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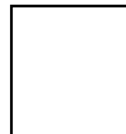

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Learning from Type?

An Evaluation of the Impact of Personality Type and Relationship Context in Formal Mentoring Relationships

Susan M. McWhirr

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Robert Gordon University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

September 2016

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my mother, Lesley Miller.

Acknowledgements

It is usual to acknowledge the support of those who have contributed in some way to the completion of a doctoral thesis. It has not been possible to include everyone by name; however, I would like to mention the particular support of some.

My Principal Supervisor, Professor Rita Marcella, has been a constant source of support throughout the research process and writing of this thesis. I have greatly appreciated her patience, understanding and advice during the last five years. In addition, I would like to thank the other members of my supervisory team: Anne Stevenson and Professor Seonaidh McDonald. Both have provided invaluable feedback and guidance in the latter stages of this endeavour.

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My parents have helped in many ways during the research. My father has always been a prominent educational and professional role model; his sense of curiosity, work ethic and the passion he has for his own subject area have been influential throughout my life. My mother, who did not see the completion of this project, provided unwavering practical and emotional support during every stage of my education. She helped me throughout my life to “have it all” by supporting the management of my family, work and study commitments as well as my many crises of confidence. I cannot thank them both enough.

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Susan Miller McWhirr

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Abstract

This thesis explores the impact of mentor and mentee personality type in formal mentoring relationships. The research sought to identify whether there were individual personality characteristics which impact on relationship dynamics and the learning derived from these relationships. The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was used to identify personality type thus ensuring that the research had practical utility in organisations. Twelve mentoring dyads from public, private and third sector mentoring initiatives participated in the study which adopted an exploratory and qualitative methodology. Multiple methods were used to collect data and an analysis framework was developed, using Activity Theory tenets, to synthesise the different data sets and create narratives of each mentoring relationship.

The thesis argues that by enhancing understanding of Type Theory in mentoring relationships, informal learning can be enhanced for mentors and mentees. The research shows how informal learning within mentoring dyads often stems from social comparison and thus differences between mentor and mentee can provide a medium for learning in the workplace. The findings suggest that this will be particularly pertinent for mentors. In addition, the study conclusions highlight the value of using the MBTI to support mentoring relationship development thus enhancing the potential for further learning. The research finds that individual differences will determine the extent to which relationships operate on a traditional, peer or reverse level and not demographic differences as suggested in the extant literature. Furthermore, common personality preferences were identified in individuals who are drawn to the role of mentor and an initial framework for a typology of mentoring relationships was developed.

There were two main limitations of the research. First, the study employed a cross-sectional design which resulted in data being collected from participants at different stages of the mentoring relationship. The second limitation concerned the small sample size. Whilst sample size is less relevant in qualitative research, the study sample cannot be considered representative of all formal mentoring programmes or even the programmes studied. The intention was to identify informative cases which would address the research objectives and this was subsequently achieved.

The research has contributed to the body of mentoring knowledge by drawing theory from one academic field into another. The findings provide new insights into individual differences and mentoring relationship dynamics thus adding to a sparse area of knowledge in mentoring research.

Further, the findings challenge some of the assumptions implicit in the extant literature and highlight the need to examine the construct of mentoring from a broader social science perspective.

Keywords

Formal mentoring, Mentor, Individual differences, Relationship dynamics, MBTI, Type Theory, Learning, Human Resource Development

Contents

Dedication ii

Acknowledgements ii

Contents v

List of Tables xii

List of Figures xiii

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms xiv

Chapter 1 – Introduction 1

1.0 Introduction 1

1.1 Provenance of the Research 1

1.2 Rationale 4

1.3 Research Aim and Objectives 6

1.3.1 Research Objectives 6

1.3.2 Research Questions 7

1.4 Structure of the Thesis 7

Chapter 2 – Review of the Literature 10

2.0 Introduction 10

2.1 Mentoring in Organisations 11

2.2 The Concept of Mentoring 12

2.3 Definition of Formal Mentoring 14

2.4 Organisational Context 15

2.4.1 Cultural Context 16

2.4.2 Structural Context 16

2.5 Formal Mentoring Interventions 17

2.5.1 The Mentoring Scheme 18

2.5.2 The Professional Mentor 19

2.6 Mentoring Relationship Types 20

2.7 Mentoring and Learning 22

2.7.1 Theories of Learning 22

2.7.2 Mentoring Outcomes 25

2.7.2.2 Organisational Outcomes 27

2.7.2.3 Negative Mentoring Outcomes 27
2.8 Individual Differences and Mentoring 30
2.9 Individual Antecedents 31
2.9.1 Mentee Behaviours 31
2.9.2 Mentor Behaviours 32
2.9.3 Mentor Functions 33
2.9.4 Negative Mentoring Behaviours 34
2.9.5 Personality Antecedents 34
2.9.6 Psychometric Testing 35
2.10 The Mentoring Relationship 36
2.10.1 Theoretical Perspectives 37
2.10.2 Social Exchange Theory 38
2.10.3 Prosocial Behaviour 38
2.10.4 Attachment Theory 39
2.11 Relationship Dynamics 40
2.11.1 Compatibility 41
2.11.2 Similarity 41
2.11.3 Values and Ethics 42
2.12 Psychological Type and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator 43
2.13 Theory of Psychological Type 43
2.14.1 The Four Preference Pairs 46
2.14.2 MBTI and Preference 47
2.14.3 Reliability and Validity of MBTI 47
2.15 Applications of Type 50
2.15.1 Organisational Type 51
2.16 Individual Differences 53
2.17 MBTI and Approaches to Learning 54
2.18 MBTI and Mentoring 57
2.19 Chapter Summary 58

Chapter 3 – Methodological Approach 61
3.0 Introduction 61
3.1 The Research Questions 61
3.1.1 Study Aim 61
3.1.2 Research Objectives 61

3.1.3 Research Questions 62
3.2 Philosophical Context....63
3.3 Theoretical Perspective....64
3.4 The Research Approach 66
3.5 The Reflexive Researcher....67
3.6 Strategy 68
3.6.1 Case Study Design 68
3.6.2 Methods 69
3.6.3 Choice of Methods 70
3.6.4 Pilot Case Studies 71
3.6.5 Pilot Findings 72
3.6.6 The Revised Plan....73
3.7 Research Design 74
3.7.1 Selecting the Participants....76
3.7.1.1 Selection of the Research Population 76
3.7.1.2 Sampling Procedures....77
3.7.1.3 Selection of Participants 77
3.7.2 Revised methods 79
3.7.2.1 The Approach to the Literature 79
3.7.2.2 Semi-structured Interviews....80
3.7.2.3 Interview Design and Administration 81
3.7.2.4 Conducting the Interviews 82
3.7.2.5 Interview Bias....83
3.8 Psychometric Testing 84
3.8.1. The Myer-Briggs Type Indicator 84
3.8.2 The Four Preference Pairs 85
3.8.3 Reliability and Validity of the MBTI....85
3.8.4 Online Administration 86
3.8.5 MBTI Bias....86
3.9 Document Analysis....87
3.10 Approach to the Analysis 87
3.10.1 Need for an Analytic Strategy 89
3.10.2 The Initial Stages 89
3.10.3 Finding a Framework 90

3.10.4 Creating the Framework......93
3.10.5 A Narrative Approach......94
3.11 Methodology – A Critical Reflection......96
3.11.1 Generalisability......96
3.11.2 Reliability and Validity......97
3.11.3 Ethical Implications......98
3.11.4 Study Limitations......99
3.12 Credibility......101

Chapter 4 – Results......102
4.0 Introduction......102
4.1 Participant Description......102
4.2.1 Learning Style......107
4.3 Mentoring Relationship Type......109
4.4 Organisational Approaches to Mentoring......111
4.4.1 Approach One......111
4.4.2 Approach Two......112
4.4.3 Approach Three......112
4.4.4 Approach Four......113
4.5 Mentoring Relationship Narratives......114
4.5.1 The Sensing-Feeling Mentors......115
4.5.1.1 Mentoring Relationship One: "The One-sided Affair" (SF Mentee)......115
4.5.1.2 Mentoring Relationship Two: "The Co-dependent Partner" (ST Mentee)......119
4.5.2 The Intuitive–Thinking Mentors......122
4.5.2.1 Mentoring Relationship Eight: "The Moral Dilemma" (SF Mentee)......122
4.5.2.2 Mentoring Relationship Five: "The Hero" (ST Mentee)......127
4.5.2.3 Mentoring Relationship Twelve: "The In-crowd and the Outsider" (ST Mentee)......131
4.5.2.4 Mentoring Relationship Eleven: "The Equals" (NF Mentee)......136
4.5.2.5 Mentoring Relationship Three: "The Relief Teacher" (NT Mentee)......140
4.5.2.6 Mentoring Relationship Four: "The Team Coach" (NT Mentee)......144
4.5.2.7 Mentoring Relationship Seven: "The Bromance" (NT Mentee)......148
4.5.2.8 Mentoring Relationship Nine: "The Perfect Match?" (NT Mentee)......151
4.5.2.9 Mentoring Relationship Ten: "The Life Coach" (NT Mentee)......155
4.5.3 The Intuitive-Feeling Mentors......159
4.5.3.1 Mentoring Relationship Six: "The College Roommate" (ST Mentee)......159
4.6. Summary of Reported Mentor Behaviours and Outcomes......163

4.7 Summary of Reported Mentoring Learning Outcomes....165
4.8 Chapter Conclusion....169

Chapter 5 – Discussion....170

5.0 Introduction....170
5.1 The MBTI Profiles....170
5.1.1 The Self-Report Data....174
5.2 Mentoring Context....175
5.2.1 Approaches to Mentoring....176
5.2.2 Mentoring Relationship Type....177
5.3 Individual Differences in Mentors....180
5.3.1 The Intuitives....180
5.3.2 The Sensers....181
5.3.3 The Idealist Profile....182
7.3.4 Motivation to Mentor....182
5.3.5 Mentor Behaviours and MBTI....186
5.3.5.1 Direction....187
5.3.5.2 Structure....187
5.3.5.3 Function....188
5.4 Individual Differences in Mentees....191
5.4.1 Motivation to Participate....191
5.5 Relationship Dynamics....193
5.5.1 Similarity....193
5.5.1.1 Learning Style....193
5.5.1.2 Attraction and Liking....194
5.5.1.3 Differences....196
5.5.2 Conflict....197
5.5.3 Learning Goals....199
5.5.4 Attitudes and Beliefs....201
5.5.5 Mentoring Relationship Closure....203
5.6 Learning Outcomes....205
5.6.1 Individual Outcomes....205
5.6.1.1 Mentor Outcomes....208
5.6.2 Organisational Outcomes....210

5.6.3 Type Dynamics and Learning Outcomes 211
5.7 Chapter Summary 213

Chapter 6 – Conclusions and Implications 216
6.1 Learning from Type? 217
6.2 The Role of Personality Type in Mentoring Relationships 218
6.3 MBTI Typology and Mentoring Relationship Dynamics 219
6.3.1 Individual Differences and Motivation 220
6.3.2 Individual Differences and Compatibility 220
6.3.3 MBTI and Learning Outcomes 222
6.4 Using MBTI in Formal Mentoring Interventions 224
6.5 The Mentoring Context 224
6.6 A Typology of Mentoring Relationships 225
6.7 Original Contribution to Knowledge 228
6.7.1 Theoretical Contribution 228
6.7.2 Methodological Contribution 230
6.8. Recommendations 231
6.8.1 Implications for HRD practice 231
6.8.1.1. Mentoring Intervention Design 231
6.8.1.2 The Matching Process 232
6.8.1.3 Enhancing Learning in Formal Mentoring Relationships 232
6.8.1.4 The Role of the HRD Practitioner 233
6.8.2 Suggestions for Future Research 233

References 235
Appendix 1: Reflexive Account 268
Appendix 2: The Researcher's MBTI Profile – INFP 271
Appendix 3: Purposive Sampling Criteria 272
Appendix 4: The Interview Script 273
Appendix 5: Interview Script (Mentor 7/Multiple Mentees) 276
Appendix 6: Participant Information Sheet 279
Appendix 7: Consent Form 282

Appendix 8: Demographic Data Capture Form 283
Appendix 9: Sixteen MBTI Profile Summaries..284
Appendix 10: Document Summary Form...287
Appendix 11: Mentor and Mentee Profile Summaries 288

List of Tables

Table	Title	Page No.
1	Relationship Between Four of the Big Five Factors and MBTI	35
2	MBTI National Normative Sample of UK Adults	54
3	Mentor Demographics	103
4	Mentee Demographics	103
5	Numeric Values of Preferences	104
6	Dyad MBTI Data	106
7	Clarity of Reported Type Preferences	106
8	Dyad Learning Style Comparison	108
9	Narrative Groupings	114
10	Reported Mentoring Behaviours and Outcome Type	163
11	Summary of Reported Mentoring Outcomes	165

List of Figures

Figure	Title	Page No.
1	Development of the Initial Research Idea	2
2	Further MBTI Questions	3
3	The Structure of the Thesis	9
4	European and US Models of Mentoring	13
5	Stages of the Mentoring Relationship	37
6	Jung's Eight Mental Functions	45
7	Jung's Personality Type Matrix	46
8	The Four MBTI Preference Pairs	47
9	Four Ideal Organisations and the Jungian Dimensions	53
10	Kolb's Learning Cycle	56
11	Characteristics of Learners by Psychological Type	57
12	The Four Elements	63
13	The Choice of Methods	70
14	The Pilot Study Data Sources	71
15	The Research Strategy	75
16	The Approach to the Literature	80
17	The Four MBTI Preference Pairs	84
18	Nested Diagram of the Study Data Sets	88
19	An Activity System	91
20	The Analysis Process	93
21	Structural Analysis Categories	95
22	External Mentoring Relationship Dyads	109
23	Internal Mentoring Relationship Dyads	110
24	Professional Mentoring Relationship Dyads	110
25	A Typology of Mentoring Relationships	227

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AT	Activity Theory
BF	Best Fit Type
E	*Extraversion*
F	*Feeling*
HRD	Human Resource Development
I	*Introversion*
J	*Judging*
MBTI	Myers Briggs Type Indicator
N	*Intuition*
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OD	Organisational Development
OPP	Oxford Psychologist Press
P	*Perceiving*
S	*Sensing*
SA	Self-Assessed Type
SCT	Social Comparison Theory
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SHRD	Strategic Human Resource Development
SLT	Social Learning Theory
T	*Thinking*
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States of America

Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.0 Introduction

This thesis explores the impact of mentor and mentee *personality type* in formal workplace mentoring relationships. The aim is to identify whether there are individual personality characteristics which impact on the relationship dynamics and the learning derived from these relationships. By using the psychometric instrument, the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), to identify personality type, the research provides insight into the impact of *type* characteristics on the behaviour and professional development of different mentors and mentees. This has highlighted a number of issues relating to individual learning derived from formal mentoring relationships, and contributes to our understanding of the potential uses for the MBTI instrument in organisations which support mentoring initiatives.

The research adopts a qualitative methodology in an area which has been dominated by quantitative designs (Noe et al 2002; Allen et al 2008; Clutterbuck 2013a). Data has been gathered from multiple sources and the information was synthesised using a framework developed from Activity Theory (AT) tenets (Engestrom 2007). This process has provided a rich and detailed insight into the different types of formal mentoring experiences available to individuals in organisations. A narrative approach has been employed to analyse and present the data thus providing a holistic view of the participant experience.

1.1 Provenance of the Research

The research stems from the researcher's personal experience of formal mentoring initiatives in organisations. Having been involved in mentoring schemes, as both a mentor and a mentee, formal mentoring was not only an area of interest but an active part of the researcher's professional life. Postgraduate work, completed for a Master's degree, provided the first opportunity to examine the topic of mentoring from an academic perspective. However, at this stage the rationale was to generate information to support the development of specific company initiatives. Work included an evaluation of a mentoring scheme and a project which focused on the different formal mentoring relationship types in organisations. While these studies partly addressed questions which had developed from practice, they did not address the broader individual and organisational antecedents which the researcher perceived to impact on the learning resulting from these relationships.

The initial research idea was to examine the differences between internal organisational relationships and external cross-organisational ones. Figure 1 illustrates the first set of questions which were developed.

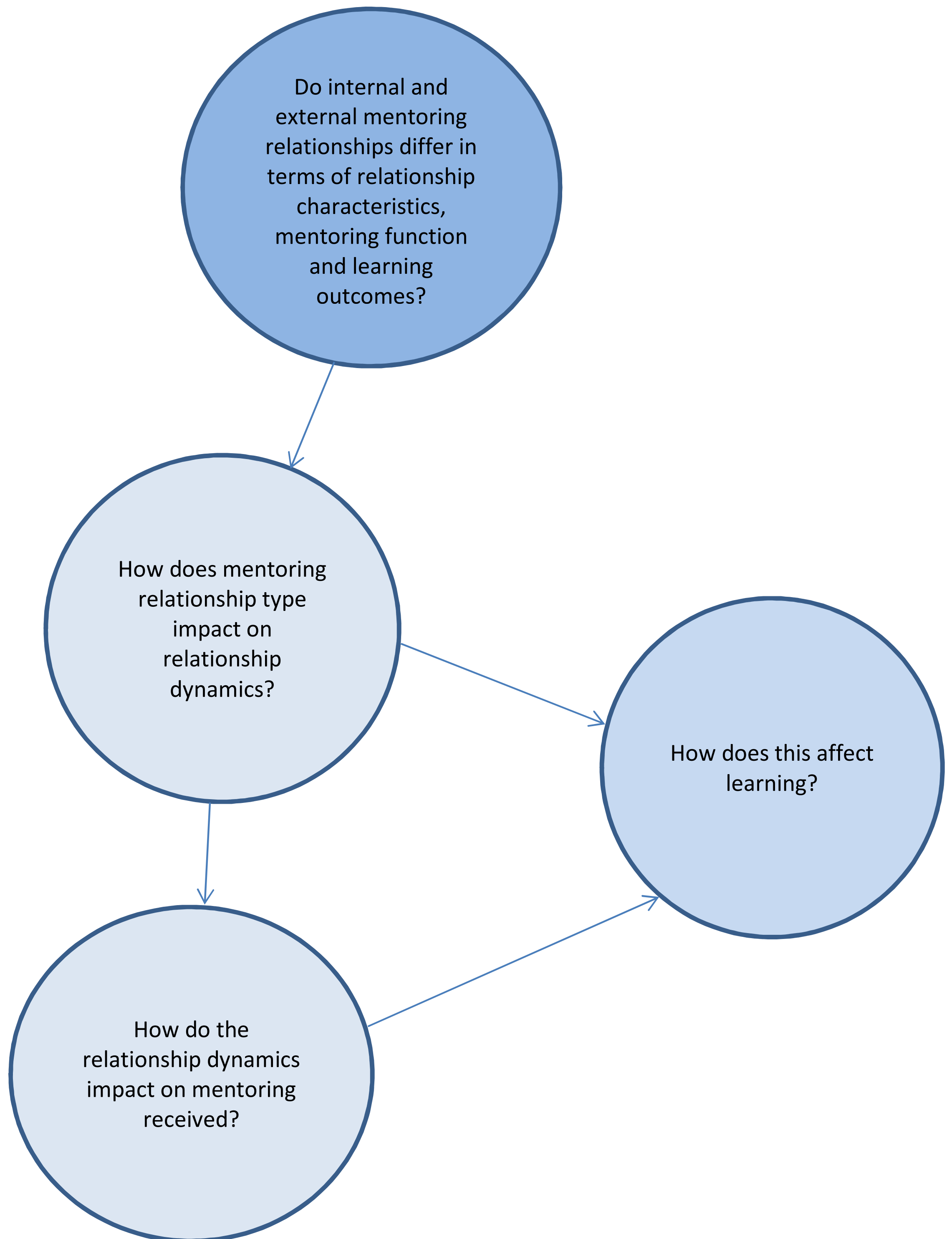

Figure 1: Development of the Initial Research Idea (Source: Author)

While these questions provided a starting point for the research project, it is important to note that the early stages of the research were evolutionary and that these questions are ultimately not central to the current research aim and objectives. However, they do illustrate that from early stages of the research process the key areas of interest comprised the mentoring context, relationship dynamics,

learning outcomes, and the interplay between the three. It was following discussions with colleagues that the idea of using personality psychometrics began to emerge. This approach was logical given the well documented role of participant antecedents in mentoring relationships (Wanberg et al 2003; Allen et al 2004; Allen et al 2006) and the relative lack of literature pertaining to personality characteristics of those involved (Allen and Poteet 2011). MBTI was considered as a possible option for the prospective study due to its continued dominance in organisations (Bayne 2005). This presented a series of further questions (Figure 2) and provided a new focus for secondary research.

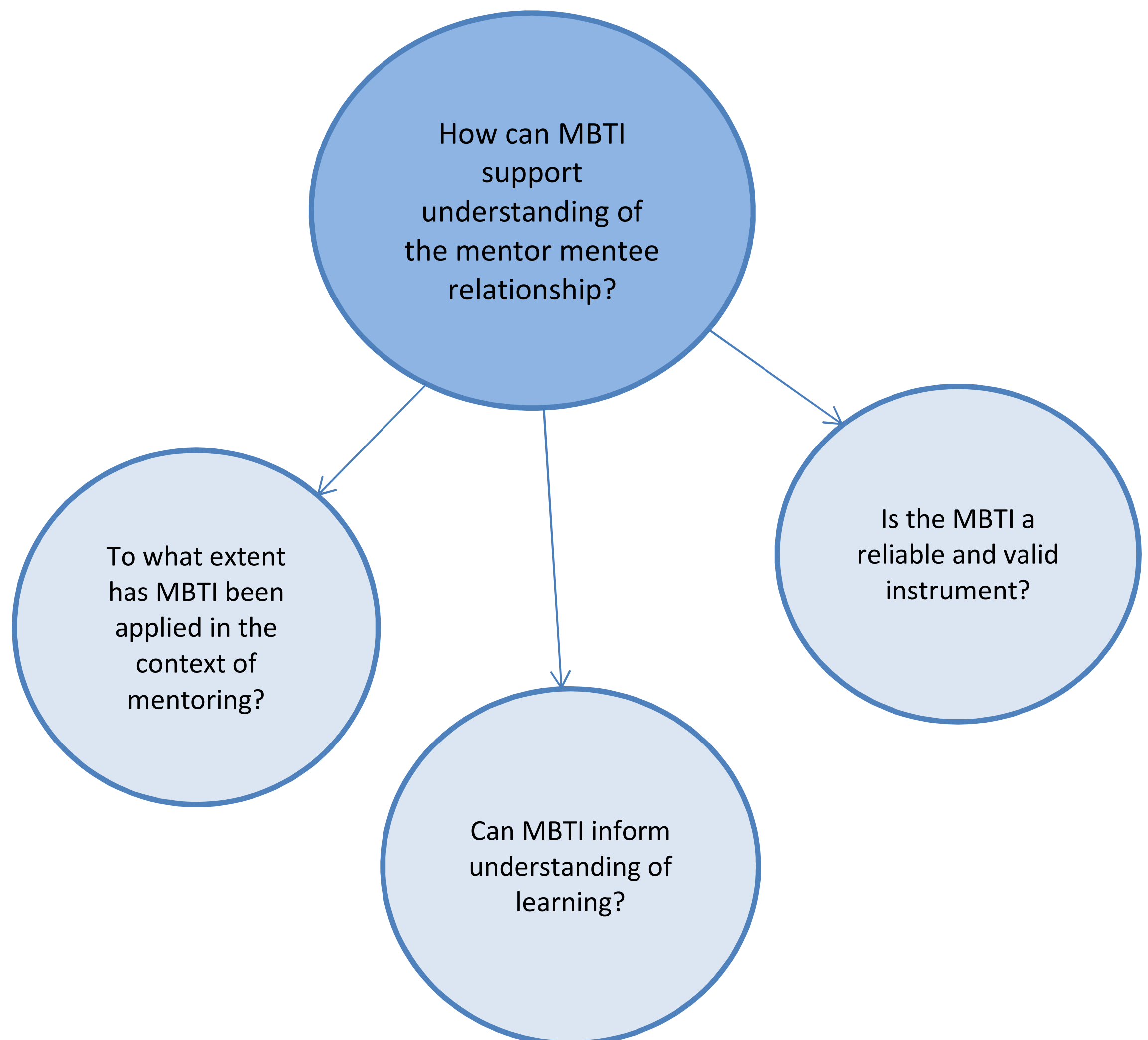

Figure 2: Further MBTI Questions (Source: Author)

Further investigation highlighted the lack of information pertaining to personality characteristics in formal mentoring relationships and this, along with other limitations present in the field of mentoring research, provided part of the rationale for this study. In addition, the growth of mentoring practice in the United Kingdom (UK) and changing organisational and environmental factors ensured that this research was both timely and expedient. The rationale for the research will now be presented in detail.

1.2 Rationale

Human Resource Development (HRD) is concerned with processes of learning and change within the workplace (Gibb 2011). The purpose of HRD is to ensure that organisations have a knowledgeable, skilled and engaged workforce which will support the achievement of organisational goals (Garavan 1991; Stewart and Rigg 2013; Armstrong 2014). The approach is underpinned by the idea that learning activities will make an important contribution to organisational success. Yet, as Gibb (2011) highlights, for those who are working or studying in the area, these definitions often fall short; HRD can mean more than this and presents an opportunity to help people, organisations and even nations reach their full potential.

Strategic Human Resource Development (SHRD) relates to the planned learning and development of employees and teams to the benefit of the organisation as well as the individual (Garavan et al 1995; Garavan 2007; Bratton and Gold 2012). The current focus on SHRD, in both academia and practice, has prompted a shift towards integration between learning and development activities and strategy; SHRD has been highlighted as a key factor in ensuring organisational effectiveness (Hyland et al 2005). The emergence of the strategic approach has been in response to change in the external environment. Factors such as globalisation and the emergence of the knowledge economy have required organisations to continually adapt and innovate in order to compete (Gibb 2011; Lee 2010; Stewart and Rigg 2013; Griffin et al 2015). In addition, social, political and technological change have influenced the way organisations function and the speed at which they need to adapt. Whittington and Mayer's (2002) research suggests that major changes are taking place in organisations every three to five years with regular minor changes in between. As a result, many organisations have transitioned from training focused methods to broader learning initiatives in order to meet these evolving organisational needs (Germain 2011; Stewart and Rigg 2011).

Mentoring has increased in popularity within UK organisations (CIPD 2015) and remains a popular approach to facilitate learning (Hezlett and Gibson 2005; Germain 2011; Garvey 2011). However, despite being a widely used HRD method in the corporate environment, mentoring has seldom been approached from a HRD perspective in the extant literature (Hezlett and Gibson 2005; Thurston et al 2012). Previous studies (Young and Perrewe 2000; Underhill 2006; Eby et al 2006) have suggested that important outcomes for individuals and organisations can be derived from these developmental relationships. Germain (2011) contends that formal mentoring can play a critical role in HRD because it can address gaps between other training and development initiatives. Furthermore, as work environments become increasingly sophisticated, mentoring may be important to help individuals cope with change and complexity (Garvey and Alred 2001).

Mentoring is widely reported to bring benefits to both individuals and organisations (Kram 1985; Allen et al 2004; Clutterbuck 2004). Although early mentoring research focused predominately on the advantages of naturally occurring mentorships, formal mentoring relationships have come into focus as organisations try to accrue similar benefits. However, facilitated mentoring relationships differ due to the processes by which they are managed and co-ordinated; formal mentoring relationships are often matched by a third party and are therefore fundamentally different from their informal counterparts (Eby and Lockwood 2005). The matching processes within formal mentoring initiatives have been an area for concern in both academic and practitioner literature (McDowall-Long 2004; Blake-Beard et al 2007; Cox 2007; Poulsen 2013; Menges 2015). Furthermore, mentoring studies have indicated that informal mentoring relationships remain more fruitful than formal ones (Chao et al 1992; Clutterbuck 2005).

Whilst mentoring knowledge is maturing, there is still a lack of research on formal mentoring relationship types. When undertaking a comprehensive review of the mentoring literature, Eby et al (2008) found only 10.2% of the papers they reviewed were concerned with formal relationships. Furthermore, most studies have been approached using quantitative methods (Allen et al 2008). Whilst these positivistic methods have been informative with regards to some mentoring variables, they have produced an abundance of studies which focus on micro issues. As a result, in the last decade or so, several researchers (Noe et al 2002; Wanberg et al 2003; McDowall-Long 2004; Allen et al 2007; Clutterbuck 2013a) have undertaken comprehensive literature reviews in an attempt to synthesise mentoring knowledge and establish what is known in the area. Suggestions for future research have been identified and include the examination of the individual differences between mentors and mentees to see how they influence the dyadic relationship (Noe et al 2002; Wanberg et al 2003). Allen and Poteet (2011) have emphasised the need for a more "person-centric" approach in mentoring research.

One individual difference, which has not been addressed in detail, is the impact of personality characteristics in mentoring relationships. This is a particularly pertinent area of study for formal relationships given the concerns stakeholders have regarding the matching process. Whilst some studies have been conducted (Bozenolios 2004; Waters 2004; Menges 2015), researchers typically use McCrae and Costa's (1989) 'Big Five' personality categorisation (Bayne 1995) and its related psychometric tool, NEO PI-R. Although this is undoubtedly one of the most robust personality measures and is favoured in the psychology and medical professions, this psychometric tool is not widely used in other settings. This creates issues for applied researchers in the field of HRD who seek to generate information that has practical utility in organisations.

Whilst the “Big Five” has dominated research in the academic field, it has been MBTI which has prevailed in organisations (Bayne 2005; Blutner and Hochnadel 2010). As a result MBTI has become an industry standard. There is a small but growing body of researchers who use MBTI in research settings (Bayne 2005; Francis et al 2007; Brown 2010). By using this psychometric instrument to identify personality types there is potential to establish a direct link between academic research and organisational practice. MBTI, may, therefore, enable an examination of personality type within mentoring dyads which can increase our understanding of the dyadic relationship and learning generated from formal mentoring initiatives.

1.3 Research Aim and Objectives

The aim of the research is to examine critically the impact of mentor and mentee personality type, using MBTI, in workplace mentoring relationships and to generate explanatory theory which contributes to the understanding of individual learning and organisational development derived from formal mentoring relationships.

1.3.1 Research Objectives

1. To review theoretical development to date and to explore disciplinary perspectives on the role of personality type in understanding mentoring relationships, with a view to identifying how MBTI typology relates to mentoring relationship dynamics and learning outcomes.

2. To investigate the impact of individual personality differences, using the MBTI instrument, on the motivation, compatibility and reported learning outcomes of mentors and mentees

3. To evaluate the role of Type Theory in relation to formal mentoring relationships and to propose recommendations, with a view to increasing awareness in organisations, of the ways in which the MBTI instrument can be used to support mentors and mentees to work and learn more effectively together by applying the concept of personality type to mentoring relationships.

4. To develop a typology of mentoring relationships, using MBTI, to illustrate how individual differences impact on learning in the mentoring context.

1.3.2 Research Questions

A set of research questions were developed from each objective to guide the primary research. The research questions were under continual review throughout the research process (Creswell 2009) and are detailed below.

Objective One Research Questions:

I. How can knowledge of Type Theory aid the understanding of the mentor/mentee relationship?

Objective Two Research Questions:

II. Which individual differences, in terms of personality type, facilitate/moderate mentoring relationships?
III. How do individual differences impact on mentor and mentee learning within mentoring relationships?

Objective Three Research Questions:

IV. How do (participant) organisations support and manage formal mentoring and to what extent do these processes affect individual mentoring relationships?

Objective Four Research Questions:

V. How can the MBTI instrument be used to support mentors and mentees in managing and sustaining mentoring relationships?
VI. How can knowledge of personality type assist mentors and mentees to maximise their learning within mentoring relationships?

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

Introductory chapters examine the background to the research and discuss relevant knowledge from the extant literature. Chapter two presents a review of the academic literature. The first sections focus on formal mentoring relationships within the wider organisational context and discuss the cultural and structural antecedents which have a bearing on mentoring dynamics. In addition, theories of learning and development are reviewed in order to establish the concepts which underpin learning in mentoring relationships. The following sections are concerned with the individual and dyad characteristics of mentoring relationships and therefore focus on literature relating to individual differences in developmental relationships. A review of theoretical perspectives, which have been used to examine mentoring relationships, addresses the perspectives of Social Exchange, Attachment Theory and prosocial behaviour. The final sections of the literature review introduce the concept of

Psychological Type and discuss the reliability and validity of MBTI. A review of MBTI literature will include the application of MBTI in organisations and its links to learning styles and theory.

Following the review of literature, chapter five discusses the methodological issues inherent in conducting the research. The rationale for the methodological approach and research methods are described and the analysis process, which was developed for this study, is explained to illustrate the credibility of the results. Chapter six presents research results which include narrative accounts of each of the mentoring relationships studied. The impact of personality type within these relationships is considered in chapter seven and reviewed in relation to participant motivation, compatibility and the reported learning outcomes. In addition, this chapter evaluates the role of Type Theory within formal mentoring relationships. The thesis is brought to a close in chapter eight with the conclusions drawn from the research. The original contribution made to knowledge and the implications for mentoring research and practice are discussed. The limitations of the study are presented along with suggestions for future research. It is intended that the thesis will contribute to the existing body of academic knowledge and be of use to academics and practitioners working in the field of HRD. The structure of the thesis is summarised in Figure 3.

Chapter	Structure of the Thesis
1	• **Introduction** ○ Provenance of the Research ○ Rationale for the Research
2	• **Literature Review** ○ **Mentoring in Organisations** ▪ Theoretical Perspectives ▪ Organisational Context ○ **Learning theory and Mentoring Outcomes** ○ **Individual Differences and Mentoring** ▪ Demographic Differences ▪ Individual and Dyad Characteristics ▪ Relationship Dynamics ▪ Personality and Mentoring ○ **The Myers Briggs Type Indicator** ▪ Theory of Personality Type ▪ Reliability and Validity ▪ Applications of Type ▪ MBTI and Learning
3	• **Methodology** ○ Philosophical Approach ○ Pilot Study ○ Methods and Analysis
4	• **Results** ○ Demographic Data ○ Organisational Approaches to Mentoring ○ Relationship Narratives
5	• **Discussion** ○ The MBTI Profiles ○ Organisational Approaches ○ Individual Differences in Mentors and Mentees ○ Relationship Dynamics ○ Learning Outcomes
6	• **Conclusions and Implications** ○ Original Contribution to Knowledge ○ Recommendations ○ Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Figure 3: The Structure of the Thesis (Source: Author)

Chapter 2 – Review of the Literature

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature from a range of fields appropriate to the research. The literature was drawn from a number of sources including academic journals, textbooks, practitioner focused journals and limited circulation publications (Anderson 2009) such as OPP's Myers-Briggs Type Indicator practitioner literature and data supplements. The review is organised into four key literature themes: mentoring in organisations, mentoring and learning, individual differences and mentoring and Psychological Type and the Myer-Briggs Type Indictor.

Following an initial introduction and definition of formal mentoring, the theme "mentoring in organisations" is introduced. These sections focus on the cultural and structural feartures of organisations which impact on formal mentoring intiatives. An appreciation of this literature is important in order to understand how organisational context will affect mentoring behaviours, practices and outcomes in different organisational settings and thus inform certain sections of the discussion chapter. This is followed by a discussion of the different types of formal mentoring initiatives and relationships present in modern day organisations. The approaches, processes and dynamics of organisational mentoring are examined in order to establish how organisational decisions and HRD practices will influence the mentoring functions provided in formal dyads.

The next theme to be addressed in the review is "mentoring and learning". This section examines learning theories which relate to and explain formal mentoring interactions; these theories are important to underpin the thesis and inform certain sections of the discussion chapter. Mentoring outcomes are also discussed both in terms of the mentor and mentees perspective. The range, type and categorisation of formal mentoring outcomes are examined in order to address the impact of individual behaviour and relationship dynamics on learning. These sections are followed by an examination of "individual differences and mentoring". Extant literature relating to individual antecedents, including personality, is reviewed to establish previous knowledge in the area. Studies which have used psychometrics to investigate formal mentoring are discussed and though scant, provide theoretical underpinning for the study. Further, this section introduces the various theoretical perspectives which relate to formal mentoring by drawing on a range of social science literature perspectives. The mentoring relationship is examined from a psychological and transactional point of view both to underpin the thesis and inform certain aspects of the discussion section.

The final literature theme to be addressed focuses on "Psychological Type and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator". These sections introduce the concept of psychological type and examine the validity and reliability of the MBTI instrument in relation to its theoretical roots. In these sections the application of Type Theory and MBTI to learning and mentoring in organistions is discussed thus establishing the rationale and underpinning for the research. Both individual and organisational type are considered thus linking the concept of type to earlier themes discussed in the literature review.

2.1 Mentoring in Organisations

Mentoring in organisations first came to the attention of researchers following the publication of Kram's (1985) seminal text "Mentoring at Work". In this qualitative study, Kram examined the phenomenon of mentoring to illustrate the different types of developmental relationships which existed in the workplace. This work highlighted the potential benefits and limitations of informal developmental relationships and therefore focused on mentorships which had developed naturally within the work environment. The research generated a resurgence of interest in the topic of mentoring and the benefits it presented for organisations, mentors and mentees (Allen et al 2007; Ragins and Kram 2007).

Whilst informal mentoring relationships continue to operate in a variety of organisational contexts (Ehrich et al 2004; Welsh et al 2012) research has progressed to examine other forms of mentoring including formal relationships. Early studies focused on the difference between formal and informal approaches and suggested that the latter were more fruitful for the participants and organisation (Chao et al 1992; Ragins and Cotton 1999; Ragins 2000; Wanberg et al 2003). Despite this, formal mentoring initiatives have continued to flourish in organisations (Allen, Eby and Lentz 2006; CIPD 2015). The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development's 2015 Learning and Development Survey indicated that two thirds of the organisations sampled were using some form of coaching or mentoring and another 13% intended to do so within the next year.

Nonetheless, relatively little research has been conducted on the effectiveness of formal mentoring or the dynamics between formal dyads (Hezlett and Gibson 2005; Kleine et al 2015); thus one of the principal reasons for investigating formal mentoring relationships must be the relative shortage of literature in this area. As discussed in chapter one, Allen et al (2008) found that only 10.2% of the mentoring papers they reviewed were concerned with formal relationships. This bias was exacerbated further by the failure of some researchers to define the type of mentoring they were studying (Clutterbuck 2003; Allen at al 2007). Efforts have been made, however, to address some pertinent themes, including outcomes and predictors of mentoring, although the majority have used quantitative methods (Noe et al 2002; Wanberg et al 2003; Allen et al 2008). Nevertheless, gaps still

exist within the body of literature and more recently there have been calls for more focus on the individuals who participate in formal mentoring relationships (Allen and Poteet 2011).

2.2 The Concept of Mentoring

Although there is a growing body of research on developmental relationships (Hezlett and Gibson 2005) there is still a lack of consensus on what is meant by the term mentoring. Comparisons of mentoring relationships across studies can therefore be difficult; Haggard et al (2011) identified approximately forty different definitions of mentoring put forward by writers. A number of researchers have failed to include definitions in their studies or to identify the type of relationship which is being studied (Clutterbuck 2004; Wanberg et al 2003; Friday et al 2004). This might lead one to conclude that there is confusion about what mentoring is and what it is not (Higgins and Kram 2001).

> *If we cannot agree universally on the terminology it becomes difficult to know if we are engaging in the same activity, what is being done, how effective it is, if it is value for money or if it is being done to an appropriate standard.* (Garvey 2004 p. 8)

Lack of clarity has undoubtedly had an impact on mentoring scheme design and practice. If we cannot distinguish between the different types of help available to employees, there is a risk of complicating practice and creating an array of different relationship types. McDowall-Long (2004) contends that practitioners risk developing mentoring initiatives which have not been built on a robust knowledge base; universal clarity among academics would enable Human Resource professionals to avoid such pitfalls.

However, progress has been made in differentiating mentoring from other types of developmental relationships (Wanberg et al 2003). Garvey (2004; 2009) highlights how the terms mentoring, coaching, and counselling are often interchanged depending on the context in which the terms are used. Organisations, or even sectors, may prefer to use one term rather than another as that term may fit more appropriately within the accepted culture (Garvey 2004). However, there are clear differences between these developmental roles. It is the holistic nature of mentoring which distinguishes it from coaching and counselling (Gibb 1994; Clutterbuck 2004). Wanberg et al (2003) suggest that mentoring is the most intense type of developmental relationship and involves some degree of identification and emotional involvement. However, coaching and mentoring do share some tools and approaches (Clutterbuck 2007; Garvey 2009). Coaching, like mentoring, focuses on performance and skill enhancement, but it is the coach who directs the agenda for development (Garvey 2004; Clutterbuck 2008). Thus coaching can be seen as a more directive process which is fundamentally different to mentoring. Coaching also has a more explicit organisational agenda (Garvey 2004) which is not so overt

in mentoring relationships. Mentoring is viewed as a mentee led process and is therefore less directly influenced by the organisational agenda.

The literature has advanced to regard mentoring relationships through the perspective of developmental networks or "social capital" (Eby 1997; Gibb 2003; Higgins and Kram 2004; Hezlett and Gibson 2005). However, this perspective perhaps has more relevance to informal or group mentoring situations, which are not the focus of this study. A number of writers (Allen and Finkelstein 2003; Clutterbuck 2004; Ensher and Murphy 2011; Chaudhri and Ghosh 2012) have discussed peer, reverse, and group mentoring, which are viewed as distinct from "traditional" mentoring relationships, although it is recognised that these other relationships may provide similar functions. Traditional mentoring relationships typically exist between older, more experienced employees and their younger counterparts (Wanberg et al 2003). Young (2000) asserts it is important to differentiate relationship type as it will impact on the dynamics and outcomes of the mentoring relationship. Formal and informal mentorships differ in terms of relationship length, formality, and the initiation process (Eby and Lockwood 2005) and therefore should be viewed as entirely different constructs. Thus, it is appropriate to reaffirm that the focus of this study is formal mentoring relationships only.

Several attempts have been made to conceptualise mentoring (Higgins and Kram 2001; Noe et al 2002; Friday et al 2004; Wanberg et al 2003). Clutterbuck (2008) argues that much of the research has focused on a model for mentoring which has become increasing irrelevant and it would therefore be important to establish what organisational mentoring currently looks like. However, not only have a number of formal mentoring definitions been presented, two models have been proposed: the European and North American models of mentoring (Figure 4). There is a clear distinction between these models. The European mentoring model has a broader developmental focus whereas the United States of America (US) model emphasises sponsorship and protection (Clutterbuck 2004). Gibb (2003) argues that this distinction is concerned with a duality of values and associates the European model of mentoring with liberal, humanistic values and the US model with more traditional, conservative values. Certainly this would concur with the accepted business cultures of these countries.

Each model (Figure 4) illustrates the key mentoring functions of coaching, guiding, networking and counselling (Clutterbuck 2004) but highlight different areas of focus in these two approaches. There is some evidence to suggest that mentors place more importance on their behaviours as opposed to the functions they provide within the mentoring relationship (Smith et al 2005). Mentor functions have been categorised in a number of different ways; Fowler and O'Gorman (2005) found eight distinct functions of mentoring perceived by mentors and mentees. Whilst this is a broader spectrum than Clutterbuck (2004) and Kram (1985) propose, there is some consensus between each framework.

Clutterbuck's mentoring "behaviours" of coaching, guiding, networking and counselling relate to Fowler and O'Gorman's categorisations of personal and emotional guidance, coaching, role modelling, and friendship, and to Kram's conceptualisation of career and psychosocial mentoring functions.

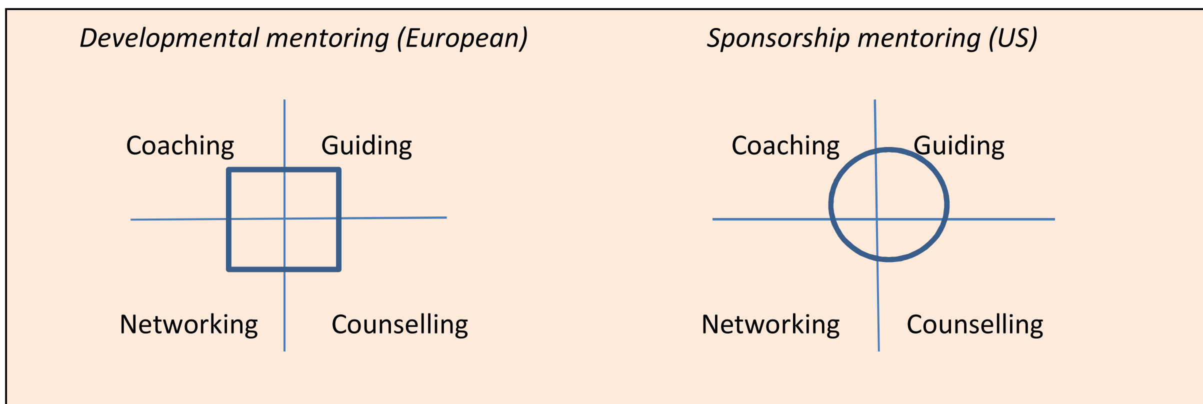

Figure 4: European and US Models of Mentoring (Source: Clutterbuck 2004)

However, it must be acknowledged that US researchers have continued to refine the definition of mentoring (Noe et al 2002) since Kram's (1985) original characterisation. Role-modelling has been identified as a third mentoring function (Noe et al 2002; McDowall-Long 2004), thus bringing the US concept more in line with the European. Moreover, it has been proposed that the concepts of mentoring and sponsorship are distinct and can exist independently (Friday et al 2004). It must be acknowledged that sponsorship and exposure are seldom encouraged in formal mentoring schemes where the focus is typically on fostering self-reliance in the mentee (Wanberg et al 2004). Nonetheless, whilst definitions of mentoring are inconsistent there is some consistency with regard to the general concept of mentoring (ibid).

2.3 Definition of Formal Mentoring

Given the ambiguity in mentoring terminology it is important to define the concepts that will be referred to in this study. Kram's (1985) influential definition is frequently cited in mentoring research as the supportive relationship between a more experienced individual (mentor) and a less experienced colleague (mentee), which provides career and personal guidance under which they can develop. However, this broad definition could encompass other developmental relationships such as career counselling. Moreover, Kram's (1985) study focused on informal mentoring relationships and this is not an area of concern for this study. Clutterbuck's (2004) definition, which describes the characteristics of a mentoring relationship as "offline help from one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking", reflects current thinking and best practice in formal mentoring but does not necessarily describe the reality or the limitations organisations are

faced with in setting up formal mentoring schemes. It is for this reason that a broader definition has been sought.

Haggard et al (2011) assert that, because of the multiple definitions of mentoring put forward by researchers, it is more important to identify the fundamental attributes of mentoring relationships as universal agreement at this stage is unlikely. **For this study, mentoring refers to a one-to-one developmental relationship between a less experienced and more experienced person which supports personal and professional growth. Mentoring is viewed as a holistic process (Gibb 1994; Clutterbuck 2004) which involves mutual learning.**

2.4 Organisational Context

The majority of researchers view explanations of behaviour from an interactionist perspective (Young 2000). Thus, both disposition and the environment play an important role in understanding mentoring behaviour. The impact of contextual factors on mentoring relationships has been recognised from the outset: Kram (1985) argued that features of the organisation including hierarchy, the performance appraisal system, the reward structure, and culture will affect mentoring relationships by determining individual behaviour. This concept is supported by other writers. Wanberg et al's (2003) "Conceptual Process Model for Formal Mentoring" portrays formal mentoring relationships as embedded within a larger organisational context. However, the mentoring context must be viewed beyond the organisational context. Other contextual factors have been identified including occupation/profession and characteristics of work group processes (Koberg et al 1998). Thus an evaluation of the mentoring environment is imperative to address the contextual variables that influence mentoring behaviours and relationships. Interestingly, few studies have examined the influence of organisational context on specific mentoring functions (O'Neill 2005) or, indeed, mentoring relationships in general.

Clutterbuck (2004) acknowledges that the environmental context impacts on likely mentoring outcomes but there is little attempt to analyse the impact of organisational context on mentoring relationships. Instead the focus is on the relationship context. Eby et al (2004) also emphasise the association between relationship dynamics and mentoring outcomes but fail to discuss the potential effect organisational culture and values can have on a participant's behaviour and subsequent relationships. O'Neill (2005) notes how previous studies have shown that organisational characteristics will influence individual behaviours; Hegstad and Wentling (2005) concur and point to organisational antecedents being either cultural or structural.

2.4.1 Cultural Context

Prior studies have found that there is a positive relationship between mentoring functions and organisational context (O'Neill 2005). Organisations with cooperative contexts, where there is a higher level of assistance, support, trust, and friendship between employees, reported positive mentoring outcomes. The findings highlight the relationship between cooperative environments and developmental mentoring outcomes although there were no significant relationships between cooperative context and any of the career related outcomes. This research also found a positive and significant relationship between competitive environments and mentoring functions. Although this was contrary to the researcher's hypothesis, this study indicated that career-related mentoring functions are provided in a competitive context. This would indicate that mentoring outcomes can differ depending on the ethos, values and approach of the organisation. However, this study was limited as only the mentee's perception was canvassed during the research process and no attempt was made to distinguish between formal and informal mentoring relationship types. Nonetheless, O'Neill (2005) cites a number of studies which support these findings including Kanter's (1977) research which suggested that more innovative organisations were more likely to encourage mentoring relationships than one with "conservative resistance". Moreover, contextual factors such as the organisation's hierarchy, Human Resource management systems, and the nature of organisational tasks will affect the likelihood of mentoring (Hunt and Michael 1983; O'Neill 2005; Clutterbuck 2004). Wanberg et al (2003) agree and propose that features including an organisation's size, structure, and compensation and promotional systems will impact on formal mentoring programmes. Thus individual mentoring relationships must be viewed within the broader organisational context and analysed accordingly.

2.4.2 Structural Context

O'Neill (2005) characterises organisational type as either mechanistic or organic in structure. Mechanistic organisations exhibit hierarchical structures and may be appropriate for firms which operate in relatively stable environments (Huczynski and Buchanan 2013), whereas organic organisations have a low level of centralisation and an emphasis on flexibility and innovation (O'Neill 2005). The findings of this study suggested that there was a positive relationship between organic organisations and mentoring functions whereas there was no significant relationship between mechanistic structures and the majority of mentoring functions. There was, however, a negative relationship between one function, "coaching", and a mechanistic organisational type. These results highlight the benefits of organic organisational structure through the emphasis on communication, interaction and interdependence; likewise mechanistic types, which emphasise rules, procedures and "individualism", are less likely to support mentoring (O'Neill 2005). These findings are supported by Kram (1985) who highlighted issues relating to mechanistic organisations and mentoring. It would be

important to ascertain the influence of organisational type on formal mentoring relationships and examine how broader cultural factors can influence participants mentoring behaviour in such contexts. O'Neill (2005) acknowledges individual characteristics, including personality, need to be examined further still to ascertain their influence on organisational factors and mentoring. A study of both broader contextual influences and individual characteristics for both mentors and mentees would inform future study of the impact of organisational type on mentoring functions.

Another theme within the mentoring literature addresses the changing nature of the organisational environment (Eby 1997; O'Neill 2005). A number of writers assert that the rationale for mentoring in organisations centres on current challenges in the corporate environment such as changing organisational structures and increased competition (O'Neill 2005; Hegstad and Wentling 2005; Germain 2011). Recent years have seen a diversification of management structures to include both organisations with several layers of hierarchy as well as those with more flattened structures (Hegstad and Wentling 2005; Rollinson 2008). However, the literature suggests that formal mentoring can succeed in both types of organisation (Hegstad and Wentling 2005). Research has highlighted the importance of "comfortable" working environments with open communication among and between levels (ibid). However, the companies studied were large and 76% had undergone recent organisational restructuring resulting in flatter management structures. It would be important to establish whether organisations with more traditional structures or fewer resources could establish equally successful mentoring schemes, or indeed the extent to which organisational size facilitates the process. The authors do highlight that management support is vital for mentoring to flourish within an organisation. Other writers agree (Clutterbuck 2004) although Allen, Poteet and Burroughs (1997) point out that management support is not enough; a culture promoting the value of learning and development is more likely to establish a mentoring norm.

2.5 Formal Mentoring Interventions

Formal mentoring can take a number of forms in the workplace and is widely used in all types of organisations across the public, private and third sector (Garvey 2011). Typically organisational mentoring is facilitated through a mentoring scheme (Clutterbuck 2004), although in recent years there has been a growth in external consultancies offering coaching and mentoring services (Garvey 2009; CIPD 2015). Formal mentoring schemes can support internal mentoring relationships between employees of the same organisation or they can facilitate external relationships between employees from different organisations. However, mentoring scheme design should reflect the purpose of the mentoring initiative and the organisation's objectives (Clutterbuck 2004; Poulsen 2013). Formal mentoring initiatives will now be considered in more depth.

2.5.1 The Mentoring Scheme

Formal mentoring programmes can vary in quality depending on the extent to which the programme has been planned (Wanberg et al 2003). Mentoring scheme processes involve matching mentors and mentees, providing guidelines and training for participants, and conducting follow up checks to see how the relationship is working (Wanberg et al 2003; Clutterbuck 2004). Although there is some debate as to how formal a mentoring scheme should be, practitioners also recognise that a formal structure is essential to provide meaning, direction and support for mentoring relationships (Clutterbuck 2004). Formal mentoring may also promote organisational justice by providing fair access to mentors (Scandura 1997; Allen and O'Brien 2006).

One of the most common concerns regarding formal mentoring schemes is the effectiveness of the matching process for mentors and mentees (McDowall-Long 2004; Cox 2007; Germain 2011; Menges 2015). There is general agreement that this area can be problematic and that relationships where mentors are imposed upon mentees have been shown to be less effective (Clutterbuck 2004; Cox 2007). The literature would suggest that a degree of self-selection is more likely to produce a positive mentoring relationship (Clutterbuck 2004; Eby et al 2004). Perceived input into the matching process is critical for both members of the dyad (Allen et al 2006). This is consistent across studies which indicate that mentees are less satisfied with their mentors and mentoring relationship when they are given no input into the matching process (Wanberg et al 2003; Allen et al 2006).

In an examination of negative mentoring experiences, mentees described some mentors as unsuitable (Eby et al 2004). Again, this would support voluntary participation in formal mentoring schemes, although there is some evidence to suggest that this may not be necessary for mentees (Wanberg et al 2003). Participation in any formal scheme must ensure the commitment of mentors in what can be a time consuming and demanding relationship; it is likely that commitment from both the mentor and mentee is required if the relationship is to survive beyond the initial stages (Clutterbuck 2004). Moreover, evidence suggests that it is important to allow individuals to make informed choices regarding their learning and development (Hase and Kenyon 2001; Knowles et al 2005).

Scheme processes frequently include preparatory support for mentors and mentees prior to starting the mentoring relationship. Orientation sessions may also encourage mentees to set goals for the mentoring relationship and begin to identify specific areas or issues they wish to address (Wanberg et al 2003). In spite of this, there is evidence to suggest that organisations tend to focus on short term learning outcomes or organisational goals (McDowall-Long 2004). However, Allen et al (2006) found that training was associated with mentee reports of mentorship quality, career mentoring, psychosocial support, and role modelling. This study also emphasised the importance of training

quality. Mentors who reported mentoring training as high quality were more likely to indicate they were providing psychosocial mentoring. Thus training quality may relate to the breadth of the mentoring functions provided and subsequently impact on mentoring outcomes for mentees.

Formal mentoring schemes are typically overseen by the HRD function in organisations. Clutterbuck (2004) advocates that one member of staff is assigned to the role of mentoring scheme co-ordinator and argues that some schemes falter because organisations have not committed sufficient resources to support the scheme. However, Clutterbuck’s (2004) estimation of the time required to manage mentoring relationships is ambitious at one day per week for every twenty mentoring dyads. It would be interesting to establish how much time is actually given to mentoring co-ordination in organisations. Further, the focus of a co-ordinator’s responsibilities is the management of scheme processes as opposed to the management of the actual dyads. Whilst there is some suggestion that scheme co-ordinators should “trouble-shoot” relationship difficulties and support “no fault divorce” for failing relationships (Clutterbuck 2004), there is little guidance in the literature with regard to the actual management of people within mentoring schemes. This is further complicated by the lack of ethical guidance in relation to mentoring relationships. Whilst the literature does recognise that some relationships will be subject to conflicts of interest (Noe et al 2002; Garvey 2004; Clutterbuck 2004) and that relationship guidance is helpful to prepare mentor and mentee (Clutterbuck 2004; Cox 2007), the ethical considerations for those managing mentoring in organisations has seldom been addressed.

2.5.2 The Professional Mentor

Despite the growth in coaching and mentoring consultancy (Garvey 2009) there is a dearth of literature which addresses professional mentoring in organisations. The use of external practitioner mentors within organisations has typically been targeted at management development initiatives (Megginson 2000; Clutterbuck 2004) where executives are provided with professional mentors to help develop their business skills and insight. Clutterbuck (2004) asserts that this is a particularly complex mentoring role and that, to be effective, professional mentors need to have a broad business knowledge and understanding of organisational behaviour. These mentors must also possess knowledge of business and behavioural models to support their mentoring discussions and have exceptional interpersonal skills. Unsurprisingly Clutterbuck (2004) considers effective professional mentors to be comparatively rare.

The decision to employ a professional mentor will have significant financial and recruitment implications for organisations; however these external consultants can help senior managers to handle pressure, improve work-life balance and address their own continuous development needs (Clutterbuck and Megginson 2011). Despite an increase in formal, paid, professional mentoring there

is still a lack of clarity about what qualifies someone to undertake this role (ibid). Nonetheless, Clutterbuck and Megginson (2011) note that they are typically employed when managers are concerned about some aspect of their performance or need to acquire specific skills. This would suggest that it is the mentee that seeks out this type of mentoring support, although Clutterbuck and Megginson (2011) concede that professional mentors are sometimes “thrust” upon unwitting executives.

