé be it a student, apprentice or a worker, and then provide guidelines on how the mentor should assume the mentoring role. Growing interest in the potential benefits of mentoring relationships has led to an increase in the number of research studies devoted to the topic. Many of these studies focus on corporations and businesses and, in academy, on the relationship between faculty and students.

The term ‘mentoring’ has surged into the literature in many disciplines (e.g., sociology, social psychology, education, management, social work, healthcare management, etc.) over the last several decades. Mentoring emerged in the organizational literature in the late 1970s, since then, hundreds of books and articles (popular press, practitioner-oriented, and academic) have been published on mentoring in various organizational settings alone, not to mention other settings in which mentoring has been examined (e.g., teaching, nursing, social work, etc.). An examination of over 200 practitioner and academic journal articles in the field of
management alone revealed that most definitions in the literature of mentoring, stated or implied, include sponsor or sponsoring as inherent in mentoring.

The theme of mentoring relationships has been widely discussed in the literature from the perspectives of the developmental sequence or phases of mentoring; differences between formal and informal and, mentoring with non-dominant groups, and characteristics in both the mentor and the protégé that promote positive mentoring. It also includes a few articles that have identified interactive qualities of relationships. These promising works have explored the qualities of altruism and other-oriented empathy; listening to, caring about, and cooperating with one another; friendship, modeling, acceptance, confirmation, and counseling; and authenticity and mutual gain.

Of all the potential mentor-protégé dyad combinations in academe, the relationship between professor and student often receives exclusive attention, and many of the mentoring studies in the field of higher education focus on these relationships. Although results from these studies can be useful in understanding the nature of mentoring among faculty, studies specifically examining the extent, nature, and benefits of participation in teacher student mentoring relationships appear necessary and relevant.

Earlier studies of faculty mentoring relationships isolated the importance of a collaborative or ‘hands-on’ model of mentorship and the resulting outcomes of academic productivity, advancement, and ongoing professional development for the protégé. Mostly all these studies have been descriptive, indicating the exploratory nature of the field as an area for research. One exception was a study in which 25 mentoring pairs were established for the purposes of analyses. While supporting earlier findings of improved
professional development of mentored versus non-mentored new faculty, it also focused on the dynamics of formalizing the mentoring process.

Although the benefits of mentoring are widely discussed, the actual practice of it among faculty may be hindered for a variety of reasons, many of them unique to the academic culture. At most of the universities, there are no specific incentives for the faculty to be mentors. If there are promotion requirements that include mentoring, they rarely reward faculty for being good mentors or give them any reason for trying to improve their performance.

Even at universities, where mentoring is valued and recognized, it is still up to individual faculty members to take the initiative. In a societal culture, and in an academic culture, where enormous value is placed upon individualism, autonomy, and or trivial, the success of mentoring cannot be ensured through textbook implementation, but by a genuine desire for all members involved, management, mentors and mentees, to make the program work in their environment.

The functions of mentoring have been explored within the areas of career development, psychosocial dimensions, and role modeling. Psychosocial mentoring functions operate at an interpersonal level and can assist protégés in developing healthy self-images of their academic and nonacademic selves. It is important to note that mentoring involves a constellation of activities that goes beyond advising or guiding a student through a project. Instead it involves a variety of ways for assisting and supporting students through their graduate careers and beyond. Influencing protégés on a personal level, psychosocial functions of mentoring include such behaviors as demonstrating positive regard, being friendly, role modeling, acceptance, confirmation, and counseling.

In an academic setting, this might reflect itself in such activities as helping balance career and family responsibilities, providing encouragement, and
demonstrating sensitivity and concern. Career functions of mentoring operate at organizational and system levels, usually referring to the more objective aspects of mentoring that assist protégés in entering and navigating organizational structures. Academically, this may include activities such as educating the protégé on negotiating organizational barriers, assisting in research and scholarship, including the protégé in significant professional activities, making the protégé known to others, helping in the development of professional goals and priorities, and giving concrete assistance in new tasks. Education institutions have now taken to mentoring as a possible intervention, despite the lack of accepted empirical evidence on the effect of mentoring in education.

The review of literature and the insights gained there from resulted in a conceptual understanding of the phenomenon of mentoring and motivated the researcher to propose a mentoring process model for evaluating the effectiveness of formal and teacher initiated student mentoring programme in B-schools. The model included hypothesized interlink-ages among the following constructs of formalisation of mentoring, socio-demographic variables, personality facets of mentors, mentoring activities, effectiveness of mentoring and assessed protégé maturity as an outcome. The researcher perceived a robust and workable framework involving these variables and the study progressed with the direction typically offered by the framework. The following chapter on conceptual framework provides a vivid idea of the framework and the variables considered significant in the study.