2.6 Mentoring Relationship Types

Mentoring research has primarily focused on the strengths and limitations of formal and informal mentoring relationships (Chao, Walz and Gardner 1992; Ragins and Cotton 1999; Scandura and Williams 2001; Allen et al 2006; Cox 2007). Thus the difference between other formal mentoring relationship types has remained largely unexamined by the existing body of knowledge on mentoring (McDowall-Long 2004; Eby and Lockwood 2005). Although several distinct formal relationship categories have been identified, few studies have concentrated specifically on this area. This section presents a review of literature pertaining to formal mentoring relationship types.

Clutterbuck (2004) asserts the mentoring process will be more fruitful if there is a distance between mentor and mentee in terms of departmental function or hierarchical level.

> *In some cases, mentoring is seen as an activity that can take place within the line of command; in others, this is seen as incompatible with the fundamental openness of the relationship. (Clutterbuck 2004 p. 3)*

Tepper (1995) and Garvey (2004) agree that line relationships can be a problem as the power differential within the dyad can stifle conversation. However, these assumptions are not supported by conclusive data: Garvey (2004) concedes that his assertion is indeed a personal view. Supervisory mentoring relationships do exist (Booth 1996; Clutterbuck 2004) and smaller organisations with a more limited supply of prospective mentors may be forced to match participants within the line of command. However, the lack of research into this particular aspect of mentoring relationships makes it is difficult to draw any meaningful conclusions. McDowall-Long (2004) suggests supervisory mentoring relationships should be a focus for future study.

Some writers (Mumford 1995; Friday et al 2004) assert that mentoring, like coaching, can be within the managerial remit. A number of American articles (Minter and Edward 2000; Booth 2003) advocate the concept of supervisory mentoring although the differences between the US and European approach must be acknowledged. Friday et al (2004) assert that early US mentoring research was

based on this relationship type, indicating there is a high probability that a supervisory mentor will provide both psychosocial and career support for the mentee. Wanberg et al (2003) distinguish mentoring from supervision and leadership. Other writers would agree and emphasise the different roles of manager and mentor (Mumford 1995), suggesting supervisory mentoring relationships are always tainted by an inevitable conflict of interest: "either the mentees hold back information or the managers are in conflict in their role." (Clutterbuck 2004 p. 13)

Allen et al's study (2006) found there was no relationship between mentors' rank and the amount of career mentoring received. This was contrary to the researcher's expectations as it was assumed that mentors of higher organisational ranking would be better placed to provide career mentoring (Allen et al 2006). However, differences in rank were found to relate to role modelling although the perceptions of participants varied depending on whether they assumed the role of mentor or mentee. Mentees were found to role model individuals closer to their own rank although mentors reported more role modelling occurred when they were at a higher rank than mentees (Allen et al 2006). This reflects the practitioner's assertion that too wide an experience gap will render the mentor's experience as increasingly irrelevant to the mentee (Clutterbuck 2004). Kram (1985) argued that the process of role modelling requires the mentee to identify with the mentor, this is more likely to occur when participants share commonalities and fewer differences in rank (Ragins 1997).

The literature on cross-organisational mentoring is limited although research into cross-departmental dyads may provide some insight into the dynamics of these relationships. It has been a long held practitioner view that cross-departmental mentoring provides the opportunity to gain fresh insights and a broader company perspective (Clutterbuck 2004) and this may therefore also be the case for cross-organisational schemes. Further, evidence indicates that having a mentor from a different department is associated with greater mentee satisfaction with the mentor (Ragins et al 2000). The absence of departmental or organisational politics may also enable mentors and mentees to engage in psychosocial mentoring and counselling, thus broadening the range of outcomes for mentees (Allen et al 2006).

Allen et al's (2006) study examined the implications of physical proximity and the mentor's organisational position relative to the mentee in formal mentoring relationships. They proposed that physical proximity was likely to influence the type and extent of support offered by the mentor thus implying a beneficial aspect of internal mentoring relationships. However, the findings of this study indicated that proximity did not influence mentoring quality but did affect the frequency of meetings between mentor and mentee (Allen et al 2006). Mentees participating in Allen et al's (2006) study reported greater career mentoring from mentors within the same department whilst mentors

reported providing more psychosocial mentoring to mentees in the same department. This would indicate positive mentoring outcomes related to departmental mentoring which may also be relevant to internal relationships when compared to external ones.

2.7 Mentoring and Learning

HRD literature describes "learning" as increasing individual knowledge, whereas "development" is described as change in a person's ability or performance resulting from learning (Reid et al 2004; Wilson 2005). Thus, learning can occur without development but not vice versa. Within the field of HRD there is debate as to which is most important: the performance view contends that learning is of limited value unless it can be applied (Wilson 2005; Yang 2004), whereas the learning perspective argues that the role of HRD is to develop individuals, who will ultimately contribute towards organisational development (Yang 2004). Knowles et al (2005) describe two approaches omnipresent in the social sciences which reflect this distinction: the "elemental" model, which represents the world as a machine, and the "holistic" model, which represents the world as an interactive and developing organism. Both perspectives are apparent in the mentoring literature: the "elemental" view can be seen in the emphasis on "outcome" measurement and the "holistic" view in the drive for greater understanding of mentoring relationship dynamics.

2.7.1 Theories of Learning

Learning theories can be broadly categorised into three main groups: Behaviourist, Humanistic and Cognitive. Whilst Cognitive and Behaviourist theory has been important in the development of the Humanistic approach to learning, Wilson (2005) argues that in HRD the prevailing learning theories have been drawn predominately from the field of adult education. Despite this assertion, many authors (Harrison 2009; Stewart and Rigg 2014) discuss pedagogy and its application in HRD. However, mentoring is seldom considered from this perspective (Allen and Eby 2003; Hezlett and Gibson 2005). Garvey (2009) has identified a broader range of learning theories that relate to the mentoring process.

The psychological approach to learning has been criticised in adult learning circles because, in this field, cognitive development is seen as the same for both children and adults (Yang 2004). Adult learning theorists argue that there are fundamental differences between adult learning (andragogy) and children's learning due to the existential differences between adults and children (Knowles 2005; Holmes and Abington-Cooper 2000). The andragogic approach asserts that different methods are required in adult education because adult learners are distinct and need to understand the rationale for learning before committing to the education process. There is an assumption that this is not a prerequisite for children's learning (Knowles 2005; McGrath 2009; Moberg 2006). It is conceivable that the core principles of andragogy, such as prior experience providing a rich resource for learning and

readiness to learn being based on need, would be relevant to some learners regardless of their age. As Holmes and Abington-Cooper (2000) contend, it is a mistake to make generalisations based solely on age.

An alternative theory presents the concept of *humanagogy* (Knudson 1980), which emphasises the similarities and differences that exist between adults and children when they learn. This holistic approach takes into account the whole development of human beings (Holmes and Abington Cooper 2000) and is of interest here due to the emphasis on development as a maturation process. In cognitive development theory (Piaget 1953) learning follows development or at the very least coincides with development, producing a "zone of proximal development" (Vygotsky 1978) where learning can be maximised through interaction and collaboration with others. A number of writers, including Jung (1978), have conceptualised adult development in terms of maturation or a life cycle. Further, Levinson's (1978) work "The Seasons of a Man's Life", frequently cited in the mentoring literature, also viewed the human life cycle as a process of development. This qualitative study, based on the psychological traditions of Freud and Jung, describes patterns of adult development common among men (and later women (Levinson 1987)), highlighting changes in biological and psychological functioning as individuals mature. Levinson's (1978) model of developmental periods in early, middle and later adulthood emphasise the different developmental needs and concerns individuals have throughout their lives. Although a simplistic model, there is support for this conception (Erikson 1985). Thus it is argued that, in adult education, learning must also follow development. Readiness to learn is life related (Knowles 2005) hence the need to view the learner within the context of their own life and career cycle.

As thinking around adult learning has progressed, additional conceptualisations have been developed. Heutagogy is an approach which reflects a gradual shift in thinking towards self-determined learning and thus is a development of andragogic principles (Hase and Kenyon 2001; Blaschke 2012). The concept of heutagogy emphasises the development of learner competence as well as the learner's capability to learn (Blaschke 2012). Whilst this is conceived as a recent development, it should be noted that Dewey (1958) and Bruner's (1961) philosophies regarding discovery learning also implied this. However, heutagogy does not assume the presence of an educator and thus, at first, would appear to be unrelated to mentoring concepts. Nonetheless, the mentor's role has been described as chasing the mentee round the learning cycle (Mumford 1995; McKimm et al 2007) thus suggesting that the mentor is facilitating reflective learning within the dyad. Mentoring may therefore be a route to enhance self-determined learning and related practices. It is therefore suggested that all of these perspectives on learning may be useful frameworks to enhance our understanding of learning in mentoring relationships.

One of the main pedagogical learning theories that can be associated with the phenomenon of mentoring is Social Learning Theory (SLT). Developed from Vygotsky's (1934) sociocultural theory, SLT emphasises the importance of role modelling as well as the social and cultural context of learning situations. Bruner (1961) further emphasised the importance of modelling behaviours and how learners will imitate individuals who they either resemble or aspire to be. SLT emphasises the importance of direct experience, observational learning, and reinforcement which relate to the role modelling behaviours of mentors.

A further associated learning theory which may shed light on learning in mentoring relationships is Social Comparison Theory (SCT) (Festinger 1954). This perspective suggests that individuals self-evaluate against other individuals in order to develop. McDowall-Long (2004) contends that the mentoring relationship will enable the mentee to use the mechanism of social comparison through interaction with a more experienced mentor. Social comparison will allow the mentee to evaluate the extent to which the mentor accepts their individual views, behaviours and values (ibid). The supposition is that by doing so the mentee will be able to adapt accordingly. In the mentoring context this would suggest that there is capacity for learning within the dyad if mentors and mentees engage in social comparison and role modelling behaviours.

Perhaps the most commonly used andragogic learning framework in mentoring practice is Kolb's (1983) learning cycle. Experiential learning is a constructionist approach which highlights the importance of direct experience and active engagement in learning. Individuals are encouraged to analyse and reflect upon experience in order to plan for future learning (Kolb 1983; Moon 2004). Some studies have discussed the reflective process in relation to mentoring interaction (Harrison et al 2005; Snyder 2014). However, these studies tend to be profession-specific and relate to occupations such as teaching or nursing that already have reflective learning embedded in their practice. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2011) discuss the value of personal reflective space for executives who are mentored but note that senior managers often find it difficult to do this because their learning style preferences do not facilitate the reflective process. Thus there is scope for further research to examine the learning processes within mentoring dyads in a broader range of job roles.

Reflection in learning refers to a form of mental processing whereby individuals think about actions with the purpose of learning (Moon 2004). Schon (1983) has suggested that the focus of reflection can be "on-action" after the event has happened or "in-action" while it is happening. Reflection is presumed to play an important role in experiential learning and several phases of reflective activity have been identified (Moon 2004). Furthermore, the conditions which support reflection have been considered and include the support of other individuals can who facilitate the process (ibid). Moon

(2004) suggests that a good facilitator will need to have an understanding of the reflective process and how it can support development. These facilitators can model reflection to support the development of reflective skills (ibid), thus suggesting a potential role for mentors within the dyadic relationship.

Merizow's (2000) model of learning as transformation posits that learning occurs in four different ways: by elaborating existing frames of reference, by learning new frames of reference or by transforming either points of view or habits of mind. The route to transformation is facilitated through reflective discourse, thus again highlighting the potential role of reflection in mentoring. However Cranton (2000) has also considered transformative learning in relation to individual differences, using Jung's Theory of Psychological Type to describe learners' habits of mind. She suggests that it is the decision making function of "Thinking or Feeling" which will lead to change, as transformation will require judgement of some sort. Furthermore, strategies to support learners with specific psychological preferences are suggested and include enhancing self-awareness through knowledge of Type Theory.

2.7.2 Mentoring Outcomes

The positive learning outcomes of formal mentoring schemes are well documented (Clutterbuck 2004; Megginson and Clutterbuck 1995; Garvey 1995). Clutterbuck (2004) describes broad ranging, holistic benefits for mentees involved in non-directive mentoring relationships including developmental, career, enabling, and emotional outcomes. Mentee outcomes include increased confidence, opportunities to network, career guidance, support with professional relationships, improved knowledge of the organisation, and the opportunity to challenge one's own thinking (Clutterbuck 2004). Nonetheless, Gibb (1994) emphasises that mentoring relationships operate at an individual level, hence different individuals will get different individual outcomes from mentoring. Eby et al (2006) investigated the relationship between short term mentoring outcomes and long term outcomes and found the immediate benefits of mentoring to be related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Moreover, mentors who reported greater proximal mentoring outcomes indicated they were more likely to serve as a mentor in the future. It would be important to establish which individual and dyadic factors influence mentor proximal outcomes as Eby et al's (2006) findings indicate that this would support the continuance of mentoring within organisations.

Eraut (2004) has suggested that mentoring lies in the middle of the informal/formal learning continuum, thus suggesting that both formal and informal learning outcomes will be derived from mentoring relationships. Informal learning refers to unstructured and unintended learning (ibid) which has not been planned, whereas formal learning refers to intentional learning which has been identified through objectives or learning goals. The literature pertaining to mentoring outcomes (Young and

Perrewe 2000; Wanberg et al 2006; Eby et al 2006) has not distinguished between these two types of learning outcomes, although some authors (Young 2000; Eby et al 2006) have used other categorisations such as tangible and perceptual or instrumental and relational outcomes. Eraut's (2004) assertion implies that an equal balance of formal and informal outcomes will result from mentoring relationships but does not consider the influence of contextual or relationship factors on outcomes. Furthermore, it is worth considering whether mentors and mentees will receive similar types of outcomes or whether there will be distinct differences between the roles.

2.7.2.1 Individual Outcomes

American mentoring literature describes more career-orientated outcomes derived from directive mentoring relationships (Ayree et al 1996; McDowall-Long 2004; Dougherty and Dreher 2007). US writers have also described the psychosocial outcomes enjoyed by mentees but seldom focus on developmental outcomes. Clutterbuck (2004) argues that the distinctly different approach to US mentoring is reflected in how mentoring success is measured in US literature. Therefore it is not surprising that the European mentoring model, which subscribes to a much broader view of the mentoring role, is measured differently. As mentioned earlier, Clutterbuck (2004) refers to mentoring outcomes as being developmental, career related, enabling or emotional. Developmental outcomes include knowledge and technical competence whereas career outcomes relate to the achievement of career goals (ibid). Enabling outcomes include developing a career or self-development plan as well as establishing social and resource networks (ibid). Emotional outcomes are less tangible, but Clutterbuck suggests that they often involve important changes in emotional state (ibid). Whilst some writers have suggested that these outcomes are received by both mentors and mentees (Ehrich et al 2004; Clutterbuck 2004), others (Grima et al 2014) have identified differences between the outcomes for mentors and mentees. However, the majority of literature pertaining to mentoring outcomes has largely focused on mentee learning (Young and Perrewe 2000; Eby et al 2006; Grima et al 2014) thus indicating an area for future research.

Young (2000) differentiates between perceptual and tangible mentoring outcomes and asserts both are important as the perceived benefits of mentoring will determine the extent to which individuals participate in mentoring schemes. Furthermore, different perceptual and tangible outcomes will be formed as the relationship progresses (ibid). Gibb (1999) agrees and emphasises that participants need time to reflect fully on the benefits that the relationship has brought them. This has implications for research methodology as participants may describe perceptual mentoring outcomes more accurately during the later stages of the mentoring relationship.

2.7.2.2 Organisational Outcomes

There is general agreement that organisational outcomes stem from individual mentoring outcomes (Scandura 1996; Noe et al 2002; Wanberg et al 2003). Scandura et al (1996) note that when the mentoring relationship enhances a mentee's contribution to the company, the organisation benefits. Thus organisational outcomes will be equally distinct if they originate from the experiences of individual employees. Wanberg et al (2003) categorise organisational outcomes into several groups but accept that there will be a continuum of organisational benefits influenced by individual outcomes, the mentoring context, and individual and dyad antecedents. McDowall-Long (2004) argues that formal mentoring programme often focus more on short term or organisational goals thus suggesting there is a lack of attention given to long term learning outcomes for mentors and mentees.

The literature suggests that one of the beneficial organisational outcomes arising from mentoring relationships is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). These behaviours have been defined as discretionary behaviours that individuals exhibit, despite those behaviours not being explicitly recognised by an organisation's formal reward processes (Ghosh et al 2012). Research has shown that positive mentoring experiences can increase the likelihood of individuals participating in OCB (Donaldson et al 2000; Ghosh et al 2012). It is suggested that the effect of positive feelings, reciprocal development and personal growth received from positive mentoring experiences will encourage OCB (Ghosh et al 2012). Further, individuals who exhibit OCBs report higher levels of organisational commitment (Donaldson et al 2000), thus suggesting that mentoring can have real benefits for organisations.

2.7.2.3 Negative Mentoring Outcomes

Researchers have acknowledged that unsuccessful mentoring relationships result in negative outcomes (Kram 1985; Merriman 1983; Scandura 1998). Eby et al's (2004) paper highlights the importance of the matching process for mentor and mentee and describes some of the relationship problems and behaviours which can affect mentoring outcomes. Clutterbuck (2004) also acknowledges the potential problems for the mentee but argues they only emerge when the quality of the mentor and the programme design are poor. Most mentoring relationships are in fact positive ones. However, it is important to study the dysfunctional aspects of less successful relationships to provide an insight into the mentoring relationship and the context in which they exist (O'Neill 2004).

Scandura (1998) first attempted to map the relationship dysfunctions present in mentoring relationships. Based on Duck's (1994) typology of relational problems, behaviours ranged from "negative relations" and "sabotage", where the one party exhibited bad intent towards the other, to "difficulty" and "spoiling" where the participants had positive intentions but found difficulty in relating

to one another. Scandura (1998) continued this typology of negative mentoring styles, highlighting both the power dynamic and psychological contract between mentor and mentee, by including behaviours such as “deception” and “harassment”. This work, garnered from a comprehensive review of literature, highlighted an important distinction between participant objectives and whether problems were innate or had developed over time. It also underlined the role of social skills in relationship development. Nonetheless, even if mentors and mentees demonstrated excellent social skills there would still be the issue of complementarity (Feldman 1999). Thus an examination of individual antecedent characteristics would be required to identify personality attributes which support or hinder relationships between mentors and mentees.

Eby et al (2000) identified five types of negative mentoring experience: general dysfunctional, mismatch within the dyad, lack of mentor expertise, manipulative behaviour, and distancing behaviour. This qualitative study focused on mentees’ perceptions of mentoring relationships and found that “distancing behaviours” occurred quite frequently: mentor neglect was reported by 30% of the participants. This was contrary to previous opinion (Scandura 1998), which assumed that negative experiences would be atypical. Eby et al’s (2000) inclusion of more minor relationship difficulties such as “distancing behaviours” highlights the extent to which relationship problems can exist and is supported by Eby and McManus’s (2004) research where 70% of the participant mentors reported negative mentoring experiences. Moreover, the relationship literature suggests that most personal relationships will involve problems from time to time and it would be unrealistic to expect mentoring relationships to be any different.

Eby and Allen (2002) categorised negative mentoring experiences by poor dyadic fit or distancing/manipulative behaviour. Their findings were based on an examination of the mentee’s perspective only but do correspond partially with Scandura’s (1998) typology. Eby and Allen (2002) noted that distancing or manipulative behaviour was marked by bad intent whereas poor dyadic fit was more likely to be the result of a mismatch between the mentor and mentee. Factors which contributed to such mismatches included dissimilarity or personal problems which prevented one party developing a close relationship with another. Interestingly this study indicates that negative mentoring experiences are more detrimental to mentees in formal mentoring relationships. The authors argue that this may be due to the increased visibility of the scheme resulting in participants feeling unable to end unsatisfactory relationships or unrealistic expectations set up through participation in this type of scheme. Alternatively, it may be that the “formal” organisational constraints of these relationships, such as participant guidelines and training, prolong these unions as participants carry on within professional guidelines even though the relationship is ineffective. Thus

the extra time spent within such relationships would explain why mentees found them to be more damaging.

Eby and McManus (2004) explore negative mentoring experiences from the mentor's perspective, stressing their concerns with what Feldman (1999) describes as the "protégé as a victim model". The concept of the "toxic" mentee is not new (Feldman 1999; Clutterbuck 2004), although it must be recognised that mentors can be "toxic" too. Eby and McManus (2004) extended Scandura's (1998) taxonomy by including marginal mentoring experiences, those experiences which verge on being neither effective or ineffective. Such relationships do not create serious dysfunction but they do reduce the overall relationship success. This type of negative experience occurred most frequently within the sample group and involved behaviours such as "unwillingness to learn" and "performance below expectations". The more frequent the negative experience, the more likely it was to impact on the mentoring relationship. This is understandable and indicates that it is frequent, low-level, negative behaviours that are more damaging to mentoring relationships than infrequent and extreme incidents.

One development in this area is the suggestion that positive mentoring relationships can produce negative mentoring outcomes; Herrbach et al (2011) found that in some mentoring relationships mentors promoted "non-commitment". The research examined the extent to which some mentors encouraged mentees to distance themselves from the organisation. The authors suggested that some managers will not automatically follow an organisation's interests and may even influence others to do the same. However, they did not consider this type of negative mentoring outcome to be as damaging as some negative behaviour directed at the mentee.

Negative mentoring experiences have been shown to relate to a mentee's intentions to leave the mentorship even when some aspects of the relationship have been positive (Burk and Eby 2010). However, not all negative mentoring experiences relate to intentions to leave the relationship as some mentees perceive few alternatives or fear repercussions in doing so (Burk and Eby 2010). The authors argue that this raises a number of important practical issues for formal mentoring schemes and that there should be strategies in place to support the dissolution of unsuccessful mentoring relationships. The realities may, however, be more complicated. Burk and Eby (2010) concede that more research into mentees' emotional responses to negative experiences is needed. An examination of the mentor's perspective is also needed to ascertain how best to manage such relationships.

2.8 Individual Differences and Mentoring

> *Despite variation between mentoring contexts and practices, a key feature of all mentoring activity is the relationship between the mentor and mentee. (Garvey 2005)*

This section discusses the impact of individual differences on mentoring relationship dynamics and outcomes. Individual differences refer to factors such as personality, perceptions, attitudes, and values which make one individual different from another (Nelson and Quick 2013; Griffin et al 2015). Given the aim of this study, the extant literature is reviewed taking into consideration what is known about broader individual differences as well as personality differences in mentoring relationships. In addition, the influence of these differences on relationship dynamics and learning outcomes is addressed in order to establish current knowledge in the field.

Differences have been studied in mentoring research from the outset (Kram 1985; Noe 1988; Ensher and Murphy 1997). However, the main focus for study has been demographic differences between the mentor and mentee. Studies (Feldman et al 1999; O'Neill 2002; Young et al 2006; Fowler et al 2007) have frequently addressed differences in gender and race within dyads and have suggested that some degree of demographic homogeneity is advantageous in mentoring relationships (Kram 1985; Ensher and Murphy 1997; Feldman 1999; Noe et al 2002). However, other writers have suggested that demographic differences will simply produce different mentoring outcomes (Gibb 1994; McDowall-Long 2004; Young et al 2006).

Other differences, such as age, have been addressed although there is a lack of consensus among writers. Research has suggested that mentee age will influence the amount of career mentoring provided, the characteristics of the mentoring relationship, and the perceptions of mutual learning (Finkelstein et al 2003). Older mentees report less career mentoring and shorter relationships but described more mutual learning between the dyad (ibid). Furthermore, it was found that older mentors provided less psychosocial mentoring. Again this suggests that demographic similarity may present benefits for the mentee. However, these findings also indicate that mentors may derive more learning from older mentees who are more similar in age or older. Nonetheless, the literature on reverse mentoring suggests otherwise. Chaudhuri and Ghosh (2012) assert that when mentees are older than their mentors, there are opportunities for both parties to learn from the different needs, values and work demands of the other. They propose that generational differences in reverse mentoring relationships can help organisations to leverage the expertise of both groups, thus enhancing the engagement of older workers and the commitment of younger ones. However, peer

mentoring relationships have also been found to be successful (Clutterbuck 2004; Bryant 2005) thus compounding the issue further still.

Peer mentoring relationships exist between two individuals who typically hold equivalent professional status (Clutterbuck 2004; Ensher and Murphy 2011). This suggests that although the individuals are not necessarily the same age, they do have a similar experience level and are therefore are not focusing on an experience gap to sustain their learning (Clutterbuck 2004). There is an assumption implicit in the "traditional" mentoring literature that greater age or rank will supply the experience gap required. Clutterbuck (2004) challenges this assertion and highlights how the complexity of modern organisations can sometimes conceal the actual experience levels of employees. He suggests that whenever individuals come together in developmental relationships, each one brings a range of experiences which may be useful to the other (ibid).

2.9 Individual Antecedents

Research has suggested that individual characteristics of both the mentor and mentee influence the extent to which individuals engage in the mentoring process (Young 2000). Pittenger and Heimann (2000) assert that participant feelings about their abilities to fulfil the role of mentor or mentee will be directly related to the effectiveness of the relationship. This indicates that confidence and self-esteem are necessary for both parties within mentoring relationships. It also underlines the importance of orientation sessions to equip participants with the relevant knowledge and skills.

2.9.1 Mentee Behaviours

The literature highlights a number of individual antecedents which have been explored in mentoring studies. These include the common characteristics exhibited by mentees who successfully establish mentoring relationships (Wanberg et al 2003). Although most of the research focuses on informal mentoring relationships they do provide insight into the mentee characteristics which are attractive to mentors. Young (2002) argues attraction to a partner is crucial in any relationship if it is to succeed. Aryee et al (1999) found that mentees with "less negative affectivity, greater extraversion, higher self-monitoring, a propensity towards Type A personality and greater self-esteem" were more likely to report behaviours which would lead to a mentoring relationship. Ghosh (2014) agrees and suggests that mentee proactivity and learning goal orientation will be important in successful mentoring relationships. Further, it is suggested that mentors are attracted to people-orientated mentees who are open to learning (Allen et al 1997). These qualities have also been associated with receiving more mentoring functions (Aryee et al 1999; Turban and Dougherty 1994; Wanberg et al 2003).

Allen et al (2006) established that mentees tend to role model individuals closer to their own rank although, paradoxically, mentors reported more role modelling occurred when they were at a higher

rank than mentees. Again there is some support for this assertion as practitioners have long argued that too wide an experience gap will render the mentor's knowledge irrelevant to the mentee (Clutterbuck 2004). Further, there is support for Kram's (1985) position that the process of role modelling requires the mentee to identify with the mentor; this is more likely to occur when participants share commonalities and fewer differences in rank (Allen et al 2006). Thus these findings may have implications for internal and external mentoring relationships facilitated by organisations.

2.9.2 Mentor Behaviours

Wanberg et al (2003) note there is only a small amount of literature pertaining to mentor characteristics, highlighting a further shortcoming in mentoring research. Some studies have suggested open-mindedness, patience and honesty are important characteristics for mentors (Allen, Poteet and Burroughs 1997; Allen and Poteet 1999; Bozionelos 2004). Lee et al (2000) assert that mentors should be emotionally stable and agreeable if they are to be disposed to mentoring others. In addition, it has been suggested that "caring" behaviours including empathy, respect, and sensitivity to others needs are required for competent mentoring (Johnson 2003). Allen (2003) agrees and found that individuals who exhibit prosocial tendencies such as "other-orientated empathy" and "helpfulness" are more likely to engage in mentoring. Helpfulness was found to be a consistent indicator of the desire to mentor. Furthermore, there is some suggestion that mentors with higher organisational based self-esteem are more likely to mentor others (Mullen 1998).

Further research (Lee et al 2000; Wanberg et al 2003) has indicated that open-mindedness is an important characteristic for mentors. This is a consistent theme in other mentoring research which has taken a psychometric approach. Clutterbuck (2004) describes ten mentor competencies including self-awareness, communication competence, and the ability to set goals and to understand others. Wanberg et al (2003) agree that mentors' learning goal orientation may be an important factor but concede further research is needed. However, mentoring commitment has been identified as an important indicator of mentee perceptions of relationship quality in formal mentoring relationships (Allen and Eby 2008). Allen and Eby's (2008) study, which canvassed both mentors and mentees, indicated that mentees were most satisfied with their mentoring relationship when they perceived the mentor to be more committed to the relationship than the mentor had actually reported. This discrepancy relates to Godshalk and Sosik's (2000) earlier research which investigated the leadership style of mentors. Mentors who underestimated their leadership relative to the mentees rating were associated with higher mentee reports of relationship quality. The authors argued that mentor underestimation revealed a degree of modesty and altruism on the part of the mentor and suggest that the ability to self-evaluate may relate to better mentoring. Again this concept is not new, learning theory (Schon 1983; Kolb 1983; Moon 2004) maintains that self-evaluation is an important process in

all aspects of learning. It is therefore possible that in order to do this mentors need to be proficient in the process themselves.

2.9.3 Mentor Functions

The relationship between mentoring functions and outcomes is well established in the mentoring literature (Kram 1985; Wanberg et al 2003; Fowler and O'Gorman 2005). Kram's (1985) initial conceptualisation of career and psychosocial functions has been extended to include other more specific mentoring activities including role modelling, friendship, personal and emotional guidance and coaching (Levesque et al 2005; Fowler and O'Gorman 2005). However, the European model of mentoring characterises mentoring functions differently and suggest coaching, guiding, networking and counselling are typical mentoring activities (Clutterbuck 2004). Each of these functions varies in the level of direction provided by the mentor and the level of challenge or support offered (ibid).

Whilst the literature has suggested that there may be some individual differences which influence the type of mentoring function provided in mentoring relationships, there has been little focus on personality characteristics in this domain. Most research has focused on the impact of mentor gender differences on mentoring functions (Ragins and Cotton 1999; Scandura et al 2001; Allen and Eby 2004). Some studies have indicated that female mentors may be more likely to provide psychosocial functions (Allen and Eby 2004; Okurame 2007) although it should be noted that these findings relate to mentor and mentee perceptions of support and thus societal gender expectations may have had influence here. Certainly Fowler et al (2007) noted that mentee gender did not influence the mentoring functions provided to female and male mentees although other studies (Levesque et al 2005) have suggested that it does influence the importance placed on the different functions received. It has been suggested that women perceive championing, acceptance and confirmation behaviours to be the most important mentoring functions (ibid) and therefore it is possible that these characteristics may be more salient in female mentees descriptions of mentoring relationships.

Some writers (Fowler and O' Gorman 2005) have identified learning facilitation as an important function within mentoring relationships. However, other studies have failed to discuss this role (Scandura et al 2001; Levesque et al 2005). Despite this, writers have emphasised the role of reflection and feedback within the mentoring relationship (Barnett 1995; Clutterbuck and Megginson 2011; Rock and Garavan 2011) thus suggesting that this function has, to some extent, been identified. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2011) differentiate executive mentors into three common roles; executive coach, elder statesperson and the reflective mentor. Each role is distinct and sometimes incompatible (ibid). Clutterbuck and Megginson (2011) argue that effective reflective mentors can be difficult to find due to the complex set of skills required do the role effectively but also suggest that these individuals can

help to address a broad range of professional and personal needs. Rock and Garavan (2011) emphasise that reflection can enhance self-awareness and that developmental relationships may provide an ideal forum for this to occur.

2.9.4 Negative Mentoring Behaviours

There is a small but growing body of research pertaining to negative mentoring behaviours (Scandura 1998; Eby et al 2004). Negative characteristics of mentors and mentees have also received attention in the practitioner literature. Clutterbuck Associates' (2005) "Twelve habits of the toxic mentee/mentor" highlights some demanding and unprofessional behaviours which have clearly been apparent in practice. More recent discussions regarding "ethical mentoring" (Clutterbuck 2013b) have focused attention on the subject of negative behaviour in mentoring relationships. Eby and McManus (2004) reported a number of negative mentee behaviours including egocentricity and unresponsiveness. This study asked mentors to provide written narratives of their mentoring experiences from which a continuum of problems from the mentor's perspective was developed. Difficulties included harassment, deception, unresponsiveness, sabotage and defensiveness amongst others. The study sample consisted of both formal and informal mentors; half of the participant mentors were involved in assigned mentoring relationships. Whilst the authors speculated that there would be an increased likelihood for negative experiences in assigned relationships, no analysis was made to support this assertion.

2.9.5 Personality Antecedents

Research on personality in mentoring relationships has been relatively infrequent despite wider recognition that personality characteristics will influence relationship development and outcomes (Turban and Lee 2007). Further, evidence suggests that participation as a mentor may be influenced to some degree by personality (Niehoff 2006). Although there are numerous definitions of the concept of personality, organisational behaviour literature defines it as a relative stable set of dispositions which influence individual behaviour, thoughts, and emotions, thus distinguishing one person from another (Nelson and Quick 2013; Huczynski and Buchanan 2013; Griffin et al 2015). Personality research in organisations has typically adopted a "trait approach" (Turban and Lee 2007), which has been reflected in the mentoring literature (Bozionelos 2004; Waters 2004; Menges 2015). Traits are individual characteristics that give rise to predispositions to act in a certain way (Rollinson 2008). There are many different types of traits that are used to classify people and identify their particular combination of trait strengths (ibid). Nonetheless, using a trait based approach may be limited as they can be poor predictors of behaviour. Individuals may not always behave consistently given the influence of situational factors on behaviour (Pastorino and Doyle-Portillo 2008). This method is in direct contrast to the type approach which, like MBTI, arranges people into predetermined personality

categories which are thought to determine certain patterns of behaviour (Rollinson 2008; Nelson and Quick 2013). Although there are different approaches to personality measurement, most researchers (Young 2000; Turban and Lee 2007) approach the concept of personality from an interactionist perspective which acknowledges the influence of both genetic and environmental factors on our personality attributes.

2.9.6 Psychometric Testing

Research which has used psychometrics to examine mentoring relationships has followed the trait approach and focused on a number of different characteristics. A small number of studies (Bozionelos 2004; Waters 2004; Niehoff 2006; Menges 2015) have approached personality in mentoring relationships using the NEO PI-R psychometric instrument (Waters 2004; Bozionelos 2004; Menges 2015). This tool is based on McCrae and Costa's (1989) "Big Five" personality classification. No mentoring research could be found that used a type approach such as MBTI. This small body of literature has focused on the five factors of McCrae and Costa's (1989) personality framework and include: agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness to experience. As discussed further in section 2.14.3, research has explored the relationship between this categorisation and MBTI. Table 1 presents the relationship between the MBTI instrument and four of McCrae and Costa's (1989) five factors, highlighting the correlation between the two measures.

MBTI Dichotomy	NEO-PI-R	Correlation
Extraversion-Introversion	Extraversion	0.69
Sensing-Intuition	Openness	0.69
Thinking-Feeling	Agreeableness	0.42
Judging-Perceiving	Conscientiousness	0.46

Table 1: Relationship between Four of the Big Five Factors and MBTI (Source: Daisley 2011)

Bozionelos' (2004) study applied the Big Five personality classification to examine mentor characteristics. The study, which focused on administrative staff in UK universities, found that the mentoring provided was positively related to openness to experience, and negatively related to agreeableness. While the latter result was surprising, only openness was found to be significant. Waters' (2004) findings suggest that when mentors and mentees exhibit a high level of agreeableness, openness, and extraversion, a higher level of trust and communication are fostered within the mentoring relationship. However, this cross-sectional study focused on informal mentoring relationships only and did not address some important variables including relationship length at time of study. However, Niehoff's (2006) study agreed that individuals who were high on extraversion and

openness to experience may well be predisposed to mentoring. The research also found conscientiousness to be positively correlated with participation as a mentor, leaving the author to conclude that willingness to mentor could be influenced by personality factors.

The most recent study to examine mentoring using psychometrics focused on improving the effectiveness of the matching processes in formal mentoring schemes. Menges (2015) found that similarity between openness to experience and conscientiousness within the mentoring dyad impacted on mentee learning outcomes derived from the relationship. In the dyads that were similar in this respect, mentees reported more career and psychosocial outcomes, leaving the author to conclude that similarity in these personality traits enhanced mentee learning. Further, Menges (2015) has advocated that formal mentoring dyads should be matched on the basis of similarity in these personality characteristics. Again the focus here is on mentee learning only, thus overlooking the "mutual" ethos of developmental mentoring relationships. This was unexpected in a UK study but does highlight the bias implicit in some studies towards the mentee. Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that within learning contexts some level of dissimilarity can be useful. Rock and Garavan (2011) suggest that effective mentoring does not require absolute similarity as differences in opinion will support learning. Nonetheless, these authors do recognise that strong dissonance will be problematic.

2.10 The Mentoring Relationship

> *The relationship literature suggests that while the unique characteristics of two individuals is important, the interaction of the characteristics of two individuals is particularly critical in determining the characteristics of the relationship.* (Wanberg et al 2003 p. 100)

Examining the dynamics of mentoring relationships is challenging given the number of variables that need to be addressed (Hale 2000). Both demographic and individual differences will affect relationship interactions. However, it is pertinent to note that mentoring is distinguished from other learning and development initiatives by being seen as a relationship as opposed to an activity (ibid). This distinction is important and may influence how it is perceived by others: the term "relationship" may change the expectations different individuals have for the mentoring process.

Formal mentoring relationships develop over time and move through a series of specific relationship stages (Kram 1985; Chao 1997; Clutterbuck 2004). Kram (1985) first suggested that mentoring relationships moved through a progression of stages from initiation, cultivation, and separation to redefinition. Each stage is characterised by a different set of activities and outcomes (Chao 1997).

However, Clutterbuck (2004) asserts that developmental mentoring relationships will evolve slightly differently from Kram's stages, which were based on the US model of mentoring. Clutterbuck also identified four mentoring phases for developmental mentoring relationships, noting specific features within each stage (Figure 5).

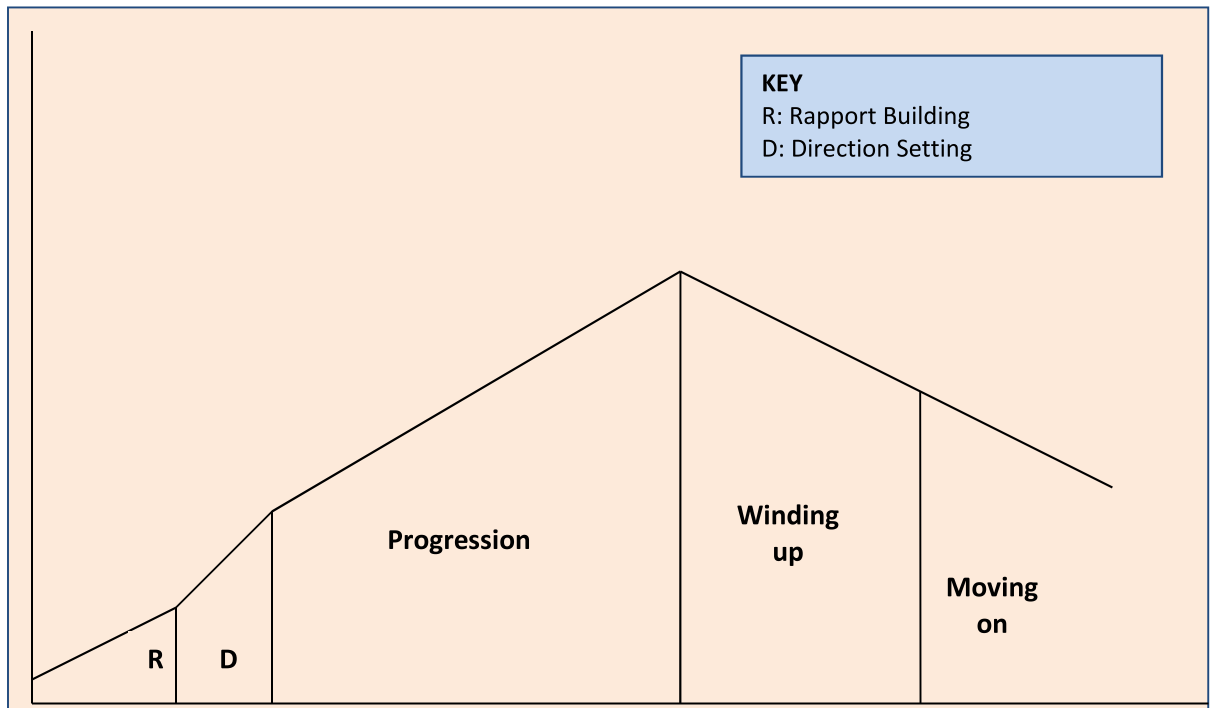

Figure 5: Stages of the Mentoring Relationship (Source: Clutterbuck 2006)

The start of the mentoring relationship involves both a rapport building stage and direction setting. During the rapport building stage, the mentor and mentee get to know one another and then move on to set goals for the mentoring relationship. This is followed by a period of progression which is a period of high mutual learning; after some time the learning received will lessen and the relationship will start to wind down. The end of the relationship often involves identifying what has been achieved through the relationship and moving on to utilise other sources of learning. Often, once the main period of learning has ended, the relationship will continue informally although infrequently. Whilst the dynamics of the mentoring relationship will change as the relationship progresses through the four different stages, research (Beech and Brockbank 1999) has suggested that the relationship will also change as mentees begin to perceive themselves as more competent in time. The dynamics of the mentoring relationship will now be considered.

2.10.1 Theoretical Perspectives

Mentoring research has been criticised due to the lack of attention given to the development of key concepts and explanatory theory (Gibb 1999; Bozeman and Feeney 2007). A number of writers have suggested that psychological models of relationship development may provide useful insights into

mentoring relationships which are, after all, inter-personal relationships that develop in the work environment (Scandura 1998; Young and Perrewe 2000; McDowall-Long 2004; Wanberg et al 2006). Equally, a number of US studies (Allen 2003; Wanberg et al 2006; Poteat et al 2015) have been approached from a psychological perspective and have been conducted by psychology researchers. Certainly the question of what motivates one to mentor is relevant if we are to understand the relationship dynamics for those who do so. Also the idea that mentoring delivers wide ranging benefits for organisations and individuals may be examined further still.

2.10.2 Social Exchange Theory

Examining mentoring from a social exchange perspective has been discussed by a number of academics (Gibb 1999; Young and Perrewe 2000; Allen 2003; Eby 2004; Grima et al 2014) who highlight the importance of the mentoring exchange. Despite recognising mentoring in the context of an exchange, few studies have examined the exchange process itself (Young and Perrewe 2000). Gibb (1999) argues that, from this perspective, formal mentoring will be viewed as a "benefit-based, calculated relationship"; an economic transaction, familiar to employees through their experiences of employment culture and reward. From the social exchange perspective, individuals would need to perceive advantages of engaging in a mentoring relationship before doing so thus highlighting the importance of perceived outcomes at the start of mentoring relationships. Further, benefits would need to be tangible and direct in order to support relationship continuation.

Nevertheless, Social Exchange Theory (SET) is not without its critics (Molm 2015); comparing social relationships to economic transactions could be viewed as simplistic. Nonetheless, proponents argue this approach is valid and certainly interest in social exchange theory has increased in recent years (Hogg and Vaughan 2008). However Gibb's (1999) case studies indicate that SET alone cannot explain the success and failure of formal mentoring relationships. Allen (2003) asserts that, from a social exchange perspective, mentors would be likely to favour high ability mentees who bring desirable attributes to the relationship. However, findings indicate that willingness to learn can help to compensate for lack of ability in mentees (Allen 2003) thus suggesting that mentors are motivated by broader ranging factors than SET suggests.

2.10.3 Prosocial Behaviour

An alternative theoretical perspective is that individuals engage in prosocial 'helping' behaviours because they are motivated by their values and sense of responsibility towards their community (Gibb 1999; Hogg and Vaughan 2008). Prosocial behaviour refers to helping which is not based on professional commitments or organisational obligations (Bierhoff 2008). Gibb (1999) refers to this phenomenon as "Communitarianism" although there are clear links to other behaviours such as

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Noe et al (2002) assert that this is an area of interest because the mentoring commitment is often not a job requirement. It also relates to the idea of altruism; a common description of mentoring behaviour (Allen 2002; Clutterbuck 2004). Gibb (1999) describes this approach as 'hard-headed altruism.' However, truly selfless behaviour is difficult to demonstrate (Hogg and Vaughan 2008). Gibb's (1999) assumption that 'most members of our society are socialized with communitarian values' is optimistic as it is difficult to ascertain whether individuals are acting altruistically or if they are actually engaging in social exchange for less tangible benefits. However, Allen et al (1997) identified thirteen different factors for participation as a mentor and these could be classified into two groups: other focused and self-focused reasons. 'Self-focused' reasons included the desire to increase personal learning and feel gratification for mentoring others whereas 'other-focused' reasons included the desire to help others, pass on information and benefit the organisation. This corresponds with Gibb's (1999) assertions regarding SET and Communitarianism.

Gibb (1999) acknowledges that whilst communitarian values are more likely to flourish in settings where there is a strong sense of community, workplaces are not always viewed in this way. His study did, however, indicate that there was a strong communitarian base for formal mentoring in the organisations although it is worth pondering whether these findings were specific to the organisations or the individual people involved in these mentoring schemes. Although, organisational culture and values will be important, psychologists point to there being a 'prosocial personality; a set of personality attributes which are associated with higher levels of helping behaviour (Bierhoff 2008). Young (2000) concurs and argues that altruism is a relevant dispositional characteristic associated with mentors and their motivation to mentor. It would therefore be worth establishing which personality characteristics are linked to these behaviours.

2.10.4 Attachment Theory

Another approach to mentoring is to view these relationships from an Attachment Theory perspective. Attachment Theory may help us to gain insight into how previous significant interpersonal relationships can influence the mentoring relationship (Scandura and Pellegrini 2004; Wang et al 2009; Poteat et al 2015). It describes how children subconsciously develop a preferred attachment style in response to how they are treated by carers (Buunk and Dijkstra 2008; Germain 2011). Noe et al (2002) link mentoring relationship success to early childhood development, arguing early experiences will influence the extent to which individuals are willing to be mentored:

> *"Specifically, some individuals (e.g. those secure adults) are drawn to mentoring relationships, others would be expected to avoid mentoring relationships, and still others would respond ambiguously to them."* (Noe et al 2002 p.165)

Germain (2011) found that mentoring dyads in which both participants had secure attachment styles or a mentor with a secure attachment style had the best chance of attaining learning outcomes from their relationship. The author argues that by assessing participants' attachment styles HRD practitioners will be more able to match successful dyads. However, whilst the consequences of secure and insecure attachment are well documented in relationship theory (ibid), the association between temperament and attachment must also be considered. Temperament researchers have suggested that different temperamental antecedents may underline the three attachment patterns (Mangelsdorf et al 2000) thus highlighting an important area for focus in relationship development. Further, temperament assessment may prove a more practicable measure for HRD professionals. Although it is recognised infant attachment styles are not the only influence on later relationships (Dwyer 2000). Later experiences may also influence the openness, and therefore scope, of the mentoring relationship:

> *"Our past experiences accumulate through both professional and personal aspects of our lives and cannot help but shape our current behaviour."* (Levinson et al 1978)

Wang et al (2009) investigated attachment from the mentor's perspective. Their findings indicate individuals with negative views of themselves or others were less likely to feel comfortable mentoring others. This is perhaps unsurprising and supports the case for voluntary participation in formal mentoring schemes. It also illustrates the importance of interpersonal comfort in mentoring relationships; Allen et al (2005) found that interpersonal comfort is an influential factor related to gender similarity and mentoring provided. Individuals in same sex relationships reported greater interpersonal comfort showing consistency with other research findings relating to mentoring and similarity and mentoring and gender (Enscher and Murphy 1997; Turban et al 2002; O'Neill 2002). Interestingly mentees in formal relationships reported similar levels of interpersonal comfort to those in informal mentoring relationships; the authors speculating that sufficient procedures were in place to successfully match and prepare participants in this formal scheme. Whether this would be true of all formal mentoring schemes is open to question but it does illustrate the importance of mentoring scheme design. Moreover these findings contradict other research studies which indicate informal mentoring is more fruitful than formal mentoring due to the natural processes by which mentor and mentee meet (Ragins et al 2000).

2.11 Relationship Dynamics

The impact of relationship dynamics within mentoring dyads has been the focus for research. A number of psychology researchers (Allen; Eby; Lentz; Lankau; Wanberg) have applied psychological

constructs to the mentoring relationship and identified factors which may enhance relationship development, thus maximising the potential for learning. Relational features of the mentoring dyad will now be examined in more detail.

2.11.1 Compatibility

Whilst there has been little attention given to mentoring relationship dyad characteristics, studies have indicated that mentors and mentees with a high level of learning goal orientation report more successful mentoring relationships (Wanberg et al 2003; Marshall Egan 2005). Learning goal orientation refers to an individual's desire to develop knowledge and competence (Kim 2007). Research suggests that higher commitment to the achievement of goals within the mentoring dyad will produce learning outcomes (Marshall Egan 2005). This is supported by Noe et al (2002) who indicate that the exchange of behaviours between mentor and mentee influence the outcomes mentees receive from the relationship. In addition, mentees who exhibit a high level of career-related behaviours are perceived by mentors favourably, thus resulting in higher levels of relationship quality reported by the mentors (Noe et al 2002). Furthermore, mutual liking, identification, and attraction have been identified as key processes associated with the establishment and development of mentoring relationships (Kram 1985). The key issue within formal mentoring relationships must be the extent to which this can develop, given these relationship are usually initiated through a third party matching process (Eby and Lockwood 2005).

Feldman's (1999) paper put forward the view that both mentors and mentees contribute to the interpersonal dynamics that create negative relationships. He argued that "personality pathologies" within mentoring relationships were actually to do with differences in "personal style". Individuals could easily misinterpret their partner's behaviour when there were such differences, thus highlighting the importance of perception in mentoring relationships (Srivastava 2010). Wanberg et al (2003) agree and highlight the importance of relationship characteristics such as interpersonal perception and complimentary interaction. Clearly some individual differences have a negative impact on the mentoring dyad. An examination of the interplay between the personal styles of mentor and mentee may explain organisational behaviour issues which impact on the mentoring received and subsequent outcomes. This is a common theme within the literature and illustrates the view that positive relationship dynamics will promote relationship longevity, thus maximising the potential for learning.

2.11.2 Similarity

Young (2000) suggests that similarity in attitude between the mentoring dyad is likely to result in mutual liking and attraction. Clutterbuck (2002) agrees and refers to the "Reinforcement-affect Model" of attraction and SCT to explain the role of similarity and difference within the mentoring dyad.

In all types of mentoring relationships, perceived similarity or attraction is thought to play a key role in the development of the relationship (Young 2000). Wanberg et al (2003) argue that differences are thought to constrain mentoring relationships whilst similarities facilitate them. Common attributes between mentor and mentee encourage the development of intimate and complementary relationships characterised by mutual understanding and fewer conflicts (Wanberg et al 2003). Nonetheless, some studies have indicated that similarity, whilst important in the early stages, is less important as the relationship progresses and can even become less beneficial over time (Turban et al 2002). It would be important to establish which differences facilitate the mentoring relationship or learning received.

Lankau et al (2005) found that demographic similarity was more important to mentors whilst "deep–level" similarity was important for both mentors and mentees. This may be due to the different roles of mentor and mentee, although the factors which determine mentees' perceptions of similarity are not well defined in mentoring literature (Wanberg et al 2003). Noe et al (2002) contend that most of the research on diversified mentoring relationships focuses on age, gender, race, and nationality although there is some recognition among writers that diversity mentoring should be expanded to embrace other individual differences. Eby et al's (2004) paper on negative mentoring experiences highlights the need to take a broader view. The most frequently reported mismatch between mentoring dyads was due to differences in terms of values, work style and personality.

2.11.3 Values and Ethics

There is a small amount of research pertaining to the relationship qualities which support learning within mentoring dyads. Research (Erdem and Aytem 2008; Leck and Orser 2013) has focused on the level of trust within mentoring relationships and how this develops. Shared responsibility and fair behaviour have been identified as important factors in the development of trust between mentor and mentee. Furthermore, Leck and Orser (2013) have indicated that mentees' perceptions of mentor integrity were influenced by their capacity to keep confidences. Oglensky (2011) examined perceptions of loyalty within mentoring dyads and noted that this could be a source of tension within relationships. The findings suggested that a large proportion of the activities that mentors and mentees undertook for one another were associated with their perception of loyalty within the relationship. The study suggested that individuals expected a level of reciprocity within the dyad thus supporting the SET perspective: individuals were driven to help their partner because of duty, self-interest or affection (ibid). Again this highlights the complexity of the relational aspect of mentoring relationships.

On the whole, the ethics of mentoring have not received much attention within academic circles. However, Clutterbuck (2013b) suggests that it will become increasing important in years to come. Studies (Shapira-Lischinsky 2011) have suggested that mentors experience ethical dilemmas and that often they feel unable to address the issues at hand. Ethical dilemmas have been observed to often involve conflict with managers, thus creating tensions between the mentor's developmental and professional roles.

2.12 Psychological Type and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

This section of the literature review introduces the concept of psychological type. The main area of focus will be the MBTI, a psychometric instrument grounded in Jung's Theory of Psychological Type (Quenk 2000). This psychometric tool was developed to identify core preferences on each of four dichotomies implicit in Jung's theory (Briggs Myers et al 2009). The instrument is a development tool, typically used to aid self-development, improve working relationships, and to help manage change in organisational settings (Peterson and Rutledge 2014).

To date, MBTI has been applied in a variety of learning contexts (Quenk 2000). The instrument has been frequently used to aid coaching and career counselling (Krebs Hirsh and Kise 2011) but seldom to support the mentoring process. Although it is acknowledged that a number of academics take a psychological approach to the study of mentoring (Bozionelos 2004; Eby et al 2002; Allen et al 2006), there has been a lack of research on the personality characteristics of individuals in formal relationships (Allen 2003; Waters 2004; Menges 2015). This section reviews the theories, applications and development of MBTI and considers its application in mentoring initiatives.

2.13 Theory of Psychological Type

> *Classification does not explain the individual psyche. Nevertheless, an understanding of psychological types opens the way to a better understanding of human psychology in general. (Jung 1978)*

Jung's Theory of Psychological Type was first translated into English in 1923. The typology was developed from Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory through Jung's observations of consistent differences in the way individuals use their minds (Wadeley et al 1997; Quenk 2000). His theories assume the psychodynamic approach to personality and focus largely on the role of motivation and past experiences (Wadeley et al 1997; Bickhard et al 2010; Huczynski and Buchanan 2013). Jung reasoned

that individuals inherit innate "pathways" that bring with them tendencies or predispositions to respond to certain experiences in specific ways (Ryckman 2008).

His theory describes how people adopt different attitudes and use different psychological processes to make sense of their experiences (Ryckman 2008). Jung maintained that individuals focus their energy from either the orientation of "introversion" (inner world focus) or "Extraversion" (outer world focus) and engage in intellectual activity using either "judging" (organising and evaluating information) or "perceiving" (collecting information) processes. Two ways of "judging" ("thinking" or "feeling") and two ways of "perceiving" ("sensing" or "intuition") were identified, thus resulting in an eightfold personality classification model (Figure 6).

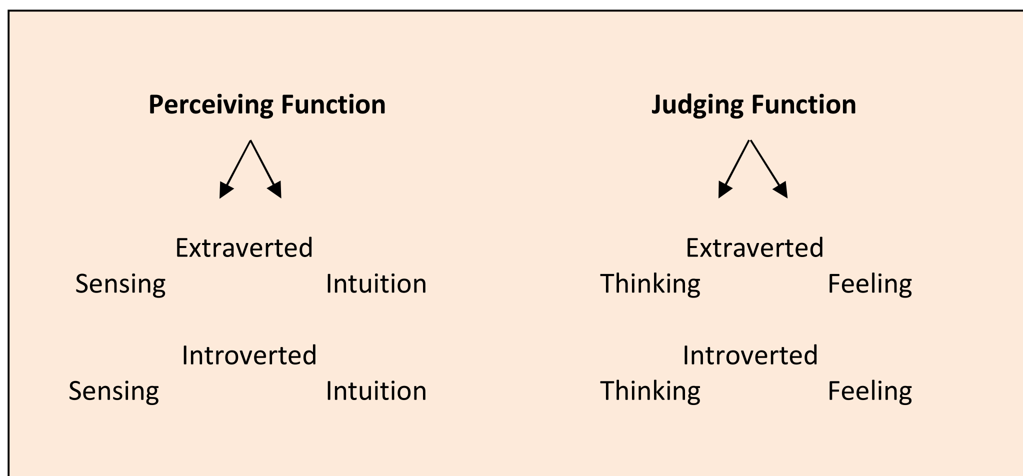

Figure 6: Jung's Eight Mental Functions (Source: Briggs Myers 2000)

At the core of Jung's theory lie four different personality types (ST, NT, SF, NF) which are mapped across the *sensing-intuition* and *thinking-feeling* dichotomies (Figures 6 and 7). Jung (1978) believed that individuals were born with innate type dispositions and that through the positive interactions between "nature and nurture" most individuals would develop well (Blutner and Hochnadel 2010). Perhaps the most popular part of Jung's theory, however, relates to introversion-extraversion dichotomies which have not only entered into the collective conscious but have emerged in other personality theories including Eysenck's model (ibid).

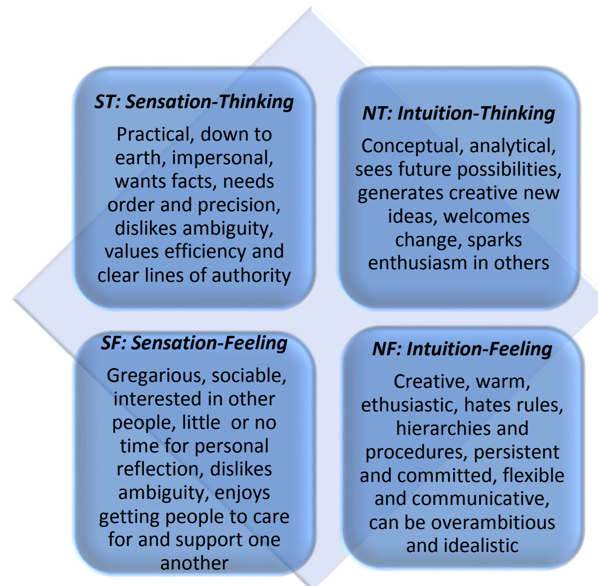

Figure 7: Jung's Personality Type Matrix (Source: Huczynski and Buchanan 2013)

However, Jung's Theory of Personality Type has been challenged by some authors who argue that it is empirically unsupported (Dawes 2004). Furthermore, concerns have been raised regarding the complexity of the concepts involved (Childs 2005) and thus the potential for misunderstanding. Despite this, his work continues to be taught in the fields of psychology and organisational behaviour (Nelson and Quick 2013; Huczynski and Buchannan 2013) and is therefore an accessible theoretical perspective for HRD professionals.

2.14 The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

MBTI was developed in 1942 by mother and daughter team, Katherine Cook Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers, who wanted to make Jung's Type Theory accessible and useful to individuals and groups (Myers et al 1998). Since then, the instrument has been revised several times with the present version, Form M, published in 1998.

MBTI was constructed regarding the underlying assumptions set out in Jung's Theory of Psychological Type. The instrument assesses personality preferences for four pairs of opposite styles which are equally valuable yet innate and unchanging (Carr 2003). All individuals will use all eight modes some of the time but will have a preferred approach within each of the four dichotomies. MBTI theory postulates that individuals will be the best judge of their own personality preferences (Myers et al 1998). MBTI is therefore a self-report inventory (ibid); through consultation participants are asked to self-assess their preferences before considering the results from the test. The MBTI consultant then supports each participant to identify a "best fit" between their self-assessed type and their reported type. MBTI therefore enables individuals to identify their own preferences within Jung's typology.

2.14.1 The Four Preference Pairs

Focus of energy (*Orientation*)	
EXTRAVERSION (E) Outer world focus, direct energy and attention outwards, receive energy from interaction with the outer world.	INTROVERSION (I) Inner world focus, direct energy inwards, receives energy from reflection on thoughts, memories and feelings.
Collecting information (*Perceiving Functions*)	
SENSING (S) Focus on concrete, accurate information. Orientated to present realities.	INTUITION (N) Focus on patterns and meanings in data. Orientated towards future possibilities.
Evaluating information and decision making (*Judging Functions*)	
THINKING (T) Analytical and logical approach. Objective, removed decision making.	FEELING (F) Empathetic and value driven approach. Assesses impact of decisions on people.
Attitude towards the outer world	
JUDGING (J) Planned, organised and methodical approach. Decisive.	PERCEIVING (P) Spontaneous, flexible and adaptable approach. Open-ended.

Figure 8: The Four MBTI Preference Pairs (Source: Adapted from Briggs Myers et al 2000)

The preference pairs devised by Briggs and Myers relate to Jung's eight mental functions with the addition of a fourth dichotomy representing attitude to the outer, extraverted world: judging or perceiving. Proponents of MBTI argue that whilst Jung did not directly identify this pair of opposites, they are implicit in his work (Bayne 1995; Quenk 2000). The resulting set of four preference pairs or dichotomies generate sixteen personality types, each described by a set of four letters (appendix nine). Thus an individual with a preference for extraversion (E), intuition (N), feeling (F) and perceiving (P) would be described as an ENFP.

MBTI theory proposes a dynamic model of type. The four functions put forward by Jung, sensing, intuition, thinking, and feeling, are related to consciousness (Myers and Kirby 1998). All four functions are conscious within individuals although some are more dominant than others. Type Theory assumes that there is a dominant, auxiliary, tertiary and inferior function. The dominant and inferior functions are always dichotomously opposite.

Jung's theory indicates that these four functions develop throughout an individual's life, first the dominant function in childhood and then the auxiliary function in adolescence (Myers et al 1998). While the preferred functions are developing, little attention is paid to the least preferred functions although it is the inferior function, Jung's "shadow", which is said to emerge when individuals experience stress. However, Jung postulates that the tertiary and inferior functions are largely neglected until later in life, at a time when individuals are motivated to develop the rest of their personality, providing new insights and experiences which had not previously been satisfying (Myers and Kirby 1998).

2.14.2 MBTI and Preference

An important concept to comprehend when applying personality type is the concept of preference. MBTI literature suggests that personality type is the product of inborn and fixed preferences (Carr 2003). All preferences are valuable and used by everyone some of the time, however, individuals have preferred and non-preferred sides to their personalities (Kendall et al 2001). The aim of MBTI is to sort individuals into opposite categories based on these preferences (Myers et al 1998). In this respect MBTI is different from other psychometric instruments which follow a trait based approach to personality.

This type-trait distinction requires quite different interpretation. Trait based instruments measure variation along a continuum whereas MBTI identifies a respondent's position on one of two opposite categories (Huczynski and Buchanan 2013). Thus MBTI scores indicate the degree of certainty a respondent has in the clarity of their type rather than the strength or weakness of their preference (Bayne 2005). It should be noted that there are no "pure" or "strong" introverts or extraverts (Carroll 2003).

2.14.3 Reliability and Validity of MBTI

While MBTI has proved to be a popular development tool, it has not been without its critics. A number of writers have concerns regarding the reliability, validity and philosophy behind MBTI (Pittenger 1993, 2005; Boyle 1995; Michael 2003). However, for every detractor there are advocates expounding the consistency and benefits of the instrument (Quenk 2000; Bayne 1995, 2005; Francis et al 2007; Blutner and Hochnadel 2010). Thus a review of MBTI literature must address the reliability and validity of MBTI within the context of this study.

The validity of the MBTI has been called into question not only in terms of the questionnaire's authority but also in relation to whether it actually represents a valid tool with which to implement Jung's Theory of Psychological Type (Pittenger 1993; Michael 2003). In addition to this, Jung's underlying theories

have been criticised in some quarters (Farrington and Clark 2000; Dawes 2005). Much of the issue here is to do with research philosophy. Jung approached his work intuitively, arguing that psychology was the only field with which to understand the subjective issues that lie behind other disciplines (Shamdasani 2003).

> *Anyone who wants to know the human psyche will learn next to nothing from experimental psychology. He would be better advised to abandon exact science, put away his scholar's gown, bid farewell to his study, and wander with human heart throughout the world. (Jung 1923/61)*

The fact that Jung allowed his theories to emerge from his experience of clinical practice are at odds with those who require science to be based on empirical evidence only (Lewis 1993).

It should be noted that the majority of authors who take issue with the reliability of MBTI (Pittenger 1993; Boyle 1995; Michael 2003; Dawes 2005) approach research from a positivist stance. One writer (Dawes 2004) describes this view succinctly, "Some of us believe that science is rooted in the challenge of 'show me.'" These authors accept statistical evidence as the only satisfactory proof for the reliability of psychometric instruments. Pittenger (2005) raises concern that the test-retest reliability of MBTI varies depending on the interval between tests. He goes on to argue that while MBTI test-retest reliabilities might be acceptable for trait-based instruments they fundamentally undermine Type Theory, which assumes that personality preferences are stable. However, his assertions ignore the influence of environmental factors. Childs (2004) argues that variance in "reported" type does not undermine Type Theory as Jung himself would have expected individuals to experience changes in circumstances and long held beliefs about themselves. Whilst Bayne (2005) agrees that the MBTI questionnaire does not always identify "true type", he puts the test-retest reliability at an average of 75%. Myers et al (1998) also place the reliability of MBTI at this figure and assert 95% of people confirm three of the four preferences. Quenk (2000) is slightly less optimistic but reports a figure of 66% for all four preferences and 91% for three of the four preferences.

The debate as to whether the instrument sufficiently represents Jung's Theory of Psychological Type stems from Myers and Briggs' addition of the *Judging-Perceiving* (J-P) dichotomy and provokes disquiet regarding the hierarchy of the four functions (Michael 2003). In this respect, Quenk (2000) argues the only area which does not relate to Jungian theory is the *attitude* of the auxiliary and tertiary functions: Myers and Briggs extended Jung's theory by stipulating that to enable healthy adjustment the auxiliary function must operate in the less preferred attitude (Quenk 2000). However, comparisons between

MBTI and other models of personality indicate that the J-P dichotomy is indeed relevant in terms of personality measures.

Bayne (1995) asserts that there are three main sources of evidence for MBTI's validity: anecdotal evidence, research on the instrument itself, and how MBTI relates to other measures of personality. Furnham's (1996) study compared MBTI with the NEO PI-R Five Factor model of personality and found the J-P dimension to be closely linked to "conscientiousness". The NEO PI-R Five Factor model or "Big Five" is one of the most consistently used and accepted measures of personality in academic research (Furnham 1996). The literature (McCrae and Costa 1989; Harvey et al 1995; Furnham et al 2007; Daisley 2011) indicates that all four MBTI dichotomies appear to be positively correlated with the Five Factor model although not "neuroticism" (emotional stability). Whilst McCrae and Costa (1989) argue that, in any evaluation of MBTI, it is crucial to recognise that the instrument does not correspond with the theory on which it is based, it would seem that instrument does have value. Thus MBTI does not purport to set out a complete description of personality but instead to assess "*a priori* defined mental processes" (Francis et al 2007).

MBTI has been condemned because of its seemingly positive descriptions of personality (Bayne 2005). Critics (Carroll 2003) argue that individuals respond well to MBTI because of this, and that the anecdotal validity of MBTI is dubious due to the "Forer Effect", the propensity people have to accept descriptions of personality that are apparently tailored for them but are in fact general enough to apply to a wide range of people. MBTI undoubtedly follows the nomothetic tradition which focuses on the characteristics individuals share as opposed to how they differ but the charge of generality in type descriptions would seem contradictory to the dichotomous nature of the Myers-Briggs model. Furthermore, Bayne (2005) emphasises that for every positive description there are implicit opposite and negative implications.

A number of critics voice concern about the potential for stereotyping individual personalities when using MBTI (Coe 1992; Pittenger 1993; Farrington and Clark 2000). The idea of categorising individuals into sixteen personality types has been criticised as being in direct conflict with current diversity initiatives which extol the virtues of individuality (Cramer 2006). However, others argue that MBTI takes a "value neutral" approach to individual differences (Vacha-Haase and Thompson 2002). Without doubt, some individuals will misinterpret psychometric results. Bayne (2005) cites a number of reasons for ambiguous MBTI results. To avoid such pitfalls respondents must be briefed in MBTI's uses as well as its limitations (Coe 1992).

Further evidence for the validity of MBTI can be found in its popularity. Peterson and Rutledge (2014) note that it is still the most widely used measure of “nonpathological differences” in publication. This would indicate that people like MBTI and that the insights it provides resonate with users. Bayne (1995, 2005) agrees and cites anecdotal evidence which supports its validity. He argues that the term “indicator” puts the authority of MBTI into perspective as a starting point or “set of hypotheses which can be expanded and tested through skilful interviewing”. It would seem that the MBTI questionnaire was not designed to be a “test” but to simply provide an indication of what individuals believe to be true about their personalities at a particular point in time (Childs 2004). Moreover, the overarching concept behind MBTI is that individuals are the best judge of their own type. A key part of the process is to establish a user’s “self-assessed type” prior to revealing the type reported by the questionnaire. Childs (2005) argues that the questionnaire is not used to measure true type but is in fact used to define respondents’ self-views. This initial emphasis on self-assessed or evaluated type is important and sits quite comfortably within research philosophies which attempt to understand the world from the research subject’s point of view (Saunders et al 2012). Thus MBTI provides individuals with a framework to aid self-awareness and, importantly, a vocabulary with which they can describe some aspects of their personality characteristics.

2.15 Applications of Type

MBTI has been applied in a variety of contexts and has been developed further by other writers for wider use. Kiersey (1998) developed Type Theory into temperament categories based on observable differences between people. The temperament pairs include Sensing-Perceiving, Sensing-Judging, Intuitive-Feeling and Intuitive-Thinking. These categorisations have been applied to individual character, intelligence, and occupation. Kiersey (1998) notes that those who exhibit NF preferences are typically drawn to development roles such as counselling, teaching and mentoring. Sample (2004), on the other hand, suggests that management activities are Sensing-Thinking functions and highlights that MBTI data for managers presents an under-representation of Intuitive-Feeling and Sensing-Feeling types. Sample goes on to suggest that there may even be selection bias in favour of ST types for management roles.

Whilst MBTI has always been used to explore both professional and personal relationships, the main emphasis has been on individual type in order to explain the interaction of different types within groups. Other developments have included efforts to type “non-human entities” (Dinkelar and Fudjack 1998). The concept of typing non-human entities is not new. Kilmann and Mitroff (1976) proposed that both organisations and scientific methodology could be described in terms of Jungian typology. Their paper discussed the relationship between Jung’s functions (ST, SF, NT and NF) and different types of

scientific analysis. They associated the NT type with a form of conceptual analysis and the ST type with a form of quantitative analysis; both SF and NF types were associated with different kinds of qualitative analysis.

In addition, Mitroff (1983) employed Jungian typology to demonstrate that organisations have a character or personality. Other authors (Bridges 2000; Brown 2010) agree that Type Theory can be applied to the wider organisational context and the sub-divisions within. The Organisational Character Index (Bridges 2000) is a framework based on the same four dichotomies as MBTI and can be used to gauge the "personality" of organisations. Like the management theory concept of "organisational culture", Bridges (2000) views organisational character as the product of specific organisational features including function, business area, leaders, employees, founders, and history. It is therefore possible to grasp how this framework can also be applied to divisions within organisations or indeed to business sectors as a whole.

2.15.1 Organisational Type

There are only a few examples of Type Theory being applied to organisations (Mitroff 1983; Bridges 2000; Brown 2010). However, if organisations are to be viewed as social constructs and are the result of continuing social activity, organisational type will be created through various social and physical factors of the organisation (Saunders et al 2012). Subsequently, unlike individual personality type, organisational type cannot be viewed as unchanging but instead as dynamic and flexible.

Mitroff (1983) presents a model of four ideal organisation types. Each type of organisation represents the concept of the ideal organisation for each of the ST, SF, NT and NF personalities.

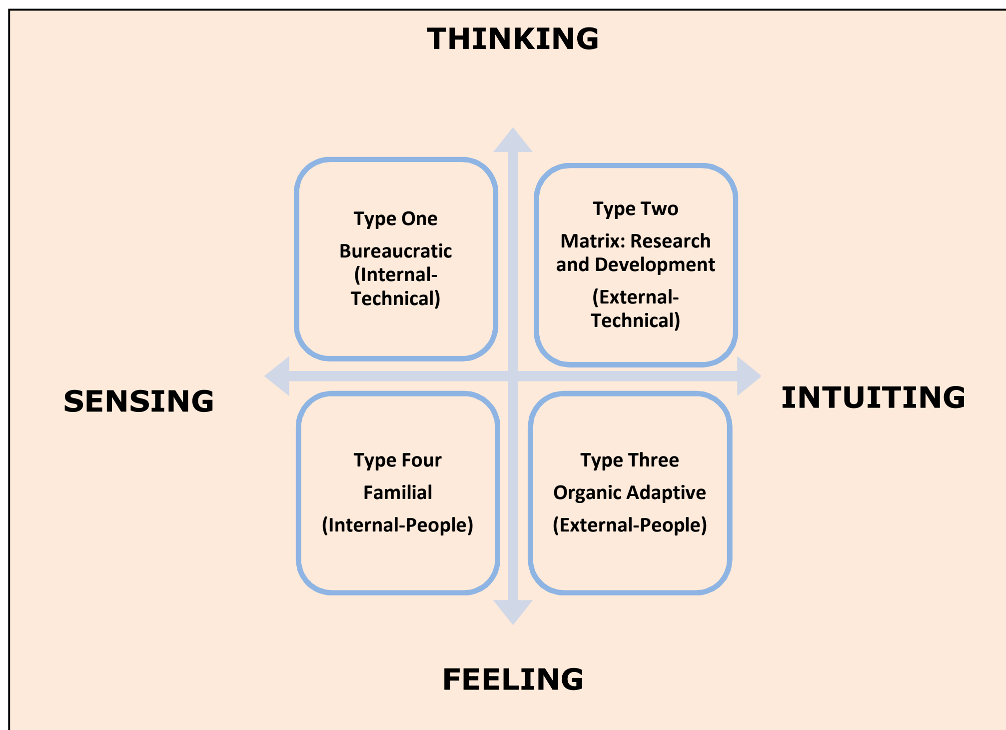

Figure 9: Four Ideal Organisations and the Jungian Dimensions (Source: Mitroff 1983 p. 58)

The variance illustrated by this model highlights how individual differences can shape individual perceptions of the organisation. Taken from the reported organisational concerns of different personality types, the ideal ST organisation is Bureaucratic (controlled, certain, specific, impersonal), NT is Matrix (original, idealistic, innovative, impersonal), NF is Organic (flexible, decentralised, idealistic, society-focused), and SF is *Familial* (realistic, specific, detailed, individual-focused). Mitroff (1983) asserts that there is a vital link between the construct of individual personalities and the construct of social systems such as organisations. Applying individual differences to social systems provides a useful framework from which individual perceptions and ideas can be explored. The opportunity to explore other social constructs presents itself in the mentoring context. Individual perceptions of ideal mentoring relationships, organisational support, and of mentors and mentees may be explored further using type theory. Moreover, much of the mentoring literature explores concepts such as the organisational context, intensity of informal mentoring, and perceptions of mentors and mentees, albeit using quantitative methods. It is argued that the application of type to mentoring practice will shed light on both relational and organisational consequences.

Briggs's (2000) Organisational Character Index was created from a completely different premise. Whilst Bridges (2000) concurs with Mitroff (1983) that organisational character stems from the physical and social aspects of the establishment, he takes the management theorists' approach and describes organisational character from the perspective of something the organisation "has" (Saunders et al 2012). This is an important distinction between these two applications of Type Theory.

Although Bridges (2000) acknowledges that participants using the Organisational Character Index will describe the organisation as they have experienced it, he advocates that the instrument should be used within a group setting. He argues that this will address the issue of subjectivity but also illustrate to participants that their experience of the organisation may not be representative of the group. Whilst this approach is clearly beneficial in terms of ascertaining a picture of overall organisational character, perhaps more interesting are the differences between individual perceptions of the organisation and how they relate to individual personalities and behaviours. Further, an exploration of the individual perceptions of organisations, or indeed departments, may shed light on aspects of the mentoring relationship; it is conceivable that the mentoring received in a relationship could be influenced by perceptions of organisational expectations and agenda.

2.16 Individual Differences

A large proportion of MBTI data has been produced by Oxford Psychologist Press (OPP), the organisation that licences and sells MBTI in the UK. This must be borne in mind when reviewing the data. However, OPP do provide some useful information regarding MBTI samples for the UK population. Table 2 presents the UK MBTI normative samples for the adult population and indicates that sensing preferences are more prevalent than intuitive ones whereas thinking and feeling differences are more evenly balanced.

	ST	SF	NF	NT
Introversion-judging	13.7%	12.7%	1.7%	1.4%
Introversion-perceiving	6.4%	6.1%	3.2%	2.4%
Extraversion-judging	5.8%	8.7%	6.3%	2.8%
Extraversion-Perceiving	10.4%	12.6%	2.8%	2.9%
UK Norm	**36.3%**	**40.1%**	**14%**	**9.5%**

Table 2: MBTI National Normative Sample of UK Adults (Source: Adapted from Myers et al 2009; Training and Coaching Today 2007)

Demographic data regarding the nationality, gender, occupation, and the education level of different personality types have been collected from the outset. OPP (2009) present figures which indicate an important gender difference on the thinking-feeling dimension, where thinking preferences are over-represented amongst men and feeling preferences amongst women. In addition, there some studies (Vinnicombe 1996; Rigg and Sparrow 1994) which point to there being further differences in the

management styles of men and women. Men show an overall preference for a sensing-judging approach whereas women show no general preference for any one management style. Women however, did display greater preference for intuitive approaches than their male counterparts, thus indicating some key differences in the way that men and women approach these roles. Nonetheless, Hayes et al (2004), using an alternative measure, found no gender related differences for intuition between male and female managers and argue that women managers are in fact more analytical than men in non-managerial roles. The authors (ibid), sympathetic to the feminist view, argue a structural perspective whereby workplace behaviours are viewed as the consequence of an organisation's composition. They argue that men and women in similar roles behave alike because they have chosen to perform roles which are governed by the same set of organisational criteria (Hayes et al 2002). The extent to which this would be true in other senior roles has yet to be examined from the MBTI perspective although gender differences are, in general, well documented in the mentoring literature.

OPP's data (2009) relating to occupational level indicates that individuals in senior roles are more likely to have preferences for intuition and thinking than those in lower level jobs. There is also evidence suggesting that personality type can influence an individual's choice of career (OPP 2009). However, the majority of studies based on individual differences identified using MBTI have tended to focus on other demographic differences such as culture and ethnic origin. Kirby and Barger (1998) write extensively about cultural differences and psychological type and suggest that MBTI may not identify preferences in cultures where "collectivism" prevails. Nevertheless, type distributions across a large European sample (OPP 2009) indicate a relatively consistent pattern of psychological type amongst participants from ten different countries.

2.17 MBTI and Approaches to Learning

The literature indicates that MBTI has been applied in a number of educational environs including school, further education, workplace learning and counselling. Although there are some distinct and important differences between mentoring and these other activities, there are some key research findings which may have implications in the mentoring context. Furthermore, a number of attempts have been made to link personality type to learning style theory (Lewis and Margerison 1979; Brownfield 1993; Salter et al 2006). The implications of these related studies will now be discussed.

Learning style is a central theme in the educational literature, both in terms of learner and teaching style and the relationship between the two. It refers to the "set of personal characteristics which make some teaching (and learning) methods effective for some and ineffective for others" (Larkin-Hein and Budney 2006). A key area of interest in this field is the connection between learning style theories and

personality (Ament 1990). A number of papers (Lewis and Margerison 1979; Brownfield 1993; Salter et al 2006) have explored the link between Kolb's Learning Cycle and Type Theory, and indicate that there may be correlations between the two. Kolb's Learning Cycle (1983) is a model of experiential learning which emphasises the dual processes of action and reflection.

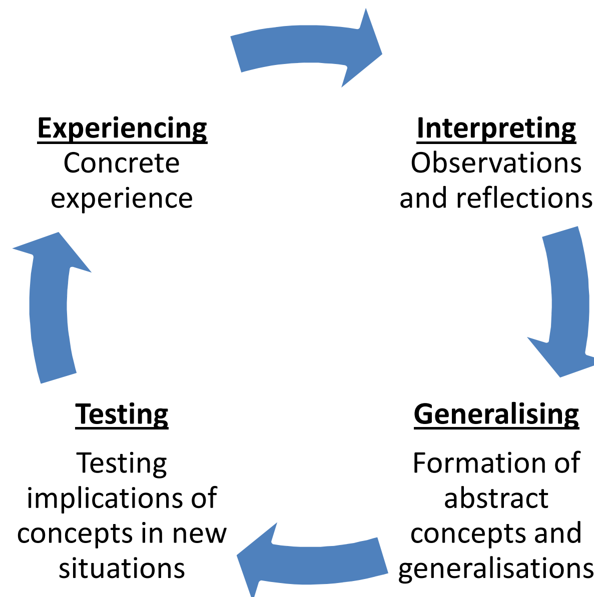

Figure 10: Kolb's Learning Cycle (Source: Kolb 1983)

Lewis and Margerison (1979) noted the relationship between an earlier version of Kolb's model and Jung's typology. Sensing/intuition and extraversion/introversion were found to be related to active/reflective learning. Individuals with a preference for S or E described themselves as being very active in learning situations whereas those with a preference for N or I, although equally involved, favoured reflection and the opportunity to conceptualise. Further, individuals with a preference for thinking were also orientated towards reflection, although individuals with a feeling preference preferred learning environments which provided an opportunity to interact with others. Although this appears intuitively plausible, Kolb regarded learning style as dynamic as opposed to a stable characteristic (Salter et al 2006).

Myers and Kirby (1998) reviewed the body of work which focuses on MBTI and the characteristics of learners. They noted characteristics which were common to individuals belonging to each set of preference pairs. In accordance with research findings on learning style, Myers and Kirby (1998) observed differences on the E/I dichotomy relating to learning stimuli: extraverts favour action and collaborative learning whereas introverts need to remove external distractions and prefer quiet concentration. Similarly, differences have been noted in each of the other dichotomies which are

closely related to type. Figure 11 presents Myers and Kirby's (1998) characteristics of learners by psychological type.

Extraverts	***Introverts***
• Active, concrete experiential learning • Collaborative learners (dependent) • External decision makers • Like projects, simulations, peer teaching	• Reflective, observational learning • Participant, visual/auditory learners • Post conventional decision makers • Like direct teaching formats
Sensing Types • Concrete, experiential learners • Sequential, high fact retention, methodical • Collaborative, dependent learners • Field dependent • Adaptive in creativity	***Intuitive Types*** • Abstract, conceptual learners • Innovative, reflective, holistic, self-directed • Participant learners • Field independent • Innovative in creativity
Thinking Types • Abstract, conceptual or abstract sequential learning style • Methodical learners • Systematic decision makers • Seek justice in moral orientation • Adaptive in creativity	***Feeling Types*** • Concrete experiential or abstract, random learning style • Field dependent or holistic learners • Dependent learners • Seek care in moral orientation • Innovative in creativity
Judging Types • Abstract, conceptual or concrete, sequential learning style • Like structure and motivation • Participant learners who like independent study • High in fact retention, methodical • Adaptive in creativity	***Perceiving Types*** • Wide variety of learning styles • Like sensory learning stimuli • Collaborative, dependent learners • Holistic • Post-conventional decision makers • Innovative in creativity
LEFT HEMISPHERE LEARNERS	***RIGHT HEMISPHERE LEARNERS***

Figure 11: Characteristics of Learners by Psychological Type (Adapted from Myers and Kirby 1998 p. 262)

In addition, MBTI theory suggests that the four function preferences (ST, SF, NF, NT) are associated with individual learning styles. Myers and Kirby (1998) contend that the greatest differences in learning occur between the sensing and intuitive approaches: sensing types can become confused by the imaginative and metaphorical language of intuitive types whereas intuitive types can become frustrated with sensing types through their detailed approach.

Another line of enquiry within the field of MBTI and personality type is the relationship between type and communication. The literature highlights how personality type relates not only to how individuals

prefer to communicate (Myers et al 1998; Opt and Loffreddo 2000; Goby 2006) but also to how they perceive other people's communication styles (Dunning 2003; Opt and Loffreddo 2003). Myers et al (1998) note that one of the most popular applications of psychological type is in the area of organisational communication. The personality type descriptors alone indicate individual's preferred communication styles and can therefore be used to develop understanding between people working within team situations (Varvel et al 2004).

The literature indicates that, in terms of communication, one of the key areas of difference concerns the introversion/extraversion dichotomy. Research has shown that individuals with a preference for introversion report higher levels of apprehension when asked to communicate in general or within a group, dyad or public setting (Opt and Loffreddo 2000; 2003). Unsurprisingly, introverts also tend to favour online modes of communication more than extraverts (Goby 2006), thus raising some important implications for eMentoring Programmes. The research indicates that introverts are less physically expressive, open, and relaxed when communicating, compared to extraverts, thus influencing other people's perceptions (Opt and Loffreddo 2000). The authors argue that these differences in communication style lead to social disadvantage for introverts who are essentially living in a society that values extraverted preferences. Nonetheless, whilst it is acknowledged that there may be a societal bias towards extraversion (Cain 2012), it would be valuable to ascertain the extent to which organisational type impacts on communication style and behaviour. Individuals who share preferences with the organisations in which they work may experience more interpersonal comfort than those who do not, thus influencing the extent to which they are able to establish and maintain successful relationships.

There are further linkages between MBTI preferences and communication. Individuals who prefer feeling as opposed to thinking report higher levels of communication apprehension (Opt and Loffreddo 2000), perhaps due to the feeling people focus on other people and desire to foster harmonious relationships with the group. Again this has implications for mentoring relationships, where the impact of communication apprehension and openness is important. However, there is some indication that personality preferences may have a wider impact on communication. Research suggests that while MBTI dimensions do not necessarily correlate with team effectiveness, training on personality type does help individuals to improve communication and trust within a team setting (Varvel et al 2004).

2.18 MBTI and Mentoring

One area of organisational learning which has not been explored in any depth, from the MBTI perspective, is mentoring. This is surprising considering the growth of mentoring practice and research

in the last thirty years and the future challenges that organisations face. A holistic approach to HRD (Lee 2010) is likely to become increasingly more important in preparing individuals for future challenges and change. Furthermore, mentoring has been studied in a way which assumes individual and organisational outcomes as related, although little attention has been paid to the possibility that some individual outcomes may be negative for the organisation (Allen and Poteet 2011; Herrbach et al 2011). Current mentoring research has not been proficient in revealing the personal and wide ranging nature of these developmental relationships (Allen and Poteet 2011).

As illustrated in section 2.9.6, only a handful of studies could be sourced which investigated the individual differences of mentors and mentees using psychometric testing (Bozionelos 2004; Waters 2004; Menges 2015). This gap in the mentoring literature is important given calls to adopt a "person-centric approach" to the study of mentoring relationships (Allen and Poteet 2011). There is, however, some data relating to coaching and counselling which are two of the four mentor behaviours described by Clutterbuck (2004). Passmore et al (2006) have found a higher proportion of introversion-perceiving preferences among professional coaches whereas Bayne (2004) noted that counsellors were more likely to report introversion-feeling preferences. Although there are some distinct and important differences between these practices, coaching and counselling share some of the same practices and approaches as mentoring (Clutterbuck 2004; Garvey 2009). Thus these findings may have implications within the mentoring context.

2.19 Chapter Summary

The review of the mentoring literature has established a number of key themes within the field. Firstly there is a lack of consensus among researchers and practitioners on the meaning of mentoring (D'Abate et al 2003; Clutterbuck 2004; Garvey 2004). Haggard et al (2011) have identified approximately forty different definitions of mentoring put forward by writers. They conclude that agreement at this stage is unadvisable and instead researchers should focus should on identifying the fundamental attributes of mentoring relationships. In addition, the literature indicates that there are fundamental differences between the US and European conceptions of mentoring. The European mentoring model has a broader developmental focus whereas the US model emphasises sponsorship and protection within the mentoring process (Clutterbuck 2004).

The second point regarding the mentoring literature centres on the over reliance on quantitative methodology within the subject area (Noe et al 2002; Allen et al 2008). Furthermore, the majority of studies have concentrated on informal or "natural" mentoring relationships (Allen et al 2008) and there is a more limited amount of literature pertaining to formal or assigned mentoring relationships. Within these studies, however, it was recognised that certain features of the mentoring relationship

are important: the organisational context, the relationship type, the individual characteristics of the mentor and mentee, and the interaction between the mentoring dyad. Whilst progress has been made in identifying these features, little attempt had been made to understand the dynamics between them or the impact on learning. Instead a rather haphazard patchwork of studies exist which focus on micro issues as opposed to the bigger picture. Moreover, frequent criticisms have been made regarding the lack of integration between mentoring research and other social science disciplines (McManus and Russell 1997; Wanberg et al 2003; Scandura and Pellegrini 2010). Thus there is a lack of focus on the development of key concepts and explanatory theory within the mentoring field (Gibb 1999; Bozeman and Feeney 2007).

Research on individual differences and mentoring relationship dynamics has indicated that some degree of similarity in both the demographic and individual characteristics of participants is conducive to mentoring relationship development. Mentors have been found to be attracted to mentees that are proactive, extraverted and higher in self-esteem; openness to learning has also been identified as an important mentee characteristic. Further, it has been established that mentees are more likely to role model individuals who are closer in rank and need to identify with their mentor. The literature has focused less on mentor characteristics but does indicate that open-mindedness and agreeableness are important. In addition, a range of caring or prosocial behaviours have been identified and have been shown to be linked to willingness to mentor.

Some of these findings have been supported by psychometric evidence. Openness to experience, agreeableness and extraversion have been found to be an important quality for both mentors and mentees. In addition, there is some suggestion within the mentoring literature that matching on the basis of the personality characteristics of openness to experience and conscientiousness will enhance mentee learning. However, some authors have questioned this conviction that similarity is desirable in mentoring relationships as they suggest differences between the dyad can support learning.

Mentoring is distinguished from other learning and development initiatives as it is assumed to be a relationship as opposed to an activity. The literature suggests that within these relationships perceived similarity and attraction will play an important role in relationship development. Commitment, loyalty and trust will also have bearing. Whilst it is recognised within the literature that some mentoring experiences will present ethical dilemmas for participants there has been little research on the ethics of mentoring. Further, there is an assumption within the literature that relationship development will enable relationship longevity, thus producing more learning outcomes for individuals and organisations.

Few studies have examined mentoring using personality psychometrics; the literature indicates that the 'Big Five' personality classification has dominated research whereas the MBTI has prevailed in practice. Whilst there is a debate regarding the reliability and validity of MBTI, part of the discussion appears to focus on the philosophical underpinning of Jung's theories. Furthermore, there is evidence supporting the reliability of the instrument in both anecdotal evidence and its relationship to other personality measures. However, Type has been applied in a number of contexts including organisational character and other non-human entities. As yet it has not been applied in the mentoring context. Studies which focus on individual differences suggest that some personality types may be more likely to engage in specific occupational roles such as management. Further, normative data pertaining to UK adults suggest that within the UK population there is a predominance of individuals with *sensing* preferences. MBTI data has however been linked to learning and communication styles thus suggesting that the MBTI instrument has potential to shed light on mentoring relationship dynamics.

Type Theory suggests that most notable differences in learning style occur between sensing and intuitive approaches. Furthermore, preferences introversion or feeling may put individuals at a social disadvantage thus having implications for rapport building and relationship development in mentoring dyads. Whilst few studies have focused on personality characteristics within mentoring relationships, there was no research relating to the MBTI and mentoring. Some studies have, however, used the MBTI instrument to examine coaching and counselling behaviours and suggest that a higher proportion of introverts undertake these roles. Although coaching and counselling are distinct from mentoring they do share some common approaches suggesting that this research may have implications for the mentoring context.

Chapter 3 – Methodological Approach

Scientific methodology needs to be seen for what it truly is, a way of preventing me from deceiving myself in regard to my creatively formed subjective hunches which have developed out of the relationship between me and my material. (Raimond 1993 p. 93)

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes, explains, and critiques the methodological approach adopted in this study. The aim is to describe the actual course of the researcher's decision making (Silverman 2010) and to demonstrate the reliability and validity of the chosen methods. The chapter will trace the development of the research design from the provenance of the research questions to the development of the research aim and objectives. Next, the methodological context and main assumptions will be explained before detailing the choice of research methods. Each method used will be evaluated addressing both the ethical implications and the strengths and limitations of the approach. The rationale and procedures for data analysis will be described and followed by a critical reflection of the overall research strategy.

3.1 The Research Questions

The provenance of the research was outlined in chapter one, describing how a number of research questions had been developed from an initial review of the data. Whilst the selection of the research design was influenced by the researcher's world view and personal experiences, it was similarly guided by the extant literature and the nature of the research problem (Creswell 2009; Baker and Foy 2012). The research aim and objectives are reiterated below.

3.1.1 Study Aim

The aim of the research is to examine critically the impact of mentor and mentee personality type, using the Myers Briggs Type Indicator, in workplace mentoring relationships and to generate explanatory theory which contributes to the understanding of individual learning and organisational development derived from formal mentoring relationships.

3.1.2 Research Objectives

1. To review theoretical development to date and to explore disciplinary perspectives on the role of personality type in understanding mentoring relationships, with a view to identifying how MBTI typology relates to mentoring relationship dynamics and learning outcomes.

2. To investigate the impact of individual personality differences, using the MBTI instrument, on the motivation, compatibility and reported learning outcomes of mentors and mentees

3. To evaluate the role of Type Theory in relation to formal mentoring relationships and to propose recommendations, with a view to increasing awareness in organisations, of the ways in which the MBTI instrument can be used to support mentors and mentees to work and learn more effectively together by applying the concept of personality type to mentoring relationships.

4. To develop a typology of mentoring relationships, using MBTI, to illustrate how individual differences impact on learning in the mentoring context.

3.1.3 Research Questions

A set of research questions were developed from each objective to guide the primary research. The research questions were under continual review throughout the research process (Creswell 2009) and are detailed below.

Objective One Research Questions:

I. How can knowledge of Type Theory aid the understanding of the mentor/mentee relationship?

Objective Two Research Questions:

II. Which individual differences, in terms of personality type, facilitate/moderate mentoring relationships?

I. How do individual differences impact on mentor and mentee learning within mentoring relationships?

Objective Three Research Questions:

II. How do (participant) organisations support and manage formal mentoring and to what extent do these processes affect individual mentoring relationships?

Objective Four Research Questions:

III. How can the MBTI instrument be used to support mentors and mentees in managing and sustaining mentoring relationships?

IV. How can knowledge of personality type assist mentors and mentees to maximise their learning within mentoring relationships?

3.2 Philosophical Context

Research will, to some extent, be influenced by the experience and perspective of the researcher (Baker and Foy 2012). The extent of this influence and the procedures put in place to minimise researcher impact on findings are major considerations in any research project (ibid). However, the researcher's philosophy will also be influenced by practical considerations (Saunders et al 2012) and therefore the nature of the research problem will also shape the context of the research design.

The researcher's philosophical stance will consist of a number of assumptions which affect how the research is understood, executed and interpreted (Crotty 1998). It is therefore necessary to state what these assumptions are and explain how they underpin the research strategy. The relationship between the philosophical, theoretical and methodological elements of research design are illustrated in Figure 12.

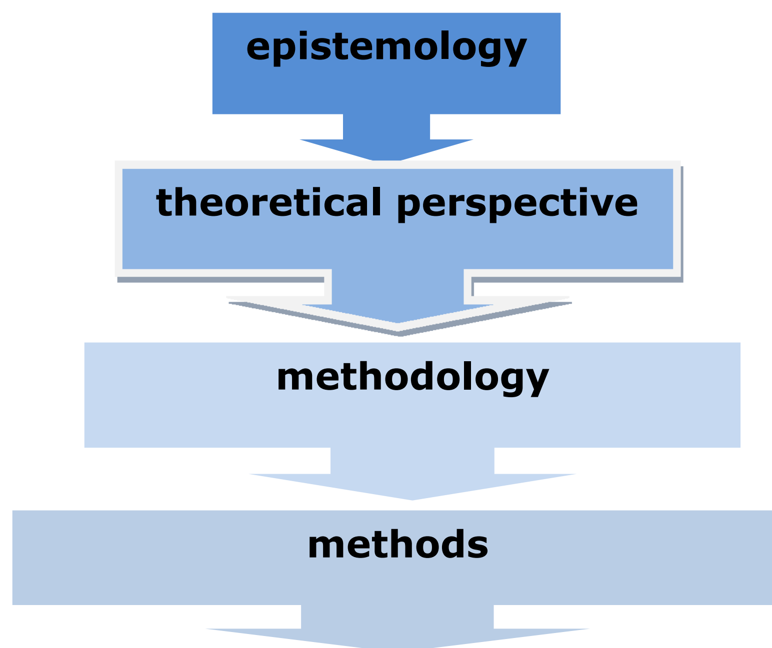

Figure 12: The Four Elements (Crotty 1998)

Crotty (1998) describes how each element of the research will inform and be related to the other rather than opposing or challenging one another. Thus the epistemology will be inherent in the theoretical perspective and so forth.

An epistemology is a way of understanding and explaining what constitutes acceptable knowledge within a subject area (Saunders et al 2012). It is therefore concerned with what we can know about reality, what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can make sure that knowledge is robust and valid (Crotty 1998). An epistemological view will be influenced by the basic assumptions a researcher holds about the nature of reality; all research will be influenced and underpinned by the researcher's particular stance towards the world that they study (Baker and Foy 2012). Thus, this "ontological" perspective and how it is investigated will influence the methodology used to seek knowledge (ibid).

3.3 Theoretical Perspective

The researcher's epistemological view was underpinned by the ontological perspective of interpretivism. Thus the social world was seen as inherently different from the natural world; therefore it could not be studied in the same way (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Marsh et al 2009). The social world was viewed as too complex to be defined by a specific set of laws in the same way as the physical sciences are (Saunders et al 2012). Interpretivism posits that it is necessary for the researcher to understand why people interpret the social world in various ways. This involves developing an understanding of the social roles enacted by individuals and their interpretation of them. People create their own set of meanings by which they interpret the roles of others and give meaning to their own (ibid). In this study, the roles of mentor and mentee were central and therefore it was necessary to understand the meaning that different individuals attach to these roles and how this influenced role enactment and relationship dynamics. It was considered important to understand the "multiple realities" of mentoring relationships so that the research questions could be addressed.

Further to the researcher's ontological view, the role of values within research was also considered. Axiology is concerned with the role personal values play in all stages of the research process as they will influence the judgements and decisions made. Researchers need to articulate their values so that their decision making and judgements can be scrutinised (Saunders et al 2012). In addition, by reflecting on and demonstrating personal values the researcher can heighten their own awareness of the value judgments they make and the conclusions being drawn from data (ibid). A statement of the researcher's personal values can be viewed in the reflexive account in appendix one.

Social Constructivism is an epistemological approach which has its origins in the interpretivist tradition of phenomenology (Alvesson and Skoldberg 2009; Andrews 2012). It assumes that individuals seek understanding of the environment in which they live (Creswell 2009) and proposes that there is no objective reality. Meaning is borne out of our interaction within the social world (Crotty 1998). This approach emphasises how people develop subjective meanings from their experiences and that these

meanings are varied and numerous as opposed to narrow and distinct (ibid). Constructivism encompasses a number of assumptions. Firstly it is assumed that individuals construct meanings as they engage with the situation that they are interpreting. Next, individuals make sense of the world based on their own historical, cultural and social perspectives. Finally, meaning is developed within the social context and arises from human interaction (ibid). From early on in the research process the worldview of the researcher followed this tradition, whereby social phenomena are approached from the view of the study participants (Saunders et al 2012). This partly reflected the researcher's professional background in the education sector and had been influenced by learning theory which postulates that learners create mental models or "schema" in order to learn (Piaget 1953). However, this perspective was also considered to be relevant to the context of mentoring research given the unique and complex nature of human relationships. Further, the research problem required the exploration of the subjective meanings behind participant behaviours and interactions (ibid) if the organisational behaviour and relationship dynamics of each dyad were to be understood.

Further reading stimulated reflection. Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009) describe how social constructionist texts are frequently more simulating and alluring than alternative qualitative philosophies. The authors explain that these texts are attractive to novice researchers because they present a challenge to common sense and often surprise the reader. Initially the researcher had found these texts appealing because they had presented an opportunity to question reality and consider the philosophical biases inherent in the field of education (Belenky et al 1978). At this stage, feminist arguments were also persuasive in the adoption of constructivist philosophies due to the researcher's perception of her own educational experiences. Belenky et al (1978) assert that female ways of knowing have traditionally been suppressed in western education systems. However, as the research project progressed further questions arose regarding the philosophy of social constructionism.

One of the main areas of difficulty with this philosophy concerned the primacy of the individual (Alvesson and Skoldberg 2009). The individualistic assumptions which underpin constructionism raised some important issues for the proposed methodology. As Bayne (2005) highlights, the pure constructionist view would suggest that personality does not exist but is instead a perception created by the observer. Thus constructionism would render theories and psychometric tools, which purport to define aspects of personality, futile. This new understanding of the philosophical implications inherent in constructionism did not reflect the researcher's own views and learning about personality. Subsequently these reflections highlighted some of the contradictions in the research plan and forced a re-evaluation of the philosophical assumptions which underpin the study. This resulted in the reappraisal of the constructionist philosophy, although the research remained predominately interpretivist and phenomenological in worldview.

3.4 The Research Approach

There are two established approaches to reasoning which may produce new knowledge or information: inductive reasoning and deductive reasoning (Anderson 2009; Creswell 2009; Saunders et al 2012). Deduction is defined as the process of theory testing, "the researcher advances the theory, collects data to test it, and reflects on its confirmation or disconfirmation by the results" (Creswell 2009 p. 55). Induction, on the other hand, is the process of theory building whereby data is collected and analysed in order to arrive at general conclusions and develop theory (Sekaran and Bougie 2009). Traditionally, the utilisation of each approach has suggested a specific research paradigm; deductive approaches have been viewed as inherently quantitative and inductive approaches inherently qualitative.

Creswell (1994) refers to the "paradigm debate" which questions whether the research paradigm should be linked with the chosen methods. "Purists" assert that methods should not be mixed (Creswell 1994) as the nature of a qualitative study, which embraces an emerging design, cannot be reconciled with predictive study. However, the pragmatist argument posits that the key consideration for the researcher should be whether the methods address the research questions (Creswell 2009). The pragmatist view asserts that due to the complex nature of the problems facing social scientists, qualitative or quantitative methods alone are insufficient and that more insight will be gathered using a combination of methods (Creswell 2009; Saunders et al 2012). This view has been reflected in the increased use and popularity of mixed methodologies in recent years (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Creswell 2004).

Qualitative methods put the researcher at the centre of the investigation and focus on naturalistic human activity (Lincoln and Guba 1985). The researcher becomes the research instrument and the methods employed become an extension of researcher activity. However, that does not mean that only qualitative data will be collected. Research paradigms should not simply be viewed as dichotomies, instead they should be seen as opposite ends of a continuum with research studies being predominately more qualitative than quantitative or vice versa (Creswell 2009).

It is argued that a predominately qualitative methodology was best suited to address the research question. In addition, secondary research, undertaken through the process of literature review, highlighted a number of methodological gaps in the existing literature. Previous mentoring literature had favoured quantitative approaches and therefore, in order to gain new insights into the mentoring phenomenon, a qualitative methodology was considered more appropriate. Therefore this study employs a predominately qualitative approach to address the research aim and to match the researcher's experience and perspective accordingly.

3.5 The Reflexive Researcher

Due to the interpretative nature of qualitative research a number of ethical and personal matters, which relate to the researcher, must be addressed (Creswell 2009). The researcher's ethics, values and beliefs will have some bearing on the research and therefore efforts must be made to minimise researcher bias and ensure the integrity of the data.

Reflexivity involves self-evaluation and examination of the researcher's beliefs and interactions within the research process (Saunders et al 2012). This reflective process enables the researcher to enhance analysis and gain greater insights into data by raising awareness of potential barriers to understanding. In order to be reflexive the researcher must consider their effect on the process and outcomes of research based on the premise that "knowledge cannot be separated from the knower" (Steedman 1991). The researcher is therefore required to identify reflexively the characteristics and personal biases which may shape interpretations formed during the process of study (Creswell 2009). The researcher's reflexive account for this study can be viewed in appendix one.

The researcher approached the study from a predominately educational perspective having been employed in the education sector as a teacher, manager, HRD specialist and lecturer. The researcher's education and professional work experience initially influenced the study topic and design via assumptions that were implicit within this subject discipline. The constructivist perspective, which has dominated educational theory and research in the twentieth century (Richardson 1996), was central to the original philosophy which, at first, underpinned the qualitative design. However, as described in section 5.3, this perspective was reappraised throughout the research process due to contradictions between personality theory and the constructivist view. This led to a realisation that these were implicit assumptions in the researcher's undergraduate teacher education which had impacted on the researcher's outlook and professional practice. Further reflection during the review of the personality literature led the researcher to approach the study from an interactionist perspective (Lewin 1951), which recognises the interplay between learned and innate behaviours. Young (2000) argues that this approach is typical of social science researchers.

Another professional influence which impacted on the study was the researcher's experience of undertaking action research in the education sector. Action research is typically used to enhance professional learning (McNiff 2013) and there has been a long established tradition of action research within school settings to address an array of pedagogical problems and to develop practice. Having been exposed to this process and the associated reflective practice (ibid), the researcher was committed to undertaking applied research which would have some practical utility in organisations. Applied research is typically conducted within a particular setting and seeks to address an existing

problem within that context (Sekaran and Bougie 2009). This pragmatic and reflective approach, along with a desire to problem solve, influenced the direction of the research design and questions. The focus of the research was therefore not only to generate explanatory theory but to enhance formal mentoring interventions in organisations.

The researcher's personality type also had bearing on the study. A summary of the researcher's MBTI personality type can be viewed in appendix two. As an individual with INFP preferences, the researcher is described in the MBTI typology as:

> *Idealistic, loyal to their values and to people who are important to them. Want an external life that is congruent with their values. Curious, quick to see possibilities, can be catalysts for implementing ideas. Seek to understand people and to help them fulfil their potential. Adaptable, flexible and accepting unless a value is threatened.* (Briggs Myers 2000)

This type description suggests that the research topic may have been influenced by the researcher's personality preferences. Further, it has been suggested (Mitroff and Kilmann 1976; Mitroff 1983) that *intuitive-feeling* (NF) preferences typically describe qualitative analysis processes, thus implying that individuals with these preferences would be more inclined to do this type of research. This would suggest that there is a complementary fit between the researcher and the research design and that the researcher's personality type may have also influenced the methodological approach taken.

3.6 Strategy

An initial research strategy was developed which could then be piloted prior to the actual data collection period. As described in the previous section, the strategy was to be predominately qualitative and exploratory in design. However, further considerations regarding the research plan were still to be made. From the outset it was intended that the research should be cross sectional in design. Whilst the arguments for more longitudinal research in this subject area were recognised (Wanberg et al 2003; Clutterbuck 2004; Allen et al 2007), the novel and exploratory nature of this study permitted a cross-sectional approach leaving longitudinal research as a focus for future enquiry. Further, a choice had to be made between a multi or mono-method approach (Saunders et al 2012).

3.6.1 Case Study Design

When considering which qualitative methods to use, the first decision focused on whether to adopt one approach or a multi-method approach. The nature of the research question and strategy inevitably

led to a multi-method approach as, from the outset, it was apparent that both psychometric and qualitative data would be required to address the objectives.

Case study research is a method which involves the in depth investigation of real-life phenomenon within the actual contexts in which they occur (Yin 2009). However, the boundaries between the phenomenon being studied and the context will not always clear. Nonetheless, case study enquiry will focus on distinct situations or entities, such as mentoring relationships, in which there will be many variables and sources of evidence. This requires data to be collated and triangulated in order to establish each case. This approach benefits from the development of propositions or research questions to guide the data collection and analysis processes (ibid).

In this research, a case study approach, which utilised multiple cases in order to draw a set of "cross-case conclusions", was proposed (Yin 2009). The unit of study was the mentoring relationship and therefore the intention was to study multiple mentoring dyads in order to draw inferences about the impact individual differences will have on relationship dynamics and learning. By using a multiple case approach, qualitative data could be collected using a number of different methods thus allowing for the inclusion of MBTI data in the research.

3.6.2 Methods

Once a case study approach had been selected, the next step was to establish appropriate methods to address the research aim and objectives. Through the researcher's consultancy work at Robert Gordon University, the opportunity arose to engage in participant observation with a group of mentors and mentees from an Oil and Gas sector consultancy firm. Further reading (Spradley 1980, Saunders et al 2012) highlighted the intricacies of recording data when using participant observation as a method and thus the difficulties of collecting data whilst delivering consultancy work and training became an issue. Further, the level of detail and objectivity required by participant observers (Spradley 1980) were of concern to the researcher. The dual nature and complexity of the role would place considerable demands on a novice researcher more naturally inclined towards *intuitive* reasoning. Thus this data collection method was rejected because it was not considered to be compatible with the researcher's skill set.

The second decision concerning methods involved whether data should be collected using individual or group methods such as group interviews or focus groups. However, the confidential and sensitive nature of mentoring relationships rendered a group approach inappropriate and thus favoured individual qualitative interviews. However, the relationship between the research questions and

methods required further clarification if the nature of the interview was to be consistent with the research question (Saunders et al 2012, Silverman 2010) and the researcher.

The final consideration relating to the choice of methods again arose from consultancy work being undertaken by the researcher at Robert Gordon University. Just prior to the data collection period the researcher was involved in delivering online mentoring training to a corporate client in the Oil and Gas sector. It appeared logical to seek research access from this organisation which had a well-established corporate mentoring scheme. However, as with many online training programmes, the participating students were scattered geographically and whilst technology could assist in the research process, it would have dramatically altered the data collection process. The option of conducting interviews via the internet was considered. While there are some advantages to this approach (Vir 2003; Gruber et al 2008) such as the relative anonymity the online environment offers interviewees when discussing more sensitive topics, the researcher had reservations regarding the limitations of this medium. It is argued that internet interviews would not capture the "real-time" body language, gestures and eye movements essential to the communication process (Vir 2003), making it difficult to build rapport with interviewees and interpret meanings (Shepherd 2003). Moreover, Parker (2011) asserts that, in some fields, over 50% of all qualitative research has some online element, the majority of interviews adhere to structured questions. Thus there were potential implications for the type of interview that could be conducted. This presented the researcher with a set of options which have been illustrated in Figure 13. The researcher had to decide whether to utilise structured, semi-structured or unstructured interview methods.

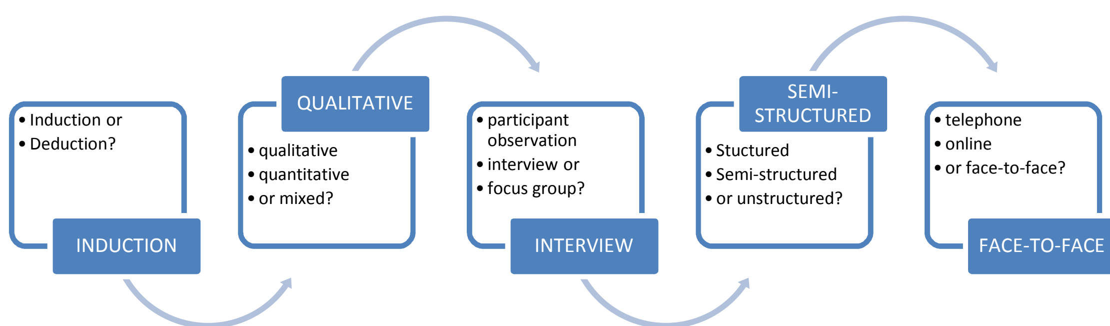

Figure 13: The Choice of Methods (Source: Author)

3.6.3 Choice of Methods

Initially a non-standardised interview process was favoured due to the flexibility and informality of this approach (Saunders et al 2012). Unstructured interviewing would enable the researcher to build rapport with interviewees which would, in turn, allow the researcher to elicit greater depth and detail

from participants (Anderson 2009). Further, a less directive approach was considered to be more fitting with the ethos of exploratory research. Whilst unstructured interviewing had similar benefits to the semi-structured approach, it would minimise researcher bias and enable participants to talk freely about events, behaviours and beliefs relating to their mentoring relationship (Saunders et al 2012). This created the potential for participants to raise issues which the researcher had not yet considered (Anderson 2009). Despite the perceived advantages of using this approach, the researcher had previously conducted semi-structured interviews only. It was considered therefore necessary to trial the method prior to data collection. In addition, by testing the proposed methods, there would be an opportunity to pre-empt potential issues and reduce uncertainty (Turner 2005). A pilot study was designed to evaluate the proposed research methods prior to commencing the actual data collection period.

3.6.4 Pilot Case Studies

The key methodological areas to be trialled in the pilot study were unstructured interviews with mentors and mentees and MBTI using OPP Assessment, the online platform for the administration of MBTI. Two mentoring dyads were selected to take part in the pilot study, one from Higher Education and the other from an engineering consultancy in the UK Oil and Gas sector.

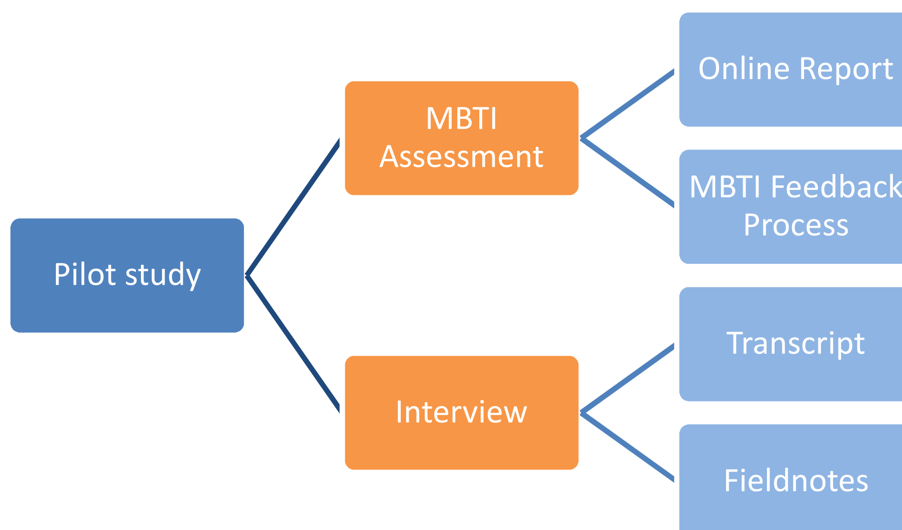

Figure 14: The Pilot Study Data Sources (Source: Author)

An aide memoire was developed to assist the interviewer during the interview process and a participant information sheet was created to inform contributors of the purpose and course of the research. The research procedures planned in the research proposal were applied consistently: Firstly participants were emailed a MBTI questionnaire to complete, this was followed by an interview and finally, on receipt of the completed questionnaire, feedback was given to each participant MBTI personality type.

Each interview was opened with a grand-tour question (Spradley 1979) and prompts were used to encourage participants to explain further or reflect more on their mentoring relationship and learning. In addition, the social context from which interview data was collected, and the interactions between researchers and interviewees, were recorded in a research diary to support the evaluation process. Further demographic data was collected from each participant during the interview process using a participant checklist. The data sources utilised in the pilot study are illustrated in Figure 14.

Each in-depth interview was recorded using a digital voice recorder. These digital files were then sent to a professional transcription service to be transcribed "verbatim relevant". Once the transcribed interview data had been received some limited evaluation of the data was made. Due to the inductive nature of the research it was deemed inappropriate to undertake any deeper analysis for fear of contaminating the actual study with expectation or researcher bias.

The transcribed account of each interview was reviewed several times and checked for accuracy in relation to the digital voice recordings. The raw data was then evaluated in the first instance to ensure the information captured was relevant to the research aim and objectives and sufficiently in depth. The data was then reviewed and reduced to ensure it reflected key themes relevant to the research, for example statements about self, mentoring partner, mentoring relationship and learning.

Finally, each participant was sent an electronic version of the MBTI via email to be completed in their own time. The completed questionnaires were returned via OPP Assessment, the online platform for MBTI administration. From there the researcher could order profile reports for each candidate post interview. A feedback session was then arranged with each participant to take them through a MBTI self-evaluation and explain the questionnaire results in line with MBTI administration protocol.

3.6.5 Pilot Findings

A review of pilot data indicated that the in-depth interviews varied in length from approximately seventeen minutes to forty-six minutes. One explanation for this difference can be found in Type Theory; the shortest interview conducted was with a mentee who reported a preference towards introversion, the other three participants, who were interviewed for a considerably longer period, had a preference towards extraversion. Type Theory (Myers et al 1998) posits that extraverts "talk to think" whereas introverts prefer to think internally prior to making comment. When reviewing the interview transcripts, not only was it apparent that the extraverted participants had said much more during interview, it was also evident that the introverted participant had provided equally useful information but had been more succinct when responding. In fact, a higher proportion of the introvert's data could

be used. Gillham (2000) opines that the most striking feature of transcribed data is that most of what people say is redundant. Further, the interview order suggested that the differences in interview length were not due to researcher/interview conduct as the longest interview was carried out first and the shortest last. The influence of these individual differences had not been accounted for in the original research plan.

The key strengths of the design included the use of the MBTI instrument as a framework to explore mentoring relationships. Evaluation of interview transcripts provided illustrations of type within each data set which provided insight into the self-perceptions of participants. In addition, the administration of the psychometric test, via the online platform, had been efficient, professional and liked by participants. It was apparent that the offer of MBTI consultancy had acted as an enticement to participate in the interview process. There was further evidence of the learning received within each mentoring relationship although it was recognised that a more focused approach to this element of the data collection was required.

During the interview process candidates were asked to use the language that they would typically use in everyday situations. This approach was chosen in an attempt to make the interviews as naturalistic as possible (Spradley 1979). Whilst individuals did articulate their views with regards to their learning, it could be difficult to ascertain meaning when candidates used technical or sector-specific language. Moreover, it was apparent when reviewing the interview transcripts that the higher education dyad had a more holistic view of learning as opposed to the engineering dyad, which focused more on technical skills and knowledge. These differing views of learning indicated that a definition was required if the career, emotional, developmental and enabling outcomes associated with formal mentoring were to be explored (Clutterbuck 2004).

3.6.6 The Revised Plan

Analysis of the pilot case study data influenced the revision of the research plan in a number of ways. Firstly it was decided that by sending participants an information sheet prior to interview, those with a preference toward *introversion* would have the opportunity to reflect before meeting with the researcher thus maximising the potential data capture from these candidates.

On reflection, it was pertinent to ask whether unstructured interviews had suited the personalities involved or had been familiar and comfortable for participants. All of the pilot participants reported a MBTI preference towards *intuition* and therefore focused more readily on the patterns and meanings in information. Individuals who have a preference for this approach to collecting information are also more prone to going off at a tangent in conversation (Myers et al 2003). This was evident in the

interview data. Moreover, the researcher's MBTI preference was also *intuitive* and the unstructured nature of the interview conversations provided a challenge when the discussion was between two "N's. However, it was also worth considering how individuals with the opposite preference might respond to this approach. *Sensing* individuals prefer to focus on the here and now and like to work from a blueprint or proven approach (ibid). This less familiar, unstructured method may therefore have hindered these individuals during the data collection process thus impacting on the depth and quality of their responses. The resultant decision was to adopt a semi-structured approach to interviewing in order to minimise participant distraction. Further, by using a semi-structured interview method, the researcher would be able to ensure that the learning outcomes of each relationship were addressed. The unstructured approach risked putting some individuals at a disadvantage during the interview process and thus jeopardising the quality of the data collected. Therefore it was decided that a semi-structured approach to the interview process would enable all individuals to contribute more fully to the research.

3.7 Research Design

Following the pilot study, the research design was adapted to include the revised methods.

An overview of the resultant research design is presented in Figure 15 below.

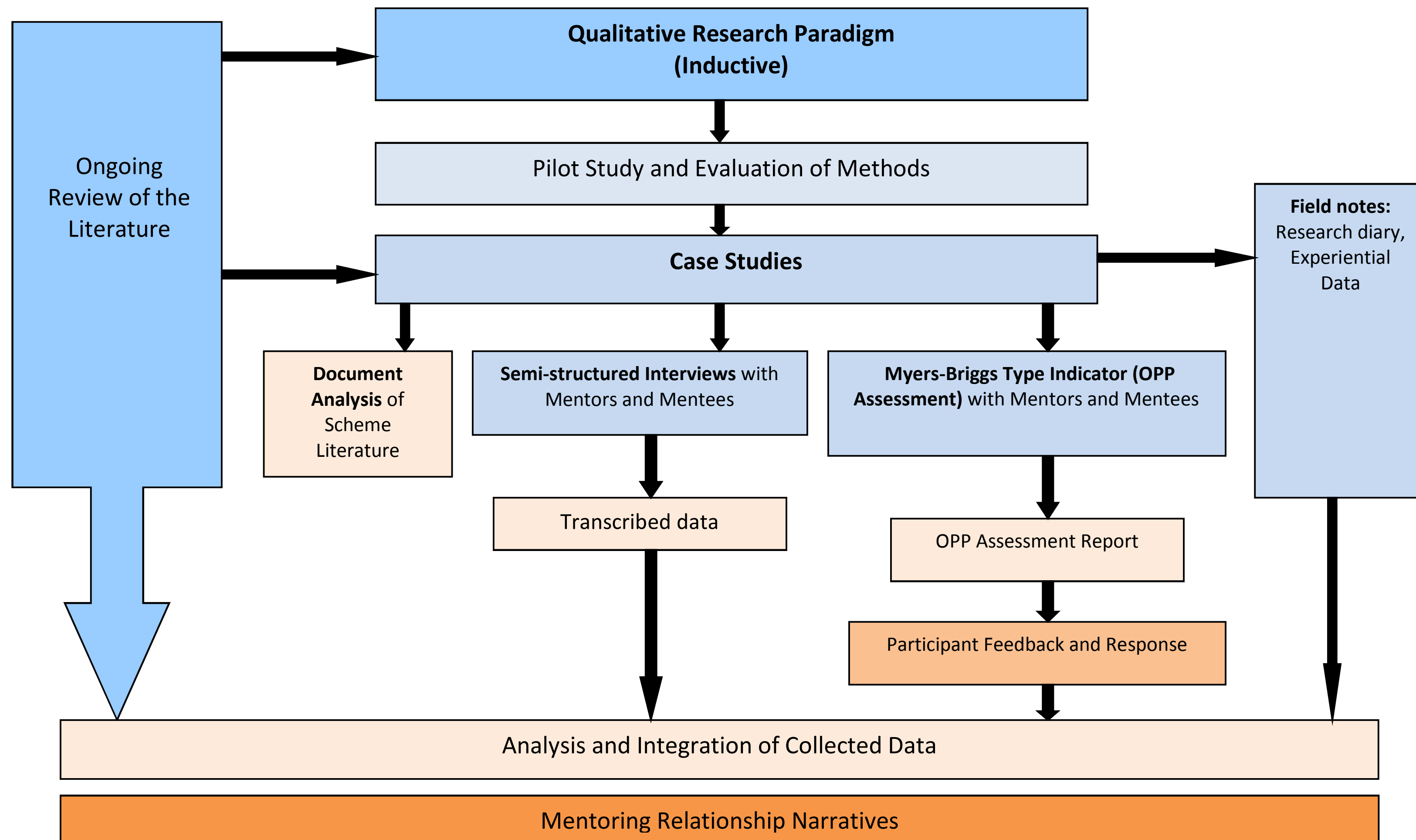

Figure 15: The Research Strategy (Source: Author)

3.7.1 Selecting the Participants

With regards to the research aim, it was recognised that the unit of study for this research would be the mentoring dyad and that it was, therefore, necessary to secure the participation of both mentors and mentees in current mentoring relationships. However, the location of the data collection sites and the selection of research participants involved a set of decisions which ultimately influenced the research methodology (Kram 1985). Anderson (2009) observes that in qualitative research the validity and reliability of data is inextricably linked with the choice of participants.

3.7.1.1 Selection of the Research Population

One of the first areas for consideration was the population from which to draw the research sample. Initial thoughts had centred on the UK Oil and Gas sector. The reason for this was threefold. Firstly this sector had remained buoyant during a double-dip recession and therefore had the resources to continue to invest in learning and development initiatives such as mentoring. Secondly, the researcher had access to a number of Oil and Gas sector organisations due to pre-existing links with Human Resource managers within the industry. Finally, the well documented skills shortages within this industry suggested that the research would be of interest and value to organisations operating within this field.

On reflection, it was realised that a number of sectors could potentially benefit from this research, including the public sector. Subsequently, two possible occupational groups were considered for sampling purposes: Engineering (energy sector) and nursing (public sector). These two professional groups were considered due to the growing body of mentoring literature centring on these professions but also because each profession had demonstrated commitment to mentoring by providing new recruits with mentors via professional institute schemes. However, MBTI data (Oxford Psychologists Press 2009) indicates that some professions attract certain personality types and therefore there may be bias towards certain personality characteristics within a profession. Further, Bridges (2000) asserts that the same may be true of organisations as some types of employees may be more attractive to some organisations than others. This was clearly a concern in this study as a range of personality types would be needed in order to address the research aim. It was for this reason alone that a broader population was sought and thus the decision was made to select participants from a cross-professional and cross-organisational group. The decision to base the study locally was also judged appropriate in order to capitalise upon the economic buoyancy of the region but also to benefit from using the researcher's professional network (Anderson 2009).

3.7.1.2 Sampling Procedures

Creswell (2009) contends that in qualitative research the researcher should purposively select research sites and participants in order to comprehend the research problem. A set of criteria (appendix three) were drawn up to establish the essential characteristics of the participants that were to be recruited for this project. The first criterion was that participants should be involved in a formal, workplace mentoring relationship. In addition, it was decided that each mentoring relationship should have endured for a period of at least six months and that research access to both members of the mentoring dyad was necessary. The rationale for these criteria were to ensure, firstly, that each mentoring relationship had progressed beyond the rapport building and goal setting stage (Clutterbuck 2004) and, secondly, to establish the unit of study as the mentoring relationship and not the individual perspectives of the relationship. The primary purpose of this study was to develop understanding of the role of personality on mentoring relationship dynamics and learning received. Hence both members of the dyad were required.

3.7.1.3 Selection of Participants

After initial discussions with colleagues, a number of organisations and mentoring schemes were targeted for research access. Using the researcher's professional network, and the associates of a number of colleagues, five organisations were approached directly via their Human Resource Manager or Mentoring Scheme Co-ordinator. The decision to select the chosen organisations centred on the sampling criteria and potential value of the research to participants (Anderson 2009; Saunders et al 2012). However, the opportunity to include individuals from a variety of professional backgrounds and mentoring relationship types was also taken into consideration. Initially, one public sector scheme, one cross-organisational, a private sector scheme and three energy sector organisations were approached. Four of the selected schemes/organisations responded favourably to the direct requests for research access.

The first positive response came from a public sector mentoring scheme which paired up management professionals from different occupations and public services (including third sector services). The scheme co-ordinator had canvassed individuals directly using the research "participant information sheet" and had asked prospective participants to email the researcher directly. Whilst several individual participants indicated their interest at this stage, it was also necessary to secure the participation of their mentoring partner. Thus each respondent was asked to contact their mentor or mentee to secure the input of both members of the mentoring dyad. This reduced the level of initial individual interest but did secure the involvement of three mentoring dyads (six participants).

It was decided that the data collection period should start immediately after consent had been agreed, in order to exploit initial participant interest and motivation. Interviews were arranged with the six participants immediately, at a time and location that was convenient to each individual (Saunders et al 2012). For four individuals this involved carrying out interviews at their place of work, for the other two it involved interviewing at the researcher's workplace.

During the initial data collection period a second organisation indicated that they would be interested in taking part in the project. This business networking organisation circulated the study information among participants of their cross-organisational scheme but did not generate any new contributors. Nonetheless, shortly afterwards, an Energy sector organisation that had recently embarked upon executive mentoring for their management team noted interest. In consultation with the organisation's Human Resources Manager and Regional Manager, it was established that the senior management team and their mentors would be willing to participate in the research. The organisation was keen to benefit from the MBTI consultancy offered and to receive support in the evaluation of this recent mentoring initiative. The researcher was already familiar with the organisation due to previous consultancy work undertaken there and so an arrangement was established whereby the researcher would support the company's mentoring evaluation in return for research access. This generated an additional ethical issue in that clear boundaries needed to be established with regards to the confidentiality and anonymity of the data collected. It was agreed that the researcher would provide consultancy support for the evaluation of the mentoring initiative but that a separate data set would have to be gathered for this.

The research access granted at this energy sector organisation provided contact with another seven mentoring dyads. Of this group, six mentees were being supported by the same mentor, an Organisational Development Consultant who had been contracted to support the executive team. This provided an interesting opportunity to explore the impact of personality in formal mentoring relationships when one set of participant variables were stable. In addition to these dyads an additional mentoring pair was included in the sample that had met the purposive criteria and showed particular interest in the study.

The main research setting for this period of data collection was the organisation's regional offices although the researcher did also travel to one other Scottish city in order to carry out two interviews and MBTI assessments. Again the rationale supporting the decisions made was to ensure the research setting was convenient, comfortable and cost effective for the participants and the organisation (Anderson 2009; Sekaran and Bougie 2009; Saunders et al 2012). There was also the added benefit of observing individuals in their own environment and recording observational thoughts in the

researcher's dairy. Creswell (2009) notes that qualitative researchers tend to collect data in natural settings where they can observe participants operating within their own context.

The final study organisation was an Oil and Gas sector company based in Scotland. The researcher had already met one employee from this organisation during the pilot study and, via this pre-existing relationship, was able to secure the participation of another two mentoring dyads. This resulted in a sample size of 12 mentoring dyads. The data collection for the final two dyads was also carried out in the organisation's premises although due to the peripatetic nature of these participants' jobs there was some time lag between the interview and MBTI assessment for each participant.

3.7.2 Revised methods

The selected primary methods consisted of semi-structured interviewing, MBTI online assessment and document analysis. In addition field notes were taken to support data analysis. Further secondary research was conducted via literature review. For each method, a set of decisions had to be made regarding design and procedures to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collected. Further, each method created a different set of ethical implications which needed to be addressed. The selected methods shall now be discussed in turn.

3.7.2.1 The Approach to the Literature

A first review of the mentoring literature was undertaken in 2008 to obtain an overview of the research area and to understand the issues relating to the subject. This, together with research focusing on methodology and philosophy enabled the development of an initial research plan. After returning to university following a 20 month suspension of studies, it was necessary to establish how the subject area had developed. Thus a further review of the mentoring literature was undertaken. This was followed by an evaluation of the MBTI literature and HRD literature. Each review gave rise to additional broader areas of inquiry and reading, as illustrated in Figure 16. It should be noted, however, that general reading also had a role to play in the development of this research project as frequently it was from other literature sources and websites that ideas emerged and crystallised.

The process of literature review was on-going and was carried out inductively (Creswell 1994). The review process provided an opportunity to explore the theories and concepts which underpinned the topics of mentoring, personality, and learning, and to further develop the research objectives and questions. It was recognised throughout the review process that the researcher's inclination towards more creative techniques had been foremost during the initial secondary research period, hence the need to develop and employ a more systematic approach. Subsequent literature searching and review were guided by search parameters and the use of consistent search terms. Relevance trees were used

to identify literature pertinent to the research objectives and evaluation was undertaken to ensure the relevance and value of the literature sources (Saunders et al 2012). The approach to the literature is illustrated in Figure 16.

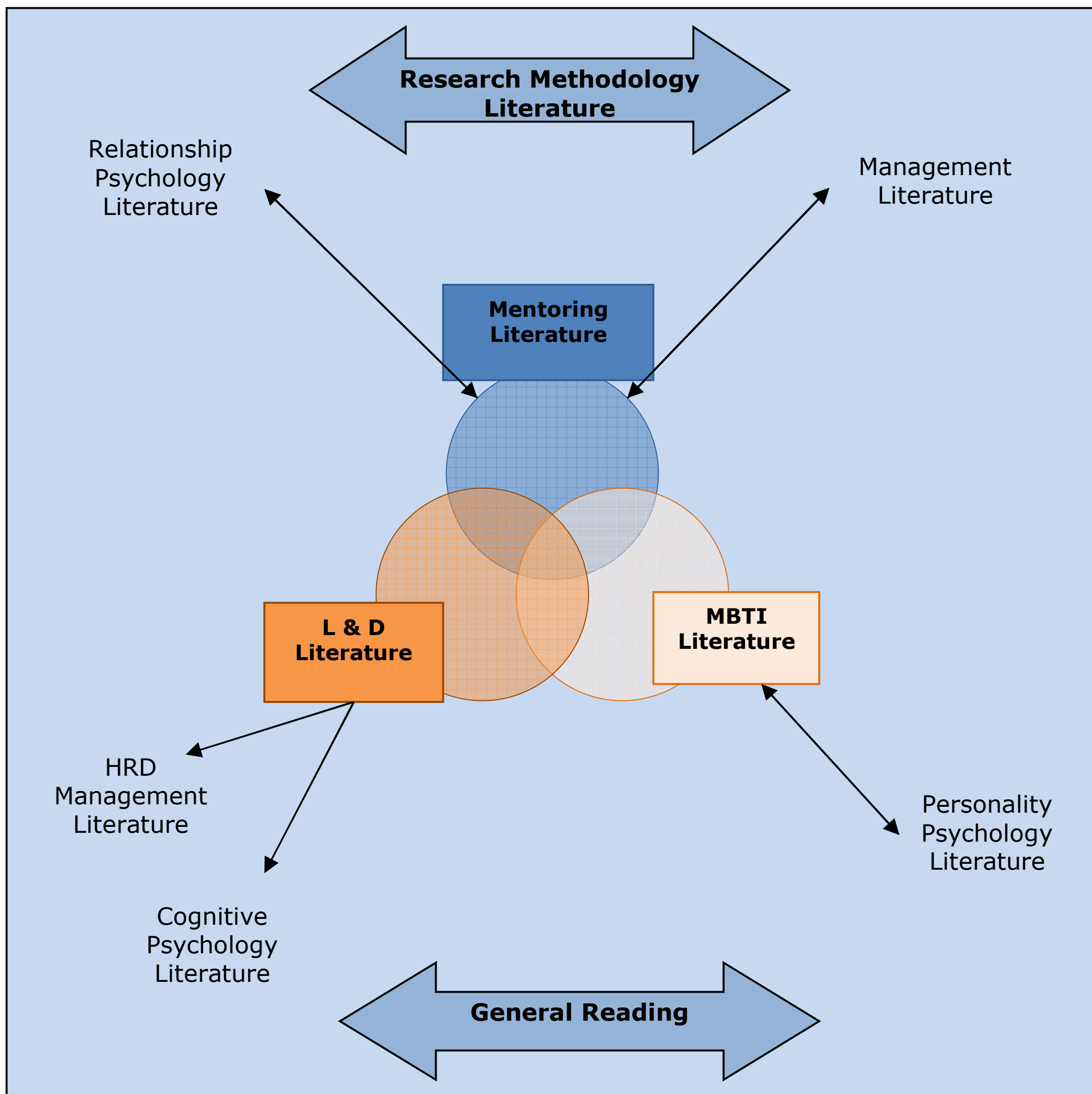

Figure 16: The Approach to the Literature (Source: Author)

3.7.2.2 Semi-structured Interviews

The results of the pilot study had highlighted a number of issues relating to the initial research plan and had subsequently resulted in the selection of a semi-structured interview method. Now that the final strategy had been decided, the important issue of consistency and the researcher's role within the study needed to be addressed.

3.7.2.3 Interview Design and Administration

The qualitative data was collected during twenty-one semi-structured interviews; three interviews were conducted with the one mentor who supported six mentees. This approach was planned to provide participants with the opportunity to develop ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised from the interview script (Denscombe 1998) The interview data was supported by field notes collected in a research diary to register the context of the interview and to enable the identification of issues relevant at the analysis stage (Ritchie and Lewis 2003).

Each interview began with the interviewee's biography to set the dynamic for the interview and to relax the participant (Anderson 2009; Sekeran and Bougie 2009; Saunders et al 2012). In addition, following the pilot study outcomes, an explanation of "learning" was given at the start of each interview so that participants understood the scope of the study more fully. The interview script (appendix four) contained a list of open ended questions to be answered during interview. The questions were categorised into discussion themes identified through secondary research and were flexible in terms of the order in which the topics were considered (Denscombe 1998; Anderson 2009). The script was developed from the research objectives and areas of questioning were identified which would explore key themes and issues relating to the mentoring relationship dynamics and learning derived from each relationship. The interview script was designed to partially address objectives two, three and four. This original script was adapted for the mentor with multiple mentees in order to accommodate more than one relationship discussion in each interview (appendix five). Due to time constraints and potential cost to the organisation, this mentor was interviewed three times and during each interview two mentoring relationships were addressed.

Interviewees were asked to describe their own mentoring experiences, their impressions and relationship with their mentoring partner, their reasons for participating in a mentoring relationship and the learning outcomes they perceived had resulted from the mentoring process. Additional information was sought to identify the organisational processes and context which had contributed to the mentoring relationship including the matching process, training provided and organisational mentoring objectives so that this could be triangulated with the mentoring scheme literature provided by each organisation. Each participant was asked to describe their own definition of mentoring to ensure clarity between researcher and interviewee and to support the analysis of the data obtained. Reflexive questioning techniques were used to explore the issues raised, allowing interviewees to elaborate on points of interest. Probe questions and laddering techniques (Grunert and Grunert 1995) were used extensively during interview to elicit further information and to corroborate earlier responses, thus enhancing the validity of the research process. The interview scripts are included in appendices four and five.

3.7.2.4 Conducting the Interviews

To ensure a high interview response rate, meetings were prearranged and scheduled for a convenient time and location for participant mentees (Denscombe 1998; Saunders et al 2012). Interview logistics were organised in consultation with the participant companies' mentoring co-ordinators in order to encourage employee involvement. However, once research access had been obtained, the researcher was able to contact participants directly via email to make interview arrangements. At this stage the participants were provided with a participant information sheet (appendix six) which outlined the purpose and procedures of the study. The benefits of the prospective research findings were described from the outset.

The interviews were carried out on a one-to-one basis and each interviewee was briefed on the aims and purpose of the study and informed of the extent to which participant anonymity would be protected. Written consent was sought from each participant prior to commencing the interview process using the consent form in appendix seven. The identities of interviewees have been protected due to the confidential nature of the mentoring process; professional conduct and confidentiality were maintained throughout the research process in accordance with research governance procedures.

Permission was sought to record each interview to maximise the information capture and ensure data objectivity. The twenty-one interviews were recorded by digital voice recorder. The services of a professional transcription service (Transcription Scotland) were employed to transfer the recorded data to written format. The interview recordings were transcribed "verbatim relevant". The resulting transcripts were checked to ensure the transcription and interpretation of the data was accurate. This checking strategy was included as an additional step to ensure validity (Hegstad and Wentling 2005). Data preparation and analysis will be discussed further in Section 5.

Field notes were recorded throughout the research process, before and after each interview. In accordance with Haggard et al's (2011) assertions, a checklist was employed to ensure key demographic information was systematically captured during each interview (appendix eight). This involved establishing a profile of each participant's mentoring relationship including the gender, race, job title and experience level of each dyad member and relationship features such as frequency of meeting, relationship length and type.

Each interview was concluded by giving participants the opportunity to provide additional information about their mentoring relationship that had not been included in the interview (Anderson 2009). Once the interview had drawn to a close the researcher provided each interviewee with a MBTI leaflet which explained about the next stage of the research and the MBTI assessment. Participants were informed

that they would be emailed a copy of the online MBTI questionnaire which they were to complete and return; the researcher would then contact each participant to arrange feedback once each completed questionnaire had been received.

3.7.2.5 Interview Bias

The lack of standardisation in the chosen research method raised the question of reliability (Silverman 2010). A number of measures were taken in order to address the issue of interview bias. Firstly, the interview setting was considered. The researcher was aware that bias could be introduced to the interview by the interviewer, interviewee or the situation (Sekeran and Bougie 2009). In order to ensure that participants were comfortable in the interview setting, they were asked to suggest a convenient place to meet during the initial email contact. In the majority of cases the researcher travelled to the participant's place of work unless they indicated an interest in meeting at the researcher's workplace. This ensured that participants were comfortable and in familiar surroundings during the interview (Saunders et al 2012). In addition, efforts were made to ensure that researcher behaviour was neutral, friendly and professional (ibid). By listening attentively to the interviewees and demonstrating interest through facial expressions, body language and responsive questions and probes, the researcher was able to build rapport and elicit fuller responses (Anderson 2009; Sekeran and Bougie 2009). Consent was sought prior to interview and assurances given regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of data and the resultant research.

The approach to questioning was also considered and great emphasis was placed on the use of open questioning techniques (Sekeran and Bougie 2009). This reduced the risk of leading participants and gave interviewees greater scope to address each question. In addition, where there was a lack of clarity between researcher and participant, efforts were made to clarify issues during discussion (ibid). Consistent use of interview protocols ensured that participants were party to the same information. Examples were asked for and given where necessary and probe questions were used in accordance with the interview guide. Saunders et al (2012) maintain that a high level of validity can be achieved through interviewing when the approach is planned and conducted carefully. Field notes, which were taken throughout the interview process, registered the researcher's impressions of each individual interview. These notes were typed and converted into transcripts which supported the interpretation of data and stimulated reflection on participant bias (Miles and Huberman 1994; Sekeran and Bougie 2009).

3.8 Psychometric Testing

In order to examine personality type within the context of this study it was necessary to find a consistent measure which would generate psychometric data. A number of psychometric tools were available to the researcher but, after some consideration, MBTI was selected due to its continued dominance in organisations and HRD practices. Whilst McCrae and Costa's (1989) Five-factor Theory of personality has led academic research on personality in recent years, MBTI theory has dominated the application of personality theory in business settings (Bayne 2005). It was considered fitting to select a tool which had relevance to the organisational context and was, as such, an industry standard.

The inclusion of a psychometric tool as a research method raised a number of implications for the research. Firstly, due to the complexity and administration requirements of psychometric testing, it was necessary for the researcher to undertake training to become a MBTI consultant. MBTI (Step 1) training was therefore undertaken prior to the pilot study. This was important not only to ensure that assessments were conducted ethically and professionally but also to enhance data integrity. In addition to this, the decision to use a psychometric test in a qualitative study raised a number of philosophical deliberations. One such issue was the use of the ninety-three item MBTI questionnaire.

3.8.1. The Myer-Briggs Type Indicator

MBTI was developed in 1942, by mother and daughter team Katherine Cook Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers, who wanted to make Jung's Type Theory accessible and useful to individuals and groups (Myers and Kirby 1998). It was constructed regarding the underlying assumptions set out in Jung's Theory of Psychological Type and assesses personality preferences for four pairs of opposite styles which are viewed as equally valuable yet innate and unchanging (Carr 1998). Type Theory posits that all individuals will use all eight modes some of the time but will have a preferred approach within each of the four dichotomies. An overview of the four MBTI preference pairs can be viewed in Figure 17.

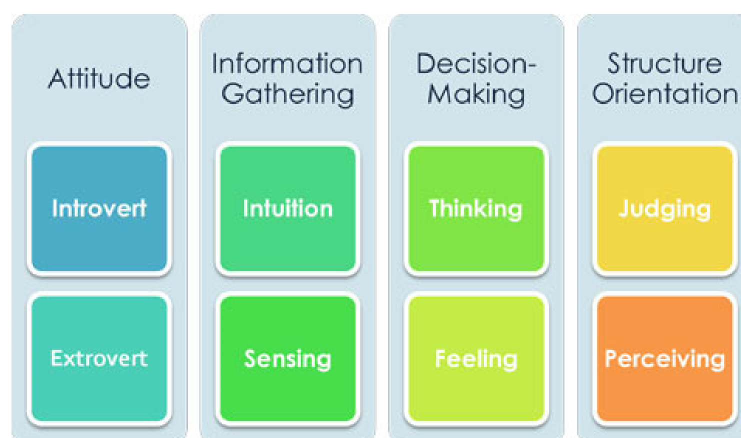

Figure 17: The Four MBTI Preference Pairs (Source: OPP)

3.8.2 The Four Preference Pairs

The preference pairs devised by Briggs and Myers relate to Jung's eight mental functions with the addition of a fourth dichotomy representing attitude to the outer, *extraverted* world: *Judging* or *Perceiving.* Proponents of the MBTI argue that whilst Jung did not directly identify this pair of opposites; they are implicit in his work (Quenk 2000). The resulting set of four preference pairs or *dichotomies* generate 16 personality types each described by a set of four letters (appendix nine). Thus an individual with a preference for Extraversion (E), Intuition (N), Feeling (F) and Perceiving (P) would be described as an ENFP. An overview of the sixteen MBTI personality types is presented in appendix nine.

The instrument was administered via questionnaire and followed by an evaluation conducted by the researcher, a qualified MBTI consultant. The aim of this "feedback session" was to establish a "best fit type" from both the questionnaire results and a self-evaluation conducted with each participant. Thus both self-report and psychometric data were used to establish the best fit and subsequently the questionnaire results were treated as one of many pieces of evidence throughout the evaluation process (Bayne 2005). In addition to this, the questionnaire itself generated a report consisting of qualitative data. This data was further verified through qualitative interviews with the candidates.

3.8.3 Reliability and Validity of the MBTI

The reliability and validity of the MBTI instrument was discussed in section 2.14.3. The review of the literature indicated that evidence for the validity of MBTI can be found in its popularity. Myers et al (1998) quote a figure of approximately two million administrations of the instrument every year. This would indicate that people like the MBTI and that the insights it provides resonate with users. Bayne (1995) agrees and highlights anecdotal evidence which supports the validity of the MBTI. He argues the term "indicator" puts the authority of the MBTI into perspective as a starting point or "set of hypotheses which can be expanded and tested through skilful interviewing" (Bayne 1995). It would seem that the MBTI questionnaire was not designed to be a "test" but to simply provide an indication of what individuals believe to be true about their personalities at a particular point in time (Childs 2004). Moreover, the overarching concept behind Myers-Briggs' theory is that individuals are the best judge of their own type. A key part of the MBTI process is to establish the user's "self-assessed type" prior to revealing the type reported by the questionnaire. Childs (2005) argues that the questionnaire is not used to measure true type but is in fact used to define respondents' self-views. This initial emphasis on self-reported type is important and sits quite comfortably within research philosophies which attempt to understand the world from the research subject's point of view (Saunders et al 2012).

The MBTI provides individuals with a framework to aid self-awareness and, importantly, a vocabulary with which they can describe some of their personality characteristics.

3.8.4 Online Administration

The electronic version of MBTI was sent to each participant via email and was completed in the participant's own time. The completed questionnaires were returned via OPP Assessment. From there, the researcher could then order profile reports for each candidate post interview. A feedback session was then arranged with each participant to take them through a MBTI self-evaluation and explain the questionnaire results in line with MBTI administration protocol. The feedback process generated three sets of data: reported type, self-reported type and best fit type.

Originally, psychometric data from participants was to be gathered through the administration of MBTI (Form M), a standardised ninety-three item paper and pencil questionnaire, sourced from OPP. However, developments in MBTI administration presented the opportunity to email questionnaires to participants through OPP Assessment. The benefits of this approach include ease of administration by emailing multiple respondents simultaneously and convenience for participants (Anderson 2009), who can complete the questionnaire in their own time within their own environment.

The overarching concept behind Myers-Briggs' theory is that individuals are the best judge of their own type. A key aspect of the MBTI feedback process is to establish users' self-assessed type prior to revealing the type reported by the questionnaire. Whilst it is recognised that the MBTI does not present a complete portrait of personality (Francis et al 2007) it does provide an indication of previously established mental processes (ibid; Bayne 2005). Feedback sessions were arranged following the completion of each questionnaire and whilst these discussions were not audio recorded, MBTI data was secured and field notes were taken throughout the process.

3.8.5 MBTI Bias

The reliability and validity of the MBTI instrument has already been addressed. However, there are other elements of the MBTI assessment process which may potentially bias data. Bayne (2005) refers to type bias, whereby MBTI consultants present certain preferences or types more favourably than others thus skewing the self-evaluation process and subsequent development support. However, in the research context potential researcher bias is reduced by the triangulation of the self-evaluation profile with the questionnaire results. The final best fit type is an amalgam of both. By completing each MBTI feedback session after the questionnaire completion, the potential for biasing each respondent was reduced further. The self-report data collected at interview provided another data source for triangulation with MBTI results.

Another concern with regards to MBTI assessment was the potential for misrepresentation or the falsifying of results by candidates. In order to reduce the likelihood of this happening assurances were given to participants with regards to the confidentiality of the OPP Assessment system and the security of data management systems (Kendall et al 2006). In addition, the process was voluntary and participants were advised that they could withdraw from the research process at any time (Saunders et al 2012). MBTI protocol was adhered to throughout the research process thus minimising the opportunity for misunderstanding. Field notes were taken throughout the research process to register participant reactions and to support the interpretation of data. By doing so lack of understanding or self-awareness with regards to specific preferences could be identified (Bayne 2005).

3.9 Document Analysis

Additional data was gathered by conducting a review of mentoring documentation provided by the participant organisations. This provided an insight into the organisation's mentoring programmes and approaches as well as assisting in the verification of data collected during the semi-structured interviews. All of the participant organisations were able to provide organisational documentation for these purposes thus enabling the triangulation of data, important to ensure the validity of the findings (Hegstad and Wentling 2005).

This documentation was then summarised using a document summary form (appendix ten). This approach was used to create a structured and objective method for minimising the data content (Hegstad and Wentling 2005). These summaries were then used to corroborate information provided by the interviewees about the organisational context and scheme processes in each company.

3.10 Approach to the Analysis

> *Data may be considered to be any sense perception that the researcher receives and which he or she believes will be helpful in obtaining a fuller understanding of, or answer to the research question. But the sense perception has to be registered by the researcher. In academic research this means recorded and in some sense processed. (Remenyi 2014)*

The data collection period generated a number of data sets. In the first instance the digital interview files were sent to a professional transcription service to be transcribed verbatim relevant. In this type of transcription certain elements are removed from a verbatim account if they are deemed to add no

meaning to the script, to be irrelevant, or to be repetitive. The transcribed account of each interview was reviewed several times and checked for accuracy in relation to the digital voice recordings. The raw data was then evaluated in the first instance to ensure the information captured was relevant to the research aim and objectives and sufficiently in depth.

The interview transcripts were further reviewed in light of the MBTI data. The personality type information included the questionnaire results, self-evaluation data and an agreed best fit type from the MBTI feedback sessions. Further data included the document summaries of the mentoring scheme literature and the researcher's field notes which were typed for ease of analysis. The data was subsequently sorted into case study sets with the data pertaining to each mentoring dyad being collated for analysis purposes.

The complexity of analysing interactions within formal mentoring relationships is shaped by the inter-related nature of the individual antecedents, relationship dynamics, organisational context and subsequent learning outcomes. Wanberg et al's (2003) "Conceptual Process Model of Formal Mentoring" portrays mentoring relationships as embedded within the corporate context. Despite this, previous mentoring studies (Clutterbuck 2013; Kent et al 2013) have been unable to bridge the gap between the internal dyadic context of the relationship and the external social and cultural context of the organisation. The addition of personality type data into this frame presented a further challenge. A diagram (Figure 18) of the study data sets is presented below.

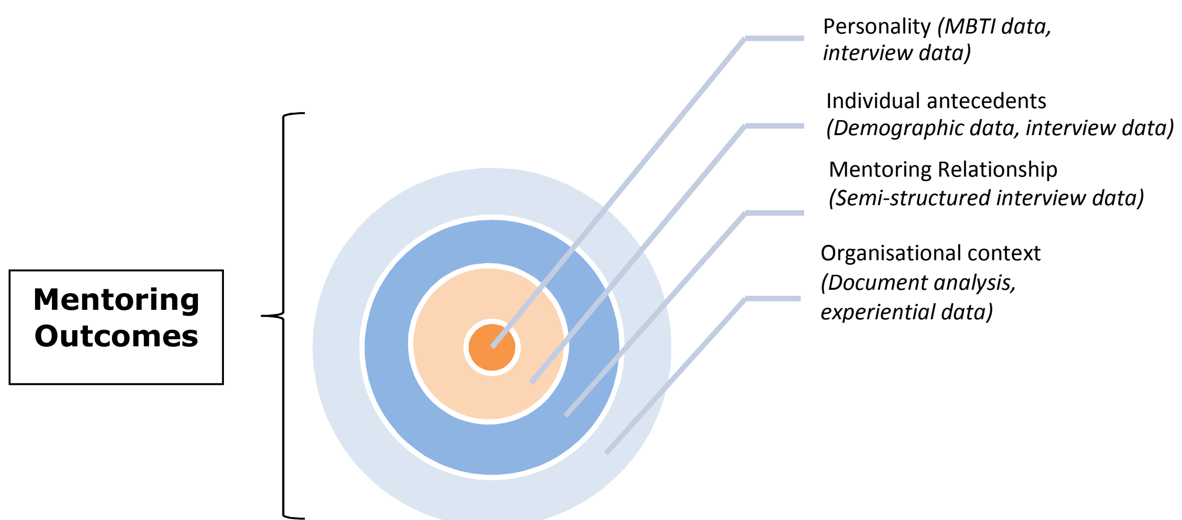

Figure 18: Nested Diagram of the Study Data Sets. (Source: Author)

The subsequent challenge, presented by this methodology (Yin 2009), was to incorporate the data sets with additional experiential data relating to each organisational context.

3.10.1 Need for an Analytic Strategy

One of the challenges of case study research is the lack of guidance available to novice researchers on the analysis of case study evidence (Yin 2009). Yin (2009) notes that there are few fixed approaches but asserts that much will depend upon the researcher's own thinking and methodological integrity. Despite this, four general strategies have been proposed including the use of theoretical propositions and developing case descriptions (ibid). Whilst the original objectives of the research were derived from literature review and were exploratory in nature, these gave rise to a number of research themes or questions (see section 1.3.2). These themes shaped the data collection plan and design of the research instruments but also helped to focus attention on areas of data in the initial stages of analysis (Yin 2009). Subsequently the research questions were used to guide the early analytic stages of the study (see section 3.10.2).

In the following stages of analysis a descriptive framework (Activity Theory) was used to organise each case study. This second analytic strategy supported the development of twelve descriptive cases or narratives; one for each of the mentoring dyads studied. This not only enabled the researcher to manage the large quantity of qualitative data which had been collected but also allowed the researcher to create rich descriptions of the participants experiences (Yin 2009). A description of the analysis process is presented below.

3.10.2 The Initial Stages

The original analysis proposal was to have an emergent research design and to generate categories of information once the data had been collected (Creswell 2009). Whilst it is recognised that this is the most traditional approach to qualitative analysis in the social sciences, Creswell (2009) argues that one decision researchers have to make regarding coding is whether they should use predetermined codes, emerging codes, or a combination of both. It is argued that whilst the data collection process may centre on themes, it is possible that these themes can be disregarded post transcription. However, Creswell (2009) advises qualitative researchers, in the first instance, to code topics based on past literature and common sense and thus the semi-structured approach to the interview script may not pose such a potential challenge to inductive analysis.

The initial stages of data analysis involved a process of reading then re-reading the transcripts and data sets pertaining to each dyad. This gave the researcher a clear picture of the depth and breadth of the data content for each dyad (Bazeley 2013). During this process, the researcher intuitively started to

make notes using the research questions to focus attention on relevant data. This developed into a process of mind mapping initial thoughts and sorting data into themes for each dyad. Colour codes were used to identify common data areas across the relationship mind-maps so that the researcher could start to identify potential themes for analysis (Miles and Huberman 1994). At this stage emerging categories centred on the participants, motivation, conceptions of mentoring, dyad interaction, tools and strategies, relationship context and learning.

3.10.3 Finding a Framework

One of the difficulties encountered, during the initial stages of analysis, centred on the management of the large quantity of data which had been collected using multiple methods. Finding a means to organise the data was important if it was to be accessible and fully scrutinised. The original intention of the research was to remain within the qualitative tradition of displaying rich case descriptions (Miles and Hubermann 1994) and therefore a framework to organise each case study was sought. Yin (2009) asserts that developing cases descriptions can be an appropriate analytic strategy when researchers are having difficulty working with theoretical propositions alone. Further, whilst the research may have been designed around a set of a priori themes, it was important to maintain an open mind (Srivastava and Thomson 2009) and deepen understanding and explanation through cross-case analysis (Miles and Hubermann 1994).

It was noted, during this stage, that the initial analysis categories, which had been identified through mind-mapping, were similar to an existing analysis framework. Engestrom's (2007) AT presents both a conceptual and analytical framework which is used to examine social systems holistically (Park et al 2013). It focuses on the complex interactions between individual subjects and their wider context (Engestrom 2001). Moreover, it distinguishes human "activity" to include consciousness and thus the interaction between the human mind within its environmental context (Jonassen and Roner-Murphy 1999).

The constituent parts of any activity are organised into activity systems (Engestrom 2007). An activity system is typically presented as a triangular model and involves a subject, the object of the activity, and the tools that are used for that activity. It also involves the community in which the activity system operates, including the formal and informal rules which guide the activity as well as the division of labour or roles negotiated by the community (Figure 19).

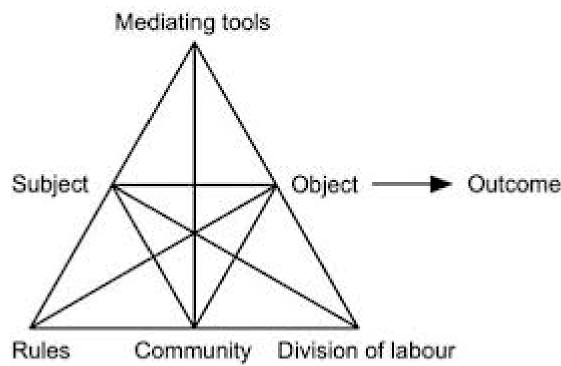

Figure 19: An Activity System (Source: Engestrom 2007)

In addition to the linear representation of activity systems seen in Figure 19 there are dynamics which lie beneath any activity (Jonassen and Roner-Murphy 1999). Each element of an activity system has been brought about by the other activity systems which produced it, hence the need to view any phenomenon as a network of related activities. Thus, each component of the system depicted above will have underlying systems such as a subject producing system or a rule producing system (Jonassen and Roner-Murphy 1999). Within each system there will be pressures, or tensions, influenced by the subject's experience whilst partaking in an activity. These tensions can either promote or inhibit the subject's ability to attain the activity goal (Yamagata-Lynch 2012).

Whilst initial reading indicated that this approach to analysis could be useful, further investigation highlighted some issues. Firstly, the AT framework was primarily focused on the analysis of group learning contexts (Engestrom 2007) and the extent to which a dyad could be viewed in this way was in doubt. Further, there were some fundamental differences between the philosophical roots of AT and Type Theory which were seen as incompatible. AT is an approach which has been developed from Vygotsky's Social Learning Theory (1934). Vygotsky's work was developed in response to Freudian psychology and is underpinned by constructivist philosophy. Personality in this context "must proceed from activity" (Leont'ev 1978). These fundamental differences were viewed as problematic in a study which utilised MBTI theory as a personality measure.

Subsequently, other analysis frameworks options were sought and considered. Framework analysis (Ritchie and Spencer 1994) entails devising and refining an analysis framework based on emerging themes from the initial familiarisation of data. The key issues and concepts expressed by participants are used to create a thematic framework which can be used to code and classify data. Thus, one option was to create a bespoke analysis framework using themes identified within the data (Bold 2012). However, this strategy had already been employed in the initial exploratory stages and it quickly

became evident that an exclusively thematic approach would be problematic when tracking individual dyads across research data and when tracking individuals from each relationship. A more standardised and structural approach was needed which would not only support cross-case analysis but which would also enable the longitudinal nature of mentoring relationships to be displayed.

Alternative frameworks, which focused on interpersonal interaction, were reviewed and included social network analysis and transactional analysis. Social network analysis had previously been used in the mentoring context (Petrescu-Prahova et al 2015) to examine wider patterns of interaction and collaboration which exist outside the mentoring dyad and thus this approach moved beyond the scope of this study. On the other hand, transactional analysis focused on the dynamic processes between individuals (Stewart 2011) but did not provide scope to examine the impact wider contextual factors or the individual differences between mentor and mentee. As a result, these approaches were rejected.

Further review indicated that the most viable alternative to AT came in the guise of another systems approach. In 2012, Jones and Corner utilised a complex adaptive systems (CAS) lens to examine mentoring relationships and, in particular, explore how the interdependent components of mentoring influence the whole. Whilst these authors (Jones and Corner 2012) assert that CAS will provide a novel and robust approach for examining mentoring relationships qualitatively, it must be recognised that using a systems approach in mentoring studies is not new (Allen et al 2006). Where the CAS lens does differ from previous systems approaches to mentoring relationships is its grounding in complexity theory and the focus on alternative mentoring models including peer and reverse mentoring (Jones and Corner 2012). Jones and Corner (2012) argue that by employing this approach traditional conceptualisations of mentoring relationships (traditional mentoring) are rejected in favour of a much more "chaotic and irregular" conceptualisation which reflects, more realistically, human experience. Thus, this approach focuse on an alternative conceptualiation of formal mentoring and not the traditional and dyadic viewpoint adopted in this study. Nonethless, this did suggest that a systems approach could be a potentially suitable method of analysis.

After further reflection, the AT tenets (illustrated in Figure 19) were reappraised for data reduction purposes. Although AT could not be fully embraced as an analysis process, the categorisations could still be used to enable the researcher to categorise and conduct cross-analysis between each data set. Furthermore, it was recognised that AT has a longstanding pedigree in educational and psychological research and would allow the researcher to consider individual characteristics in relation to the actions, objectives and context of each mentoring dyad (Hashim and Jones 2007). Bold (2012) describes how researchers can benefit from drawing on other researcher's methods when developing

their own analytical processes, but argues that methods do not necessarily have to be applied in the same way. Thus an analysis process was developed which included the use of AT tenets.

3.10.4 Creating the Framework

Once the AT categories had been identified a five stage analysis process was developed to reduce and check the data (Bazeley 2013). This analysis process is illustrated in Figure 20.

ANALYSIS STAGE	ACTIVITIES
Stage 1 – Familiarisation and initial analysis	Mind map of each dyad data set to identify emerging themes
Stage 2 – Data reduction and categorisation	***Coding to manage data*** Code each data set (transcripts, MBTI profile/document summary forms) using AT tenets (data reduction, identification of emerging themes)
Stage 3 - Check	Comparison of emerging themes from mind maps and AT analysis to cross reference coding and ensure no omissions
Stage 4 – Creating the narratives	Structural Analysis Writing of extended narratives Reduction of extended narratives to concise narratives
Stage 5 - Analysing written narrative data	**Coding to build ideas**

Figure 20: The Analysis Process (Source: Author)

The initial mind mapping activity was followed by coding, using AT tenets, to reduce, organise, and manage the data (Bold 2012). Open ended questions, identified by Mwanza (2002), and based on the individual components of the AT triangle, were used in the analysis to identify relevant data. Mwanza's questions are:

1. Activity of interest – what sort of activity am I interested in?
2. Object or objective of activity – why is this activity taking place?
3. Subjects in this activity – who is involved in carrying out this activity?

4. Tools mediating the activity – by what means are the subjects carrying out this activity?
5. Rules and regulations mediating the activity – are there any cultural norms, rules or regulations governing the performance of this activity?
6. Division of labour mediating the activity – who is responsible for what when carrying out this activity and how are the roles organised?
7. Community in which the activity is conducted – what is the environment in which this activity is carried out?
8. What is the desired outcome from carrying out this activity?

Mwanza's (2002) coding framework enabled pertinent data to be identified. However, a number of adaptions were made. Firstly, qualitative MBTI personality reports and descriptions of character from the interview transcripts were included in the subject category. In addition, information relating to the object of the activity was adapted to include personal motivations and learning goals. For each dyad, this categorisation system was applied to include both the organisational and individual perspectives which had impacted on the relationship.

Once the data had been reduced it was cross-referenced with the mind maps created during the early stages of data familiarisation. This was to ensure that no omissions had been made by using the AT categorisation and to enhance data integrity. Once this stage of the analysis had been completed the data was organised into narratives or "relationship stories".

3.10.5 A Narrative Approach

When deciding how to present the qualitative data, one factor influencing the choice of approach, was the researcher's own reading preferences for biographical and historical stories. Further, it was necessary to collate both mentor and mentee data into one format if the dual perspectives of each dyad were to be interpreted. Goodhall (2008) highlights the frustration some researchers experience when reading and writing work which does not capture the complexity of human experience. He asserts that a narrative approach can help to illustrate the complexities of social situations and will allow the researcher to engage creatively with their data. This approach also promoted critical reflection and reflexivity (Bold 2012) as the different participant perceptions were combined into narratives for each relationship.

Using a narrative approach requires rigorous organisation and synthesis of data but allows research to be disseminated in a way that is engaging and accessible to readers (Bold 2012). This was particularly important in relation to this study in order to fully communicate the relationship between data and adhere to the philosophy of applied research. A narrative approach may also be timely given the

advent of open access repositories and the high value that is now being placed on research reaching wider public audiences (Goodhall 2008).

The intention was to produce relationship stories which would be rich with qualitative description. Goodhall (2008) asserts that the act of story writing changes the way we think about data. Further, narrative reading and writing produces another kind of knowledge: “traditional forms of knowledge (knowing how and knowing that) are not sufficient to cover the third kind of knowledge (knowing what it is like) in the way that story telling can” (Worth 2005). Thus the act of story writing can support the interpretation of data by enabling the researcher to empathise with participants and understand the complexities of the situation.

Twelve extended narrative stories were created, one for each relationship. Each narrative was constructed around the AT data categories and followed a similar structure which included characters, setting, motivation, plot and climax (Figure 21). This structural approach to the analysis (Bold 2012) enabled comparison across the narratives but also allowed the researcher to understand the order of events and how the narratives were elicited (Patterson 2008).

Figure 21: Structural Analysis Categories (Source: Author)

The extended stories were reviewed and data was further reduced to produce twelve concise narratives. These were given brief titles which captured the essence of each relationship and put each story in context for the reader. The intention was to create a descriptor for each narrative which would provide a figurative expression of the key characteristic of each mentoring relationship. Goodhall (2008) asserts that narrative titles should tap into a shared cultural conscience and provide a source of identification for audiences. The concise narratives are presented in chapter six.

3.11 Methodology – A Critical Reflection

This aim of this is to evaluate the primary and secondary research methods undertaken during the course of this study. The first section will identify and discuss the methodological limitations of the study and consider the potential biases impacting on the research design. Next there will be a description of the strengths of the research design and the efforts undertaken to ensure validity and reliability. Next the ethical implications for the research will be discussed. This will include personal reflection on the learning derived from implementing the research design.

3.11.1 Generalisability

Like all research, this study has its limitations (Eby et al 2004). One of the main limitations of the research is the relatively small sample size, which was collected from multiple organisations. Data was purposively collected from a number of organisations to enable a comparison of scheme characteristics. The rationale for this approach to sampling was to identify informative cases which would address the research objectives (Saunders et al 2012). Nonetheless the study sample cannot be considered representative of all formal mentoring programmes or even the programmes studied given the small number of participants from some organisations (Allen et al 2006; Saunders et al 2012). The aim was to select information-rich cases as opposed to achieving generalisability (Patton 2002).

The main criteria for identifying the study sample related to the research aim and objectives (Sekaran and Bougie 2009; Saunders et al 2012). It was necessary to secure dyads which were involved in formal mentoring relationships for management development purposes for a period of at least six months. It was recognised that within these sampling requirements there would be diverse demographic and organisational characteristics. However, this would enable the researcher to explore the scope and variety of current mentoring practice in organisations. Further, this was an exploratory and interpretivist study which focused on personality type and therefore did not need to be tightly bound (Saunders et al 2012). The intention was to secure data which would address the research objectives.

Despite this, one of the objectives of this study was to develop a typology of mentoring relationships. The term typology may imply that these results will be generalisable. However, due to the qualitative methods employed this will not be the case. Inductive research is concerned with theory development (Creswell 2009) and thus the typology which has been developed is theoretical at this stage. Further observations and supporting results will therefore be required to strengthen the validity of the typology (Baker and Foy 2012). This study does however present a starting point for this development.

3.11.2 Reliability and Validity

The reliability of the research study can be demonstrated through the robust and thorough procedures employed (Shenton 2004; Anderson 2009). The methodology was piloted to ensure that the chosen methods were fit for purpose; the resulting evaluation indicated that some amendments were required to the interview method if data capture was to be maximised. The final research plan and procedures were communicated in detail with the research instruments, thus ensuring transparency and replicability of the methods (Shenton 2004; Sekaran and Bougie 2009).

In addition, there was opportunity to triangulate some of the self-report data collected during interview with the psychometric data from the MBTI, thus enhancing data quality. The analysis procedures used to categorise raw data and create the mentoring narratives have been presented in detail to explain the processes used and to demonstrate the systematic approach that was taken. Whilst these analysis procedures were novel, it was intended that they could be replicated by other social science researchers undertaking qualitative analysis. The process was a reflexive one which involved the examination of the skills, biases, and idiosyncrasies of the researcher using the MBTI instrument. Further, the researcher's presence during data gathering was considered and reviewed accordingly. This supported reliability by ensuring that the researcher's perspective was evaluated on regular basis (Hegstad and Wentling 2005) in light of discussions with colleagues and in relation to wider academic reading. However, it is recognised that interpretation of the data will have been influenced by the researcher to some extent (Saunders et al 2012), hence the inclusion of a reflexive account which describes potential biases and assumptions.

Whilst MBTI data collected from the associated questionnaire was triangulated through consultation with participants during the feedback process, there was no opportunity for participants to review the mentoring narratives once they had been constructed. Although the interview transcripts were checked to ensure data integrity, the narratives were not as they contained information from both members of the dyad. Confidentiality would have been breached had the narratives been shared with participants. Issues relating to internal confidentiality and anonymity were further addressed when presenting the findings (see section 5.11.3 for full discussion). All participants, organisations and descriptive factors which might reveal participant identities were protected.

The researcher was external to each of the participating organisations. However there had been some previous interaction with one organisation which employed mentoring approach four. As indicated previously, the researcher's professional network was used to secure research access and therefore some previous contact was to be expected. Despite this, none of the participants were familiar to the

researcher at the time of study. Assurances of confidentiality and anonymity were provided during the data collection process to encourage the interviewees to be candid and to support data integrity. The information gathered reflects the impartiality of the interview context.

3.11.3 Ethical Implications

It was recognised from the outset that a methodical approach was required if data was to be collected fully and accurately. Proposed procedures included the digital recording of interview data and the use of checklists to ensure demographic data was collected systematically. The use of the standardised MBTI instrument was seen to enable the methodical collection of psychometric data thus enhancing the validity and reliability of the proposed study.

In accordance with the research plan, data was anonymised (Saunders et al 2012). However, confidentiality assurances were more challenging than first anticipated. To ensure external confidentiality, identities and occupations were unspecified; however, during the analysis process, the less apparent issue of internal confidentiality arose (Tolich 2004). This refers to the ability for participants involved in the study to identify each other within the final publication of the research (ibid). As the research design focused on the relationship dynamics within mentoring dyads, there was potential to harm research subjects if mentors and mentees were able to identify each other within the narrative accounts. Tolich (2004) asserts that researchers should remedy this problem by taking time to identify which information is potentially damaging and which is not. The relationship narratives were therefore reviewed several times and amended where information was considered harmful to the mentoring relationship or the individuals involved. Whilst this process did diminish the rich description provided by some participants, it was necessary to ensure that ethical standards were maintained. In addition, an embargo of one year was requested, prior to the release of the research in any open access repository, to ensure that continuing mentoring relationships are not affected. However, Tolich (2004) suggests that absolute confidentiality will beyond the brief of researchers when participants know each other intimately. So, whilst all reasonably practicable measures have been taken to minimise harm to participants, absolute internal confidentiality may not be possible as the unit of study has been the mentoring relationship.

Recorded data was coded for identification purposes and stored in computer files. Computer storage brings the advantages of accessibility and security (Richards 2007). Data was stored on the researcher's PC which was password protected and backed up on the researcher's portable hard drive. Personal data is to be kept for the duration of the researcher's Doctor of Philosophy degree only. Written consent was sought prior to the collection of psychometric data and the interview process. Once

consent had been granted, participants maintained the right to decline to take part in particular aspects of the research. The identities of interviewees were protected due to the confidential nature of the mentoring process. Professional conduct and confidentiality were maintained throughout the research process in accordance with university research governance and ethical guidelines and the Data Protection Act 1998.

The researcher was aware that both the interview process and MBTI assessment might leave individuals with new insights into their relationships and individual characteristics. The intervention was therefore carefully managed to minimize the impact of the research process on the lives of participants and the relationships being studied (Kram 1985). Planned feedback sessions to discuss the outcomes of the MBTI questionnaire provided the participants with the opportunity to discuss any unresolved issues arising from interview and to share thoughts about their own personality characteristics as identified by the MBTI instrument.

3.11.4 Study Limitations

It is recognised that all research has limitations (Eby et al 2006; Remenyi and Bannister 2013) and that this study will be no exception. The first limitation relates to the cross-sectional design employed in the research. Data was collected from participants during one interview followed by one MBTI assessment over a period of several months. Each participant had been engaged in a mentoring relationship for at least a period of six months, however some relationships had been more long standing than others and therefore data was collected from some participants at different stages of the mentoring relationship. In addition, the majority of the data collected was self-report data and therefore could not be independently verified. Whilst there was some opportunity to triangulate the MBTI information with the interview self-report data and the interview data from both members of each dyad, there were several potential sources of bias. Firstly some participants may have selectively remembered the events they described or even exaggerated their experiences. The different time lapses between mentoring activity and data collection resulting from the cross-sectional design may also have had bearing here.

The second limitation rests on the small sample size. Whilst sample size is less relevant in qualitative research, the generalisability of the findings in this type of design is always unclear. Thus the behaviour of this group of mentors and mentees may not reflect the behaviour of others. Data was purposively collected from a number of organisations to enable a comparison of scheme characteristics. The rationale for this approach to sampling was to identify informative cases which would address the research objectives (Saunders et al 2012). Nonetheless the study sample cannot be considered representative of all formal mentoring programmes or even the programmes studied given the small

number of participants from some organisations (Allen et al 2006; Saunders et al 2012). The aim was to select information-rich cases as opposed to achieving generalisability (Patton 2002).

A related limitation is the quota differential between the different types of personalities which took part in this study. Sampling was conducted prior to MBTI assessment and therefore similar quotas of different MBTI personality types could not be identified before the data collection period. Thus, the scope of the analysis was limited due to the lack of available personality types for both mentors and mentees. Not all of the sixteen MBTI personality types were examined within this study and, as the results have shown, there was a predominance of *intuitive* and *thinking* mentors within the sample. Whilst this was an interesting finding in itself, the small sample size did not allow for a broader range of mentor personality types to be present thus limiting the conclusions which can be drawn. Some MBTI preferences were scarce, for example there were few s*ensing* or *introverted* mentors. Whilst some inferences could be drawn from the existing preference pairs, this was again limited due to sample size. However these constraints within the sample group have highlighted potential areas for future research with specific personality types.

Whilst similar quotas were achieved between professional and non-professional mentors, it was assumed that all of the mentoring relationships studied would follow the traditional model of mentoring given the demographic characteristics of the dyads. However, the findings have demonstrated that demographic categorisation may not be the main determinant of mentoring relationship type. There were different quotas of peer, reverse and traditional mentoring relationships within the sample. However, as these differences were established at the analysis stage, this limitation could not have been foreseen.

Another sampling limitation relates to the quota differences between intra and cross-organisational mentoring relationships. This and previous mentoring studies (Wanberg et al 2003; Hegstad and Wentling 2005) have demonstrated the impact that organisational and scheme structure may have on mentoring relationship dynamics and therefore this may have had bearing on the results. However, this study was exploratory and was created to examine the potential roles personality type could fulfil in formal mentoring relationships, not to explore organisational context in detail. Future studies should perhaps ensure more equal quota sampling between these mentoring relationship types or study them separately to understand the impact of these contextual differences.

A final limitation relates to data collection. One mentor in this study facilitated mentoring relationships with six mentees. However, six different interviews were not carried out due to time constraints and the potential costs that would be incurred by the organisation. Instead three interviews were

conducted with this mentor, each one focusing on two mentoring relationships. This was in contrast to the data collection procedures employed with the other mentors who were each interviewed once about individual relationships. Thus there were some disparities in the method used, although this can be typical of the semi-structured interview process (Baker and Foy 2012). In order to minimise the impact of potential differences, questioning areas were focused around themes which were used to explore each mentoring relationship. Data was then collected around each interview theme for each mentoring relationship studied.

3.12 Credibility

To conclude this chapter the credibility of the results will be addressed in relation to the collection, analysis and interpretation of the data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) have identified four aspects which should be taken into consideration when evaluating the credibility of qualitative research: credibility/trustworthiness, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Each element will now be considered in turn.

Firstly, the information that was provided by participants was both personal and candid thus highlighting the openness of the qualitative data obtained from the research. The rich and sensitive nature of the data indicates that methods were robust and that the data did indeed disclose participants' perspectives. The results derived from the analysis of the data were supported by the extant literature in a number of different areas, thus indicating that the interpretation of the data was rational. Where original contributions were made, clear links between the existing knowledge, any contradictory data, and the conclusions were drawn, thus highlighting the credibility of the research.

The transparent reporting of the research methods, procedures, and analysis means that the study processes could be replicated by other researchers. Whilst the interpretative nature of qualitative research means that the researcher's unique perspective will have had some bearing on the conclusions drawn, every effort has been made to reflect upon and challenge any biases or assumptions held. The researcher is confident that the conclusions drawn are reflective of the formal mentoring schemes and dyads studied. The study results will now be presented in chapter six.

Chapter 4 – Results

4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the results from each of the stages of data collection, as set out in the previous chapter. The data collected from participant interviews, mentoring scheme documentation, psychometric testing, and field notes have been collated to produce a series of mentoring relationship narratives. Firstly, an overview of demographic information will be presented, providing a summary of each participant and their relationship to others. This will be followed by a summary of the MBTI personality types of each participant and dyad and the subsequent learning styles. Next a description of each mentoring scheme featured in this study will be presented, in narrative form, providing an illustration of each mentoring context. Finally, a narrative account of each mentoring relationship will be given.

4.1 Participant Description

Of the total twelve mentoring dyads participating in this study, nine were drawn from the UK Energy sector and three from public or third sector organisations. Each mentoring dyad consisted of two individuals, each from different professional backgrounds, meaning that the twelve dyads were cross-professional pairings. The twelve mentoring relationships involved seven mentors supporting a total of twelve mentees. The group of mentors consisted of four female mentors and three male mentors with a range of ages between forty-seven and sixty-five years. All of the participating mentors were British nationals, six worked in senior management and one mentor was employed in an Organisational Development (OD) consultancy role mentoring multiple mentees.

The mentee group consisted of seven males and five females with a range of ages between thirty-one and fifty-two years. All of these participants had progressed beyond the early career stage and associated foundation learning. The mentee group were mid-career professionals who had developed their own professional identity (Kram 1985). The majority of the participant mentees were also managers, those that were not (mentees four and six), however, did have some managerial duties or business responsibilities in their roles as consultants within their organisations. Although there were was some cultural diversity within this group, all of the mentors and mentees spoke English as a first language.

A summary of the demographic characteristics of the seven participating mentors (Table 3) and twelve mentees are outlined below (Table 4).

tor	Gender	Occupation	Age	Nationality	Best Fit MBTI
1	Female	Public Sector Manager	52	British	ESFP
2	Female	Public Sector Manager	55	British	ISFJ
3	Female	Public Sector Manager	47	British	ENTP
4	Male	Energy Sector Manager	48	British	ENTJ
5	Male	Energy Sector Manager	53	British	INTP
6	Female	Energy Sector Manager	47	British	ENFJ
7	Male	Organisational Development Consultant	65	British	ENTP

Table 3: Mentor Demographics

Mentee	Gender	Occupation	Age	Nationality	Best Fit MBTI
1	Female	Third Sector Manager	35	British	ISFJ
2	Male	Public Sector Manager	45	British	ISTP
3	Female	Public Sector Manager	55	British	INTP
4	Female	Technical Manager	31	British	INTJ
5	Male	Division Manager	37	British	ESTJ
6	Male	Technical Manager	52	British	ENFJ
7	Male	Division Manager	37	Australian	ENTP
8	Male	Project Manager	49	British	ESFP
9	Female	Environmental Manager	41	Australian	ENTP
10	Male	Division Manager	34	British	ESTJ
11	Female	Business Manager	44	Irish	ENFP
12	Male	Technical Manager	52	British	ISTP

Table 4: Mentee Demographics

KEY

Extraversion (E) People who prefer *Extraversion* tend to focus on the outside world of people and things.	**Introversion (I)** People who prefer *Introversion* tend to focus on the inner world of ideas and impressions.
Sensing (S) People who prefer *Sensing* tend to focus on the present and concentrate on information gained from their senses.	**Intuition (N)** people who prefer *Intuition* tend to focus on the future with a view towards patterns and possibilities.
Thinking (T) People who prefer *Thinking* tend to base their decisions primarily on logic and an objective analysis of cause and effect.	**Feeling (F)** People who prefer *Feeling* tend to base their decisions primarily on values and on subjective evaluation of person centred concerns.
Judging (J) People who prefer *Judging* tend to like a planned and organised approach to life and prefer to have things settled.	**Perceiving (P)** People who prefer *Perceiving* tend to like a flexible and spontaneous approach to life and prefer to keep their options open.

4.2. Personality Type

Each participant completed the MBTI assessment which yielded three different results. A summary of MBTI data for each mentoring dyad is presented in Table 6. Firstly, the reported personality type result was generated by completion of the MBTI questionnaire. This type profile indicates how each participant responded to the ninety-three MBTI questions. A numeric value (Table 5) of between 0 and 70 could be attributed to each preference, which indicated the clarity of the participant's response. The preference values for the participant mentors and mentees are displayed in Table 7.

Clarity of preference	Numeric Value
Slight	0-10
Moderate	10-30
Clear	30-50
Very Clear	50-70

Table 5: Numeric Values of Preferences

The self-assessment type was generated from the MBTI feedback session, where the MBTI preference pairs were described to each participant and they were asked to self-evaluate against each preference pair. These two results were then used, in consultation with each participant, to establish a best fit type which gave the final MBTI result. The best fit type has been taken as the main psychometric result in accordance with MBTI theory (Myers-Briggs et al 2009).

The majority of the mentor best fit results correspond with the reported type from the questionnaire results; only one mentor result is different. Mentor one reported an ESTP preference in the questionnaire but identified as an ESFP during the MBTI feedback session. The difference between these results lies with the T-F dichotomy, where clarity of 5 (slight) was reported for the thinking preference. The results do indicate, however, that the majority of the mentors self-evaluated differently from their best fit results. Mentor five was the only participant to have consistent preferences across all three results.

Eight of the twelve mentees participating in the study had best fit preferences which matched with their reported type, four did not. However, among the results which did not match, only one dichotomy differed for each mentee. The clarity of three of these different reported preferences were moderate (10-30), indicating slightly less consensus between the questionnaire findings and the best fit result. One result was slight (0-10) thus indicating greater consensus. Again, the majority of mentees

self-evaluated differently from their best fit results with only three mentees having matched self-assessment and best fit type. Mentees five, six and twelve were the only participants to have consistent preferences across all three results.

DYAD	MENTOR			MENTEE		
	Reported Type	Self-Assessment Type	Best Fit Type	Reported Type	Self-Assessment Type	Best Fit Type
1	ESTP	ENFP	ESFP	ISFJ	ISTJ	ISFJ
2	ISFJ	ENFP	ISFJ	ISTP	ISTP	ISTP
3	ENTJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	INTP	INFJ	INTP
4	ENTP	ENTJ	ENTP	INTJ	INFJ	INTJ
5	INTP	INTP	INTP	ESTJ	ESTJ	ESTJ
6	ENFJ	INFP	ENFJ	ISTJ	ISTJ	ISTJ
7				ENTJ	ESTP	ENTP
8				ESFJ	ENFP	ESFP
9	ENTP	INFP	ENTP	ENTP	ENTJ	ENTP
10				ENTP	ISTP	INTP
11				ENTP	ENFP	ENFP
12				ISTP	ISTP	ISTP

Table 6: Dyad MBTI Data

Mentor Reported Type					Mentee Reported Type				
Mentor	E-I	S-N	T-F	J-P	Mentee	E-I	S-N	T-F	J-P
1	E (43)	S (25)	T (5)	P (23)	1	I (43)	S (1)	F (7)	J (51)
2	I (21)	S (29)	F (13)	J (41)	2	I (43)	S (1)	T (13)	P (9)
3	E (23)	N (5)	T (13)	J (47)	3	I (1)	N (15)	T (15)	P (15)
4	E (53)	N (19)	T (43)	P (37)	4	I (27)	N (19)	T (47)	J (47)
5	I (43)	N (15)	T (45)	P (25)	5	E (51)	S (5)	T (37)	J (31)
6	E (13)	N (17)	F (27)	J (31)	6	I (9)	S (19)	T (39)	J (45)
7	E (23)	N (35)	T (21)	P (19)	7	E (15)	N (13)	T (41)	J (3)
					8	E (25)	S (19)	F (29)	J (29)
					9	E (25)	N (17)	T (49)	P (35)
					10	E (23)	N (35)	T (21)	P (19)
					11	E (29)	N (21)	T (19)	P (7)
					12	I (25)	S (1)	T (5)	P (15)

Table 7: Clarity of Reported Type Preferences

4.2.1 Learning Style

Type Theory postulates that the four MBTI functions (Sensing-Intuition, Thinking-Feeling) are the basic mental processes of taking in information, organising information and coming to conclusions. These functions can identify some of the normal differences in learning styles (Briggs Myers 2000). As set out in the literature review, the learning styles associated with each of the MBTI functions are Sensing-Thinking (ST), Sensing-Feeling (SF), Intuition-Feeling (NF) and Intuition-Thinking (NT). Table 8 presents the MBTI learning styles of each mentoring dyad. Six of the mentoring dyads in the sample shared the same learning style. Of the six that did not, only two dyads (six and eight) differed on both function preferences. Five of the dyads which shared the same learning style were NT.

Further, MBTI literature (Myers and Kirby 1998) asserts that the E-I and J-P dichotomies will also influence and clarify differences in learning styles. The results show that mentor and mentee share the same MBTI profile in only two of the mentoring dyads (seven and ten). Thus, according to MBTI theory, all of the other pairings will exhibit preference differences which will influence learning. Consequently, of the twelve dyads, six pairs shared the same MBTI learning style, whereas only two shared the same MBTI personality type. Five of the dyads which shared the same learning style held NT preferences. However, within the group of dyads which did not share learning preferences two pairs differed on both function preferences, thus indicating some degree of similarity in learning style within the majority of dyads.

Dyad	Mentor	Learning style (Functions)	Mentee	Learning Style (Functions)	Same learning style?
	Best Fit Type		**Best Fit Type**		
1	ESFP	SF	ISFJ	SF	Y
2	ISFJ	SF	ISTP	ST	N
3	ENTJ	NT	INTP	NT	Y
4	ENTJ	NT	INTJ	NT	Y
5	INTP	NT	ESTJ	ST	N
6	ENFJ	NF	ISTJ	ST	N
7	ENTP	NT	ENTP	NT	Y
8			ESFP	SF	N
9			ENTP	NT	Y
10			INTP	NT	Y
11			ENFP	NF	N
12			ISTP	ST	N

Table 8: Dyad Learning Style Compatibility (MBTI)

4.3 Mentoring Relationship Type

Within this sample, three internal mentoring relationships were apparent and had been established between mentors and mentees who worked within the same organisation. Another three of the mentoring relationships were external relationships as mentees had been matched with mentors who worked in different organisations or services. Six of the mentoring relationships were between a professional mentor who had been employed by an organisation to mentor a group of mentees. Thus, three different mentoring relationship types were present in the sample: internal, external and professional relationships.

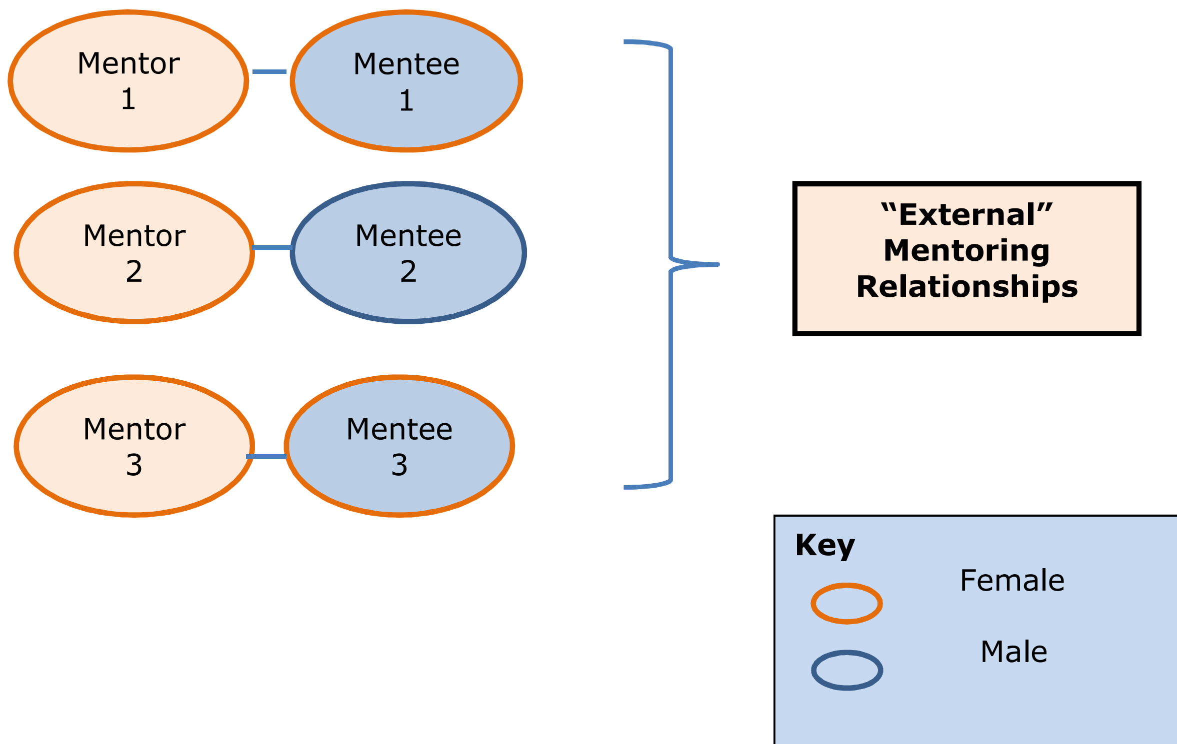

Figure 22: External Mentoring Relationship Dyads

The external mentoring relationships were the result of a public sector mentoring scheme (approach one) which matched mentors and mentees from different public services. The internal mentoring relationships came from two different UK Energy sector organisations that had facilitated mentoring relationships between company staff (approaches two and three). The professional mentoring relationships arose from an Energy sector company management development initiative which involved employing an OD consultant to mentor managerial staff (approach four). A description of each of the participant mentoring schemes is outlined in section 6.4.

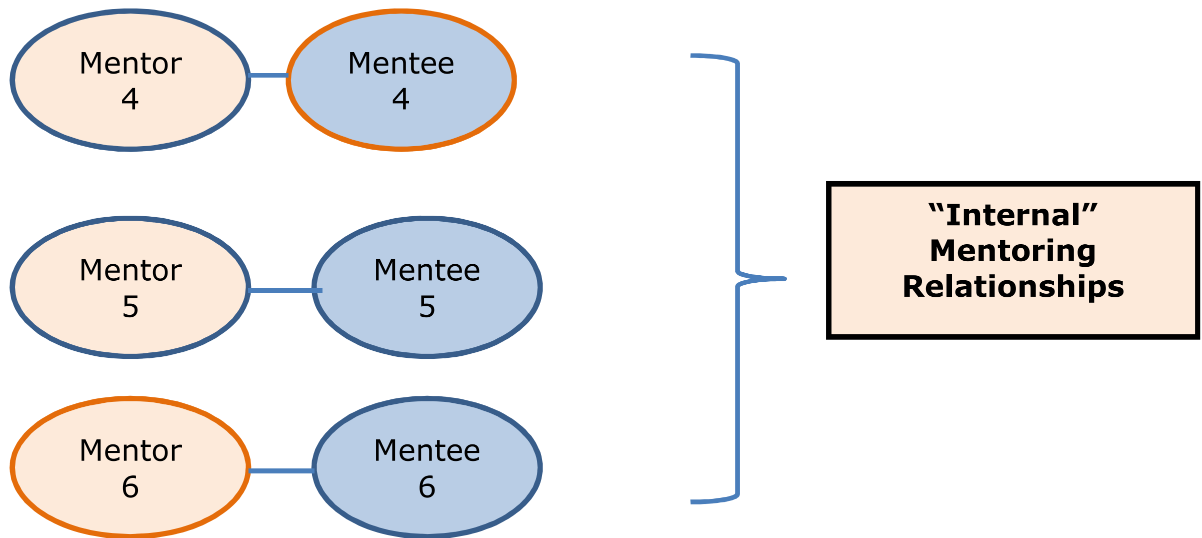

Figure 23: Internal Mentoring Relationship Dyads

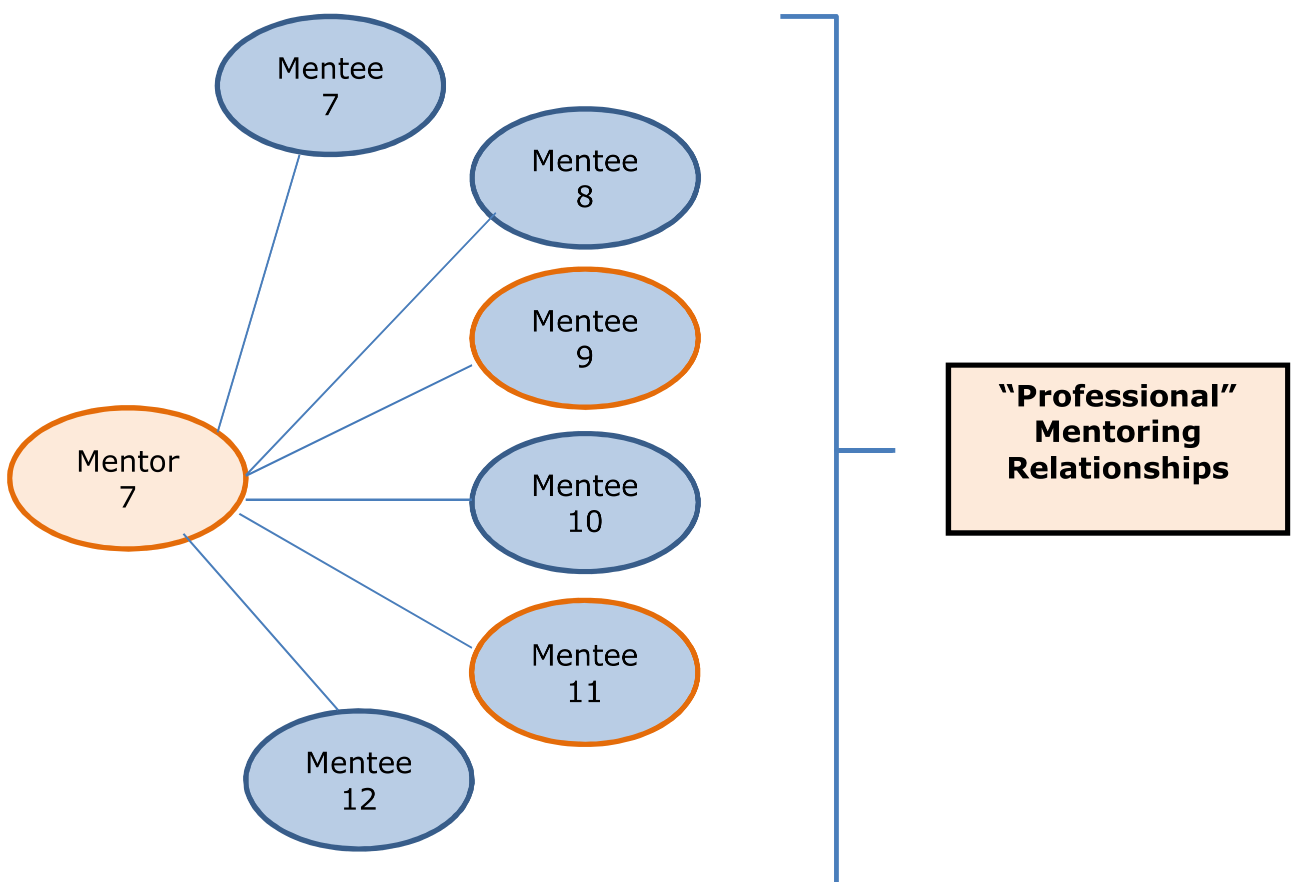

Figure 24: Professional Mentoring Relationship Dyads

Five of the mentoring relationships were mixed gender pairings. Two mentoring relationships consisted of a female mentor and a male mentee whereas three mentoring relationships consisted of a male mentor and female mentee. The other seven mentoring relationships existed between same sex pairings. Two of these relationships were between women and the other five between men.

4.4 Organisational Approaches to Mentoring

The sample group of participants were drawn from four organisations. A description of each of the organisational approaches to mentoring is presented below. Each description has been collated from data provided during the participant interviews and from organisational literature supplied by each participating establishment.

4.4.1 Approach One

Approach one was a public sector mentoring scheme which facilitated mentoring relationships between employees working in different services. The organisational purpose of this programme was to "create a development opportunity that will improve individual work performance of mentors and mentees, to increase the mentoring capacity within the participant organisations and to create an opportunity to support joint working within the public sector." The scheme sought "mentors who were committed to their own personal development" and who aspired to "be more effective in current and possibly future roles". The mentor person-specification indicated that participants should be "open to new thinking and willing to explore new approaches, open to support and challenge and willing to support a mentee outwit their own organisation." Mentees were encouraged to join the mentoring programme in order to "draw on the mentor's experience", sound out ideas in confidence, "discuss alternative strategies, challenge perceptions and beliefs and to find out about new networks and sources of information". It was also emphasised that mentoring could provide participants with space and time to address the key challenges that they faced within their own organisations.

The mentoring scheme design included training for participants and an online matching process. Participation was voluntary and candidates completed an online application form which was used as the basis of the matching process. Applicants were asked to provide information about what they hoped to gain from mentoring and to provide an indication of key skills they either possessed (mentor) or hoped to access (mentee). The matching process was managed and facilitated by a member of each of the co-ordinating organisations. The scheme guidelines indicated that mentoring pairs were expected to meet for one to two hours every four to six weeks and that participants should expect their relationships to last for a period of six to twelve months and no longer than eighteen months. It was emphasised that the length and frequency of meetings would depend on the circumstances of

individual relationships. Problematic relationships were acknowledged in the scheme literature, however participants were advised to "work through problems" and view difficulties as "part of the development opportunity". Participants were only asked to inform the mentoring co-ordinators if the relationship ended.

A half day of mentoring training was provided for mentors and there was a briefing session for mentees. Mentors were expected to make the initial contact with the mentee but after that it was expected that the mentee should instigate meetings. The scheme literature indicated that there was "support and monitoring throughout" the mentoring process although no detail was provided to indicate what sort of assistance was available. Dyads one, two and three were participants in this mentoring scheme.

4.4.2 Approach Two

Approach two was an internal mentoring scheme within a large Energy sector organisation. This scheme matched employees within the organisation and had been developed and co-ordinated by the company's Human Resources Department. The scheme was voluntary and had been created with the aim of developing staff internally in the highly competitive UK energy sector labour market. Interested employees were asked to complete an initial registration form which indicated what they wanted to achieve from a mentoring relationship. This information was then used to match prospective mentors and mentees. Training was provided for mentors by an external Human resources provider (a local consultancy); the half-day training session covered the mentoring process and focused on the differences between mentoring and coaching. Additional mentor support was provided via follow up emails from the consultant/trainer. Mentors and mentees were expected to meet on "a regular basis" for a period of around one year. Dyads four and five were participants in this mentoring scheme.

4.4.3 Approach Three

Approach three was an internal mentoring scheme within a large Energy sector consultancy which paired voluntary mentors and mentees in managerial roles in the UK division of the company. The mentoring scheme had been created to "develop staff internally but also to support staff more generally." It was also intended that the scheme should help to foster a mentoring culture within the organisation. The mentoring scheme strap line was "[*Company name*] folk developing [*Company name*] folk."

The scheme had been designed by the Division Director in conjunction with an OD consultant and was administered by the Human Resources department. Training was provided for mentors by the OD consultant although the matching process was facilitated by the Human Resources team and a

“sponsor” who was the prospective mentee’s line manager. Mentees were asked to identify their intended learning objectives which were used to identify a suitable mentor from the bank of internal company mentors. Following the matching process there would be a “tee-up” session between the mentor, mentee and sponsor to agree objectives, agree working practices and facilitate the relationship.

Mentors were provided with a two to three hour training session after joining the scheme and mentoring pairs were expected to meet every month for a period of six months to one year. There was an expectation that mentors and mentees should reach an agreement as to how they were to work together and regularly record their mentoring sessions in a reflective diary. The mentoring literature provided a clear “process flow chart” to guide participants through the scheme processes and a basic “tool box” of information was provided for mentors. This included advice on starting the relationship, key questions to use, advice on active listening, and a “comfort-stretch-panic” model to help participants “manage the natural environment of development.” This information was made available to participants via the company’s intranet. Dyad six was a participant in this mentoring programme.

4.4.4 Approach Four

Approach four was a management development initiative which had been started within a large Energy sector consultancy. Senior managers were matched with an external mentor who was an OD consultant. The programme had been introduced by the Business Unit Director in order to support managers during a period of company restructuring, with the further aim of aiding team building and integration within the new management team. The programme had been designed by the Business Unit Director in conjunction with the OD consultant.

The OD consultant (Mentor) described how the programme had grown out of a personal relationship between himself and the Business Unit Director. This informal mentoring relationship had been of benefit to the Hub Director who subsequently wanted to offer similar support to the management team. The participants indicated that the mentoring programme had been first mooted at a management meeting and had “evolved naturally” from that. The OD consultant indicated that he had not been involved in the decision to participate in the mentoring initiative. He said, “They’d bought into the idea that mentoring was something productive and a good thing to do; suited the [*company*] way of doing things.” As a result the OD consultant was employed by the organisation to mentor each division manager. Dyads seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven and twelve were participants in this mentoring programme.

4.5 Mentoring Relationship Narratives

A narrative account of each of the twelve mentoring relationships is presented below. As indicated in the methodology chapter, following the analysis of each narrative every story was given a title which captured the essence of the relationship and put each story in context for the reader (Goodhall 2010). The narrative stories were crafted using AT data categories so that each story followed a similar structure which included characters, setting, motivation, plot, and climax. This structural approach to the analysis (Bold 2012) enabled comparison across the narratives but also allowed the researcher to understand the order of events and how the narratives were elicited (Patterson 2008). Firstly data was coded using the AT categories and then synthesised into extended narratives. These narratives were then reduced further to create the final narratives which are detailed below. Each narrative account has been clustered into groups which relate to the mentor's MBTI personality type: *Sensing-Feeling* Types, *Intuitive-Feeling* types and *Intuitive-Thinking* Types have been grouped together. Table 9 illustrates these narrative groupings. The corresponding mentee groupings (SF, ST, NF, NT) have been indicated in the furtherest right hand column.

Mentee Type	The Sensing-Feeling Mentors (SF)	The Intuitive-Thinking Mentors (NT)	The Intuitive-Feeling Mentors (NF)
SF	Mentoring Relationship 1 "The One Sided-Affair"	Mentoring Relationship 8 "The Moral Dilemma"	Mentoring Relationship 6 "The College Roommate"
ST	Mentoring Relationship 2"The Co-dependent Partner"	Mentoring Relationship 5 "The Hero" Mentoring Relationship 12 "The In-crowd and the outsider"	
NF		Mentoring Relationship 11 "The Equals"	
NT		Mentoring Relationship 3 " The Relief Teacher" Mentoring Relationship 4 "The Team Coach" Mentoring Relationship 7 "The Bromance" Mentoring Relationship 9 "The Perfect Match" Mentoring Relationship 10 "The Life Coach"	

Table 9: Narrative Groupings

4.5.1 The Sensing-Feeling Mentors

4.5.1.1 Mentoring Relationship One: "The One-sided Affair" (SF Mentee)

Mentoring relationship one was conducted between an ESFP mentor and ISFJ mentee and therefore the pairing had different personality types. However, according to MBTI theory, they had the same

learning style (SF). This should indicate that both mentor and mentee would be interested in practical information and learn best by engaging in hands-on-activities with others. Both would need precise step-by-step instruction, friendly interaction, and approval from others. Nonetheless, the mentor would learn best by talking and interacting with others whereas the mentee would need time and space for internal processing. The mentee would prefer structure, clarity, and order while the mentee would prefer action, freedom and spontaneity (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated via approach one. The mentor was a senior manager for a large public service which placed emphasis on career development, "There is a drive to develop more robust career pathways and nurture staff so they have a career as opposed to a job." The mentee had recently been promoted to a more senior management role in a third sector organisation and had little previous experience of knowledge sharing between organisations.

Both mentor and mentee were female and followed the traditional model of mentoring with the mentor being older and more experienced than the mentee. The mentor had been previously involved in mentoring as part of a leadership development programme but had also "wandered into" informal mentoring relationships with colleagues. The mentee had never been involved in mentoring before.

The mentor described herself as a "natural reflector" and as someone who was "straightforward and driven". She explained that she liked to resolve issues quickly but could be "impulsive." She explained, "I had to condition myself to be organised, it doesn't come naturally to me." The mentee described the mentor as a "people person" and as someone "who enjoyed life." She thought the mentor was friendly, approachable, and open and explained how she found the mentor's "ability to start conversations and talk to people reassuring and calming." The mentee described how she found it hard to get to know other people or make small talk. She had a tendency to get "bogged down" and preferred to work in a calm and understanding environment as she was prone to becoming stressed and overwhelmed when put under pressure from others. The mentor thought the mentee was quiet, shy and lacking in self-confidence. She mimicked how the mentee would sit and said she was pleasant but someone who was reserved and cautious. She noted that she did not know a great deal about her mentee and commented, "That's not really like me. I probably know an average amount about her, but normally I would know more about a person I have spent that amount of time with."

The mentee joined the mentoring scheme to gain regular, planned development time and an opportunity to question organisational practices in a confidential setting. She explained, "Everything else around me at that time could still be cancelled or taken away or it was able to be removed or replaced." The mentor, on the other hand, had joined the scheme following a recommendation by a

colleague. The mentor explained how she got a “great deal of satisfaction out of seeing folk being a success” but also how she found mentoring personally rewarding as well. The mentor indicated that she also had broader developmental motives and discussed the importance of developing professional managers. She explained, “They laugh, how can you get enthusiastic about [Public Service department]? I can. It needs professional managers and folk underestimate that.”

The mentoring relationship involved a series of hour long meetings over a period of nine months. The mentor described the relationship as working “on a very basic level” and explained, “I think we hit it off okay. We weren’t bosom buddies but that is not what it is about.” The mentor perceived that the mentee had been burdened by certain difficulties in her new role and said, “I felt almost, not mothering, but just wanted to take care of her.” The mentee found the mentor supportive and interested in her work circumstances but did note that she herself was much more reserved than her mentor. She considered her mentor’s more out-going nature to be beneficial. “I need that sort of personality. If we had somebody of the same personality we wouldn’t get anywhere. Personally I think we would just sit there.” The mentee did, however, think that they had a similar work ethic and approach to work.

The relationship was managed by consent although the dyad did make use of scheme processes to identify needs and set goals in the early part of the relationship. Rules were established throughout the relationship, initiated by the mentor then agreed by the mentee. The mentor’s relationship expectations centred on joint responsibility, transparency, honesty, open communication, and flexibility. However, the onus was still on the mentee to organise meetings. The mentor described the approach as, “So if you need me, call me; you’ve got the contact details and everything. I can’t say I’ll come running, it’s not like that. So I didn’t feel the ball was in my court.”

The mentor took notes during each meeting “so that I could touch base when I came back” and described how she reflected upon each meeting in her own time. She commented, “I can’t help it. I can reflect on it, I do a lot of reflecting.” The reflection process enabled the mentor to draw comparisons between her own work environment and the mentee’s. She would then address issues through open ended questioning and discussion. “It was trying to get her to take a step out and look at what I saw. I kept saying ‘what I am seeing is…’.” The mentor described how she used nicknames and scenarios to discuss the mentee’s work situation. However, she was also conscious of the process that had been outlined in the mentoring training. She said, “Because it was new to me and because I take it seriously, I said do my homework and I did make myself, at the end, recap and say ‘right so what we’ve said is… dah, dah and dah. So the topics that were carried forward to the next time we meet are… dah, dah, dah. That one’s finished now isn’t it.” The mentor indicated that the meetings were

very work focused and that they did review progress throughout the relationship. The mentee described how the mentor's encouragement had been important. "She was able to say 'I think you can probably do that'."

Both mentor and mentee described beneficial outcomes from the mentoring relationship; both had developed in some way despite the relationship being work orientated and working on "a very basic level". The mentee described psychosocial benefits including increased confidence, reduction in stress and improved self-efficacy. She commented, "I don't need to wait for others I can do it myself." The mentoring relationship had also eased her transition into a new role and helped her to address immediate issues within the workplace. The mentee described how mentoring had given her a sense of perspective and how she was now more assertive in meetings. The mentor commented, "She's managed to overcome what she perceived, and were in her organisation, significant issues and problems and couldn't see a way around it."

The mentor did not attribute any of her development to the mentee; "No, I wouldn't say from my mentee. It's from working and the process with the mentee." She described how the mentoring process had helped her to become more organised and reflective. The mentoring experience had made her value her own experience and recognise that she had something to offer in a development role. However, the mentor did contradict her earlier assertions and indicated that there had been some learning from the mentee: "I've had the opportunity to learn a bit or get some sort of an insight to a charity and how that works and the challenges they have, especially since it's a charity working with clients similar to the clients some of my colleagues are working with." In addition, the contrast between her own work environment and another had helped the mentor to appreciate the benefits of working for her own organisation.

This mentoring relationship had already drawn to a conclusion at the time of interview and therefore the mentor and mentee were no longer meeting on a regular basis. The relationship had continued for a duration of nine months and, whilst it was a relatively short relationship, it had been productive for both mentor and mentee. The mentee, in particular, had found the experience helpful and indicated that the relationship had increased her self-efficacy and confidence. The mentee liked and respected the mentor, finding her presence reassuring and supportive. The mentor was less enthusiastic about the mentoring relationship and indicated that the relationship had worked on a functional level as opposed to a personal one. Further, there was some indication that the mentor had found the mentee less psychologically attractive than the mentee had found the mentor, hence the story title "The One-sided Affair".

4.5.1.2 Mentoring Relationship Two: "The Co-dependent Partner" (ST Mentee)

Mentoring relationship two was conducted between an ISFJ mentor and an ISTP mentee who, according to MBTI theory, had different learning styles. This suggests that the SF mentor should be interested in useful practical information about people whereas the ST mentee would focus on facts and practical information about everyday activities. Both would learn best by doing hands-on activities, however the SF mentor would learn more effectively when interacting with other people. Both would prefer precise step-by-step instructions though the ST mentee would require logical, practical reasons for carrying out tasks. As introverts both the mentor and mentee would need time, quiet and space for internal processing. The judging mentor would want order and structure as well as a conclusion on one topic before moving on to the next. The perceiving mentee would prefer flexibility and the opportunity to explore information as it arises (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated via approach one. The mentor was a senior manager for a public sector service and the mentee was a recently promoted manager for another service. The two services had inherently different cultures. The mentor described her own service as "politically correct and touchy feely" and the mentee's service as "couched in black humour". Again, this relationship could be categorised as a traditional mentoring relationship as the mentor was older and more experienced than the mentee. However, both participants emphasised that the relationship was an equal one and that they offered each other mutual support. This was a mixed gender pairing with a female mentor and male mentee. The mentor had previously been matched with two other mentees via approach two although both relationships had been unsuccessful. She explained that these experiences had been "less than satisfactory" and "didn't do a whole lot for my confidence as a mentor". The mentor had considered leaving the scheme due to what she perceived as her "lack of ability around those relationships". She described how one relationship had ended due to difficulties with the mentee although the other had concluded because the mentee had changed employment. This was the mentee's first experience of mentoring.

The mentor described herself as someone who "loves people". She articulated her views and values frequently during discussion and in relation to mentoring relationships. She commented, "I think it's a relationship that has to be founded on, it's a respectful relationship. It's not about problem solving; it's not about me solving somebody's problems. It's not easy. I don't find it difficult but it's not easy. I think it needs to be worked on." The mentee described the mentor as friendly and approachable and thought that she was a very good listener and non-judgemental. He said that he would be able to "speak to her about anything" and considered her to be both professional and competent.

The mentee had been recently promoted into a temporary managerial position during organisational restructuring. He described this experience as "a lot of to-ing and fro-ing and we still don't know what is happening, which has probably been quite stressful on my part." The mentee revealed little about himself and was unwilling to answer questions about the mentor stating "I don't think I can answer that." The mentor described the mentee as "quite open" and "easy going". However, she did question how well she knew the mentee saying, "That is a really difficult question because I actually don't know if I know that". Nonetheless, she did consider him to be honest and good at his job albeit unaware of his strengths and weaknesses. The mentor commented on the mentee's ability to handle criticism and said, "He doesn't give it the same weight that I would." She continued, "He would tend to feel that if he can evidence, if he can put the evidence behind it, what are you worrying for?" She also thought that the mentee sometimes struggled with the hierarchical nature of his organisation.

The mentor explained that she got excited by initiatives like mentoring schemes because she recognised their value. She had decided to participate in the scheme to "give something back" and because she had realised that she was fortunate to work in a supportive environment. She described her own service, "We're very lucky, that's what we do. We're touchy feely people. We listen as colleagues, we'll be quite respectful – maybe that ethos isn't there in other organisations." The mentor thought mentoring was "natural" for her to do because it was about "giving something back and being around for one another." The mentee had joined the scheme in order to "tap into other people's experience" and talk about work problems in a confidential setting. He had also heard positive feedback about the scheme from other colleagues and consequently it had become a personal development goal to participate.

The mentoring dyad had met every four to six weeks for just over a year. They took turns to share venues and described the relationship as "natural and easy." The mentor considered the relationship to be a "very equal relationship, equal partnership" and explained that they had followed the scheme guidelines and let the mentee set the agenda. However, she said that they had not started the meetings with an agenda and said there was "nothing formal about our meetings at all." The mentee agreed, "We don't ever write anything down." He also indicated that the relationship was balanced, "She feeds off me as well. She tells me about some problems she has had at work and we do talk about personal stuff as well." The mentor described how they tended to tackle themes and commented, "Just work situations and it's now quite easy to pick up and [discuss] just where they are going."

The relationship was governed by a number of personal beliefs and values. The mentor indicated that the quality of the relationship was important and that there were responsibilities on both partners to make the relationship work. She considered thought and preparation on the part of the mentor to be

important and attributed the greater success of this relationship to the fact she had prepared more: "I went back and re-read the learning we had been given initially." She described mentoring as being "about clarifying, allowing them to clarify their thinking within their own role" and emphasised the importance of active listening. She also indicated that the feedback she had received from the mentee, although not always timely, had allowed her to carry on with the relationship.

The mentor thought that the mentee had used her as a "sounding board" and described how the meetings were conversational. Both members of the dyad indicated that a broad range of subjects had been discussed and that within these discussions there was room for debate. Topics included management style and work environment as well as the mentee's career and current contractual situation. The mentor indicated that this had been helpful, "It's actually been good to speak." She indicated that the mentee had brought a "more direct approach" to discussion which had enabled her to reflect on her own practice. Nonetheless, the mentee did comment that he felt the relationship was drawing to a close and indicated that he found it difficult to address this within the relationship.

Both mentor and mentee felt they had benefitted from this relationship. The mentee said it had "opened my eyes to different styles of management." He explained, "I was going to go in all guns blazing basically, which is probably a cultural thing in the service". However, having spoken to his mentor he approached the issue in a "non-disciplinary, coaching sort of a way." The mentee also found the mentor's personnel experience extremely valuable and indicated that the mentor had given him advice on organisational politics. "She gave me a few tips on how to approach situations with senior management in a way that made them feel it was their idea when it was my idea." However, he considered the main outcome of the relationship to be stress relief and commented, "It just helps me offload stuff."

The mentor described the relationship as "a relationship that has done my self-confidence quite a lot of good to be honest and by virtue of the fact it has continued for such a long time." However, this did not negate her previous two experiences and she did raise concerns about the impact of unsuccessful relationships on individuals. The mentor indicated that during mentoring discussions she had "picked up things which would inform her practice such as procedures used in the mentee's workplace." She commented, "Some of what he says and some of what he discussed makes me go away and think that that's a different take on that and I will certainly reflect upon that." She also explained how the mentee's evidence-based approach had influenced her. One of the more implicit outcomes from the mentoring relationship was friendship and the mentor indicated that she was keen to stay in touch, "Whenever our relationship does come to an end, I'd be saying, 'Drop me an email from time to time and just say hi, let me know how it's going', you know? Because I would be extremely interested." The

mentor described how much she had enjoyed the relationship. Nevertheless, this did raise some issues with relationship closure. The mentee made a number of references to ending the relationship and how difficult it was to say that the relationship had run its course. He commented, “One of the things that is quite important with this mentoring scheme is knowing when the time is right to actually say we’ve come to the end of it so let’s just stop it. It’s very difficult.”

This mentoring relationship was still continuing at the time of interview although the mentee indicated that he believed it had run its course. The mentoring relationship had been in existence for a period of twelve months and had been characterised by mutual respect, liking, and informality. Both mentor and mentee had found the mentoring relationship to be beneficial and the mentor indicated it had helped to restore her self-efficacy as a mentor following two previous relationships which were aborted. The affirmation that the mentor had received from this mentoring relationship had led to a desire to maintain contact with the mentee. Subsequently, the mentee was finding it difficult to address relationship closure with the mentoring dyad due to the mentor’s desire for the relationship to continue. It is for this reason that the narrative was entitled “The Co-dependent Partner”.

4.5.2 The Intuitive–Thinking Mentors

4.5.2.1 Mentoring Relationship Eight: “The Moral Dilemma” (SF Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was conducted between an ENTP mentor and an ESFP mentee. Therefore they had different MBTI learning styles. According to Type Theory, the NT mentor would be interested in theories and global explanations about why the world works the way it does and would learn best by categorising and applying logic. On the other hand, the SF mentee would be interested in useful practical information about people; they would like a friendly environment. The mentee would learn best by doing hands-on activities with others and would need precise step by step instructions, frequent interaction and approval. As they were both extraverts they would learn best by talking things through and from interaction. As both had a perceiving preference they would like flexibility and want the opportunity to follow up interesting information as it arises (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

The mentoring relationship had been facilitated through approach four and therefore involved the professional mentor from relationship seven and another divisional manger. The mentee described how mentoring had “evolved naturally” from a management meeting discussion but that he had some scepticism about the approach which had been put in place. “If I thought there was somebody that was mentoring him in in the way of [company] then that would be great… it might add something to the equation and maybe [mentor] isn’t the be all and know all, he’s got something to learn about us as well.” Despite this the mentee did understand the organisational benefits of employing the mentor

saying, “I understand why he’s here and it’s better for me and [company] that I can enhance my management capabilities.”

This mentoring dyad followed the traditional model of mentoring with the mentor being slightly older than the mentee. The mentee managed a fairly new division and had recently accepted a staff position after working for several years as a contractor in the industry. He had started his career in industry and had developed through the apprenticeship route to move into management. “I’ve had what I think is quite a good rise through the ranks.” However, he recognised that he had come into a management role quite late in his career and explained, “For me it’s a bit of confidence. I believe I can do it, everybody believes I can do it, but I sit back and wait for somebody to cajole me a wee bit. It’s mostly about self-belief and drive.” The mentee indicated some of his concerns, “To sit there and the smart idea thinking stuff, I’m doing a wee bit more of that but I think there’s still barriers there for me because it’s not natural to me to be the inventive one.”

The mentor described the mentee as a “rare beast” due to his professional background which differed from many of the other divisional managers. He commented, “I think when he first came in he had a bit of a chip on his shoulder because his perception was that people weren’t taking him seriously. I don’t think that was the case at all.” However, he also said, “As a person, he’s very hard not to like because he’s so friendly, so affable, always joking. He’ll always try and help people. I think he’s very kind.” The mentor also indicated that he found the mentee quite challenging to mentor. “He has a preference to be told what to do. He likes to get specific instructions that can be achieved, checked off, handed off, next.” He also commented that the mentee had a “very black and white value system” and indicated that he had some issues with this. “I soon hope to get to a point where I can start to talk to him about that because in some quarters… it’s verging on the dangerous professionally.” The mentor described the mentee’s approach as being in direct contrast to his own, “That’s a very striking one, the black and white and grey. Just to do with that thing… I don’t understand [it], but neither do I understand hatred and I wouldn’t want to compound one on the other.” The mentor indicated that there were cultural differences too. “He has all the language of the [region], which for someone like me is sometimes, I’m getting tuned into it now but just the expressions, the phraseology, just to get his meaning, sometimes there’s a twist on it, oh, I’ve got the wrong end of the twist.” The mentor emphasised their differences further, “I never want to be in the boxes that [mentee] would so happily live in. I don’t want to be anywhere near a box like that.” He also perceived the mentee to be a reluctant participant in the mentoring relationship “because of the black and white. ‘No this won’t provide me with black and white answers; it’s a waste of time’.”

The mentee did not have a favourable initial impression of the mentor. He commented, "I thought 'here's a guy that we're going to spend a lot of money on who is just going to read out of a textbook'." He also joked about the mentor's appearance but went on to explain how his first impressions of the mentor had changed. "He's come in, he's got involved to the extent where he's got deeper into the process and he's adding value to the process now." However, some scepticism remained, "I think [mentor] hides himself very well behind theory. I think he's applied himself so many times in this facilitator's role that he can say and do the things that make him a facilitator and all-round nice guy. He knows the answer. He's waiting for you." However, the mentee did not appear to think that his perceptions had affected the relationship. "We have a very good personal relationship, very open and honest." Nonetheless he concluded, "I think maybe I'm more honest because he doesn't have to expose deficiencies."

When talking about the relationship the mentee said that he would have preferred a more directive approach and suggested that the mentor should "stop asking me to think of something I don't know, tell me what you think it should be and then I can move on." Nonetheless, he did comment that some aspects of the relationship were improving. "What he says is less flowery and more meaningful because now we're starting to get down to some detail." The mentee did, however, perceive himself to be as capable as the mentor; "I hate to say it, a lot of the character traits in [Mentor] I do anyway, which are how to get the best out of people just by the way you treat them and the respect you show them."

The dyad had some difficulties maintaining regular contact as the mentee had "been involved in this big project that had lasted eighteen months with the client from hell." The mentor explained, "It has therefore been very easy for [Mentee] to say all the time 'I'm up to my neck in this project' to the extent that he can't get away on certain days, like even at [Business Unit Director's] behest." However, he did later indicate that "the client wouldn't let them". The mentor explained how he believed that the quality of the relationship was to do with the quality of the responses each participant received. "If the responses you're getting are proactive, committed, followed through, driven, that is evidence that it is patently working."

The mentor indicated that there had been some external influences impacting on the mentoring relationship. "I know again from my conversations with [Business Unit Director] that he is not quite meeting the challenge of what [Business Unit Director's] expectations around what it takes to be a senior manager in [Company]. You know a high tolerance of risk, big exercise of initiative, lot of commitment, lot of stress." The mentor thought that, to some extent, the mentee had recognised this himself and commented, "I think that is subjecting him to an, entirely internally driven by him, not me,

re-evaluation around ‘hmm, maybe I’ve got to think’ because he has, during this period, gone from being a contractor to a staffer, and that’s a big deal.”

The mentee had wanted to get to understand some of his management colleagues better but also saw mentoring as “a great opportunity for them to understand me as well… so when it came along I was dead keen to drag in.” Nonetheless he admitted, “there is an element of ‘let’s play along just to see if something happens’,” but continued, “I think we are past that stage, I think it is working.” He believed that he had approached the mentoring relationship with an open mind but preferred there to be no agenda. “If you go in with an agenda and you can’t achieve the target then it’s a failure. So if you go in with no agenda you can never fail in mentoring… for me, having failed at something is counterproductive.” The mentee viewed mentoring as a “two way thing” and commented, “It’s about fine-tuning specific inherent skills that you just need squeezed out of you.” However, one of his primary motives for becoming involved was “proving to [Business Unit Director] there’s more to me than somebody you just have to go and point and say ‘go do this, go do that’.”

The mentee described how the mentor was “trying very hard to encourage people to think on their own two feet and bring them through and prompt them into saying the right thing, but you get to the point where it just doesn’t happen. You’ve got to say mentoring sometimes means just telling somebody how to do it and then letting them.” The mentor agreed that some of the tasks and discussion that he had with the mentee had not been productive. “I think that’s because it’s taken him very much out of the black and white world and dumped him in a completely grey world and he’s struggling with that desperately.” The mentor had encouraged the mentee to write down his ideas and the mentee had not done so. He commented, “I’m not in the business of reminding him that he’s not come back to me repeatedly. I’ve reminded him once.”

As the relationship had developed, the mentor had stopped asking the mentee to produce ideas. The mentee perceived that this was because the mentor understood him. “He certainly understands the individual people and what their needs are; some people can think out of the box, some people just need to be told… sometimes it’s quicker just to cut to the chase and get there. I think he’s understanding that.” The mentee had found the mentor’s open-ended questions beneficial, “He’s almost taught me the way of going about that, how to look at it, who would it impact? How would it impact anybody? What would the benefits be?” He indicated that some goals would have supported the process further. “I don’t know when you tick a box and say it’s all worked… because we haven’t set a goal.” The mentee indicated that he was referring to both individual and organisational goals. “I think we’ll get stale unless we come up with some target areas.”

The challenges of this mentoring relationship had helped the mentor to reflect upon his own skill-set. "I need more skills in dealing with 'black and whiters' – definitely more skills; or maybe it's not about skills, this is very indicting of me, but I'll say it, maybe I need to be as diligent working with black and white value people as I naturally would be with grey people." He continued, "I'm saying I'm susceptible to working my preferences. I don't feel comfortable saying it though." However, the mentee did report a number of outcomes from the relationship. He described how mentoring had forced him to do things he might not have tackled in the past and how he had grown in confidence as a result. He commented, "I think I've come out of myself more, I believe in myself." The mentee commented that his new found confidence was not specifically to do with his skills but it had made him believe that he was at the same level as his management peers. He explained, "You always think these guys are naturally more intelligent from an [technical] sense, so you always felt behind the eight ball a wee bit. I think what this has done is make me believe that I can do everything I'm asked to do same as they can."

The mentoring sessions had helped the mentee to improve his understanding of people. The process had impacted positively on one particular working relationship. He commented, "Since then me and this particular person, we speak to each other on a different level altogether, we ask each other things… so it's brought an understanding of each other that we could now spend a night in a pub socialising whereas before I would make sure if he's going there I'm going home. I just couldn't stand being with him." The mentee had also adopted some of the mentor's questioning techniques with his own staff and noted that mentoring had facilitated relationships on the management team. "I think everyone understands each other, that's definitely worked." He explained how mentoring had helped him understand how to approach situations and consider possible options. He was now taking a more proactive approach. He said, "It's better to try something and get a knock-back than have someone else come up with an idea and go 'damn it, I actually thought of that', so just throw it down on the table."

This mentoring relationship was characterised by considerable differences between the mentor and mentee's perceptions of the relationship. The relationship was still in progress and had at the time of interview endured for a period of twelve months. The mentee, although initially resistant, had found the mentoring relationship to be progressively more useful as time went on. However, the mentor had struggled with some of the fundamental individual differences between the dyad. The mentee's values and reasoning were perceived by the mentor to be diametrically opposed to his own. Further, the mentor recognised that some of the mentee's views could have potentially negative consequences in the workplace. This realisation presented the mentor with a "moral dilemma", which he indicated that he may have to address in future meetings. This tension within the relationship had influenced the dichotomous perceptions of the mentor and mentee.

4.5.2.2 Mentoring Relationship Five: "The Hero" (ST Mentee)

This mentoring relationship involved an INTP mentor and an ESTJ mentee who had different learning styles. According to MBTI theory, the NT mentor should be interested in theories and global explanations about why the world works the way it does and would learn best by categorising, analysing, and applying logic. The ST mentee would be more interested in facts and useful practical information about everyday activities. They would learn best by conducting hands-on activities and would need precise step by step instructions and logical, practical reasons for doing something. The introverted mentor would need quiet, time, and space for internal processing whereas the extraverted mentee will learn by talking things through and interacting with others. The perceiving mentor will want flexibility and the opportunity to explore and follow interesting information as it arises and the judging mentee will want structure, order and closure in one topic before moving on to the next (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated through approach two. Despite this, the mentor indicated that he had not received mentoring training prior to participating in the scheme despite attending a scheme session prior to being matched with the mentee. "I'm making the sweeping assumption that my unique approach to mentoring is appropriate. I don't think there has been an ounce of training. If there was I haven't been given any. I may or may not agree with it anyway, but there have been no check-ins per se." However, he did mention a kick-off session which involved "having a blether about what people believed it to be" and described the session as "following a free spirit pattern."

The mentoring relationship followed the traditional model of mentoring whereby the mentor was an older and more experienced colleague. The mentor was an energy sector manager who had worked in the industry for twenty-six years. Previously he had worked in other sectors, including higher education. He had originally pursued a technical career but had progressed into a business management role. "I'm not a [technician]. Never have been, never will be. A pants [technician]; didn't understand. I always did whatever I could to avoid any real [technical work]. You know, spread sheets and computer programming and that; I was in my element doing that stuff." The mentor was involved in a number of sector wide initiatives and had received an honour for services to industry. He had been active in staff development since the beginning of his career, "I've always tried to simplify stuff and then give it to somebody else because then they can do it, learn from it, and evolve that way." He explained further, "It's just inbuilt: Protestant background. I just think that's a waste of talent and that is wrong. It is just not using the skills that God gave you to go and do something." He described himself as "somebody that folk would go to for a blether" and explained how he enjoyed facilitating other

people's development. He said, "I just enjoy it. I get a huge buzz out of it. I mean, I love it, I will sit doing it just to explain things to them."

Whilst the mentor was happy to support colleagues he commented, "I can blether like this quite happily, my natural domain is quite insular… I'm capable of giving it laldy for four hours but after that I don't want to see anyone for three weeks." He indicated that he was comfortable with public speaking and had particularly enjoyed his brief spell in Higher Education, "I loved the lecturing, particularly on the stuff I knew, it was brilliant." Furthermore, the mentor described himself as someone who was happy to say what he thought, "If I think somebody has done a good job, I'll say it; done a bad job, I'll say 'that wasn't very good'. My wife gives me no end of grief for my ability to just say what I think." The mentor described his natural biases as "getting high, getting free, getting balance, getting stable, getting secure, getting ahead." He explained how a previous boss had summed him up correctly by describing him "like a dog, you give him difficult bones and he'll play with them, he'll give you an answer and then two minutes later he goes 'I'm bored'."

The mentee described his initial thoughts on the mentor after reading his CV, "It's just amazing, his CV here in front of me, incredible." He continued, "Clearly he's been around the block, he knows a lot of stuff in the industry and as he says 'I know stuff'; that sticks in my mind because it's amazing what he has done and achieved." The mentee talked at length about the mentor's achievements, "his family life, you think in your own life… you think it's tough and listen to family like this and the drive he has absolutely got day to day. Forgetting about work just the drive to achieve that; I was absolutely flabbergasted with what he had achieved." The mentee concluded, "I'd like to think that, I could never, ever repeat the steps of what he's achieved because it's astronomical, but I'd like to think I could slowly progress."

The mentee had come through an apprenticeship route and currently worked in a technical role but had aspirations to move into a managerial position. He described his attitude to work as "can do, will do" and explained, "Any challenge, I'm certainly not one for sitting down, just sitting at a computer. I like to keep on the move with something, some task or role." The mentor described the mentee as someone who was not overly confident, "He's quite careful and I think he knows more than he sometimes lets on." He also described the mentee as "an absorber. He wants to absorb stuff and I think at this juncture in his career to think 'right, where am I going to go?'" The mentor indicated that he liked the mentee because he was "a loyal grafter" but thought that he had quite a narrow view of the industry. He noted that they were quite different in terms of personal interests, "So there's no natural hooks for me like that." Nonetheless he did comment, "We've both kept our natural accents. I think he's fairly down to earth, the same way I am. Don't think he has any airs and graces about him.

To me that's perfectly fine because that's what I'm wanting to see. I'm wanting to see the natural thing."

The mentor explained that mentoring was something that he had always wanted to do however he took an industry wide perspective; "I've never, ever said 'You must work for [Company A]'. I don't give a toss about that because it is pointless. Now, if I can see opportunities for you to get what you want and to add value to [Company B] or to [Company C] or to [Company D] or to [Company E] then great, let's make that happen." The mentee had become involved in the mentoring scheme because he was hoping to gain insight into the experience and knowledge of people in senior managerial roles. He saw mentoring as primarily to do with career development and described mentoring as "an ear to listen, I think not so much from the technical side but certainly from your career development side."

The mentor viewed the mentoring relationship as a "purely professional thing as opposed to a buddy thing". He explained how the relationship "wasn't one of simpatico" and how there were few natural connections between mentor and mentee. The mentor described how little contact they had beyond the mentoring relationship, "I don't know where he sits. It's somewhere on the first floor, but it's a floor I never go to unless I need to speak to [colleague], and if I'm not speaking to [colleague] I don't go on the floor." He described how they were perfectly happy "living our parallel thing and then we'll come together when we need to and then we'll go back to our parallel stuff." However, the mentee had a different perspective. He stated, "You can see you could be building up quite a good friendship, and no matter where [Mentor] and I branch off in our careers, he's the type of person that you could genuinely keep in contact with."

The mentee was very positive about the mentor and felt that they understood each other. He explained that the mentor did not try to push him down any particular path but had encouraged him to stop taking on more work and concentrate on his career plan. The mentor described his approach, "I just pose questions; very open ended questions," but again his perspective was broad, "I've always said that you as an individual need to manage your career. Now that is great if that buddies up with what the organisation is trying to do, but at the end of the day it's your career and if your career is better served by preparing your CV to move on to somebody else then move on to somebody else." The mentor had also suggested that the mentee pursue a career in economics.

When the pair met they were not constrained by time and whilst the meetings were open, they did occasionally set an agenda. There was a great deal of focus on the mentee's personal development plan which was an organisational document used for performance management. The mentee indicated that other than this plan, there were no specific goals set for the mentoring relationship and that he

hoped the pair could meet more frequently, “I hope we could meet more regular and be a bit more stable with the setting up and maybe set more goals further in.” He explained that the earlier meetings had been guided by an initial agreement, “From the word go, that was his [*mentor’s*] objective to start with, for the first meeting was ‘let’s not talk about mentoring, let’s get to know each other’.”

The mentor explained how at times he took a more directive approach, “I think the last time we sat, we went through the realities of profit and loss, how it all manifests itself.” He also passed on advice using various maxims and using typical career planning concepts. “It’s feeding him the type of stuff that would appear on your career development form, in some shape or form.” He also encouraged the mentee to think about the timing of career decisions and how this would impact on other areas of his life. “We do talk about the life-work balance and what his life partner is expecting and what he does… you go and do a management studies course or whatever it is, it will affect your ability to go and bash cars and stuff like that.” The mentee described how they shared “all kinds of experiences” within the mentoring relationship. The mentor had encouraged him to think more long term about his career and had provided assistance with both internal development courses and networking. The mentee described how the mentor was “building blocks for me” and enabling the mentee to be more aware “as to what I should and shouldn’t be doing day to day”. The mentee commented, “All I’m doing is achieving targets, but what does that actually mean to me?”

The mentor described very few personal learning outcomes resulting from this mentoring relationship. He did identify that he tried to learn to be a better mentor through the mentoring process and also indicated that he enjoyed mentoring other people. However, he referred to his “inbuilt” frustration when resources are being “wasted” and indicated that mentoring helped him address some of the frustration he felt around this issue. The mentor also indicated that he had been interested to see how the mentoring relationship would develop or “pan out” and that this had supported the continuation of the mentoring relationship.

The mentee identified learning mainly relating to personal and career development. He indicated that he had started to apply for managerial courses within the company and that he had gained direction through the mentoring relationship. The mentee also described how he had become more aware of the work tasks he should focus on if he wanted to further his career. He said, “Just purely by reading one personal development plan, he’s brought out a lot of answers from that and made me realise that I’m never going to achieve these if I’m doing stuff not even on this paperwork. So it’s unrecognised effort.” This had resulted in the mentee approaching his line manager and handing over some of his work tasks to others which, in turn, provided an opportunity for the mentee to focus more of his desired career plan. The mentee had changed his priorities at work and realised, “What I am doing in

my day to day job is not necessarily the right thing to be doing." He indicated that he was now taking a longer term view when it came to career planning and had developed an awareness of work-life management strategies. He commented, "You just think, 'Where do these people find the time?' But then, starting to piece things together, he's explaining 'Don't take everything on, just start to build things rather than just stack them up'. And you can, you can use that anywhere, any situation."

This mentoring relationship was still in progress at the time of interview and had been in existence for ten months. The mentee indicated that he was extremely impressed and, to some extent, overawed by the mentor's personal and professional achievements. The mentee hoped to achieve some of the mentor's success but believed that he could not emulate the mentor's illustrious career. The mentee was keen to establish friendship within the dyad which was in contrast to the mentor's view on mentoring. Both members of the mentoring dyad considered the relationship to be positive despite the lack of personal mentoring outcomes reported by the mentor. The mentor's broad-ranging professional achievements and the mentee's admiration resulted in this narrative being entitled "The Hero".

4.5.2.3 Mentoring Relationship Twelve: "The In-crowd and the Outsider" (ST Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was conducted between an ENTP mentor and an ISTP mentee. According to Type Theory the mentor and mentee had different learning styles. The mentee would be interested in facts and useful practical information and will need precise step by step instructions and logical practical reasons for doing something. The mentor would be interested in theories and global explanations about why the world works the way it does. The mentor would learn best by categorising, analysing and applying logic. The introvert mentee would need time, space and quiet for internal processing whereas the mentor would prefer to talk things through. Both mentor and mentee would want flexibility and the opportunity to follow interesting information as it comes up (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

The relationship was facilitated through approach four and therefore the mentor was the same mentor as in relationships seven to eleven. This was a same gender dyad between the mentor and another divisional manager. However, in this case the manager was employed as an independent contractor. The mentee was fairly new to a senior management role having previously been involved with project management. However, he said, "I'd led teams previously, had teams up to twenty-two, twenty-three folk at one point." When the idea of mentoring was introduced at a management meeting the mentee had been sceptical. However, "The development was quite protracted, I think. So you had a long time to get used to the idea and build up an understanding of it." The mentee said, "When it finally became reality I was quite accepting of it and even looking forward to it."

The mentee described the mentor as “a really likeable guy” and had found him “approachable and very open, good listener.” But he thought they were very different, “He’s pretty laid back, pretty calm and I’m generally not like those… In terms of being like him, he’s got a completely different set of priorities from me.” The mentee continued, “I kind of feel like I’m on a little rat wheel and he’s not; [mentor] is the guy that gives it a little flick every now and again. He’s more laid back about where he is in his life and the mortgage and outgoings and I guess the career aspirations or whatever to go further. All of those things have a down side to them and he openly tells you that he’s done away with all of that and I haven’t.” The mentee explained that he did not see himself getting rid of any of those things soon “unless I go for a complete lifestyle change and move to a hut in the forest somewhere.” The mentee did however see the value in “being reflective and introspective and being able to analyse things” and noted this “enriched” the mentor. He commented that his mentor “gets more of a buzz about making friends and developing relationships than any actual focus on ‘oh this is improving my services.’ I think he gets more of a buzz out of the personal side of it than anything else.”

The mentee was a technical manager whose current role was to manage his team and increase the division’s market share. He described himself as a “more reactive” and “feistier” person than the mentor and explained that he was “a lot more stressed generally”. The mentee commented that he showed exasperation more readily. “He’s pretty laid back, pretty calm and I’m generally not like that. I would like to be like that and I think I used to be like that but the pressures of life and the pressures of work, there’s always something else that you need to do. I guess I get more frustrated than [mentor] might as a result of that.” However, he described himself as “fairly chatty in most situations” and was observed as relaxed and talkative during interview but he admitted that “If I’m busy… and really up against a deadline then I can tend to sort of shut down and ignore everything else.” The mentee explained that he could be quite hard on himself but indicated that he was not overly ambitious and had gone as far as he would like to in his career.

The mentor described the mentee as “guarded. He’s very guarded” and also explained that he “is a contractor, the only contractor”. The mentor continued, “He’s an uber-specialist who would love to play the game of his life on an uber-specialist pitch of his making”. He went on to question the mentee’s motives but acknowledged that “in a difficult or stressed environment, you start to impugn and put other motives on people. So I’ve found myself seeing both sides of this thing, I’m not in a happy spot here.” However, the mentor described their relationship as amicable and commented that the mentee was a “regular guy ... But given how lots of other people speak so animatedly and excitedly and emotionally about what it is to work for [Company], it’s unusual to find someone so ambivalent about that. I find that difficult to access, difficult to get past.”

The mentor thought the mentee had “a strong need to know what he’s talking about and to be in an environment where that’s what’s being talked about.” He described the mentee as having a “specialist behavioural pattern lying on top of someone who by inclination is very, I wouldn’t say selfish, I’m sure he’s not selfish; he looks out for his family, his kids, all that kind of thing, but he sees his responsibility in the world to get the best he can out of it.” The mentor described how the mentee could become very nervous when he had to present in front of his peers and explained, “What you’ve been asked for by [Business Unit Director] is a quick overview, so you need the big picture clearly stated, bam, bam, there it is. And instead it’s explanations, whys and wherefores, and it takes twenty minutes to say something that the content is two minutes and is discomforted when he’s doing it because he knows that’s not how everyone else is doing it but he does nothing to change it.” The mentor perceived, that in general, “His strategy for dealing with it is avoiding it wherever possible.” Despite this the mentor said the mentee had “a big reputation out on the street, he’s very well regarded in the industry, he’s a big hitter”. However, “His actual interface, certainly in a peer group, is pretty shaky… but has a phenomenal capacity to tolerate and endure that whereas most people, the toes would be curling with discomfort.”

The mentor perceived that the mentee had agreed to participate in the mentoring sessions due to peer pressure and he also thought that the mentee had no will to develop. His rationale for thinking this was, “Because the very first time I met him in the very first session we had, I could see as soon as it came to him having to speak about the area of responsibility, he was so nervous.” The mentor thought that the mentee’s status as a contractor was incompatible with a management position and perceived that “he doesn’t want any of the responsibility. If he were here now he’d say ‘but I’m responsible for the targets’.” The mentor commented on the mentee’s commitment to the organisation. “He’s openly said this, ‘I’ve got children to go to university, I could just work my time here and then as soon as they’re away, that’s me finished.’ Just that conversation says a lot as to where they’re coming from. That wasn’t the aspiration that everyone had for the mentoring and being involved. So I feel a bit inadequate seeing all that.”

The mentee had limited experience of being mentored and commented, “I feel if I want to be developed I needed to develop myself and extend myself and push my envelope, either by going on courses or just reading up on things.” However he indicated that he was open to development. “From a career perspective I want to be a better manager overall. I think technically fine, doing some technical mentoring, that’s fine. The people side of it; I’m not sure whether [Mentor] sees other things in me that could be improved that I’m not self-aware of. Those are some of the things I was going to raise with him the next time I saw him.”

The mentor perceived that the mentee had been very sceptical at the start of the mentoring relationship. He stated that this was one of the most challenging relationships. He explained, “We finally got to a place where ‘right, okay, so we’re going to start talking about some stuff, I need to keep some notes’ and he kept some notes. And then it all went quiet again and very difficult to communicate, like emails don’t get answered, telephone calls don’t get answered all that kind of thing. And I’m thinking ‘this isn’t really working.’”

The mentor indicated that he was party to information regarding the mentee’s performance. He also perceived that the mentee’s behaviour was impacting on the work environment. “I get the clear impression, not just from what other people have said but from the language he’s used, that he has a group of people who are fellow contractors who he makes sure they’re safe and secure first and then everyone else gets the crumbs. And it’s creating a very toxic environment down there and it’s been very difficult for six months.” The mentor indicated that he was also mentoring the mentee’s line manager at the time. “I was also mentoring his boss… and they are two diametrically opposed creatures, really.”

The mentee commented that the relationship was “not overly frequent. Whether it’s frequent enough, it probably is.” The mentee explained his rationale for thinking this, “In this environment change takes an awful long time either for opportunity to arise to effect that change or for you to practice things… I think three months is probably about right.” The mentee described how the mentor “does a reasonable amount of prep for those, for the actual sessions themselves, and in doing that, he’s usually in the offices talking to people before we have that meeting.” However he went on to say “I kind of feel as if the last discussion we had was more of a chat than anything particularly productive. It was kind of an update to where I thought I was up to in the overall process. It kind of felt like a progress report and then a chat about stuff.” The mentee indicated that the relationship had “done its term” and “run out of steam a little bit.” He went on to explain how the mentor had recently contacted all of the mentees asking them to consider what they wanted to focus upon in upcoming mentoring meetings. The mentee commented “some of that is the future, what you want from it, and I’ve not given it that much thought, to be honest. I struggle to find other things.” The mentee described how initially “I realised a lot of things and maybe now I am not finding those revelations as much.” He said, “I kind of had a list previously and I kind of don’t have now. Because over the meetings we’ve had over the last twelve months I feel as though all of those have been addressed and I’ve got the tools or methods or insight to help me with all of those now. And it’s about applying them and doing them consistently and sustaining it.”

Whilst the mentee stated “I would trust [mentor] implicitly”, the mentor explained, “Ultimately, I don’t worry too much about [mentee] because [mentee] doesn’t worry too much about me, too much about [company], too much about the team, if I want to be honest. I wouldn’t say that quite so brutally outside but I think that’s what it amounts to.” He continued, “Here I am passing lots of judgements, lots of opinions, feeling quite bad about it, but I’m also replaying loads of conversations, I’m thinking ‘[mentee], you’re just giving nothing here; giving absolutely nothing. We could talk like this for four days and there’d be nothing at the end of it. We’ve had that conversation, we need to move on. What is the issue you want to address?’”

The mentee indicated that he had been given feedback during mentoring meetings and was encouraged to “self-analyse”. He also described how the sessions helped, emphasising “don’t be too hard on yourself because you don’t think you have got that skill set nailed.” He described the mentoring sessions, “I don’t think it has been instruction as such, but it’s just being able to talk things through, gain some feedback that is positive about non-technical things”. The mentor indicated that the mentoring discussions had been broader than work related issues only. He indicated that they had discussed issues such as health concerns and family relationships; however the mentor thought the main focus of their discussions had been presentation skills. “I suppose the chief thing has been this confidence issue of presenting to people. We have gone through some ideas as to how that could be done, how to start, where to start, and to set some small modest goals.”

The mentee indicated that he had received a number of benefits from the mentoring relationship. He described how the mentoring sessions had helped him to reflect on his own shortcomings and development needs as well as his ability to listen. He indicated that the mentoring had acted as a role model in this context. “I guess seeing [mentor] in action emphasised that even more, that it’s much better to listen to somebody and then take time to think about it before you respond rather than “I’ve got my response even though I am still listening to you.” The mentee described how the mentoring session had helped him to connect with the team he managed. “It’s helped me gain confidence to rebalance the work and in that sort of when you are under pressure, close down and get on with it, I’m much more prone to opening up, ‘right who can help me with this?’ And involving people.” He described how spending more time with his team had helped to build trust, “And when there’s a lot more trust developed they know there’s no hidden agenda. So when you’re talking to them you get a much freer opinion from them.”

The mentoring sessions had helped the mentee to establish life targets in terms of his work life balance. This had had the additional benefit of helping to relieve stress. The mentee had changed his approach, “I get as much help as I can from the team as opposed to closing myself off from that, trying to share the burden to some degree.” He now felt more confident sharing the workload, “Previously I

might have thought 'they haven't got a lot of experience with that so I'm not going to give it.' Now I'll give it and tolerate or accept that what I get back may not be great but they're learning a bit. Then I only have to comment on that which is less hard work than trying to do all of that on your own."

The mentoring had helped the mentee to become more patient and he commented, "I think that comes down to just relaxing little bit, not being quite as stressed." He saw mentoring as "improving as a human being as much as anything. I kind of think that is it, it's the human side that has improved between us all." He described how he now had greater self-belief and confidence in relation to his management role. He commented, "I kind of think 'yeah, I think you could do that', whereas previously I might have shied away from that and tried to stay in the technical bubble."

In contrast to this, the mentor described how he felt frustrated with this relationship and how this had resulted in feelings of inadequacy. He thought that most of his input to the mentoring relationship has not been worthwhile, "It just goes through his fingers like sand." This in turn had reinforced the mentor's views regarding responsibility and commitment in mentoring relationships. He concluded, "People have to own it. If they're going to take part in it they've got to own it. I haven't gone to this place but I could, you start doing all of the work for him. I start spending all of my nights researching how to get better at presentations and suddenly I get a lot better at presentations and he's still there and I'm thinking 'that ain't what I meant to happen'."

This relationship was still in progress at the time of interview despite the divergent perceptions of both the mentor and mentee. The dyad had been meeting for a period of just over a year and whilst the mentee had felt that the relationship had provided some beneficial learning outcomes the mentor perceived the relationship to be a negative one. The mentor perceived the mentee to be an untrustworthy and uncooperative individual who favoured his contracting staff over employees within the work environment. The mentor had some reservation regarding the compatibility between the mentee contractor status and his role as an organisational manager. The data suggest that the mentor had been influenced to some extent by the views of other managers and employees hence the narrative title "The In-crowd and the Outsider".

4.5.2.4 Mentoring Relationship Eleven: "The Equals" (NF Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was between an ENTP mentor and an ENFP mentee. The dyad had different MBTI learning styles. Whilst both would be interested in ideas, the mentor would focus on global explanations about why the world works the way it does and will learn best by categorising, analysing, and applying logic. The mentee would be interested in understanding people, symbolic and metaphorical activities, and would learn best by imagining, creating with others, and writing. Both

would have a preference for talking things through and will want flexibility and the opportunity to explore interesting information as it arises (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated through approach four and therefore involved the same mentor as relationships seven to ten. This was a mixed gender dyad which followed the traditional model of mentoring. The mentee was an Irish female who was younger than the mentor. She worked as a business manager for the company and described the organisational environment as "always changing." She had worked in similar industry roles for over twenty years but explained that the Energy industry did not have a very clear remit for her business role and because of this she had been able to create her own role.

The mentee acknowledged that she was from a very different professional background than her mentor but described how she had a great affinity with him. She described the mentor "as one of these worldly wise men" and explained that he had a much broader perspective than her peer group. She thought he was "very interested in people, probably an observer, definitely intuitive, keen to be involved, a team player." She thought that he liked working with the organisation as it gave him a sense of belonging and commented how he was very personable and non-judgemental. However, she also noted, "Maybe there's a little under-confidence. I think that came out the other day that fitted quite nice, there's not arrogance to it, it's not 'I know everything', and he put that across the other day as well."

The mentee described herself as interested in people and behaviour, self-aware, and "always reflective." She had been mentored previously and was observed as relaxed, animated and friendly. The mentor described her as "a very sorted, self-contained and balanced person. Very, in all those measures, different from the [technical staff]." He went on to explain that she "just keeps a balance on her life in a way that's beyond the comprehension of [technical staff]. [Technical staff] are slaves to their own craft." He described how "there's some empathy there with [Mentee]. Not empathy like 'Oh dear you're a minority.' Like 'No, we're the true believers, they don't understand what the meaning of life is yet.' So there's real empathy around that thing of keeping things in balance."

The mentor went on to describe how the mentee approached work. "She's a very highly regarded business development person, very professional, very on top of her job, master of everything. Does a full shift and more, but has got it completely under control. That's not to say she's a control freak at all, she's certainly not, she just has got her priorities sorted and is very clear about them." The mentor described how the mentee was "not caught up in the thing as 'what do I have to do to appear?' None of that nonsense. it's 'this is what I'm paid to do, this is what I do, I do it thoroughly, I do it well, that's

it. I have a life outside of that'." He described her as happy in her role, self-contained, and as someone who had plans for the future and knew where she wanted to go. He commented, "I find her to be honest. I find [mentee] difficult to mentor for no other reason than actually 'Can you help me, [mentee]?'"

The mentor went on to explain that the mentee was very good at networking and "building multiple lines of connections, openings to the client". He commented that, within the company, she would be "frequently asked to mentor because of her calmness, her control." The mentor said, "I think she sets a bench mark for me, actually… she's modelling to me that you can do that at 80% throttle, you don't have to be at 110%. That what I like very much about her." The mentor stated that he felt 'like a complete novice' in comparison to the mentee and remarked, "She's half my bloody age and twice my sense!" He described her as "someone who sets an aspirational model of how to live well… she sets a very good model of doing that, I think, in a really soft way. It's not like strident or she's championing it. She'd be quite embarrassed, probably, if I said that to her, but I think she's spot on." The mentor described how impressed he was with the mentee, particularly in how she was able to "maintain a distance but be very personable". He explained how there were many subtleties in this type of behaviour and commented that people who were able to do this were, "switched on people who I admire".

The mentee had found her previous mentoring relationships useful. "So of course I took the opportunity to have some time with [mentor]." She explained, "I think you can always improve. I think you can always learn from people." She described mentoring as "the opportunity to look at developing and improving any aspect of your life, your work… I think it's very holistic, I think it is around if you feel there is something you are lacking, there's an opportunity with all the people around you to probably fill that little bit."

The mentor described the relationship as very relaxed and very nice. However, he also noted, "The honest truth is, for the very best reasons from [mentee's] point of view, poor reasons from my point of view, I find her quite difficult to mentor." He did feel that some progress had been made recently though. The mentee described the mentoring as being different from the mentoring she had received before. She described it as being more focused on "we're going to look at you as people and get that bit working". She also felt that she shared some common ground with the mentor and commented, "I would actually draw a similarity because I think understanding people and understanding behaviours is hugely important. That's a big part of my make-up in any case, understanding myself, understanding how others behave is really important." The mentee described how this was important in her job role

and recognised that the mentor had skills that she could benefit from. “The affinity is that he’s not technical. So it worked pretty easily because we’re coming from the same place almost.”

The mentee commented, “It’s been a very easy relationship but probably erring on the side of being a little too easy.” She explained, “It’s very comfortable, so there’s maybe not that push.” She described how they could have a long conversation but “because we’re probably aligned in a lot of our thinking, sometimes that’s got a little negative to it where you’re not getting pushed to consider stuff or challenge stuff that would maybe be a little outside your comfort zone.” The mentee enjoyed the mentoring meetings and did think that she got “something out of them”, but also commented that they “ramble, a bit, but that’s not quite the word for it. But they wouldn’t be very focused in ‘right we’re going to discuss this today and we’re going to try to get to this point’.”

The mentee indicated that sometimes the mentor would ask her for her views. “Whether he does that with the others I don’t know, but I feel that sometimes when we come out of it, I feel that he’s saying ‘thanks for that’.” She described how the mentor would use her as a sounding board if he had a “gut feeling that there’s something going on he’d check back with me to say ‘do you think that’s a right feeling?’ I guess that’s quite important for him to be able to his job as well.”

A great deal of the mentoring relationship revolved around discussion or “chats”. The mentee indicated that they had talked about a number of organisational issues including the changing environment and organisational structure. However, they had also talked about more personal issues. “We’ve also talked about things that would maybe hold me back from not developing internally, in terms of the management team, which are things like confidence.” The mentor had helped the mentee to put her confidence issues in context by explaining that this was something that all of the division managers had talked about. She said, “that made me think it’s so true that everybody can think they’ve got a lack of confidence but you need to put it in context really. Is this a group that is lacking in confidence? I don’t think so.” In addition, they had talked about how her role was perceived by the rest of the management team and how she interfaced with other departments. The mentee had recently started to mentor a colleague and the mentor had also supported her in developing this role. The mentor had sat in on one of her mentoring meetings “as a kind of facilitator.”

The mentee thought that the mentor sessions had given her a better understanding of herself in relation to the wider organisational context. “So maybe a lack of confidence by comparison to others maybe isn’t a lack of confidence.” She described how the mentor had helped her to deal with work situations which were beyond her control and described his input here as “therapeutic”. She did think that the mentoring had impacted on her work quite “in quite a big way.” She explained, “It’s given me

the confidence to do some stuff that I wouldn't necessarily have had before." The mentee described how previously she had felt that she was acting in a support role to the rest of the management team whereas now she was taking more of a lead. She commented, "Why would I not go into a meeting and say 'I think you guys should be doing this, and this is the way to do it'?" She explained that the mentoring had made her realise that whilst her colleagues did know the business well, "I probably do know that bit better than others and I do have value to impart."

Nonetheless the mentee did indicate that she would have liked to have been challenged more throughout the relationship. She would have liked to focus on "what areas to improve on, maybe a little more exploring into areas that could be developed." However, she did think that their discussions had been of benefit to the mentor despite the mentor highlighting that he had found her difficult to mentor. Overall the mentee felt that the mentoring had helped her to "shift towards more the leading side" in both her professional and personal life and had brought the management team together. It had also given her "a good understanding of what the mentoring relationship should look like" which the mentor had recognised would be beneficial now that the mentee had started to mentor others.

In this mentoring relationship there was mutual liking and respect within the dyad. The mentor and mentee enjoyed each other's company and the mentor held the mentee in high esteem. Both were interested in people and organisational behaviour and were from non-technical backgrounds. The mentor perceived the mentee to be highly competent and was unclear about what he could do to facilitate her development. The mentor indicated that he viewed the mentee as being equal or even more competent than himself when it came to understanding relationships and interactions. As a result he consulted the mentee in relation to his work practices and used her as a sounding board within the organisation. Whilst both mentor and mentee enjoyed their mentoring meetings, the mentee perceived the mentor to be under confident within this relationship and noted that she felt unchallenged within the dyad. This relationship narrative was entitled "The Equals" to reflect the corresponding competences between the dyad.

4.5.2.5 Mentoring Relationship Three: "The Relief Teacher" (NT Mentee)

Mentoring relationship three was conducted between an ENTJ mentor and an INTP mentee who, according to MBTI theory, had the same learning style. Both mentor and mentee would be interested in theories and global explanations about the world and why it works the way it does. They would learn best by categorising, analysing, and applying logic and need to be given problems to solve. The extraverted mentor would learn best by talking things through whereas the introverted mentee would need space and time for internal processing. The perceiving mentee would prefer flexibility and the

opportunity to explore and follow interesting information whereas the judging mentor would prefer structure, order and the completion of one topic before moving on to the next (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated by approach one. The mentor was a senior manager responsible for managing a department within the emergency services. The mentee was a business manager in a large public service and worked part-time on a job share basis. Whilst this was a same sex relationship and both worked in management roles, the mentor was younger than the mentee but had more management experience.

The mentee described her role as being "very target driven" and at times "a negative role" as she found herself "fighting" with colleagues over work allocation and limited resources. She described how her job was "changeable" but also had elements of repetition which she did not enjoy. The mentee considered herself to be more retail focused than her current role and explained how she had been brought up within a family business. "It [retail] is the core of me rather than the job I am in." This was the mentee's first experience of mentoring whereas the mentor had been involved in the scheme for some time; she had also been exposed to mentoring previously within her service.

The mentor described herself as a good communicator and listener. She was an active person who was interested in meeting people from other organisations and keen on psychology in general. In terms of her own career, she said, "I've had hard times." The mentee described how she had been slightly intimidated when the mentor had turned up to the first meeting in uniform. She did, however, find the mentor enthusiastic. "You got this positive vibe off her which was good." The mentee also considered the mentor to be a good listener and empathetic, "She can relate to what you say as blocks and break things down". The mentee said it was obvious that the mentor was an experienced mentor and how her job role had instilled trust in the mentor, "She's a [emergency service] person for starters."

The mentee described herself as self-critical. "I think I know myself quite well but I think I'm probably more unnecessarily hard on myself and negative about myself and I think that is what I was taught; I think people will see me in a particular way." This was evident in both the physical comparisons she made between herself and the mentor and her relationship with her job-share partner; "She's everybody's friend, everybody's partner. I don't work like that. I can't be like that. It's false, that's just not me." Whilst the mentee did see herself as a good listener and as an empathetic person she was aware that she could "come across as slightly aggressive even if it is not meant to be, especially if I am feeling stressed about something." She also recognised her tendency for self-deprecation, "If someone

says a bad word to me then that's the one I'll remember. I'll chew it over and things, rather than the positive. That's my personality."

The mentor saw the mentee as a "strong character" but with a sort of "nervous shyness." She described the mentee as "out of her comfort zone" and "very down about her work" at the start of the mentoring relationship. She thought that the mentee had low self-esteem and was "at the despair stage" at work but also recognised that the mentee "thrived under loads of work" and "really wanted to improve things." The mentor also noted that the mentee could be blunt and was unaware of non-verbal communication. She did, however, indicate that she liked the mentee and found her to be receptive.

The mentor participated in the mentoring scheme because she got a lot of personal satisfaction from mentoring others, "I thought I would be good at it and because I have a lot of experience." She described how she liked to help people develop, "I've had hard times and I think I could help others by sharing those experiences." The mentor also commented, "I was interested to meet people from other organisations … and learn about their jobs and learn about the issues they come across in the workplace and, yes, partners that we work with in the service anyway." On the other hand the mentee joined the scheme because she "hadn't advanced over the last few years and I felt very much in a rut and was fairly negative in my outlook at that point." She saw mentoring as important in order to improve her progress or to learn to accept her situation. She wanted to raise her profile "so senior management knew who I was basically". When asked what she wanted out of the relationship she said, "Ideally it would have been promotion."

The mentoring dyad met on a fortnightly basis for six meetings only. The relationship was described as "quite formal to start with" and the mentor indicated that she intentionally kept the meetings quite structured. "I make my sessions quite formal, not formal, structured as well." The mentor took notes and set "homework" for the mentee. She also stated, "I always drop an email at the end of the session just recapping again." She described the relationship as good "because she was telling me things, she relaxed, she was telling me things about home" and indicated that she had made some effort to build rapport with the mentee by sharing some of her own personal information. The mentor regularly reassured the mentee about confidentiality and encouraged her to talk about her feelings "because I see that as quite a measurable thing … and I did often in the sessions say how do you feel and I'd recap as to how, tell her how she'd told me she'd felt the previous time." In between meetings the mentee would email the mentor about progress. It was the mentee's responsibility to organise meetings even though the relationship was, to some extent, directed by the mentor. "I would then take from that what I felt was the next stage in our goal we'd set right at the beginning and say 'ok' now we would

move on to discuss this part of the next progression." Despite this the mentee viewed the relationship as a "two way process" and explained how the mentor had reassured her "that it was a beneficial process for both of us."

Discussion topics were agreed at the start of each meeting, "Usually it would be about forty-five minutes to an hour of actual mentoring session and again a recap and coming up with and going over what the tasks were." The mentor emphasised that her mentees could take the information she provided and "do with it what they wish". She also encouraged the mentee to phone her if she needed to talk. The mentee described how the mentor had offered advice on interacting with others and encouraged her to "just keep watching people … see how they are reacting to you." The mentor pointed out when the mentee was being negative and reminded her, "Stop comparing yourself to her, we are not focusing on your job-share, we're focusing on you." She encouraged the mentee to be proactive and talk to her manager. The mentee commented, "She was very positive, helps actually change the way you think."

This mentoring relationship was positive and provided outcomes for both the mentor and mentee. The mentor described physical changes in the mentee. "She'd then come breezing in, instead of stomping like she did the first time … it was like a new person. She was even wearing brighter clothes, her hair, she's changed." The mentee had found the relationship "cathartic" and commented, "My language is more positive than it was, not that circumstances actually changed much. But I just had the opportunity to work through how I felt and what I could do to try and address that." The mentee had taken a more proactive approach and spoken to her manager about the projects she was interested in. She was now finding work more interesting and believed that her profile had been raised within the organisation. The mentor had also helped the mentee to take a more organised, disciplined and mentally structured approach. She summed up the mentor's impact as, "It's belief in yourself because she was very much saying this is you, you're doing it already, you are just not identifying you are doing it."

The mentor found the mentoring relationship personally satisfying and explained how the relationship "had helped me a lot in my own situation and given me confidence as well." The mentor commented it had made her realise, "You are not alone in all this. I am not the only person this has happened to." This in turn gave the mentor confidence in her coping mechanisms but she noted it was the process which had impacted on her development as opposed to the mentee; "Career wise it hasn't developed me in any way whatsoever."

The mentor described how the mentoring relationship had "fizzled out." However, the mentee explained the end of the relationship differently. "She [the mentor] said 'I think you have progressed

a lot in the last six meetings. I don’t see any benefit in us meeting again, at this point.’” The mentee accepted this, “When your mentor is saying ‘I think we’ve moved on, I’m here if you want me’ but she didn’t think there would actually been any greater benefit at that point, then I trust her judgement in that.”

This mentoring relationship had been short in duration, lasting for a period of six months only. The mentoring dyad were not currently meeting on a regular basis and the mentee indicated that the mentor had brought the relationship to close by recommending that there was no longer a need to meet. Despite this the mentor had a different perspective and indicated that the relationship was coming to a natural conclusion. The dynamic of this mentoring relationship was influenced by the assertive and proactive nature of the mentor. The directive and structured approach taken by the mentor had been a beneficial and cathartic experience for the mentee hence the narrative title “The Relief Teacher”.

4.5.2.6 Mentoring Relationship Four: “The Team Coach” (NT Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was conducted between an ENTP mentor and an INTJ mentee. Again both mentor and mentee shared the same learning style (NT). According to Type Theory, both mentor and mentee would be interested in theories and global explanations about why the world works the way it does and they would learn best by categorising, analysing, and applying logic to solve a problem. The extraverted mentor would learn best by talking things through and interacting with others whereas the introverted mentee would need space and time for internal processing. The judging mentee would need structure, order and the conclusion of one topic before moving on to the next whereas the perceiving mentor would need flexibility and the opportunity to follow up interesting information as it arises (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated through approach two. Both mentor and mentee worked in operational roles although the mentor worked in an industrial environment and the mentee in an office environ. The mentor was an asset manager who said that he enjoyed his job and got a lot from it, “It’s very difficult to explain to anybody but it’s good fun in lots of ways.” He had entered the industry through the apprenticeship route and had some previous experience of informal mentoring although he had never participated in a mentoring scheme. He was, however, involved in coaching: “I do a lot of coaching outside; I teach skiing, I teach first aid… so I’ve done a lot of the coaching foundation stuff.” The mentee worked in an internal consultancy role and supported the mentor’s department. She had worked in the industry for five years after completing postgraduate qualifications and had been previously involved in a mentoring scheme through a professional institute.

The mentoring relationship was mixed gender and followed the traditional model of mentoring whereby the mentor was an older and more experienced colleague. The mentor described himself as an extravert with broad experience who was “able to take what was thrown at him.” He considered himself to be more confident than the mentee but also had some professional concerns, “I was always deemed as one who lacked empathy from previous appraisals.” He also acknowledged that “he was not known for having a long fuse” and “if I have something to say I’ll generally say it”. When discussing the mentee he noted, “She’s probably more technically minded and would rather be analytical about stuff and actually have it written down and have prepared in time to answer. Whereas the nature of my job, I don’t get time to do that. If something happens I have to be able to react to what’s happened, I can’t sit down and plan for everything.”

Nonetheless, the mentee described the mentor as having a friendly persona and “easy to have a conversation with both about work and things outside work”. Mentor and mentee shared a love of outdoor sports and this “common ground” had eased conversations. However, the mentor appeared uncomfortable with the term “relationship” being used to describe the mentoring process and was observed to laugh each time the researcher used the term. The mentee thought that the mentor was knowledgeable, interesting, open and honest. Overall she described him as “a good guy” and felt that he was someone that she could respect and trust. She commented that he “tries to find out more about people” and that he was very clear cut although not in an aggressive way. “He is good at telling you how it is without putting someone down.” Nevertheless she did note, “I suppose if you didn’t know him you might take that quite personally.”

The mentee was friendly but concise during interview; she seldom talked about herself. The mentor explained, “I don’t know if nervous is the right word, she’s almost insular, quite quiet, not extravert, not at work anyway.” However, he did comment that she wanted to do a good job and that she was “very academically qualified”. The mentor saw her as someone who was interested in developing within her own role but also as someone who was lacking in experience and confidence. The mentee explained that she saw mentoring as an opportunity to “have more visibility in the business and understand different roles in the company so I’d have a better idea of what I am supporting in my role.” She welcomed the opportunity to discuss her work with someone more experienced: “I’m not necessarily asking them what to do, just sort of giving sound advice really.” On the other hand the mentor considered his role to be one of guiding, challenging and supporting. “Just challenge and question to make them think about how they want to do it rather than tell them what the solution is, make them think up the solution themselves and try and put in a structure that, not forces them to go down that route, but to actually go back and see what they have learned from it.”

The mentor and mentee had a pre-existing working relationship but, regardless of this, had been matched by the Human Resources team. The mentee perceived this to be coincidental. “It was all done by our HR team who put all the forms together, so it was just by chance.” The mentoring meetings were informal but organised. The mentor described how he had intentionally tried to keep the meetings casual, “I’ve tried to keep it, I wouldn’t say fun, tried to keep it relaxed as well. I think if you have it completely rigid you might actually stifle it. I find it easier to have an informal conversation over coffee.” The relationship began with the mentor asking the mentee to identify “areas where she felt she wasn’t as strong” then they “looked at the areas where she thought she could offer the best benefit.” The mentor had initially found it difficult to step back from a coaching role. The meetings were quite structured and a range of topics, including career development, working relationships and available training opportunities, were discussed. The mentee indicated that feedback was also given, “It kinds of help identify anything you’ve done that he felt was good or anything I could benefit from going through a different course of stuff.”

The mentor indicated that his remote work location had some effect on the relationship, “With me going back [on site] now I just try to meet her to carry on… I make sure that we just keep facilitating it.” The pair had agreed to meet every couple of weeks and to continue the relationship for a year. They had also agreed to a review period at the end of the year to see what they had both gained from mentoring and to ensure that confidentiality was maintained throughout. The mentor described how he had encouraged note taking and explained how they “sat down first of all and used notes, I’ve got a thing there.” His justification for doing so was explained, “She was hoping to look back in years’ time and say ‘I’ve moved from here to here’.”

The mentor used a range of open ended questions to “make her think” and described how he used future focused questions to get the mentee to consider career options. He also talked through examples from his own career and asked the mentee to identify “weakest” areas in order to identify opportunities to gain exposure to these areas. This included encouraging the mentee to visit the offshore environment. The mentee explained how the mentor had pointed her in the direction of “people that could help me or give me the opportunity to go offshore and try and fill in the gaps a little.” The mentor had also encouraged the mentee to identify her own success criteria, “I need you to go away, tell me if you were to go offshore, what you think the measure of a good visit would be?” The mentor explained that this was an intentional approach, “She’s actually gone away and thought about what she wanted from the visit whereas otherwise she would have probably gone out and said, ‘Yep’ and then come back and not actually told anyone what her role was and what she was going to deliver for them and what she needed back from people.”

The mentor had previously been exposed to the MBTI instrument in other organisations and indicated that this knowledge had been useful in the mentoring relationship. He said, "I've always thought she was quiet. That was one of the big things for me from the Myers-Briggs and everything, was introvert-extravert side. From a [department] point of view it's one of the things we know, that the quiet ones have usually got something sensible to say." He considered this in relation to the mentee: "She'll always be a quiet person. As people get to know her they'll understand that and probably deal with her slightly differently rather than thinking she's really quiet and get nothing back." He believed that building relationships on site would be of benefit to the mentee as this would help others to understand her.

The mentee described how having an independent confidant within the organisation had been useful, "It's good to have someone who is not directly in my team, he's got a good understanding of what is going on as well." She described having a mentor as being like a "safety net" and how the experience had allowed her to see more of what was happening in the organisation. This in turn had helped the mentee to see how her job role could interface with and complement the work going on in other departments. It had also influenced her career aspirations, "I've identified different opportunities that perhaps I hadn't thought about before. So I definitely have a different map from what I had previously." The mentee described how the mentor had given her advice on how to deal with people and meetings and this in turn had made her more confident. She would now talk to people that she had previously avoided and was interacting more with department staff. The mentor recognised this, "From our side the biggest thing is building up a network of contacts for her – they [mentee's department] were quite reactive for a while." The mentor also commented on the mentee's more proactive approach and how she had more drive, "She's talking up now and pulling things in. Got a bit to go, but there seems to be more drive." The mentee described how her work goals were now clearer and more realistic and how talking things through with her mentor had allowed her to manage stress and worry.

The mentor thought that the main outcome for the mentee had been getting [on site] experience and considered the benefits for the rest of the working environment, "The mentoring is probably making life easier [on site] in the fact that you just know everybody and it's a lot closer than before." However, there were also some benefits for the mentor who believed that he now gave more tempered feedback to non-departmental colleagues due to having a better understanding of the issues they faced. He commented, "They have a number of people feeding them information which doesn't make their life easy." The mentor had found the mentoring relationship satisfying and even described it as "fun". He commented, "From my point of view it probably forces me to, in my normal job, to delegate and let people do their job. Instead of just telling people what to do I can now give them a bit more time to think."

This mentoring relationship was still in progress at the time of interview and had been in existence for a period of seven months. Both mentor and mentee were finding the relationship beneficial and the mentor indicated that wider organisational outcomes had already been delivered through the relationship. This was partly due to the dual focus of the mentor who indicated that supporting both the mentee's personal learning and improving team communication across different working environs had been a priority. This was a fruitful mentoring relationship facilitated by a mentor who considered individual and team performance, the narrative is subsequently entitled "The Team Coach".

4.5.2.7 Mentoring Relationship Seven: "The Bromance" (NT Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was conducted between a mentor and mentee with the same MBTI profile. Both mentor and mentee shared the ENTP personality type. Both mentor and mentee, therefore, had the same MBTI learning style (NT) and, according to Type Theory, would be interested in theories and global explanations as to why the world works the way it does. They will learn best by categorising, analysing, and applying logic and will need to be given a challenge or problem to work out. Both will learn by talking things out and interacting with others and both will want flexibility and the opportunity to follow up interesting information as it occurs (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated via approach four. The mentor was a consultant who had been employed by the organisation to mentor a group of divisional mangers. He was a self-employed OD specialist who had not previously been employed in a mentoring capacity. He indicated that he had always been self-employed, firstly running a cottage industry and then an outdoor activity business. He explained, "I set up my own business which was about team development. It was about corporate events, adventurous events. Very quickly that got converted into team development." The mentor's professional background and education had originally been in the creative industries. Whilst he had not acted as a mentor previously, he commented, "What's happened in the past is informally, not explicitly, clients have, by the process of guiding me, they've seen the way I am enables them to have productive conversations for them. So if that means I am pre-disposed to be a little bit that way, I don't know."

The mentor described himself as "a natural reflector." He said, "If mentoring is an expression of thinking about things and reflecting a lot, I think I am a natural reflector. I think it is part of my specific creative process about patterns." He appeared self-assured, "A lot of people seem to be anxious about having opinions. I'm not anxious about having opinions." The mentor explained that he had a very strong set of values and that he had never been a career animal, he said he was "least empathetic to the career animal." The mentee described the mentor as "a good guy" and noted that they had similar

outdoor interests. He also noted that the mentor was quite laid back and commented, “A lot of his approach to life is quite similar, maybe that’s why we get along so well.”

The mentee described his work experience but talked very little about his personal traits. He was a division manager who had originated in Australia before working internationally for a number of years. The mentor immediately liked the mentee and explained, “He’s quiet and strong and sensitive and tuned in to wider things than his professional world.” He did not see the mentee as a typical of his job role, “He seems to be very open to the subjective world of we need to know how feelings, emotions, ideas and behaviours are.” The mentee commented on his mentor’s preconceived ideas about technical staff, “He talks about [technical staff] are this type of people, and we have a joke about it and I can see it as well, about trying to make things perfect and trying to do it the best way.” The mentor thought that the mentee was very open and concerned about the people he worked with. He commented, “If you say something to him that excites him, he really reflects that, and I think people who work with people in the kind of way I do warm to that. It makes it easier for us, builds bridges.” The mentor commented that the mentee’s engagement in the mentoring process was “massive. He thinks a lot. He honours the process by thinking a lot and refining, reducing it down to some thoughts that he always shares in a deliberate way.”

The pair had met previously through the mentor’s on-going involvement with the organisation and both had had a favourable first impression of each other. The mentor explained that at the start of most mentoring relationships he had fairly modest expectations. The dyad met once a quarter and talked about recent events and “what’s coming up.” Initially their mentoring conversations had focused on decision making and “trying not to perfect things first. Trying just to make a decision and run with it or get things moving.” They had also talked about work life balance. The mentee described how he used notes to support the mentoring discussions and how he would summarise the conversations and share these with the mentor. The mentor described these notes as “powerful distillations.” The mentor supported the mentee through open questioning and by asking the mentee to reflect upon progress. He had also directed the mentee towards management resources and had given him advice on presentation skills. The mentee indicated that one of the most valuable elements of the mentoring relationship had been receiving feedback, “I can see, having received some, how beneficial it is – as much as you don’t like it to start with.” However, the mentor commented, “I don’t feel like I am supporting him. I don’t feel like I’m driving, challenging.” He explained that the relationship had developed, “I think now I’m at the place where I am a sounding board.” He commented that the mentee “does 90% of the work himself.” The mentee had also noticed this change, “The last mentoring session… that was a bit weird, as in not like it was mentoring anymore, like he was quite interested in what I had to say and wanted to learn about what I was thinking.” The

mentor provided further insight into these developments, “He’s now set himself goals about what developments he wants to put in place and he’s tracked goals and he’s putting plans in place.” Nonetheless, the mentee was keen for the meetings to continue explaining, “I think it’s been a huge improvement, I don’t know whether it can still keep going or whether it will be a bit more gradual now.”

The mentor talked about how mentoring “inevitably takes you into friendships” and explained that he felt that the relationship was now “more about maintaining a personal friendship”. He said, “I think he, probably of all the people I have mentored, he’s the one person who seems to have got that self-developing thing out of it most powerfully.” The mentor became visibly emotional when talking about the mentee and explained, “It feels like I have really contributed something that’s helped him. It makes me feel valued, rewarded, part of, connected. You can hear it in my voice. Yeah it’s something I wouldn’t like to see wither or wouldn’t stay in touch with.” This mentoring relationship was one of the most productive relationships for this mentor who reflected upon his experience of mentoring within this organisation, “Within the group of people I mentor I almost have a league table of how people are responding to the mentoring and there’s a top tier and [mentee] is probably top of the top tier.”

For the mentee, mentoring had enabled him to become more action-orientated, “I think I had a lot of good ideas but I just maybe didn’t go through with them… so being aware of that a bit more and also thinking ‘it’s a good idea why don’t I just do it?’ rather than try to work it up more and more and try and canvas people.” This change in approach had resulted in the implementation of ideas and some immediate positive results which, in turn, had motivated the mentee. He described how this implementation had freed up some thinking space, “You don’t get clogged up, you get that idea and then you get another one.” His focus had now changed from perfecting ideas to application and evaluation. He now considered himself to be better at his job. “Before I was managing day to day jobs and projects and tasks and all that kind of stuff well, I think I am now doing a lot more looking at the direction of the group and maybe what people need in the future.” Feedback had been important in helping him to evaluate ideas but also in relation to his own personal happiness at work. “I think I have come a long way and I think a lot of it is directly contributable to it [mentoring] in terms of confidence or conviction in going after things.” The mentor described how the mentee had become more assertive and how he had taken control of his workload, “He had a kind of epiphany, in a way, to do with if you run faster all they do is wind the running machine up and you end up running fast again. So I’m going to get a handle on the running machine and set the speed that it goes at.”

This mentoring relationship was still in progress and had been operating for a period of nine months. Both mentor and mentee considered the relationship to be successful and the progress that the

mentee had made had impacted deeply on the mentor. This relationship had affected the mentor intensely and made him feel valued and accepted. The high esteem in which he held the mentee was reflective of this mutual productive mentoring relationship. In addition, this mentoring dyad was characterised by mutual liking, respect and friendship. Both mentor and mentee were able to identify with each another's worldview and approach to life. This gave rise to the title of "The Bromance", a vernacular term for a close friendship between two males.

4.5.2.8 Mentoring Relationship Nine: "The Perfect Match?" (NT Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was between an ENTP mentor and an ENTP mentee. Both participants had the same MBTI profile and therefore had the same MBTI learning style. This relationship had been facilitated through approach four and therefore involved the same professional mentor as in relationships seven and eight. This was a mixed gender dyad with an older, male mentor and a younger, female mentee. In addition, the mentee was an Australian national and the mentor was British.

The mentee was a manager of a division which the mentor perceived to have a specific character as it had originally been a small stand-alone company which had been acquired by the organisation. In addition, "It's predominately female and there's a different balance in maternity absence. There's also a pattern of young people." He described how this sector operated on a different pay scale to the rest of the industry and explained, "It's very easy for an [job role] working in [Company] to get the impression that the marketplace and therefore [Company] says you're a slightly lesser animal so you get paid less. So I think that's a lot of what she's about."

Previously the mentee had worked as an academic researcher but had moved into an industrial role because "applied science is for me. I can't deal with academic research for the sake of academic research." She described herself as being very efficient but explained, "I am keen on getting things done but there are things that I don't do because, and I'm beginning to realise, it's because I can't see a clear way forward with them." The mentee described how she benefitted from talking things through with someone else but commented, "I'm a very open minded person if I am provided with cues but I'm dreadful if I've already decided on a path. Nothing is put in my path; I will not re-evaluate something until someone gives me a reason. So I'm not looking for reason to change my mind."

The mentee said, "I'm also quite mistrustful of people given a title and therefore you must trust them. So quite a religious upbringing that I've rejected so I feel like being told that somebody, you can trust them to the ends of the earth because they've got this role, I just don't buy it at all." This scepticism was extended to people with "special techniques" and also to the MBTI instrument which the mentee openly admitted to having no interest in. In addition she described how she valued the opinions of her

peers and superiors but was not particularly concerned about what her subordinates thought of her. The mentee took a long time to complete the MBTI questionnaire and to agree to a feedback meeting. During the feedback session she commented that she "acts like a P when I am not interested in something." She also talked about the gender balance in society commenting that, having lived in different countries, she had realised that it was not different anywhere else. She said, "I've grown to carry quite a lot of anger about that."

The mentor considered the mentee's cultural background and upbringing to be important. He said, "She has very high ethical and moral values about things." The mentor went on to explain how the mentee frequently engaged in ethical and moral issues and "sometimes has a tendency to fight battles that fall across her path a bit unnecessarily, perhaps, or a bit prematurely." He continued, "It's not unnecessarily; I'm with her on where she stands on her values, but those kinds of issues are always going to be around. Does one have to fight every moral conflict that you come across?" He went on to describe the mentee as a high-intellectual achiever and a hard worker. "She perhaps gives the impression that she's intense. She's not intense, she's very earnest." The mentor described her as someone who wanted to get things sorted and who was "ambitious of her own development which is not like ambitious of her own career."

The mentee considered the mentor to be "really emotionally intelligent" and as "very, very good at listening and connecting things up to themes." She had a great deal of respect for the mentor but admitted "he operates on a completely different axis than I do." She recognised that they had different lifestyles and work preferences. "I wouldn't put myself through the types of things that he puts himself through, things like building a house from scratch in France and driving there. Like I am probably, to be completely honest with you, more interested in shiny, materialistic things than he is." Nonetheless, she also noted that they had "a similar kind of emotional intelligence and wavelength that we get along," although she thought that she could achieve more than the mentor could in one day. "I think of the vast amounts of things I can get done in a day, I think [mentor] would be able to get a couple of things done really well." Whilst she considered the mentor to be "enthusiastic" and have a "lack of ego" although she did comment that the organisation's approach to mentoring had been risky. "[Mentor] is a really likeable person but I can't imagine the odds of all of us really liking him to the point where we can trust him."

The relationship had started when the mentee had been "very stressed and anxious about her own ability to deal with the pressures of the job." The Business Unit Director had asked the mentor to "touch base" with the mentee. "It was go and have a chat with her around some of the challenges she faced around the personalities, the construction of the division, multiple offices." The mentor saw his

role as “to help her see a way through that.” The mentee described herself as “in crisis” when she met the mentor and commented, “He could see I was in trouble and was throwing me a lifeline. I was incredibly grateful to have anybody to talk to at the time.” The mentee explained how she had wanted some help to “order the chaos” and “needed someone to help me make the decisions”.

The mentee had been involved in mentoring previously but considered this relationship to be different from the technical mentoring she had experienced before. She commented, “I have always been very, very strongly aware that I need mentoring so I’ve gone and extracted it out of people rather than waited for it to be offered.” She explained, “I need people and I need a vision of what the next step is.” The mentor described the mentee as “one of those people who I am perfectly suited to work with in the sense that she likes having quite free ranging discussions where she’s confident in her ability to draw her learnings out of it and I’m confident in my ability that I can throw random lines in, I can go off at tangents and explore and it won’t be disruptive to her thinking process.” He had also enjoyed working with the mentee and said, “She’s used me a lot. She’ll ring up and say ‘I could really do with having a chat with you.’”

The mentee explained how the mentor had become “incrementally more helpful as the relationship had developed.” At the start of the relationship he “could have been anyone.” She had low expectations of the relationship because she had not chosen the mentor but now felt that she had “a really strong connection” with him. “I think the way he interacts, mentoring, is very much based on listening and talking and planning together rather than coaching. I find the coaching approach hard to respect because you need to sort of arrive with this respect, for instance.”

The mentee emphasised the importance of confidentiality within the relationship and how this was discussed a lot during mentoring meetings. She had “total confidence” that the mentor would only share information between managers if she had given him express permission. The mentor described how the mentor and mentee “don’t often talk about the ‘how to’ or the ‘what’, it’s more about ‘why, when that happens does that happen?’ Or ‘what do you get if you do that? Do you always get that?’” He described how he tried to “think as objectively and rationally about what she’s saying and say whatever comes into my head when I’m trying to do that.” He evaluated the impact of this approach by observing “how frequently and with what energy the pen is picked up to make a note, and then I immediately think ‘what did I just say there that has triggered that response?’” The mentor explained how he viewed the change from “receiving to capturing” as an indication that the discussion would be “distilled down to some actions.”

The mentee described how they often talked about her work-life balance and obstacles at work. She explained how the mentor had "introduced me to the concept of can you take a step back and compare the consequences of not doing something or doing it and what's the cost." This had been a new approach to the mentee which she had found very useful. "That type of perspective setting has been really useful for me." She saw her mentor as "someone who assists me in drawing the conclusions that I need to draw." Nonetheless, when asked what she thought the mentor had gained from their relationship she commented, "Oh, I've quite selfishly not really considered that."

Another element of the relationship which had proved useful to the mentee was the opportunity to gain honest feedback. The mentor had also made her focus on her professional goals. She had worked with the mentor to identify roles and responsibilities within her team. "I seem to be really down in the weeds sorting stuff out and yet all of these people were claiming to be doing management when anything that was even slightly challenging was coming straight to me." This had helped her to set out her expectations more clearly to her team. The mentee commented that the mentoring experience was "challenging. He doesn't let me get away with anything and he forces me to rethink."

The mentor believed that he had developed as a mentor due to this mentoring relationship. "I think I've got a lot better, a lot more confident about challenging and being challenged and it's been a really positive, pleasant experience." He explained that the mentee understood him, "I'm a mis-matcher and I think she understands what a mis-matcher is better than most people. The usual response to a mis-matcher is 'you're a bloody confrontational, contrary kind of guy' and I'm not really; just explain, really explain to me how you see it that way, because I just don't see it at all. So until you can explain it to me, I'm not just going to take it and say… that's what I mean by rational, she'll just explain how she sees things. I can understand that so I've enjoyed that enormously." The relationship had also given the mentor confidence; he explained that he never thought that he could help "someone of her calibre."

The mentor described how the mentee had "finally come out of it in a very, very positive place." He described how she now had "a much better handle" on complex situations and how she was now able to "put a bit of distance first before getting herself on a particular issues and not getting drawn in too quickly." He thought the mentee had also benefited from some personal learning in terms of challenging other people's ethics. "She was talking about this particular person in this case, and she said, 'I've understood, it's just parochial and as soon as I realised that I could just let it go.'" The mentor had also noticed changes in the mentee's appearance. "Just before she went on away on her holidays I haven't seen her look so good and so effervescent with energy for a while." The mentee described the impact of the mentoring relationship, "It's like night and day, the difference in my life. But I also

feel I am being more effective as a manager because I've got these regular sessions with [*Mento*r] and he keeps me honest and he keeps tracking what I said and what I was trying to do and where I'm up to next." She described how she had developed better evaluative skills and was now more interactive with the management team. She commented, "You could argue that I have done that on my own but I think [mentor] has massively facilitated that by being a central person."

The mentoring process had also allowed the mentee to "make some pretty big life decisions outside work." She said that she had always felt uncomfortable "being the only woman on the management team" and that talking to the mentor had helped. "I would not ever have asked for having Friday afternoons off to pick up the boys from school without talking to [mentor] and about how that would have been perceived." The mentor had also become involved in the mentee's personal life and had taken the mentee and her family for outdoor activities; "It was him that said, 'you know I think we're friends now, I think we need to do something'. And I think that was important to me, that if you're having such a strong connection with somebody else it really has to be on that basis I guess." However, she was less forthcoming about the benefits of the relationship for the mentor and explained, "My experience that I have to offer him must be a drop in the ocean of all the stuff that he's seen over the years. He's been leading in various different ways in so many walks of life. It's just like one more piece of the puzzle of all the things he must have in his brain I guess. I get the impression he likes being part of something."

This mentoring relationship was still in progress at the time of interview and had been in existence for a period of twelve months. This relationship was between a mentor and mentee who shared the same MBTI personality type and was characterised by respect and mutual liking. The mentee had found the mentoring relationship incrementally more helpful as time went on and the mentor described this relationship as a particularly a rewarding interaction due to the mentee's response. Both mentor and mentee described a range of learning outcomes. In addition a friendship had developed between the dyad, hence the narrative title "The Perfect Match?"

4.5.2.9 Mentoring Relationship Ten: "The Life Coach" (NT Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was between an ENTP mentor and an INTP mentee and therefore both had the same MBTI learning style. The NTP preferences shared by both would indicate, according to MBTI theory that both mentor and mentee would be interested in theories and global explanations about the world and why it works the way it does. They would learn best by categorising, analysing, and applying logic and will need a problem or intellectual challenge to work out. Both mentor and mentee will prefer flexibility and the opportunity to explore new and interesting information as it

arises. Nonetheless, the extraverted mentor will learn best by talking things through and interaction whereas the mentee will need time, quiet, and space for internal processing (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated through approach four and therefore the mentor was the same professional mentor as in dyads seven, eight and nine. The mentee was another divisional manager in the same organisation. The mentee was the youngest manager in the Business Unit and therefore the relationship followed the traditional model whereby the mentor was older and more experienced than the mentee. However, the mentee described his role as being slightly different from the other managers in that it was still developing and being defined.

The mentee worked in a relatively new area of the energy industry. The mentor explained, "I think [mentee's area of work] is still very much on a matrix of creativity, new territory, ideas. So it's collaborative in a different kind of a way [from other areas in Energy sector]". The mentor believed there to be a much wider "range of type of creature" in this area compared to rest of the energy industry and commented that this sector of the industry had not yet established a cultural tradition. The mentor was critical of business culture in general; "I'm saying to a lot of them that you all talk about stress as though it is some sort of virtuous state but if you talk to a doctor… they'd say a little bit of stress might improve performance but continuous stress will mean you are sub-optimally performing." The mentor was trying to encourage the management team to consider their choices with regards to time management and he felt that this had resonated with the mentee.

The mentee thought the mentor was "engaging and he's interesting and you think he's got stories to tell. So at a certain level you're thinking 'I'll have a bit of a craic.'" He described the mentor as outgoing, enthusiastic, gregarious and passionate about his work but as being more laid-back than him. He also noticed that the mentor perceived [technical staff] in a particular way and thought they were different from creative people. The mentee commented, "But I think that is maybe not so much the case. I think there is some common ground, commonality." However, he did concede, "There's other things we're probably quite a long way [apart on], I'll tend to get really stuck into process or detail quite easily and I think [mentor] probably never gets stuck into detail." However the mentee thought they both had a similar outlook, "A pragmatic view, we've got our ideals as to how things should be but it's not like it's a deal breaker if someone doesn't conform to those… we take people how they are and not be too, I guess it's different between being judgemental and maybe understanding a bit of character."

The mentee explained that initially he "was a bit direct" in the management role. The mentor described him as "pugnacious" but acknowledged this was partly to do with his physical appearance. However, he noted, "That opinion is also formed by just stories you hear and ways you've seen him, he kind of

braces himself for impact when he's presenting a point sometimes… so it is not like he is pugnacious, but his body language, his demeanour might lead one to think that." The mentor described the mentee as someone who embraced challenge and was willing to grow his part of the business and develop it. However, he said, "I think what I am probably helping him with is from time to time remembering that the way we are often impacts on the outcome we get."

The mentor saw his role as helping the mentee to recognise how his behaviour impacted on outcomes. They talked about, "The urgency and energy and the attention that he gives to the outcome, the desired outcome he's getting, and the will he puts into it almost exclusively, like as though he sees results will come from that, that's his best bet at getting results." The mentor went on, "I don't see my role is to accelerate learning, I see it is to help them increase their awareness of factors that are impacting on them. Then helping them define strategies. I don't feel like I should be a gatekeeper of their strategies, how diligent they are in putting them in place, because I don't have sufficient track on what the burden of responsibility is on them."

The mentee saw mentoring as a big opportunity. "I'm pretty young, I think there are some other guys that are in their thirties, but I'd say typically they're over forty so they've got more experience and I feel I need to accelerate some of that. So yeah, I'm definitely up for the mentoring to bring myself up to that sort of level or at least get towards that sort of level." He saw the mentoring experience as "not about the technical side, it's more about the soft skills." It was "having someone experienced to bounce ideas off of and kind of get a different angle on what you are doing rather than someone who is going to tell you what to do."

The mentoring dyad had been meeting for a period of ten months. The mentee had found the mentor very easy to get on with and indicated that they had "broad-ranging chats" which were not just about work. Nonetheless he described the meetings as "quite formal" and explained, "I usually try and prepare a couple of bullet points and try and refresh what I've done previously. [Mentor] is quite well organised in that respect, he's usually got a little file and we just talk through good things, bad things, how we've tried to implement anything that we've talked about." The mentee described how it had taken a few months to see any real benefit from the mentoring sessions. Again, confidentiality was important in this relationship. The mentee talked about this in relation to the organisation's team mentoring approach. However, overall he was supportive of the organisation's approach and commented, "It works in this case that it's sort of an external person and he has the overview on all the mentoring for that group."

The mentee indicated that they often talked about relationships between managers in the Business Unit and strategies to manage those relationships. He said that the discussions “sometimes drift into how to deal with certain individual behaviours, of my own and theirs.” Some of the conversations focused on work life balance. The mentor had helped the mentee to think about his career differently. “There’s a bit of a longer term plan and I’ve been looking at a year, two year maximum.” The mentor had also helped the mentee with time management by introducing him to tools such as the Johari window. Previously the mentee had used various lists and had a poor work life balance. He explained, “[Mentor] is helping to address some of that and say ‘well actually, your efficiency at work is linked to your work life balance’ and also just ways of prioritising things and not stressing so much about them.” He explained how the mentor had helped him to take smaller steps to reach his goals. “It’s trying to apply that to work life, home life, business development… so definitely applied that more rigorous and had more focus on a couple of things rather than ‘right, I need to do all this today’. I can’t do that, I need to do one thing and move on.”

Mentoring had helped the mentee to realise that there were different ways to achieve desired outcomes. He said, “It’s very easy to get focused on the technical side of the job and not look at the soft skills required to get the result. So you keep on applying the process and you get there in the end but with mentoring that’s hopefully making me appreciate different ways of getting to the end point, easier ways or more effective ways.” He described how conversations about workplace behaviour had helped. “It’s not like you could put it in a box and say ‘I possess that knowledge’ but it’s maybe more fundamental, some aspects have changed how I do some things.”

The mentoring had also given the mentee some space “to push aside everything else” which had enabled him to put “tools” in place and to think about issues. Some of the mentoring conversations had “drifted into the personal life” and forced the mentee to think about his long term future. “So for the twenty year aspirational thing, I’m still thinking about that, but at least I am thinking about it now.” The mentee had also changed how he prioritised his work and this had enabled him to spend more time with his family and on leisure activities. However, he did sometime find the mentoring sessions frustrating because “you have a session and you’re dumped into real life the next day.” Nonetheless, the mentee did think that the mentoring had facilitated relationships within the management team and improved integration between divisions.

This mentoring relationship had helped to affirm some of the mentor’s beliefs. “The learning for me is sometimes the best strategies for getting things to work is let things come to you. We tend in the West to have this belief that if you want something you’ve got to go and get it, but actually if you want something and sit down in the right place it might collide with you… It’s reinforced my view of being

hard on things all the time doesn't always get the results you want." He hoped that the mentee had learned how to get the best out of work collaborations whereas the mentee hoped that the mentor had developed a better understanding of the [technical] psyche. Nonetheless, the mentor continued to talk about [technical staff] as having a particular mind-set. "I know it's not right to talk about people like this, but I do. I think that an unforeseen consequence of that convergent thinking is that somewhere hard-wired in them [technical staff], is a belief that there is no problem on this planet that cannot be wrestled to the ground."

This mentoring relationship was still in progress and had been so for ten months. This had been a positive and productive relationship which had enabled the mentee to address issues relating to interpersonal skills, management development, time management, and work life balance. In addition the mentor had the mentee contemplate long term career planning and life aspirations. The narrative title "The Life Coach" reflects the functions provided by the mentor within this dyad.

4.5.3 The Intuitive-Feeling Mentors

4.5.3.1 Mentoring Relationship Six: "The College Roommate" (ST Mentee)

This mentoring relationship was conducted between an ENFJ mentor and an ISTJ mentee and therefore had different MBTI learning styles. According to Type Theory, the NF mentor would be interested in new ideas about how to understand people and symbolic and metaphorical activities. NF learners learn best when imagining and creating with others and through writing. They will need some general direction but with the freedom to do it in their own creative way. They will also need frequent positive feedback. The ST mentee will be interested in facts and practical information about everyday activities and learn best by doing hands-on activities. An ST learner will need step-by-step instructions and logical, practical reasons for doing something. Both mentor and mentee will want structure, order, and closure before moving on to a new topic. The introvert mentee will need time and space for internal processing whereas the extravert mentor will learn by talking things out and interacting with others (Myers Briggs et al 2009).

This mentoring relationship was facilitated by approach three. The mentor was asked by the mentee's line manager if she would consider mentoring the mentee. Likewise the mentee's line manager had suggested he join the scheme. "I was asked by my boss if I would like to join a mentoring scheme and [Mentor] is available and we thought that would be a good match." This was a mixed gender dyad although the mentor and mentee were similar ages. The mentor was a senior manager and the mentee was a technical manager and consultant who managed his own work portfolio.

The mentor described herself as "diligent and honest" but as more gregarious and socially confident than her mentee. Nonetheless, the mentor explained that this had not always been the case. "I used to be really shy, so what happened to that? I don't know what happened to that? So somewhere along the line I kind of passed being ultra-shy and started to be a bit, at least confident in my job." However, she said, "If I don't get any feedback I tend to work more. I assume that if I'm not getting any feedback then perhaps something is not quite right. So I have a tendency to workaholism actually." The mentor continued, "I'm quite self-deprecating actually. I'm a little paranoid as well. I reveal an awful lot of me. And I sometimes think that the things that I know and the things I can tell people are really probably pointless, I have this inner voice that sometimes tells me that 'Oh that's pointless, who wants to hear that?'"

The mentee explained how he had met and talked to the mentor on a number of occasions prior to starting the mentoring relationship. He described her as "very nice, very approachable, professional. I don't know what else to say. She's a very nice person." The mentee explained that their work area was similar although "she's obviously a manager type of person." He commented, "I see her as an equal but in different roles. Let me put it like that, yes." The mentee did not say much about his character but did describe himself as an open person. "I'll talk and I don't mind saying if I think I'm not doing brilliant on something, I don't mind saying that. Or if I'm wanting some help on something I will ask for it. I'm quite open in that respect." Despite this the mentor described him as "quite introverted". She described him as "very, very quiet. Very, but really smiley eyes actually, really likeable. You can tell that he's very; you can tell he's really honest and actually very open despite being quiet. So I don't think there is any hidden agendas with him. He's diligent and really honest." She went on to explain how she felt that the mentee "seemed quite vulnerable actually. It seems like he's got such a lot to give and that he hasn't quite flowered yet." She explained, "There's a part of me that wants to look after him actually". She continued, "With a little looking after he could just be, you know, amazing."

The mentor had volunteered to join the mentoring scheme after an initial briefing session at the company. She commented, "I realised having done it, been involved with it in the past that perhaps I could help. So I put my name in the hat." The mentor enjoyed mentoring others, "I really enjoy seeing people come on and be happy and do well. I love it." She explained how she had always been supportive to others, "To some extent I've always done it to a greater or lesser extent. At school and uni I used to buddy people and help the year below me in the labs and stuff and I really love it actually." She saw mentoring as a mutually beneficial relationship but commented, "It's coaching to some extent isn't it?" She continued, "You are trying to get people to reach their full potential in every direction I guess."

The mentee had been looking for some developmental support at the time. He explained, “I’ve been on a stack of marketing stuff over the last year or the last couple of years and I haven’t really been getting a lot of results that I would have liked to have achieved… So it was how else can I approach this subject?” He saw mentoring as having a “soft-skill” focus but also as providing an opportunity to “discuss problems in an open way and get a bit of feedback.”

The mentor and mentee had met previously through their pre-existing working relationship. Whilst the pair had met for mentoring sessions they both commented that they had not met frequently. The mentee said, “It really is my fault because I just haven’t contacted her because I have been busy. It is too easy to let that time pass and I know it’s my fault… I should have arranged a meeting with her but it did coincide with a very busy period for me.” The mentee indicated that he had initially found the mentoring session daunting, “It was a bit intimidating to start off with I guess but I’m quite an open sort of person.” However he went on to say that “a lot of the meeting was taken up by me talking rather than anybody else talking.” The mentor had found this initial session very productive and commented, “The first conversation we had was really animated, it was really good. It was really good and I really enjoyed it a lot and didn’t even appreciate myself that I had so much to exchange with him.”

The mentor described their mentoring sessions as “almost like brainstorming sessions” and explained that a lot of the issues they discussed were about “relationships and how to get the best out of them, whether that be a working relationship or a sales relationship.” The mentor saw the mentee’s key needs to be around networking, selling his services, and how he “gets beyond that sort of introversion that he’s got.” The mentor explained, “It became apparent to me that he works for somebody that doesn’t feed him work. He has to get all his own work… I remember having to ask him why his line manager didn’t know what his utilisation was, surely he’s feeding you work? And he said no; he said he feeds himself and then it’s a surprise to his line manager at the end of the week when he says, ‘Oh it’s zero because I was working on proposals.’” The mentee indicated that he was keen to be mentored by this particular mentor because of her contacts within the industry. “She has a lot of possibly higher level contacts from what I have.” This was a dominant theme throughout the mentee’s narrative and he frequently referred to the mentor as having “lots of contacts so that’s a good fit there.”

The mentee indicated that, in retrospect, they should have been more planned in their approach. “I think one mistake we should have done initially was set up other dates and then firmed up on that.” Nonetheless, the mentor indicated that they had met outside of mentoring meetings since the relationship had begun. She described how she would seek the mentee out at company social functions and had invited him to a professional dinner. They talked about developing the mentee’s client

network, “I kind of spoke to him about this idea of courting clients, speaking to them the whole time, doing mail drops… and I spoke to him about maybe using some of the network sites.” The mentee described how he had found the mentor’s approach to be in contrast to his own: “Her attitudes to some of the comments that we made in meetings were oh yes there’s an opportunity, just from the things we were talking about, there’s an opportunity there from this guy. And I was like oh yes. And I hadn’t really thought of it as an opportunity. It was more like yes that’s a fact, it’s a passing fact. But she was like oh no that’s an opportunity to cull marketing on that, and I have pursued some things like that since.” The mentor described how often discussions were spontaneous, “A lot of the information I kind of came up with on the spot about you could do this with your division, you could do this with your division, we should make sure that their material, their sales materials includes what you do because there’s a very obvious link there even though you sit in production assurance, we should be sure that our material refers to you so that we’re selling for you. So I was kind of looking for mutually beneficial relationships and just thinking about it on the spot and talking about it.”

The mentor had helped the mentee to look at situations from a different perspective; “What I would have called throw away comments that you heard from meetings and, my God there’s a project on the go here, and say, oh yes worked with that guy back then, and she said well that’s an opportunity. Speak to the guy or contact him on LinkedIn or something like that.” He went on to explain how his mentor’s approach had alerted him to listen out for opportunities more. He commented, “She was doing that instantly, I wasn’t. I was thinking nothing about it really. I was thinking yes well maybe he’ll contact me but that would be the wrong approach. It was more like you need to be a bit more proactive on that.”

The mentor explained how as a result of their conversations she had started to consider how her department could “cross-fertilise” with other divisions and how this could be put into practice in relation to integration and cross-selling. She explained how this sort of thinking had impacted on her more broadly, “I called a meeting in London, chaired it, got all the key parties round the table and we spoke about the skills they had and we could use and vice versa and other parts of the company where that sort of cross working could help them. So yes, so that’s the sort of thing, I started a campaign of doing that.” She described how she now felt a lot happier at work and thought that her mentee did too. She explained that she now felt more comfortable within the organisation, “This is the right home for me, and this is somewhere I can really make a difference, sort of providing confidence about going forward and what the future holds and stuff.”

This mentoring relationship was still in progress at the time of interview and had been so for six months. Whilst there had been some difficulty in meeting regularly, the mentee had a focused approach to the mentoring relationship and had identified particular work areas that he wished to

develop. The mentor was perceived as someone who was capable in these areas and had been approached for that reason. The mentor took a more holistic and nurturing approach to mentoring and indicated that she sought to support both the personal and professional development of the mentee. In addition she helped the mentee within social contexts by facilitating networks and acting as a professional friend. The mentor's considerate approach coupled with the perceived professional equity between the dyad evokes the impression of a collegiate relationship hence the narrative title "The College Roommate".

4.6. Summary of Reported Mentor Behaviours and Outcomes

Table 9 presents a summary of the mentor behaviours reported within each dyad and the associated mentoring function categorisations (Fowler and O'Gorman 2005), as well as the type of learning outcomes derived from each relationship. The table was constructed by collating the mentor behaviours reported by both the mentor and mentee with each dyad. These behaviours were then cross-referenced with Fowler and O'Gorman's (2005) model of eight mentoring functions. Finally the mentoring outcomes reported within each dyad were classified using Clutterbuck's (2004) categorisations; developmental, emotional, enabling and career outcomes to illustrate the link between mentor behaviours and the outcomes received. These results will be discussed fully in chapter seven.

Mentor	Type	Reported Mentor Behaviours	Associated Mentor Functions	Outcomes
Dyad 1	ESFP	Note taking Reflection Questioning Discussion Roleplay Recap Review progress Encouragement	Strategies and systems advice Learning facilitation Personal and emotional guidance	Development outcomes Emotional outcomes.
Dyad 2	ISFJ	Clarifying Active listening Sounding board Discussion Debate Reflection Advice Friendship	Friendship, Learning facilitation, Personal and emotional guidance	Emotional outcomes Development outcomes
Dyad 3	ENTJ	Provided information Advice Encouragement “Out of office” support Reflecting back Setting tasks Recap Positive role model Notetaking	Role modelling Learning facilitation Personal and emotional guidance Career development facilitation Strategies and systems advice	Emotional outcomes Development outcomes Career outcomes
Dyad 4	ENTP	Questioning Provide examples Encouragement Making suggestions Networking Encouraging reflection Supporting evaluation Advice on working with others Notetaking	Learning facilitation Career development facilitation Strategies and systems advice Advocacy	Development outcomes Career outcomes Enabling outcomes Emotional outcomes Proximal organisational outcomes
Dyad 5	ISTP	Explaining Sharing information Encouragement Open questioning Advice/maxims Career planning Networking	Learning facilitation Career development facilitation Strategies and systems advice	Developmental outcomes Career outcomes
Dyad 6	ENFJ	Brainstorming Networking Discussion Identifying opportunities Friendship	Friendship Learning facilitation Strategies and systems advice	Enabling outcomes Developmental outcomes

Dyad 7	ENTP	Open questions Encouraging reflection Sounding board Friendship Notetaking	Friendship Strategies and systems advice Learning facilitation	*Developmental outcomes* *Enabling outcomes* *Emotional outcomes*
Dyad 8		Open questions Setting tasks Notetaking	Learning facilitation Strategies and systems advice	*Developmental outcomes*
Dyad 9		Listening Planning together Reflecting back Evaluation Sharing concepts/ideas Providing feedback Challenging Friendship Notetaking	Personal and emotional guidance Learning facilitation Friendship Strategies and systems advice	*Emotional outcomes* *Enabling outcomes* *Development outcomes*
Dyad 10		Discussion Advice on managing relationships Career planning Sharing concepts/information Identifying priorities Notetaking	Career development facilitation Personal and emotional guidance Learning facilitation Strategies and systems advice	*Career outcomes* *Enabling outcomes* *Developmental outcomes*
Dyad 11		Discussion Asking for mentee views Using mentee as sounding board Perspective setting Coaching Friendship Notetaking	Friendship Personal and emotional guidance	*Emotional outcomes*
Dyad 12		Provide feedback Encouraging reflection Discussion Sharing information/advice Role model Notetaking	Learning facilitation Role modelling Strategies and systems advice Personal and emotional guidance	*Developmental outcomes* *Negative outcomes (mentor)*

Table 10: Reported Mentoring Behaviours and Outcome Type

4.7 Summary of Reported Mentoring Learning Outcomes

Table 10 presents a summary of the reported learning outcomes for mentors and mentees in dyads one to twelve. These have been cross referenced to the individual learning goals reported by mentees and will be discussed in detail in chapter seven.

Dyad	Individual Learning goals for Mentee	Reported Mentee Outcomes	Reported Mentor Outcomes
1	Regular, planned development time To question organisational practices in a confidential setting	Increased confidence Reduction in stress Self-efficacy More assertive/pro-active Transition into new role Identification of strategies to solve problems at work Sense of perspective	More organised and reflective Self-recognition/recognise own value Insight into another sector Identify value of working for own organisation
2	To tap into other managers' experience To talk about work problems	Awareness of management styles Implementation of different approaches to management Knowledge of personal management Strategies for managing organisational politics Stress relief Difficulty drawing relationship to close	Self-efficacy as a mentor Ideas/knowledge for management procedures Different perspective Friendship Enjoyment Alternative perspective on criticism
3	To raise profile within organisation To progress or accept situation within organisation Promotion	Cathartic Opportunity to deal with emotions More proactive More positive outlook Raised profile More organised, disciplined, mentally structured Self-efficacy Physical changes(transformation)	Personal satisfaction Confidence in coping mechanism Sense of inclusion/connection
4	To understand how own role interfaced with rest of company More visibility with organisation	Broader view of the organisation Different career aspirations/map Better understanding of role and how it interfaces with others Wider network Clearer and more realistic goals	Easier life/better communication in working environment Behaviour change – more tempered feedback Better understanding of issues relating to support roles Enjoyment

		Confidence Less worry and stress Emotional security	Different management approach style – delegate More aware of other people's needs?
5	Insight into experience and knowledge of people in senior management positions Career development	Knowledge of courses and development Focused work tasks - fewer OCBs Long term career plan	Enjoyment Try to learn to be a better mentor
6	To improve marketing capability	More proactive Identification of marketing opportunities Wider network	Integration – Strategies for cross-departmental working Happier and more comfortable at work Increased organisational commitment
7		More action-orientated Implementation of ideas Motivation Self-efficacy Application Evaluation Happier at work	Friendship Sense of inclusion/connection Self-worth/value
8		Confidence Self-belief Pushed out of comfort zone Better understanding of people Improved relationships at work Understanding of how to approach situations Evaluation of options Facilitation of relationship on management team	Frustration Self-evaluation as mentor
9	No goals set (mentee)	In control More effective as manager Better evaluative skills Improved interaction between management team	Confidence Self-efficacy Friendship Enjoyment Felt appreciated

		Improved work life balance Friendship	
10		More collaborative route to achieve objectives Understanding behaviour at work Reflective space Long term career planning Prioritising work life balance Improved integration between departments Improved relationships in management team Some frustration	Affirmation of beliefs
11	Wanted more specific goals (mentee)	Sense of perspective Development as a mentor Better understanding of self in relation to wider organisation More proactive lead role Therapeutic Some frustration – wanted more focus and challenge	Difficult to mentor Sounding board
12		Reflect on shortcomings and development needs Role model in terms of listening Confidence Rebalance work More open Delegate/use team more effectively Stress relief More patient/relaxed Self-belief	Feelings of inadequacy Frustration

Table 11: Summary of Reported Mentoring Outcomes

4.8 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has presented the key findings of the research. An overview of the demographic characteristics of the study participants and their MBTI personality types was displayed along with a description of the mentoring pairs. This was followed by a narrative of each mentoring relationship which included a description of the relationship dynamics within each dyad and the learning outcomes derived from each relationship. The majority of the mentoring relationships had been viewed as largely successful by both members of the mentoring dyad with both mentor and mentee reporting positive mentoring outcomes and interactions. None of the relationships featured were negative relationships although in some cases mentor and mentee perceptions of relationship success were different. In every dyad at least one participant described some positive outcomes derived from the mentoring process. There were however four mentoring relationships which were characterised by some negative mentoring outcomes: in both relationships 8 and 12 the mentor reported some negative perceptions of the relationship whereas the mentee was largely positive about the relationship. In relationship eleven the mentee indicated that they had not been sufficiently challenged within the dyad despite finding the mentoring experience enjoyable and useful in some way. Further, in relationship five some potentially negative organisational outcomes were noted despite both the mentor and mentee describing the experience and outcomes as positive. A tension between organisational and individual objectives and outcomes were observed within this relationship. The mentoring relationship narratives will now be analysed in themes and discussed in chapter seven.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

5.0 Introduction

This chapter interprets and discusses the data presented in chapter four. The inductive nature of the research required reflection upon the data and synthesis with the existing mentoring literature in order to create theoretical understanding. The results were interpreted in relation to the researcher's reflexive awareness (see appendix one) and reviewed in light of discussions with supervisors. The results will be interpreted to address the research objectives taking into consideration the implications for HRD theory and practice and the methodological development of mentoring research.

5.1 The MBTI Profiles

The mentor demographics displayed in Table 3 (pg. 103) indicate that the sample mentors were experienced professionals working in or supporting managerial roles. The MBTI profiles displayed in Table 3 present the mentors' best fit type and are therefore the type profile with which each mentor most identified. Within the group of mentors there is diversity of type however the small sample size clearly does not allow for all sixteen types to be present. Across the profiles collectively, however, all eight preferences are present. In addition, three of the four MBTI learning styles are present: NT, NF and ST. The fourth learning style ST is not represented in this sample and thus there are differences between this sample and UK norms for MBTI.

	ST	SF	NF	NT
Introversion-judging	13.7%	12.7%	1.7%	1.4%
Introversion-perceiving	6.4%	6.1%	3.2%	2.4%
Extraversion-judging	5.8%	8.7%	6.3%	2.8%
Extraversion-Perceiving	10.4%	12.6%	2.8%	2.9%
UK Norm	**36.3%**	**40.1%**	**14%**	**9.5%**

Table 2: MBTI National Normative Sample of UK Adults (Source: Adapted from Myers et al 2003; Training and Coaching Today 2007) [Note – Table 2 is also shown on page 54]

The normative sample for UK adults (Table 2) indicates that sensing types are more common in the UK adult population; the relative scarcity of intuitive types is noteworthy given the dominance of intuitive profiles in the mentor sample. In addition, the absence of ST profiles in the sample further indicates that the mentor profiles are distinct. Whilst ST types are not represented, intuitive types are over represented. Indeed, Niehoff (2006) asserts that openness to experience, which corresponds with

intuition, positively correlates with participation as a mentor. This is further compounded by assertions (Kilmann and Mitroff 1976; Gardener and Martinko 1996; Sample 2004) that the ST profile is dominant within managerial settings and that management itself is a ST function in which quantitative information systems suit the ST personality. Whilst it is recognised that managerial positions will be held by all four function profiles, one might reflect on the possibility that managers with certain personality types will be attracted to mentoring. Other writers (Kiersey 1998; Passmore et al 2006) have indicated that some personality characteristics may be more common in individuals who are attracted to other development roles such as counselling and teaching. Further, OPP's data (2009) relating to occupational level does indicate that individuals in senior roles are more likely to have preferences for intuition and thinking, suggesting that these preferences are attractive leadership qualities. The majority of the mentor group held senior management roles and therefore this may have had a bearing on their MBTI profiles.

The mentee MBTI profiles were more diverse with ten different mentee personality profiles being present in a small sample of twelve mentoring dyads. However, whilst the mentee sample did include all four MBTI learning styles (NT, NF, ST, SF) there was still an over-representation of intuitive types and therefore there were differences between this sample and the UK norms for MBTI. Once again the mentee group were working in managerial roles. However, it must be noted that they did differ in their primary occupational background and sector. MBTI data (OPP 2009) suggests that certain personality types are drawn to specific professions, although given the predominantly managerial or technical roles held by the mentee group there is still an over-representation of intuitive types.

One possible explanation for the atypical profile distribution among the sample relates to organisational character. Bridges (2000) applied Type Theory to organisations arguing that, as social constructs, organisational type will be created through various social and physical factors and the meanings that individuals attach to them. Organisational character can be determined by ascertaining the dominant characteristics of the organisation's activities and people (Bridges 2000). The concept of organisational character is not new (Gellerman 1959; Brown 2010). Mitroff (1983) also pointed to organisational personality and identified four organisational types: Bureaucratic (ST), Research and Development (NT), Familial (SF), and Organic Adaptive (NF). Further, Mitroff (1983) argued that there would be a vital link between the constructs of individual personalities and organisations. The distinct nature of the work carried out by the participant organisations and their organisational cultures may therefore have some impact on the sample. For example, there is some evidence to suggest that there was a predominance of NT types within the management team employing approach four. This corresponds with the type of activity this organisation was employed in (technical consultancy). As Sample (2004) contends, selection bias may favour some function pairs over others in organisations.

Table 6 displays the reported type, self-assessed type and best fit type for each participant.

DYAD	MENTOR			MENTEE		
	Reported Type	Self-Assessment Type	Best Fit Type	Reported Type	Self-Assessment Type	Best Fit Type
1	ESTP	ENFP	ESFP	ISFJ	ISTJ	ISFJ
2	ISFJ	ENFP	ISFJ	ISTP	ISTP	ISTP
3	ENTJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	INTP	INFJ	INTP
4	ENTP	ENTJ	ENTP	INTJ	INFJ	INTJ
5	INTP	INTP	INTP	ESTJ	ESTJ	ESTJ
6	ENFJ	INFP	ENFJ	ISTJ	ISTJ	ISTJ
7	ENTP	INFP	ENTP	ENTJ	ESTP	ENTP
8				ESFJ	ENFP	ESFP
9				ENTP	ENTJ	ENTP
10				ENTP	ISTP	INTP
11				ENTP	ENFP	ENFP
12				ISTP	ISTP	ISTP

Table 6: Dyad MBTI Data [Note – Table 6 is also shown on page 106]

Best fit profiles were obtained through the triangulation of MBTI questionnaire results and self-evaluation data. The questionnaire results (reported type) relate more closely to the best fit type in the majority of cases. In the profiles where there is not a direct match between reported and best fit type, only one preference differs. The results therefore concur with MBTI data, which places the reliability of the MBTI questionnaire at 95% of respondents confirming three of the four preferences (Myers and Kirby 1998). The self-evaluated type results are less accurate with some participants only confirming one or two preferences between the evaluated and best fit types. The majority of the mentor self-evaluations did not match the best fit profile thus indicating that the reported type was influential in determining the best fit. The discrepancies between the self-evaluated and best fit profiles for mentors further indicate that mentors had difficulty in identifying preference from type description. Mentor two self-evaluated differently across three preference pairs.

The clarity of the mentor reported preferences (Table 7 p. 106) indicate that most of the preferences identified by mentors via the questionnaire were moderate or clear. Therefore the discrepancies between the self-evaluation and best fit type may be influenced by other factors. Bayne (2005) asserts that ambiguous results are most likely to happen with low scores but notes that uncertainty can feature even when scores are clear. He points to lack of self-awareness, issues relating to type development, or maladministration being the most likely explanations for uncertainty (ibid). Whilst perceptual issues may indeed have influenced some responses, the confidential nature of the research process and the context within which MBTI assessment was conducted minimised the likelihood of participants falsifying results. The research procedures were adhered to throughout the data collection

period; again this limited the potential for participants to misunderstand the preference pairs or complete the questionnaire incorrectly (Bayne 2005).

It is worth noting that the mentor results were more ambiguous than the mentee profiles. Half of the mentees' self-evaluated type corresponded with their best fit type and the majority of those that did not differed on only one preference pair. It is therefore worth considering why there was less consistency between the mentors' self-evaluations and best fit type.

This inconsistency can be explained in relation to Type Theory given that the mentor group were aged between forty-seven and sixty-five years. Type Theory postulates that personality preferences develop throughout life and that it is during the second half of life that the priority for development changes (Kendall et al 2006). The first half of life entails "specialisation" where individuals develop their dominant functions and preferences. It is during the second half that there is a shift to the functions that have been left behind (ibid). Jung (1978) suggested that these changes enabled individuals to achieve individuation and complete their development in the later stages of life. It is therefore plausible that the mentor group found the self-evaluation process less certain given their developmental stage and subsequent acquisition of learned behaviours which did not necessarily correspond with their innate preferences. Bayne (2005) agrees that ambiguous results can occur when the development of a person's third or fourth function is a current priority. However, one of the a priori assumptions underlying MBTI administration relates to the interpretation of type. It is assumed that an individual's true type can never be known with absolute certainty. MBTI results are regarded as "sets of hypotheses" rather than definitive sets of conclusions (Bayne 1995; Quenk 2000). MBTI assessment and clarification is therefore regarded as an exploratory process which enables individuals to investigate their self-perceptions and characteristics within a given framework. The four stage process used to determine personality type acknowledges that self-report data can be subject to error due to factors such as self-perception, pressure to conform, and life crises (Quenk 2000). In addition, MBTI questionnaire results are regarded as a starting point to explore initial self-evaluations and refine these further.

Another possible explanation lies in the nature of the self-evaluation process itself. MBTI theory proposes a dynamic model of type (Myers et al 1998; Kirby and Myers 2000). However, the self-evaluation process proposed by MBTI literature suggests that each of the four MBTI dichotomies is presented individually. The opportunity for participants to identify how the MBTI preferences interact to determine personality type will therefore depend upon MBTI consultant expertise and thus the prescribed feedback process for MBTI step one may be limited. Quenk (2000) agrees that one of the weaknesses of MBTI lies in the interpretation of personality types and emphasises that knowledge of

how the four dichotomies interact dynamically is needed to identify type. This has implications for both the administration of MBTI and consultant expertise, and supports Sample's (2004) assertion that the biggest risk to MBTI validity concerns the use of unreliable versions of the instrument by unqualified personnel. However, the methodology employed to collect this MBTI data was robust and was administered by a qualified MBTI consultant. Whilst the opportunity for misunderstanding is always present (Bayne 2005) the feedback procedures were planned and employed systematically through the use of MBTI feedback cards.

MBTI data indicated that half of the mentoring dyads involved participants who shared the same learning style (Table 8 p. 108). MBTI theory states that psychological type can identify differences in learning style by using the sensing/intuition and thinking/feeling functions (Briggs Myers 2000). Further, whilst each preference has some impact on learning style, MBTI theory posits that the most important differences will be between individuals who have sensing and intuitive preferences (ibid). Within this study sample four mentoring dyads exhibit differences between sensing and intuitive preferences (Table 8 p. 106).

5.1.1 The Self-Report Data

An initial review of the research findings indicated that the MBTI profile information corresponded with some of the participant self-report data collected at interview and the insights provided by their mentoring partners. The mentor and mentee profile summaries (appendix 11) present an overview of the key characteristics from each MBTI profile alongside the self-report data and partner comments collected at interview. The mentor information demonstrates some consistency between the profile reports and the interview data. For example, mentor one's (ESFP) impulsiveness, mentor three's (ENTJ) planned and structured approach, and mentor five's (INTP) independent view. However, the participant self-report data and mentee comments provide further insight into attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of observed behaviours, thus supporting Francis et al's (2007) view that the MBTI instrument does not set out to provide a total description of personality but instead focuses on the evaluation of pre-defined psychological processes. Bayne (1995) concurs and refers to the MBTI preferences as an "economical summary" of individual differences.

The mentee profiles presented a less consistent view. Whilst some of the MBTI profiles do correspond with the interview data, for example mentee eleven's perceptive nature and mentee five's task orientated approach, four mentees provided very little self-report data and therefore it was difficult to ascertain the extent to which the information matched. A possible explanation for this is that three of these four mentees identified as *introverted* and were therefore characteristically "private and contained" (Briggs Myers 2000; Bayne 2005). These individuals were therefore less forthcoming about

their personal characteristics and thus there was some consistency present in the nature of the data obtained and their MBTI profiles. The other mentee (mentee seven), who provided few personal details, identified as extraverted. However, the mentor's comments, self-report data, and experiential data collected at time of interview do not support this. This mentee was described as someone who was quiet, reflective and who "thinks a lot" by the mentor and was observed by the researcher, during interview, as being "hesitant", "needing time to think" and "guarded". In addition, the mentee indicated that mentoring had enabled him to become more action-orientated whereas previously he had ideas which he did not implement. Thus the mentee's observed behaviour did not match with the MBTI type description. Bayne (2005) notes that extraversion and introversion may be the most visible preference pair whilst Carr (2003) emphasises that behaviour during client meetings can provide clues to individual preferences. Further, whilst MBTI theory does postulate that the individual is responsible for deciding their own best fit type, it is acknowledged that societal or organisational pressures may result in a lack of clarity (Bayne 2005). Some individuals may feel that they should behave in a particular way depending on the culture and environment that they operate within (Kendall et al 2001). Further, Bayne (2005) has identified a number of reasons as to why MBTI results may be ambiguous and emphasises that this is most likely to happen when scores are lower than ten. Whilst Mentee seven indicated a moderate preference of fifteen towards extraversion, it is possible that there was some misunderstanding or a lack of self-awareness regrading this preference pair.

Further inconsistencies were noted in some of the mentee profiles. The self-report comments provided by mentees three and eleven focused more on emotional state as opposed to consistent personality preferences and therefore this self-report data could not be compared with the MBTI descriptions. Mentee three's comments referred most frequently to lack of self-esteem whereas mentee eleven predominately discussed stress-related behaviours, thus emphasising the impact of these negative emotional states on self-perception and the individuals concerned.

5.2 Mentoring Context

As identified in the literature review, one of the central themes in mentoring research relates to the influence of organisational context on mentoring outcomes received (Wanberg et al 2003; Clutterbuck 2004; O'Neill 2005). The individuals who participated in this research were occupied in different organisational settings in both the public and private sectors and subsequently each organisation had developed an approach to mentoring which addressed their organisational objectives.

Whilst all of the participating organisations cited development as the principle aim of each mentoring initiative, each organisational context influenced the overall rationale for these interventions. The public sector scheme (approach one) aimed to create development opportunities which would

encourage joint sector working, hence the need for a cross-organisational (or service) approach. However, two of the private sector companies (approaches two and three) sought development opportunities which would support retention and attraction of staff by fostering a mentoring culture and mediating the impact of skill shortages within their industry, hence the need for intra-organisational mentoring.

In this sense the mentoring initiatives were aligned with organisational strategy and the mentoring scheme design. Whilst the third private sector company (approach four) also had a developmental focus, the main objective of this mentoring initiative was to facilitate structural change within the organisation and develop a closely aligned management team. Thus this approach had a more specific and short term focus, albeit linked to organisational strategy; thus supporting McDowall-Long's (2004) assertion that formal mentoring initiatives often have a short term or organisational focus. The decision to deliver mentoring via an external consultant had been influenced by a pre-existing informal mentoring relationship between the consultant and Business Unit Director. Each mentoring initiative would therefore appear to be strategically aligned to organisational objectives, which the literature (Clutterbuck 2004; McDonald and Hite 2005; Poulsen 2013) indicates is a measure of effectiveness. Although this was the case in each mentoring approach, the opportunistic nature of the development of approach four may indicate that perhaps less forethought was given to the design of this intervention. However, the more emergent design of this approach is perhaps indicative of the culture of this organisation (Hucanzynski and Buchanan 2013).

5.2.1 Approaches to Mentoring

The descriptions relating to each mentoring approach demonstrate the diverse nature of current formal mentoring initiatives within organisations. Kram (1985) has suggested that one of the most common misconceptions about mentoring is that relationships look the same in all work settings. The qualitative approach to data collection employed in this study has shed light on the varied and distinct designs employed within the sample organisations and has demonstrated the value of this methodology in an area dominated by quantitative research (Noe et al 2002; Allen et al 2007). Nonetheless, common features remain within the approach infrastructures thus highlighting the functional similarity between approaches (Kram 1985) and the impact of the best practice literature. All four approaches to mentoring featured clear objectives which had been communicated to participants through orientation sessions (Wanberg et al 2003; Allen et al 2006). Approaches one to three featured facilitated matching processes. However, the nature of professional mentoring, described in approach four, required buy-in only from potential participants prior to matching. The lack of mentor choice was a distinct feature of this approach and runs contrary to the best practice recommendations (Wanberg et al 2003; Clutterbuck 2004). Whilst the majority of the mentees who

were mentored through this approach indicated that they were happy with the choice of mentor, mentees eight and twelve were initially sceptical about the initiative whilst mentee nine considered the approach to be ambitious noting that it was unlikely that one individual would work well with the whole team. It is possible that these mentees agreed to executive mentoring due to peer pressure. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2011) note that some professional mentors are “thrust” upon mentees. Research has indicated that input into the matching process, and therefore choice of mentor, is indicative of mentoring success (Wanberg et al 2003; Eby et al 2004; Allen et al 2006).

Guidelines were provided for participants in approaches one to three in accordance with best practice advice (Clutterbuck 2004). Participants were given information on how frequently they were expected to meet and approximate guidelines for the relationship length. Within this guidance there were varying degrees of prescription. For example, approach one provided participants with more specific advice than approach two regarding frequency of meeting. Due to the evolutionary development of approach four the scope of the mentoring initiative was unclear even though it is highly likely that some agreement had been reached when determining the mentor’s contract for services. Further, it is noteworthy that this approach involved a professional mentor who had received no formal mentor training and had no previous experience of formal mentoring.

5.2.2 Mentoring Relationship Type

The different approaches to mentoring taken by each of the participating organisations gave rise to different categorisations of mentoring relationships: Cross-organisational, Intra-organisational and Professional mentoring relationships. Whilst all of these relationship types are examined to some extent in the mentoring literature (Mead et al 1999; Friday et al 2004; Allen et al 2006), there are few studies which focus on professional mentors or consultants. Nonetheless, the more typical categorisations for formal mentoring relationships focus on the mentoring relationship demographics and include peer, traditional, executive, and even reverse mentoring (Clutterbuck 2004; Ensher and Murphy 2011; Chaudhri and Ghosh 2012). These categorisations emphasise the perceived experience gap between mentor and mentee, usually in relation to age and organisational status or rank. The rationale for matching participants in this way centres on the need to establish an appropriate learning distance between mentor and mentee. It is acknowledged that the gap must be appropriate if the mentee is to be sufficiently challenged and the mentor’s experience is to be relevant to the mentee (Clutterbuck 2004). Despite this, Clutterbuck (2004) suggests that the structural complexity of modern organisations may hide variations in individual experience and ability, thus reducing the effectiveness of matching criteria based on age or organisational level.

Using demographic categorisations, all of the mentoring relationships within the study sample would be perceived as traditional mentoring relationships due to the assumed experience gap between the mentor and mentee. In each dyad studied the mentor was older, more senior, or more specialised than the mentee. However, within this sample it was the behavioural interaction between the dyad that was more influential in determining relationship type as opposed to demographic differences. Whilst all of the approaches employed by the organisations suggested a traditional approach to mentoring, it was noted that some relationships evolved to operate on a more equal or reverse level. The literature defines a peer mentoring relationship as one in which the mentor typically holds equivalent professional status to their mentee (Ensher and Murphy 2011). A reverse mentoring relationship involves a younger, less experienced mentor supporting a more senior mentee (Chaudhuri and Ghosh 2012). The findings indicate that in most of the mentoring relationships studied, the formal relationship type was influenced by how participants interacted and perceived one another as opposed to the organisational status that they held. In reviewing the literature, no information was found regarding the extent to which interpersonal dynamics can shape the type of formal mentoring received. Instead the structure of the mentoring relationship was viewed in relation to organisational roles (Payne and Huffman 2005) and dyad demographics. Whilst this outcome was unanticipated, it is possible that strategic thinking in the mentoring discipline (Kram and Bragar 1992; Friday and Friday 2002) has encouraged a more managerialist outlook. Prior studies have highlighted the impact organisational characteristics have on individual mentoring behaviours (Kram 1985; Wanberg et al 2003; O'Neill 2004; Hegstad and Wentling 2005) but have not necessarily considered the impact that individual differences may have on mentoring scheme design. Whilst relationship characteristics have been identified as factors which influence the mentoring and learning received in formal relationships (Feldman 1999; Noe et al 2002; Wanberg et al 2003), the extent to which these dynamics shape the type of mentoring facilitated within organisations has not. Although many mentoring categorisations have emerged from research (Ensher and Murphy 2011), their application in organisations is typically determined at the design stage. Despite this, it may be individual differences within each dyad which determine the *type* or effectiveness of mentoring conducted within organisations and not the demographic differences or variation in organisational status between the dyad. Thus there are implications for HRD practitioners when designing mentoring interventions and matching participants within mentoring schemes.

The findings suggest that where mentors and mentees exhibit a preference for feeling the relationship operated on a more equal or peer basis. It was noted that, within the sample group, none of the dyads comprised a feeling mentor matched with a feeling mentee. Therefore, all of the feeling participants were matched with an individual with a preference for thinking. The mentors with a preference for feeling described the "joint responsibility" (mentor one) and "equal partnership" (mentor two) of their

mentoring relationships suggesting that they sought parity within the dyad. Further, mentee six, a thinking participant described his feeling mentor as “an equal but in different roles”, indicating that he had not perceived a hierarchy within the relationship. Feeling mentors described value driven relationship boundaries which centred on “consent”, “transparency”, “open communication” and “mutually beneficial relationships”. Bayne (1995) notes that feeling types value harmony in their relationships with people and need to appreciate and be appreciated by others. In addition, fairness and respect for others are important to feeling types (Briggs Myers et al 2009). Clutterbuck (2004) asserts that mentors who create open, candid, and encouraging relationships nurture their mentees; there is evidence to suggest that both mentors one and six wanted to look after their mentee. This need for agreement and equity may have directed these relationships towards a more evenly balanced relationship dynamic. This influence could also be seen with feeling mentees when matched with a thinking mentor who assumed a traditional role. In relationship eight the feeling mentee questioned the authority of the mentor and argued “he’s got something to learn about us as well.” The perceived inequity in this traditionally structured mentoring relationship did not sit well with this mentee, especially as he believed that he was as capable as the mentor. It is possible, therefore, that this mentee sought a fairer, more reciprocal, and harmonious learning experience and might have benefitted from a feeling mentor.

Type Theory suggests that the most noteworthy differences in MBTI learning and communication preferences (Kobes and Lichtenberg 1997; Briggs Myers et al 2009) are between sensing and intuitive types. It is recognised that these differences will also have influenced the dynamics in mentoring relationship eight. However, the influence of the feeling preference could also be observed in relationship eleven, which again indicated balance and reciprocation between the mentor and an NF mentee. In this case the relationship evolved to become more equal and even reversed, with the mentee indicating that the mentor had used her as a sounding board throughout the course of their relationship. This was in contrast to the mentor’s other mentoring relationships which largely followed a more traditional relationship pattern. However, the mentor did concede that he found this mentee difficult to mentor due to her pre-existing proficiency suggesting the mentor lacked self-efficacy in this context. Again, a possible explanation for this dynamic can be found in MBTI theory. The findings indicate that the mentor’s type preferences were intuition and thinking. The theory of type development suggests that this mentor’s tertiary function (feeling) would become a focus for development in midlife (Myers and Kirkby 2000) and it was perhaps learning derived from this progression that enabled the mentor to fulfil his professional role and support team development. When paired with a feeling mentee, however, who demonstrated well-developed empathetic and interpersonal skills (Briggs Myers et al 2009), the mentor was not required. The mentee noted “a little under confidence” in the mentor whereas the mentor held the mentee in high regard. The mentee’s

well developed feeling preference therefore pulled the relationship towards a more equal footing and, at times, a reverse mentoring relationship.

It is possible, therefore, that the feeling participants within the sample group influenced the nature of the mentoring relationship dynamics and the resultant relationship types. The need for harmony and fairness within their relationships ensured that the feeling mentors conducted their relationships on a more equitable basis. Further, it is possible that the feeling mentees sought more balanced mentoring interactions as was suggested by mentee eight's frustration with a more traditionally structured relationship format.

5.3 Individual Differences in Mentors

Within the sample group of mentors there were seven individual mentors involved in a total of twelve mentoring relationships. Six of these mentors were involved in mentoring relationships with individual mentees whereas the one professional mentor worked with a group of six individuals. An initial objective of this study was to explore how individual differences impacted on mentoring relationship dynamics and the dual nature of the sample group allowed for the study of both individual relationships and how one mentor interacted with several different mentees. The individual preferences, behaviours, and motivations of the participant mentors will now be discussed in detail.

5.3.1 The Intuitives

It is interesting to note that most of the mentors participating in this study indicated a preference towards intuition. Whilst this observation has already been discussed in relation to occupational, demographic and organisational information (Section 5.1) it is also necessary to consider this finding in relation to previous studies concerning mentor characteristics.

Individuals with a preference towards intuition tend to focus on inter-relationships and patterns (Briggs Myers et al 2009) and prefer to see the overall picture as opposed to focusing on details. Intuitives like variety, speculating, and using their imagination, and tend to be future orientated individuals (Bayne 1995). There is some evidence for a relationship between intuitive preferences and counselling and coaching behaviours. Bayne (2004) identified some distinct differences between counsellor preferences and the general population by showing a bias towards both intuition and feeling. Similarly, Passmore et al (2006) identified a higher proportion of intuitive and perceiving types amongst a sample of coaches compared to the rest of the UK population. Both coaching and counselling have been identified by Clutterbuck (2004) as two of the four main mentoring functions; it is therefore possible that a bias towards intuition may also exist within mentor populations. Bayne

(2004) argued that intuitive preferences in counsellors revealed an interest in exploring meaning and this may be the case for mentors too. Passmore et al (2006) speculated that coaches may also be more concerned with the bigger picture and again this may also apply to mentors as there is a requirement to support development which in itself is a future orientated activity.

The mentoring literature indicates that some elements of intuitive behaviour are important for mentors and therefore it is possible that the mentors in this sample were attracted to mentoring because of this preference. Furnham's (1996) study, which compared MBTI to the NEO PI-R Five Factor model, highlighted that the sensing-intuition dichotomy correlated with openness to experience, with intuitive types scoring highly on this scale. Further, Bozionelos (2004) found that openness was associated with the amount of mentoring provided by mentors and reasoned that individuals with broad interests and who were receptive to new experiences were more likely to provide mentoring. Other studies (Allen, Poteet and Burroughs 1997; Allen and Poteet 1999; Lee et al 2000; Wanberg et al 2003) concur and have also suggested that open-mindedness is an important characteristic for mentors. Thus the bias towards intuition within the mentor sample may be relevant. It is also worth noting that the two mentors who did not have an intuitive preference reported a preference towards feeling, which has been linked to agreeableness (Furnham 1996; Francis et al 2007), thus further supporting contentions (Lee 2000; Waters 2004) that individuals should be open and high on agreeableness if they are to be disposed to mentoring others. The practical implications of these findings are that these MBTI preferences may be of value for mentor selection in formal mentoring schemes.

5.3.2 The Sensers

Within the group of mentors that indicated a preference towards sensing there were no thinking types. All of the sensing mentors indicated a preference toward feeling. This result may simply be explained by the small mentor sample size utilised in this study. However, a further possible explanation may again be garnered from Type Theory. Whilst sensing types are factual, realistic and practical, they focus on the present and prefer to work in a more systematic and standardised way (Bayne 1995; Briggs Myers 2000). These individuals attain less for openness to experience, despite being more sensory astute in MBTI terms (Bayne 1995). This would suggest that individuals with this preference were less likely to provide mentoring given the assertions made in section 5.4.1.

Nonetheless, these mentors also had a preference towards feeling and were therefore people orientated, empathetic and guided by their personal values (Briggs Myers 2000). Type Theory postulates that individuals with a preference for feeling are energised by appreciating and supporting others, will strive for harmony and positive interactions, and will treat each person as a unique

individual (ibid). These characteristics are related to the NEO PI-R factor of agreeableness which has again been shown to be an important prosocial trait in interpersonal relationships (Wu et al 2008). Prior studies (Furnham 1996; Lee 2000; Allen 2002; Waters 2004) have indicated that agreeable individuals who exhibit prosocial tendencies such as empathy and helpfulness are more likely to engage as mentors and thus, once again, this may have implications for mentor selection criteria. Further, Johnson (2003) asserts that "caring" behaviours such as empathy, respect, sensitivity to the needs of others, and compromise are the virtues required for competent mentoring. Waters (2004) agrees and contends that a higher level of trust and communication will be fostered in relationships where participants exhibit a high level of agreeableness, openness and extraversion.

5.3.3 The Idealist Profile

Kiersey's (2009) redevelopment of Type Theory into temperament categories is based on observable differences between individuals. His re-categorisation of the MBTI preferences into four character groups includes the NF pairing, which he refers to as the "idealist" profile. His assertion is that individuals with this preference combination act in a diplomatic and cooperative way and are altruistic and abstract in their approach (ibid). Kiersey (2009) asserts that individuals with NF preferences are typically interested in roles such as teaching, counselling, mediating, and mentoring (ibid). Whilst the study sample only contained one mentor with a NF profile, it is interesting to note that the preferences that had bearing on mentor participation were intuition and feeling. As previously discussed, there is evidence to suggest that the mentor sample contained a high proportion of intuitive mentors compare to UK normative samples. Further, where there was no preference for intuition within the mentor's profile, there was a preference for feeling. Thus all of the mentors exhibited either a preference for intuition or feeling or both, indicating that these characteristics may indeed be important antecedent factors for mentors.

7.3.4 Motivation to Mentor

The motivation to participate in a mentoring relationship must be considered from both the mentor and mentee's perspective. In this section the mentor's view will be considered in light of their personality preferences and the explanations given during interview. The mentors participating in this study cited a number of reasons for becoming a mentor. The majority of the mentors were participating in voluntary mentoring schemes and therefore put themselves forward for the role of mentor. Acting as a mentor in this capacity is an extra role which goes beyond the mentor's actual job remit (Allen 2003; Emmerik et al 2005). Only one mentor (mentor seven) was engaged professionally as an HRD specialist and thus this individual was employed to mentor others and was remunerated accordingly. Despite there being a financial incentive to mentor, this individual also described personal reasons which had influenced his decision to mentor.

The voluntary mentors provided a number of different explanations as to why they were willing to act as a mentor. Allen et al (1997) identified thirteen factors or reasons to participate as a mentor but categorised these into two groups: other-focused and self-focused. Using this classification, mentors two and six would be considered other-focused as they indicated that their primary reason for participation was to help people and to "be around for one another". Both indicated that mentoring was a "natural" thing for them to do and both described personal values and previous behaviours which emphasised providing support for others. These mentors focused on a "social component" (Emmerik et al 2005) in mentoring relationships and identified their decision making preference as feeling.

Whilst this other-focus was apparent with the remaining feeling mentor (mentor one), this mentor also described self-focused motives for mentoring. Mentor one cited attitudinal and instrumental factors (Emmerik et al 2005) as her reasons for participating as a mentor. These included broader professional motives such as a commitment to developing professional managers, as well as the personal satisfaction she gained from "seeing folk be a success". The focus here was on the outcomes the mentor could receive from the experience and the potential benefits to other stakeholders. Thus both self-focused and other-focused motives were present (Allen et al 1997). Despite this, mentor one did not exhibit a social focus (Emmerik et al 2005) in this relationship, possibly due to a lack of attraction to the mentee. During interview the mentor mimicked the mentee's behaviours, possibly indicating that the mentor did not have a high estimation of the mentee. The mentor also indicated that she knew less about the mentee than she typically would with someone she had spent a significant amount of time. Whilst this mentor and mentee had the same MBTI learning style (SF) they had different energy orientations and strategies for dealing with the outer world. In addition, the *introverted* mentee in this relationship provided few personal details during interview indicating a private and contained (Bayne 2005) nature which possibly impacted on the mentoring relationship dynamics. The influence of these factors will be discussed further in section 5.5.

Whilst these feeling mentors (mentors two and six) indicated that they were primarily motivated to mentor due to other-focused factors, their helping behaviours may still be viewed from the perspective of SET (Homans 1958; Young and Perrewe 2000). One explanation for their willingness to mentor may be that they acquire intangible benefits, such as positive emotional rewards, from the mentoring experience. Nonetheless, Bierhoff (2008) asserts that some individuals have a "prosocial personality" and are therefore more likely to engage in helping behaviours. Feeling types are characterised as fair, compassionate, empathetic, and people-orientated individuals (Briggs Myers 2000) and it may be these are dispositional characteristics that promote altruism. Previous research has indicated that

experience as a mentor is related to other-orientated empathy (Allen 2003) and that altruism is a relevant quality associated with mentors and motivation to mentor (Young 2000).

All of the thinking mentors exhibited both self-focused and other-focused reasons for mentoring (Allen et al 1997). Mentor four provided evidence of other person focus which was corroborated by the mentee when commenting "he tries to find out more about people". Nonetheless, this mentor also had a clear organisational focus: to improve communication and working relationships between the offshore and onshore working environs. Mentor three similarly identified personal and organisational factors which had encouraged her to participate as a mentor, although she also indicated that prosocial tendencies such as empathy had been a factor (Allen 2002). Both mentors therefore had a dual rationale within the mentoring relationship where there was some focus on the mentee's needs with additional attention given to organisational and personal managerial needs. This would again suggest a social and attitudinal focus in relation to mentoring (Emmerik et al 2005).

One factor which has been found to enhance willingness to take on additional organisational roles, such as mentoring, is individual organisational commitment. This refers to an employee's emotional attachment to the organisation and is an important determinant of OCB (Donaldson et al 2000; Bierhoff 2008; Hogg and Vaughan 2008). Mentors one, three and four provided evidence of OCB behaviours by indicating a desire to facilitate organisational development or to build a competent workforce. However, it was noted that where the mentoring was part of a cross-organisational scheme this commitment was driven by professional as opposed to organisational allegiance. Mentor five did not, however, demonstrate any organisational commitment, possibly due to the labour market issues in the industry in which he was employed. A number of behavioural and knowledge retention challenges have been identified within this sector (OPITO 2014). Mentor five took an industry wide perspective when it came to career development and indicated that he was willing to support career planning which was external to the organisation: "I've always said that you as an individual need to manage your career. Now that's great if it buddies up with what the organisation is trying to do, but at the end of the day it's your career." Emmerik et al (2005) noted that whilst mentors are often ambitious individuals, they are not necessarily highly committed to their organisations or likely to perform exemplary behaviours in relation to OCBs. In addition, mentor five's MBTI profile (INTP) suggests that this individual would have a preference for independence, detachment and autonomy (Briggs Myers 2000), perhaps indicating that this individual would be less likely to exhibit OCB tendencies.

One notable finding which concerned mentor five related to the moral and spiritual foundation for his involvement in mentoring: "It's just inbuilt; Protestant background. I just think it's a waste of talent and that is wrong. It's just not using the skills that God gave you to go and do something." This was

noteworthy as this type of motive is absent from Allen et al's (1997) other focus categorisation. Nonetheless this finding does support the assertion that prosocial behaviour influences mentor involvement (Gibb 1999; Bierhoff 2008; Hogg and Vaughan 2008) and that participation to mentor is not always based on professional commitments or organisational obligations. Buzzanell (2009) describes the concept of spiritual mentoring whereby the mentor enacts everyday spiritual values and therefore creates connections between oneself, others, organisations, and a higher order. It is possible, therefore, that this mentor was motivated by similar personal values and beliefs. Religious concerns have been identified as one of the reasons why people choose to engage in voluntary work (Cox 2000). Gibb (1999) suggests that communitarianism might explain prosocial behaviour in mentoring relationships and notes that some individuals will help others regardless of the reciprocal outcomes. It is possible that underlying values, responsibility, and community focus will promote mentoring behaviour. However, mentor five also indicated there were self-focused reasons for mentoring when describing the "buzz" he received from helping others: "I love it; I will sit doing it just to explain things to them." This would suggest that personal outcomes did, therefore, play a part in this mentor's decision to participate.

Mentor seven was the only participant who received remuneration for his services and whilst this was an incentive itself, there was evidence to suggest that this mentor had other motives to mentor. Firstly he believed that he was predisposed to mentoring: "Clients have, by the process of guiding me, they've seen the way I am enables them to have productive conversations for them. So if that means I am predisposed to be a little bit that way I don't know." This would indicate that the mentee perceived that he had been informally selected for the role by clients. The commercial nature of this mentor's participation as a mentor has more in common with the theoretical perspective of social exchange (Gibb 1999; Allen 2003; Chandler et al 2011). Nonetheless, he also described values, abilities, and formative experiences which had drawn him into the world of learning and development. As an ENTP, this mentor is likely to have exhibited some of the personality characteristics (extraversion and openness to experience) that Niehoff (2006) has correlated with participation as a mentor. In addition, Mentor seven implied that fit between his personal disposition and the role of mentor had provided him with job satisfaction. Thus, both other-focus and self-focused motives for mentoring were present.

The explanations given by these mentors for their willingness to mentor correspond with the categories provided by Emmerik et al (2005) and Allen et al (1997). The decision making preferences (thinking/feeling) associated with these individuals indicate that whilst the feeling types may indeed have a social and personal focus in their mentoring relationships, prosocial factors are a component that influence both thinking and feeling types' propensity to mentor. Wang et al (2009) assert that individuals learn about providing support partly through their attachment experiences in early

childhood: these experiences are linked to individual attitudes and beliefs about providing care and support for others. Nevertheless, there is some evidence to suggest that the feeling mentors had a slightly narrower focus in their rationale for mentoring. The thinking mentors described a wider range of factors which had encouraged them to participate, including the personal and organisational outcomes that would be gained. This evidence must, however, be considered with regard to the small sample size of mentors and gauged accordingly.

The outcomes generated from the mentoring relationships which involved the mentors who exhibited other-focused motives only (mentors two and six) were predominately developmental and emotional (Clutterbuck 2004), although some enabling outcomes were also delivered in dyad six. The other mentoring relationships (dyads one, three, four and five) which involved mentors with self and other-focused motives also delivered career outcomes for the mentee such as supporting the transition into a new role, raising individual organisational profiles, and developing a new career path or plan. However, mentoring relationship four also delivered proximal organisational outcomes by facilitating improved organisational communication. A possible explanation for these findings is that the dual focus of these thinking mentors facilitated a broader range of learning outcomes. Nonetheless, the outcomes derived from the relationships involving mentor seven varied across each dyad thus indicating that relationship dynamics had bearing on the learning received. All four of Clutterbuck's mentoring outcome categorisations were present within the mentee group but not within each relationship. Thus this mentor was able to facilitate career, developmental, enabling, and emotional outcomes within mentoring relationships, but the extent to which they were delivered was influenced by other factors such as relationship dynamics and behaviour.

5.3.5 Mentor Behaviours and MBTI

The mentoring literature identifies both desirable trait characteristics for mentors and the functions or behaviours that they should provide. Mentor behaviours have been classified into four different categories: coaching, counselling, guiding and networking (Clutterbuck 2004). These behaviours are typical of "developmental mentoring" (ibid) although it is recognised that not all mentoring relationships follow this pattern. The traditional US model of mentoring includes sponsoring behaviours (Kram 1985) thus bringing the total number of categories to five. However, Fowler and O'Gorman (2005) have identified eight specific mentor functions including coaching, personal and emotional guidance, advocacy, role modelling, learning facilitation, friendship, career development facilitation, and strategies and systems advice. Despite this, Smith et al (2005) note that mentors still place more importance on traits and characteristics than functions and behaviours. The behaviours exhibited by the participant mentors will now be discussed in relation to their MBTI profiles and existing mentoring research.

5.3.5.1 Direction

The findings suggest that some mentors took a more directive role than others in relation to the mentoring dyad and illustrate how the participants negotiated relationship boundaries. Evidence from dyads one, three, four and five suggest that, to some extent, the mentor led the relationship despite organisational guidance which stated otherwise. The mentor behaviours which relate to these dyads indicate that within each relationship the structure, direction and process were largely influenced by the mentor. For example, mentor one directed the relationship boundaries and meeting agenda: "I did make myself, at the end, recap and say 'right so what we've said is… dah, dah and dah. So the topics that were carried forward to the next time we meet are dah, dah and dah". Mentor three explained: "I make my sessions quite formal, not formal, structured as well". In three of these four relationships, the mentor exhibited preferences for extraversion and it is therefore possible that the active and externalised energy of these mentors subjugated their introverted mentees. Bayne (2005) suggests that introverts may feel overwhelmed or invaded by extraverts. Closer examination of the mentor preference profiles reveal that mentors one, three and four were driven, assertive, and enthusiastic individuals and therefore it is plausible that these characteristics influenced the dynamic of each relationship. In relationship five, on the other hand, the roles were reversed. The mentor was introverted whereas the mentee was extraverted. One explanation for the more directive approach of the mentor lies in the specialist nature of the mentor's INTP profile. MBTI theory suggests that individuals with this personality type can be "talkative in areas in which they are especially knowledgeable" and therefore it is possible that this mentor directed the relationship conversationally (Briggs Myers 2000). Evidence collected during interview supports this assertion: "I can blether like this quite happily, my natural domain is quite insular… I'm capable of giving it laldy for four hours but after that I don't want to see anyone for three weeks." However, mentor five also indicated that he had spent time teaching in Higher Education and it may therefore be the case that this mentor had a more didactic mentoring style. Again there is evidence to suggest this may be the case: "I love it; I will sit doing it just to explain things to them."

5.3.5.2 Structure

Another element of mentoring practice which emerged from the research data concerned the extent to which the mentors structured the mentoring process. Mentors one, two and three described how they had spent time preparing for mentoring meetings, taking notes and recapping action points. In addition, mentors one and two indicated that they had referred back to the training they had received prior to commencing the relationship. These three mentors belonged to a mentoring scheme (approach one) which had clear objectives and scheme processes to support cross-organisational mentoring. Prior studies have noted the importance of mentoring scheme design (Wanberg et al 2003; Clutterbuck 2004; O'Neill 2005) and suggest that formal mentoring programmes will vary in quality

depending on the extent to which they have been planned. Clutterbuck (2004) asserts that a formal structure is essential to provide meaning, direction and support for mentoring relationships. The findings suggest that mentors one, two and three focused on the mentoring process which had been introduced via training sessions for participants. Mentors one and two referred to doing “homework” and “re-reading the learning we had been given earlier”, thus indicating their intention to follow the given methods. Mentor three, on the other hand, was an experienced mentor and chose to intentionally pursue a formalised approach even setting “homework” for the mentee. The structured approach adopted by this mentor does however correspond with this mentor’s personality type. Type Theory suggests that individuals with ENTJ preferences are “natural leaders” who “organise people and situations to get them moving in the right direction” (Briggs Myers 2000). It is therefore plausible that these mentor behaviours were the result of personality preferences.

The influence of previous experience must also be considered. Mentor four also adopted a structured approach to mentoring but was involved in a different scheme (approach two) which was less structured than approach one. However, despite this being the mentor’s first experience of mentoring, he had previous experience which may have led to a more directive approach: “I do a lot of coaching outside; I teach skiing, I teach first aid… so I’ve done a lot of the coaching foundation stuff”. This mentor indicated that initially it had been difficult step back from the coaching role thus indicating that previous experience of instruction had influenced mentor behaviours in this relationship. This provides further support for the earlier assertion that mentor five’s teaching experience may have influenced the approach taken. However, with a small sample size, these results must be interpreted with caution. The results suggest that other mentoring approaches were influenced by the professional context in which the mentors worked. Both mentors one and two referred to reflection as a process which supported their mentoring capabilities; “I can’t help it. I can reflect on it, I do a lot of reflecting.” Nonetheless both of these mentors were employed in contexts where reflection was an inherent part of professional practice. Thus the impact of previous developmental roles and experiences on mentor behaviours may be a topic for future research.

5.3.5.3 Function

The results indicate that all of the mentors were able to facilitate learning to some extent and that in the majority of relationships the mentor provided this function. However, the breadth of mentor functions did vary across the mentoring dyads. Career development facilitation (Fowler and O’Gorman 2005) was described in only four of the mentoring relationships. Within three of those relationships the mentor had taken a more directive role. Previous studies (McDowall-Long 2004; Wanberg et al 2006) have indicated that career-orientated outcomes are more often derived from directive mentoring relationships and therefore these findings may support earlier conclusions. However, it

should be noted that the provision of career related functions may not necessarily result in career outcomes. In the one non-directive mentoring relationship which reported the presence of career functions the mentee indicated that he was keen to progress. “I’m definitely up for the mentoring to bring myself up to that sort of level or at least get towards that sort of level.” Thus the career focus within this relationship was generated by the mentee.

The dyads which reported friendship as a mentoring function either had a feeling mentor (dyads two and six) or individuals with similar type profiles (dyads seven and nine). However, where there was a lack of attraction towards the mentee in dyad one, the feeling mentor did not report friendship. The majority of mentors did, however, provide personal and emotional guidance and thus a number of mentees reported emotional outcomes derived from their mentoring relationship. Only one relationship did not report any psychosocial functions whatsoever (dyad eight) and the findings indicated that this relationship was characterised by providing the fewest mentoring functions. This mentoring dyad contained individuals with opposite MBTI learning styles (NT and SF) and the relationship was characterised by a lack of trust and openness between mentor and mentee. This supports Wanberg et al’s (2006) findings that perceived similarity between mentor and mentee facilitates psychosocial mentoring outcomes. However, in dyad six, which also contained a pairing with opposite MBTI functions, friendship did develop within the dyad. Nonetheless the findings indicate that this mentoring function was provided by a feeling mentor who commented, “There’s a part of me that wants to look after him actually.”

Marginal mentoring behaviours were present in only a few of the relationships studied. Marginal mentoring relationships have been defined as those which verge on being neither effective or ineffective due to behaviours which do not create dysfunction but do reduce the overall relationship effectiveness (Ragins et al 2000; Eby and McManus 2003). “Difficulty” was present in dyad eight’s relationship whereby the mentor had good intentions towards the mentee but there were psychosocial problems in the way they related to each other (Duck 1994; Scandura 1998; Eby et al 2000). This was also present in relationship twelve, although the findings indicate that this was apparent to the mentor only, thus indicating that the mentor was able to mitigate his view of the mentee and act professionally. In both of these relationships, the same intuitive mentor had been matched with a sensing mentee. Type Theory suggests that the most significant difference in learning style can be found between sensing and intuitive types. Sensing types can be frustrated by the intuitive focus on concepts, patterns, and metaphor, whereas intuitives can become irritated with the tendency of sensing types to focus on the present and specific details and to build carefully towards conclusions (Lewis and Margerison 1979; Briggs Myers 2000; Bayne 2005). The findings indicate that the mentor was aware of these differences to some extent and even commented that “I’m susceptible to working

my preferences, I don't feel comfortable saying it though." Feldman (1999) agrees that poor linkages between mentor and mentee can be the result of incompatible personal styles and notes how motives can be misinterpreted where dissimilarity is present. The findings indicate that in both relationships eight and twelve there were misconceptions between mentor and mentee. Despite this, neither mentee reported negative mentoring outcomes and it was the mentor who described negative personal consequences of these relationships, including feelings of inadequacy and frustration. Feldman (1999) agrees that dysfunctional relationships will inevitably have negative consequences for the mentor but suggests that betrayal and anger will be more likely outcomes given that mentors will perceive that mentees have not reciprocated adequately. The long term impact, Feldman (1999) suggests, will be unwillingness to mentor in the future. However, in this case the mentor was employed on a commercial basis to mentor these individuals and therefore there was an additional financial reason to continue the mentoring relationship.

The findings highlight additional mentor behaviours which could potentially impact on mentoring outcomes. Mentor seven conducted six mentoring relationships within the same management team and whilst the findings indicate that confidentiality boundaries had been established within most dyads, there is evidence to suggest the mentor was influenced by information provided by the team director and other managers. Sahpira-Lishchinsky (2012) highlighted the tensions between mentor autonomy and the duty to obey the people in charge within mentoring programmes. It is therefore possible that this tension may be exacerbated in professional mentoring relationships where the contract for services is authorised by those in charge. The findings indicate that mentor seven was aware of some conflict of interest: "I've found myself seeing both sides of this thing; I'm not in a happy spot here." Despite this, comments about mentees eight and twelve suggest that this mentor was influenced by other views within the organisation and that this shaped his perceptions of mentees. The mentor's willingness to accept the opinions of others may have been facilitated by the personality differences between these sensing mentees and the intuitive mentor. These were the only sensing individuals in a management group dominated by intuitives. These findings raise questions regarding the ethics of mentoring and the role of professional mentors within organisations. Few studies have been conducted in either area but given the growth of mentoring within organisations and the use of consultants (CIPD 2015) this may be a focus for future study.

The findings suggest that a number of mentors used reflection as a personal learning process within mentoring relationships. Mentors one and two indicated that they reflected upon their mentoring interactions and that this was a learning process they engaged in regularly. Both of these mentors reported SF preferences and it is noteworthy that Jung's Personality Type Matrix (Figure 7) categorises SF types as having "little or no time for personal reflection". However, these public sector mentors

were employed in contexts where reflective processes were embedded within their professions thus suggesting that this process was part of ongoing practice. Moreover, it supports Moon's (2004) assertion that reflection is a process which can be learned. Mentee twelve also referred to reflection and commented that he understood the value of "being reflective and introspective and being able to analyse things" and had observed that this process "enriched" his mentor. Mentor 7, on the other hand, viewed his reflective capabilities as part of his innate creative thinking patterns. Nonetheless, the findings indicate that some mentors were engaging in personal reflective learning although the extent to which this was shared within the dyad was unclear. Mentee eleven was the only mentee to refer to reflection thus suggesting that it was not a salient learning process for other mentees.

5.4 Individual Differences in Mentees

Of the twelve mentees participating in this study, six had a preference towards intuition and six a preference towards sensing. A similar balance was found in the breakdown of preferences between introversion and extraversion and judging and perceiving within the mentee group. There was, however, a bias towards thinking as within the sample only three participants identified feeling as a preference in their best fit profile. Once again these profiles differ from UK normative samples (Table 2) in that there are more intuitive types and fewer feeling types present. Further, they may again be influenced by organisational or occupational type. The individual preferences and motivations of the participant mentees will now be discussed in detail.

5.4.1 Motivation to Participate

The findings indicate that the majority of the mentees participated in the mentoring relationships on a voluntary basis. Clutterbuck (2004) asserts that this is an important element of mentoring scheme design if participants are to commit to and participate in the process. The majority of mentees described development-orientated reasons for participating in the mentoring initiatives. However, the mentees who volunteered to join schemes (dyads one to six) provided much more focused reasons for participation. Within this group of mentees, the majority were introverts and the findings indicate that these mentees sought opportunities to find thinking space, to discuss problems in a confidential setting, and to raise their profile within their organisation or industry. Mentee five, the only *extraverted* mentee within this group of mentees, cited career advancement as the only reason for participation in a mentoring relationship. The literature on informal mentoring relationships suggests that mentees with greater extraversion and self-esteem are more attractive to mentors (Wanberg 2002). Therefore the logical implication is that *introverted* mentees are less attractive to prospective mentors. One of the main arguments for formal mentoring is that it provides employees with equal access to a pool of mentors that might otherwise be unavailable to them (Scandura 1997; Clutterbuck

2004; Allen and O'Brien 2006). Previous studies have focused on social inclusion for specific demographic groups (Sosik and Godshalk 2000; Ragins 2001; Turban et al 2002), however formal mentoring may also provide access for individuals from less dominant social groups such as introverts. It is also worth noting that these individuals have sought an environment where they can enact their introverted preferences and thus mentoring may provide an important function for these types. Evidence suggests that the extraverted cultural norms of Western society pose specific challenges for introverts (Opt and Loffredo 2000; Cain 2012).

The mentees that participated in mentoring relationships governed by approach four agreed collectively to participate in mentoring relationships with mentor seven. The suggestion that the team become involved was first mooted at a management meeting by the business unit director who had benefitted directly from working with mentor seven. The findings suggest that despite reaching an agreement to participate, there was some scepticism. For example, despite indicating that he had been keen to participate, mentee eight said "there is an element of 'let's play along just to see if something happens'". Both mentee eight and twelve indicated that they had come round to the idea, mentee twelve commented, "The development was quite protracted, I think. So you had a long time to get used to the idea and build up understanding of it." Nonetheless, this collective approach raises the question of whether there were specific individual learning needs for each mentee and whether mentoring was required at this stage. The findings suggest that the team director had identified organisational level needs and even some specific individual needs (Stewart and Rigg 2012). However, the individual needs were shared with the mentor as opposed to mentees. Further, there is evidence to suggest that some mentees did not see a personal need for mentoring: "I hate to say it, a lot of the character traits in [Mentor] I do anyway." However, mentor seven perceived that some individuals had been reluctant to participate due to the type of support on offer. "No, this won't provide me with black and white answers; it's a waste of time." Mentee eleven described more generic motives for participation such as "I think you can always improve. I think you can always learn from people." However, the lack of focus in this relationship resulted in a perceived lack of challenge for the mentee. Subsequently, Mentor seven suggested that not all of the mentees were equally committed to the process and indicated that in some cases individual mentees had been difficult to mentor. "I find her to be honest; I find [mentee 11] difficult to mentor for no other reason actually than 'Can you help me, [mentee 11]?" The lack of attention given to individual learning needs in this approach may have therefore limited some mentoring relationships or resulted in individuals being targeted for mentoring when they perhaps did not need to be. This highlights the importance of intervention design, in particular appropriate matching processes and participant buy-in. Whilst these individuals appear to have been voluntary participants in the mentoring process, the team approach taken by this

organisation may have made some participants obliged to join in. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2011) note that professional mentors are sometimes thrust upon unwilling executives.

5.5 Relationship Dynamics

All of the mentoring relationships examined had continued for a period of six months or more and so, in terms of tenure, they could be regarded as successful. Despite this, some participants reported challenges throughout the duration of the mentoring relationship and some partnerships were relatively short-lived, albeit fruitful. In this section, the relationship dynamics between mentor and mentee will be discussed in relation to personality and type.

5.5.1 Similarity

The findings (Table 8) indicate that within the sample group half of the mentoring dyads contained individuals with the same MBTI learning and communication style. Only two dyads presented individuals with the same personality type, although analysis of the participant data has raised some issues with one mentee's profile. There were anomalies between mentee seven's observed behaviours, self-evaluation, and the mentor's perceptions of the mentee. Of the dyads which contained individuals who shared learning style, five dyads were NT learners whereas one dyad was SF. Mentor seven mentored three mentees who shared the same learning styles as the mentor.

5.5.1.1 Learning Style

The dyads which had the same learning and communication style were characterised by positive relationship descriptions and learning outcomes. In particular, the dyads which shared NT learning styles described relaxed and trusting interactions where the mentor and mentee liked one another. Mentees one, seven, nine and ten noted that they had either a similar approach to work or world view to their mentor, suggesting that some deep level similarity was recognised by mentees (Lankau et al 2005). Perceived similarity has been identified as an important mediating factor in mentoring relationships (Young 2000; Allen and Eby 2002; Wanberg et al 2003; Menges 2015). Prior studies have indicated that deep level similarity is important to both mentors and mentees whilst demographic similarity is more important to mentors (Lankau et al 2005). Nonetheless, whilst the mentee in dyad one reported similarities in approach, the mentor thought that the relationship had worked on "a very basic level" thus indicating that the mentee perceived greater similarity between the dyad than the mentor. In addition this relationship was relatively short-lived and the mentor commented, "I probably know an average amount about her, but normally I would know more about a person I have spent that amount of time with."

One possible explanation for this may lie in the fact that this dyad was participating in a cross-organisational scheme and the relationship was therefore conducted on a more formal basis. Nonetheless, the mentor also alluded to focusing more on the mentoring process and commented, "I thought 'right I've got to be structured here' because that's not my normal style.'" Type Theory proposes that working out of preference can be awkward, slow, and requires energy and concentration (Kendall et al 2006). Thus it is possible that this perceiving mentor focused attention on the mentoring process at the expense of the social relationship. However, as discussed previously, the mentor also indicated that there may have been some attraction issues in relation to the mentee and therefore it is possible that similarity in learning and communication style facilitated this relationship when attraction to the mentee was low. Further, both mentor and mentee reported positive mentoring outcomes although the mentor accredited this to the mentoring process as opposed to the mentee themselves. This reluctance, on the part of the mentor, to acknowledge the mentee's contribution to the relationship again provides some insight into the mentor's thoughts on the mentee.

Previous studies have noted that the natural attraction and desire to work together found in informal mentoring relationships cannot be replicated in formal ones (Fagenson-Eland et al 1997; Ragins and Cotton 1999; Menges 2015). However, the importance of attraction at the rapport building stage of mentoring relationships may have been over-emphasised as dyad one managed to developed a positive, albeit short and functional, relationship. Further, the findings indicate that some dyads reported positive mentoring outcomes but indicated that few commonalities had bound the dyad together. Mentor five indicated that the mentoring relationship was "purely a professional thing as opposed to a buddy thing" and explained that there were few natural connections between mentor and mentee. Mentor one also indicated that the interpersonal relationship was not the main function of the dyad, "We weren't bosom buddies but that is not what it is about." Again this finding indicates that some mentors did not see friendship as a potential outcome or function of the mentoring relationship. Indeed, mentor four was observed to laugh every time the researcher referred to the mentoring experience as a "relationship", indicating some discomfort or surprise at the term. Further, mentee three reported that the mentor had brought the relationship to a close saying, "I think you have progressed a lot in the last six meetings. I don't see any benefit in us meeting again, at this point." These closing remarks are more typical of a work scenario or association thus providing further evidence of the professional or functional approach taken by some mentors.

5.5.1.2 Attraction and Liking

Previous studies have focused on the similarity-attraction paradigm (Young 2000; Lankau et al 2005) which assumes that similarity between the mentoring dyad is likely to result in mutual liking and attraction. Dyads which are characterised by liking and attraction report greater relationship

satisfaction, fewer conflicts, and intimate and complementary interactions (Young 2000; Wanberg et al 2003). However, this perspective does not take into account the professionalism or motivation of the participants. Working relationships are formal and are frequently conducted between people who do not necessarily establish friendships or find each other psychologically attractive. There is an assumption within the literature that attraction and liking are necessary in order to facilitate relationship development and that this will have a positive impact on learning outcomes. Lankau et al (2005) suggest that formal mentors may fulfil their role regardless of whether or not they like their mentee due to a sense of duty or expectation. It is therefore possible that there has been an over emphasis on the interpersonal relationship within the field of mentoring when the actual focus for research should be the professional relationship. Few studies have focused on mentoring from a learning perspective (Allen and Eby 2003) or indeed from a HRD perspective (Hezlett and Gibson 2005). Given that this body of work stems from the study of informal mentoring relationships and has more recently been dominated by psychology researchers, it is plausible that there may be bias here. Lankau et al (2005) contend that liking may not be an important variable in formal mentoring relationships.

Nonetheless, the relationships in which the mentor and mentee reported exactly the same personality preferences (Dyad seven and nine) did develop into friendships. The mentor in dyad seven described how he had “immediately liked” the mentee and identified this mentoring relationship as “top of the top tier”. The initial attraction between mentor and mentee was, according to the mentor, facilitated by the mentor’s perception that he was sensitive and attuned to the wider world. The mentor perceived the learning outcomes generated from this relationship to be the most successful and described how valued this relationship had made him feel.

In addition, the mentor identified mentee nine, who shared his personality type, as “one of those people that I am perfectly suited to work with in the sense that she likes having quite free ranging discussions.” Again the mentor described key personal learning outcomes derived from this relationship including increased confidence and self-efficacy. Positive relational mentor benefits, like these, have been associated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Eby et al 2006) and therefore the exchange process between mentor and mentee was positive and met participant expectations (Young 2000). In both relationships the mentor and mentee perceived some level of similarity between the dyad hence mentor reports of learning and relationship quality (Allen and Eby 2003). However, demographically, these dyads lacked similarity in terms of age, profession, nationality, and gender. Whilst previous studies have indicated that demographic similarity is important to mentors, there is some recognition that deep level characteristics, such as personality, may reduce the impact of demographic differences (Lankau et al 2005). The findings support this

assertion and suggest that liking between the dyad may be facilitated by innate type similarity and the proximal individual outcomes for participants.

5.5.1.3 Differences

The majority of the introverted mentees indicated that they liked being matched with extraverted mentors and that this had served some purpose. Mentees one, three, and seven indicated that they had found their mentor easy to talk to and that this had an encouraging effect. Mentee one described how she found the mentor's "ability to start conversations and talk to people reassuring and calming" and commented, "I need that sort of personality. If we had somebody of the same personality we wouldn't get anywhere. Personally I think we would just sit there." Mentee six indicated that the first mentoring session had been daunting. Previous studies have indicated that introverts report a higher level of apprehension when asked to communicate within a group or dyad. They tend to be less relaxed when communicating which can influence the way that they are perceived (Opt and Loffreddo 2000). Thus, some introverted mentees recognised the benefit of working with mentors who were different, for example, mentee six sought a mentor who would be able to support the development of his professional network. These mentees perceived that, in this respect, there was some benefit to having a mentor who was different. Thus this finding does not support previous assertions which suggest that similarity across all dimensions of personality will be advantageous (Menges 2015). It may be that some differences are complementary as opposed to misaligned. Extraverts, for example, have been shown to be externally focused as opposed to self-focused, to be less self-conscious, and to make more eye-contact in mentoring interactions (Cuperman and Ickes 2009) thus indicating social confidence. Waters (2004) suggests that extraversion in mentors and mentees can facilitate the development of trust and communication within the mentoring relationship. Differences in terms of *introversion-extraversion* preferences may facilitate rapport building for introverted participants and therefore increase the breadth of learning outcomes for those involved. Rock and Garavan (2011) agree that compatibility within the mentoring dyad does not require absolute similarity and suggest that whilst strong dissonance will be disruptive, some differences can enhance the learning process and add value. The MBTI profiles indicate that these dyads shared the same learning and communication style (Krebs Hirsh and Kise 2011) and it is therefore possible that by meeting each other's communication needs (ibid) these dyads were able to facilitate their relationships successfully.

Within the other mentoring dyads some participants described learning which had derived from type differences between mentor and mentee. Dyads two and six described how differences between mentor and mentee had provided them with another perspective; certainly Type Theory postulates the mutual usefulness of type differences and focuses on the integration of the non-preferred functions in mid-life (Jung 1978; Briggs Myers et al 2009; Kendall et al 2006). Mentor two noted that

the mentee handled criticism differently and “doesn’t give it the same weight that I would”. This feeling mentor noted that her thinking partner took an evidence based approach and believed that “if he can evidence, if he can put evidence behind it, what are you worrying for?” This provided the mentor with an alternative way of thinking about criticism. MBTI theory postulates that individuals with a thinking preference tend to be objective and impersonal in their decision making and can create rational systems from which feeling types can benefit (Bayne 2005; Briggs Myers et al 2009). The feeling type’s need for harmony, approval, and positive interactions with others, on the other hand, may explain why this mentor described the mentee’s approach as being influential. In addition, mentee six described learning derived from an intuitive mentor who identified “opportunities” which the sensing mentee had seen as “a passing fact”. Again the type differences between this dyad give some explanation as to the mentor and mentee approaches. Intuitive types focus on future possibilities and move quickly towards conclusions whereas sensers are orientated towards present realities and focus on what is real and actual (Briggs Myers et al 2009). As a result of working with this mentor, the mentee had “pursued some things like that since.”

However, one mentor described how the mentoring process itself had facilitated learning. As discussed previously, mentor one attributed her learning to the actual process as opposed to her mentee. This perceiving mentor indicated that she had characteristics typical to this preference and described how the mentoring process had forced her to become more organised and reflective. It should be noted, however, that the learning originating from these type differences had not been planned and was therefore unrelated to the learning goals identified within each dyad. Type differences within these relationships provided a medium for incidental or non-formal learning (Eraut 2012). The MBTI literature suggests strategies for conscious type development including identifying and observing role models (Myers and Kirby 2000). However, this infers that individuals should seek out experiences in order to develop their non-preferred aspects of type, which again would suggest a planned approach. In the mentoring relationships described above, most of the learning from type occurred prior to the participants MBTI assessment. Despite this, some individuals were able to identify innate differences and learn from these perspectives. Thus there is potential for Type Theory to support and capture informal learning within mentoring relationships.

5.5.2 Conflict

The majority of the dyads which involved individuals with different learning styles produced positive mentoring outcomes; however tensions were evident in two of the relationships. The findings indicate that there were interpersonal tensions within both dyads eight and twelve. The relationship between mentor and mentee in dyad eight was characterised by lack of trust and differing values between the dyad. These individuals had opposite MBTI learning and communication styles and indicated that there

were some fundamental differences in approach between the dyad. The mentee (SF) reported that a more directive approach would have been preferable during mentoring meetings instead of the mentor “trying very hard to encourage people to think on their own two feet and bring them through and prompt them into saying the right thing”. Both members of this dyad indicated that they had been frustrated within the mentoring relationship and described difficulties characteristic of their sensing-intuition differences. The mentor (NT) commented, “It’s [mentoring] taken him very much out of the black and white world and dumped him in a completely grey world and he’s struggling with that desperately.” Type Theory indicates that the differences in the learning style preferences of this dyad were substantial; the most significant difference would be between sensing and intuition (Briggs Myers et al 2009). The sensing mentee would prefer concrete facts and specific detail which focused on present reality whereas the intuitive mentor would prefer to focus on associations and global explanations (ibid). The mentee captured this frustration when commenting, “stop asking me to think of something I don’t know, tell me what you think should be done and then I can move on.”

The differences between the dyad were exacerbated further by demographic differences in terms of occupation and background. In addition, findings suggest that the mentor’s perception of the mentee may have been influenced by the group’s director. However, according to MBTI theory, the differences between mentor and mentee in terms of their learning and communication styles were marked but could have been used constructively to enhance the learning between the dyad (Briggs Myers et al 2009). In this case the differences between this dyad also included some fundamental value differences which undermined the relationship further.

The same mentor reported relational difficulties between another sensing mentee (mentee twelve) despite the mentee being positive about the mentoring relationship. Again the mentor reported a lack of trust and liking for the mentee commenting, “he’s guarded”. Again the findings suggest that the mentor may have been influenced by other people’s perceptions of the mentee and his organisational position as a contractor. The findings suggest that the mentor doubted the mentee’s commitment to the mentoring process and misread some sensing behaviours as being obstructive. The results indicate that the criticisms levelled at the mentee were typical sensing behaviours. The mentor commented, “instead its explanations, whys and wherefores and it takes twenty minutes to say something that the content is two minutes.” Bayne (2005) describes how sensing types prefer detailed and concrete information and systematic approaches. In general those with sensing preferences will require more data and examples before being comfortable with a conclusion. The mentee gave no indication that he was aware of the mentor’s frustration, perhaps indicating a lack of interpersonal awareness on the part of the mentee. Further, the mentee also reported a range of positive mentoring outcomes which were in contrast to the mentor’s perceptions of the relationship.

The difficulties experienced between this intuitive mentor and these sensing mentees can to some extent be explained by the MBTI typology. However, making constructive use of those differences is also part of the theory underlying MBTI. There is some evidence to suggest that where difficulties presented, mentor seven sought to remedy these by changing the mentoring approach. Mentee eight commented, "Some people can think out of the box, some people just need to be told… sometimes it's just quicker to cut to the chase and get there; I think he's understanding that." Prior studies (Turban et al 2002) have suggested that differences become less important as the relationship progresses and can even be beneficial to learning over time. One of the personal learning outcomes identified by this mentor was the realisation that he perhaps needed to be as "diligent working with the black and whiters" as he "naturally would be with the grey people." This finding suggests that the mentor was aware that he was perhaps not expending the same amount of effort with these individuals. Previous literature has indicated that individual characteristics will influence the extent to which mentors and mentee engage in the mentoring process (Young 2000; Wanberg et al 2003). By making constructive use of Type Theory, mentor four was able to mediate some of the differences present in his mentoring relationship. Previous experience of MBTI profiling had helped the mentor to identify and understand his introverted mentee. "That was one of the big things for me from the Myers-Briggs and everything, was introvert-extravert side. From an offshore point of view it's one of the things we know that the quiet ones have usually got something sensible to say." This supports previous assertions that the application of Type Theory can facilitate better communication between individuals (Opt and Loffreddo 2000; Varvel et al 2004).

5.5.3 Learning Goals

The findings indicate that, within the majority of the mentoring relationships studied, the participants were aligned in their learning goal orientation. Similarity in the learning goal orientation between mentor and mentee is thought to influence the learning outcomes in mentoring relationships, particularly for the mentee (Wanberg et al 2003; Egan 2005). However, three dyads indicated that there had been some issues relating to the direction of their relationships. Data from dyads eight, eleven and twelve suggest that within these relationships at least one participant was unsure about the way ahead. One possible explanation for this finding is that these mentoring relationships were set up and governed under approach four which, as discussed in section 5.2, followed a more emergent developmental strategy.

Nonetheless, the dyads which did indicate that there were issues regarding the direction of the mentoring relationship also reported some level of dissatisfaction within the dyad. In both dyads eight and eleven the mentees indicated they were unsure about what they were trying to achieve through their mentoring relationships and that learning goals had not been set. Mentee eight commented, "I

don't know when you tick a box and say it's all worked… because we haven't set a goal." Mentee eleven indicated that mentoring meetings "ramble a bit" and lacked focus. However, where there were some relational issues with dyad eight which may have impacted on the formation of aligned learning goals; there were none within dyad eleven. Both mentor and mentee within dyad eleven reported a positive and comfortable working relationship; however the mentor indicated that he was unsure how he could help this mentee. The mentor perceived the mentee to be a very competent professional, possibly more competent than him. He stated that he felt like "a complete novice" in comparison to this mentee and remarked, "She's half my bloody age and twice my sense!"

Thus, one possible explanation for the absence for learning goals within this relationship relates to the mentor's self-efficacy in relation to this mentee. The thinking mentor felt impotent in relation to this feeling mentee when discussing team dynamics. Lack of self-belief has been identified as a mentoring behaviour which is likely to contribute towards ineffective mentoring (Hamlin and Sage 2011). The mentee perceived the lack of challenge and focus within this relationship to be the result of their similar interests in understanding people and behaviours, "Sometimes that's got a little negative to it where you're not getting pushed to consider stuff or challenge stuff that would maybe be a little outside your comfort zone."

Within mentoring relationships there will be inevitable variance in the extent to which goals are set. Clutterbuck (2004) suggests that whilst there should be some objectives guiding the mentoring relationship, these may initially be relatively vague. Nevertheless goal setting preferences within the dyad will influence the balance between formal and informal learning that occurs with each relationship and the subsequent type of learning outcomes that are derived within the dyad. Both mentees eight and eleven shared a preference for perceiving with the mentor, suggesting that a more flexible and open-ended approach would be acceptable to all (Briggs Myers 2000). This result therefore differs from MBTI theory, which suggests that individuals with perceiving preferences will find detailed plans confining and that it is individuals with judging preferences that will need more planned and orderly approaches (ibid). It is worth noting, however, that the questionnaire data for mentee eleven indicated only a slight preference towards perceiving whereas the questionnaire data for mentee eight indicated a moderate judging preference score of 29. Although these mentees identified preferences towards perceiving during the best fit process, it may be that these individuals have learned preferences towards judging and thus an inclination for more a methodical approach. Whilst MBTI questionnaire scores do not measure the extent to which someone exhibits a preference, they do indicate the confidence one can have that the categorisation is correct (Kendall et al 2006). This suggests that confidence in mentee eleven's perceiving categorisation is only slight whereas there is a moderate confidence value that mentor eight may have judging preferences.

In mentoring relationship twelve the mentor perceived that the mentee lacked commitment in the mentoring relationship and, as previously discussed, cited a number of difficulties in relating to this mentee. Despite this, the mentee indicated that there was some desire to engage with the mentoring process as he had hoped to further develop his management skills. However, the mentor maintained that the mentee was "giving absolutely nothing" to the relationship hence the unsatisfactory outcomes reported by the mentor. The findings indicate that commitment was a benchmark of success for this mentor. Whether the mentor's assessment of the mentee's behaviours was accurate is not clear given the contrasting accounts given by each participant. However, the importance of goal setting as a motivational technique is well established in the organisational behaviour and management literature (Locke 1968; Rollinson 2008; Huczynski and Buchanan 2013) and it is therefore possible that this perceived lack of commitment could be due to lack of direction or motive. This possibly indicates that the mentor's perception of the mentee was coloured by the biases discussed previously, or by misunderstanding of their type differences. Mentoring commitment has been identified as an important indicator of relationship quality (Clutterbuck 2004; Allen and Eby 2008; Hamlin and Sage 2011) and therefore it is possible that, in the absence of this, there was no drive to set learning goals.

5.5.4 Attitudes and Beliefs

The findings suggest that similarity in attitudes and belief was important to some participants. Mentor seven, for example, described difficulties in understanding some of mentee eight's moral perspectives but indicated that he had liked, and was attracted to, some mentees due to their outlook, approach to life, or ethical position. Comments relating to personal values were also apparent in the mentoring narratives, indicating that the personal integrity of their mentoring partner was important for some. Mentor six, for example, indicated liking for her mentee because, "He's diligent and really honest". Leck and Orser (2013) identified perceptions of integrity as being important in predicting the development of trust in mentoring relationships, thus providing possible insight into some of the relational difficulties experienced by participants. Other mentors indicated that competence was an important characteristic in mentees. Mentors two, three, four and seven made favourable comments regarding their mentee's capability whereas mentor five remarked positively on the mentee's work ethic. Prior studies have indicated that similarity in basic assumptions and values are important (Eby et al 2004; Poulsen 2013) albeit for both mentors and mentees. In this study, only one mentee articulated that the mentor's attitudes and beliefs were important. Whilst a number of mentees commented favourably on their mentor, they focused more on the mentor's interpersonal skills than values.

The mentoring relationship narratives illustrate the perceptions of the participants within each mentoring dyad. There is evidence to suggest that these perceptions may have been influenced by the

biases held by some individuals. The findings illustrate how a number of individuals used generalisations when discussing other people and their mentoring relationships. Mentor two, for example, referred to “touchy feely people” in her organisation and mentor four talked about “the quiet ones” in his working environment. Mentor seven gave further examples of this type of categorisation when he referred to the mind-set of technical staff such as engineers: “I know it’s not right to talk about people like this, but I do. I think that an unforeseen consequence of that convergent thinking is that somewhere hard-wired in them, a belief that there is no problem on this planet that cannot be wrestled to the ground.” The assumptions held by this mentor did not correspond with the some of the MBTI profiles of his mentees. For example, two of the technicians that he mentored (mentees seven and nine) shared an ENTP profile with the mentor and another engineer (mentee ten) shared profile similarities as an INTP. All of these mentees shared a preference for intuition with the mentor suggesting that they too had an “imaginative and verbally creative” approach (Briggs Myers 2000). Despite believing that technical staff were fundamentally different and “convergent” in their thinking, it is interesting to note that the MBTI data suggests otherwise. Further categorisations used by this mentor were evident including “black and whiters” as discussed in section 5.5.2.

This tendency to use self-identified categories to explain and compare behaviours illustrates individual “implicit personality theories” or sets of assumptions that individuals use to describe, compare, and understand people (Schneider 1973; Wilson 2014). Individuals form hypotheses about the characteristics of others based on what they perceive to be qualities that fit together. However, when faced with incomplete information they tend to hold a consistent view which is often referred to as the “logical error” (ibid). This perceptual distortion assumes that certain characteristics will always be found together and it is possible that Mentor seven’s assertions about technicians are an example of this. Psychologists have suggested that implicit personality theories are produced from generalised ideas about how other people behave or group-specific stereotypes (Srivastava et al. 2010). The results suggest that a number of mentors were employing these strategies when thinking about behaviours at work and, in some cases, discussing them within the mentoring relationship.

As discussed in the literature review, one of the concerns regarding MBTI usage in organisations centres on the perceived potential for stereotyping individual personalities (Coe 1992; Pittenger 1993; Farrington and Clark 2000). However, the findings suggest that some personality categorisation is inevitable regardless of whether or not a psychometric measure has been used. Type Theory would suggest that NT learners, such as mentors four and seven, might be susceptible to thinking in this way given their interest in developing universal theories and explanations as to why the world works the way it does (Briggs Myers 2000). However, the findings suggest that other learning types employed these strategies too. One of the aims of Type Theory is to help individuals understand and respect

others, particularly people who are perceived as different from oneself (Bayne 1991; Varvel et al 2004; Kendall et al 2009). It is suggested, therefore, that it may be possible to mitigate the impact of perceptual biases within mentoring relationships by using an established personality framework of “a priori defined mental processes” (Francis et al 2007 p. 260) at the rapport building stage. Prior studies have indicated that whilst dissimilarity is important at the rapport building stage, it becomes less important as the relationship progresses and can even be beneficial over time (Turban et al 2002; Eby et al 2004). Poulson (2013) agrees and suggests that whilst differences will require more effort from the mentor and mentee to build a trusting mentoring relationship, they will provide much greater opportunity for learning. Thus it is possible that by supporting the dyad at the rapport building stage, relationship development and learning outcomes can be enhanced.

5.5.5 Mentoring Relationship Closure

Relationship closure was discussed and felt to be significant by a number of participants who either explained how their relationship had ended or that they believed it was drawing to a close. At the time of study two of the relationships had ended and at least one partner in four of the other mentoring relationships indicated that the relationship had run its course or become less meaningful. In both relationships one and three the dyad had stopped meeting on a regular basis. In dyad one the mentoring relationship had drawn to a close after a period of nine months in which the mentor had helped the mentee to reach her learning goals. In dyad three however the mentee perceived that the relationship had ended although the mentor did not seem to. The relationship between the mentor and mentee in dyad one was both cross-organisational and functional. However, as discussed previously, there was some evidence to suggest that whilst this had been a professional relationship, there had not been a strong psychological attraction towards the mentee and this had impacted on relationship length and style. On the other hand, in mentoring relationship three there appeared to be some misunderstanding between the dyad. After addressing the mentee’s initial learning objectives, mentee three indicated that the mentor had brought the relationship to an end. However, the mentor suggested that the relationship had “fizzled out”; perhaps indicating that she had not anticipated the achievement of the initial learning goals as the relationship end. It possible that the characteristics of the individuals involved had some influence here. The extraverted nature and professional status of this mentor perhaps encouraged more compliant behaviour from the mentee. It is also possible that the approach taken had an impact. This mentoring relationship was cross-organisational and it is possible therefore that organisational and professional differences previously, mentor three took a structured and more didactic approach to mentoring which was focused on achieving the mentee’s learning goals. One of the criticisms of setting learning objectives centres on the extent to which they can stifle learning (Kayes 2005). By focusing too much on specific desired outcomes, opportunity for informal learning can be lost thus limiting the overall learning from the experience. It is possible that

by being too focused on formal learning that this relationship drew to an early close, limiting the potential for further informal learning or the identification of further learning goals. This raises the important question of the extent to which learning within mentoring relationships should be planned.

The dyads which involved participants who believed their relationship was drawing to a close cited a number of reasons for thinking so. In relationships two, eight, eleven and twelve one participant commented that the relationship had either run its course or would draw to a close unless some changes were made. In relationships eight and eleven both mentees suggested their relationship was floundering due to a lack of focus or challenge. Both mentees indicated that they would like these aspects of their relationship to change if they were to extract full value from it. It is perhaps not surprising that it was the mentoring relationships in which marginal mentoring behaviours were present that suggested some dissatisfaction which had potential to impact of relationship length. In mentoring relationship twelve, however, it was the mentor that indicated that was issues due to his perceived lack of commitment from the mentee. All of this relationships had been facilitated by mentor seven, who as an ENTP, described himself as someone who enjoyed "free ranging discussion" and was confident in his ability to "throw random lines in" and "go off at tangents and explore". Thus, more open-ended and unstructured relationships may also pose issues for some mentees.

In mentoring relationship two the mentee indicated that he was having some difficulty in drawing the relationship to a close. He commented, "one of the things that is quite important with this mentoring scheme is knowing when the time is right to actually say we've come to the end of it so let's just stop. It's very difficult." The mentor on the other hand was keen to maintain some form of contact with the mentee, possibly due to the fact that the relationship had done her "self-confidence quite a lot of good… by virtue of the fact it has continued for such a long time". The findings indicated that this mentor had been deeply affected by her previous mentoring experiences and her perceived "lack of ability around those relationships" and this had perhaps influenced her need to maintain her current relationship for as long as possible. This created a dilemma for the mentee who was struggling to address relationship closure with a mentor who he liked and respected. Within each of these mentoring dyads one individual was having difficulty addressing issues which were impacting on relationship satisfaction and cessation. The mentoring literature has advocated that scheme co-ordinators support these types of difficulties by trouble-shooting problems and offering "no-fault divorces" where needed (Clutterbuck 2004). These findings indicate that, in practice, this does not always happen. Mentor two raised this issue when she talked about her concerns about the impact of unsuccessful relationships on individuals. This has implications for practice and HRD professionals and their management of organisational mentoring.

5.6 Learning Outcomes

The findings indicate that learning outcomes were produced in all of the mentoring relationships studied but the quantity and breadth of outcomes varied across dyads. The individual and organisational learning outcomes derived from these mentoring relationships will now be discussed in relation to participant MBTI profiles and self-report data. The learning derived from these mentoring relationships will be discussed with reference to learning theory.

5.6.1 Individual Outcomes

Prior studies have demonstrated how individual mentoring outcomes can been categorised into various groupings (Kram 1985; Chao 1997; Clutterbuck 2004; Eby et al 2006; Lankau and Scandura 2007). Clutterbuck (2004) summarised the main outcome categories as development, career, enabling, and emotional outcomes. These categories apply broadly to both mentors and mentees in developmental mentoring relationships (ibid) and can be proximal or distal in nature (Wanberg et al 2003; Eby et al 2006). The reported learning outcomes of participant mentoring dyads will now be discussed in light of the mentoring relationship dynamic and learning goals of each dyad. Table 10 (section 4.7) presents a summary of the reported learning outcomes for each mentoring dyad in the sample. The findings indicate that all of the participant mentees reported positive mentoring outcomes. In dyads one to six there is evidence to suggest that most mentee learning outcomes were directly related to the relationship learning goals. Thus the learning derived from these relationship goals was planned, intentional, and formal (Malcolm et al 2003). Mentee one, for example, sought regular planned development time to question organisational practices and received direct emotional and enabling outcomes which allowed the mentee to identify strategies to solve workplace problems and find reflective space. However, there were also indirect emotional and enabling outcomes which resulted from meeting these goals, such as increased confidence and self-efficacy. The findings indicate that both formal and informal learning outcomes were received by mentees in dyads one to six. As previously discussed, in dyads seven to twelve the learning goals were less specific and more focused on group or organisational learning; a number of mentees indicated that individual learning goals had not been identified. The learning outcomes received were therefore less closely aligned to learning goals and the findings suggest that this lack of specific goal orientation limited learning in some relationships. McDowall-Long (2004) proposes that formal mentoring programmes often focus on short-term goals or organisation goals as opposed to long term learning goals. Further, previous studies (Clutterbuck 2004; Egan 2005) have indicated that learning goal orientation between mentor and mentee may influence the level of support provided and the learning outcomes for the mentee.

The mentee outcomes indicate that very few relationships generated career related outcomes. Career related outcomes, or the achievement of specific career goals, were evident in relationships three and

four only. These mentees indicated that career goals had been met in part by increasing their visibility with the organisation. Wanberg et al (2006) have indicated that there are specific mentor behaviours related to career support in mentoring relationships. Proactive mentors were found to offer more career and psychosocial mentoring. The findings indicate that mentors three and four took a more directive or proactive role within the relationship. As discussed earlier, one possible explanation for this may be related to these mentors' extraverted characteristics and the relationship dynamics with their introverted mentees. Nonetheless, some mentors with this type profile did not offer career related support within the dyad. In dyad one no career related outcomes were identified despite mentor proactivity and introversion in the mentee. This relationship existed between individuals from different organisations and it may be that the cross-organisational context of this relationship limited the career support given. In addition, this relationship was short in length, possibly due to relational issues which may have impacted on the outcomes. However, the findings do suggest that the other proactive mentor (mentor five) did focus on career development within mentoring relationship five. Whilst there were no specific career related outcomes reported by the mentee, both mentor and mentee reported that career development was discussed frequently. Although the mentee did not report achieving specific career goals, he did report enabling outcomes which involved having a self-development plan (Clutterbuck 2004). Thus these findings support Wanberg et al's (2006) conclusions. Further, enabling outcomes were reported in dyad one when the mentee indicated that she had become more assertive in her work role.

The findings indicate that the majority of mentees reported emotional or psychosocial (Kram 1985) outcomes. This was unexpected given that findings from previous studies have indicated that similarity is an important mediator of psychosocial support (Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Lankau et al 2005; Wanberg et al 2006) and because the majority of the relationships studied contained individuals with different MBTI profiles. The mentoring relationship narratives present several reports of the emotional benefits received. Mentees three, nine and eleven indicated that the mentoring relationship had been "cathartic" or "therapeutic", suggesting that the experience had powerful emotional outcomes for these individuals (Clutterbuck 2004). This was corroborated by mentors three and seven who described visible differences in mentee three and nine's appearance and demeanour. These "transformations" were noted as direct outcomes of the mentoring process by the mentors involved and were possibly due to the reconstruction of the mentee's perspective to a more dependable and justified view (Cranton 2000). One of the factors which influence the psychological perspectives that are held by different people is individual personality characteristics (ibid). Merizow (2000) refers to these characteristics as habits of mind and notes that these predispositions influence individual interpretations of experience. Mentees three and nine indicated that they were in "crisis" when they began their mentoring relationships. The findings indicate that both mentors encouraged these

mentees to think critically about their work roles. Cranton (2000) argues that educators have a role in challenging psychological habits of mind and it is therefore possible that by doing so the mentees were able to reframe their perspectives to a more positive outlook. This implies that the learning process might be enhanced if mentors and mentees are aware of their psychological predispositions.

Increased confidence, self-belief, and self-efficacy were commonly reported as outcomes of the mentoring relationship, including the impact these outcomes had on stress relief. Again, the majority of the mentees reported developmental learning outcomes with only one dyad (dyad five) indicating that these had not been achieved. One explanation for this centres on the focus or goals reported for this relationship, in that the predominant focus for mentoring related to career planning and advice. Further, this dyad reported fewer learning outcomes than most thus indicating a narrow focus for learning.

Negative outcomes were reported by mentees in three of the mentoring relationships: dyad eight reported some relational difficulties, dyad eleven reported a lack of challenge, and dyad two reported difficulty in drawing the relationship to a close. These negative outcomes or difficulties coincided with positive mentoring outcomes and are therefore more representative of marginal mentoring relationships as opposed to dysfunctional ones (Ragins 2000). Eby et al (2004) agree that it is necessary for mentor and mentee to like one another but for the mentor still to provide positive outcomes. The findings indicate that relationship dynamics did have bearing on relational difficulties; however it is likely that a combination of factors were influential here. For example, in dyad 11 both the mentoring processes and type characteristics between mentor and mentee resulted in a lack of direction and challenge within the relationship. Eby and Allen (2002) have suggest that difficulties within mentoring relationships are often due to poor dyadic fit and it is possible that this was the case within some of these relationships. Dyad eight had opposite MBTI learning style preferences and in dyad eleven the feeling mentee received little challenge from a thinking mentor when discussing work-based relationships. However, in two of the mentoring relationships, where the relationship between the dyad was described as positive, the interaction between the dyad was more complex. In relationships two and eleven the dyad indicated that whilst they liked one another, the mentee found it difficult to address issues such as lack of challenge or relationship closure with the mentor. This suggests that difficulties can also be present in mentoring relationships characterised by attraction and liking. It may also be that in these relationships it is more difficult for individuals to address issues when there is compatibility within the dyad. Not only does this have implications for mentoring co-ordinators and their mediating role within mentoring schemes (Clutterbuck 2004), it also has implications for future research given the associated costs of relationship problems.

The findings indicate that the majority of learning outcomes reported by mentees were examples of formal learning, given that this learning had been identified and planned through specific learning goals (Malcolm et al 2003). The emotional outcomes described by the mentees were often indirect outcomes which stemmed from the achievement of these learning goals. However, some of the outcomes described by mentees related to experiential (Dewey 1958; Kolb 1984) or reflective learning (Schon 1981) which had resulted from interactions within the dyad. This incidental learning is more illustrative of informal or non-formal methods (Eraut 2012; Malcolm et al 2013). One example of this was reported by mentee three, who indicated that she now took a more organised, disciplined, and "mentally structured" approach at work. It seems possible that this outcome could be due to the influence of working with an ENTJ mentor. This mentee indicated perceiving preferences and this therefore suggests an inclination towards flexibility, spontaneity, and an open-ended approach (Briggs Myers 2000). In contrast the mentor's MBTI profile would indicate a more organised and planned approach. Previous studies (Kyndt et al 2009) have indicated that "coaching others" and "being coached" create the conditions required for non-formal learning and it is therefore plausible that, given coaching shares some tools and approaches with mentoring (Clutterbuck 2007), that mentoring relationships would provide a similar function.

McDowall-Long (2004) notes that social learning processes can explain the ways in which mentors influence mentees in mentoring relationships. The mentor, acting as a role model, will influence the attitudes and behaviours of the mentee through the mechanism of social comparison (ibid). In addition, the mentor can model behaviours which the mentee can observe and emulate (Vygotsky 1978; Bandura et al 2001). Social Learning Theory (Bandura 1977) suggests that individuals will learn either deliberately or inadvertently through the influence of example, hence the possible impact of the mentor's personality type in dyad three. The mentor acts as a "competent model" who can demonstrate how activities should be performed. Further, Bandura (1977) asserts that modelling is an essential part of learning where new behaviours are required, as social learning processes will shorten the learning acquisition period more than any other means.

5.6.1.1 Mentor Outcomes

The individual mentor outcomes suggest that the majority of the mentoring relationships enabled mutual learning to take place. There were only two reports of negative mentoring outcomes for the participant mentors. However, in general, fewer outcomes and less breadth in the type of outcome were reported. One possible explanation for this relates to the primary focus of the mentoring relationship being on the mentee's learning (Poulsen 2013). Kram (1985) commented on the bias towards mentee learning within mentoring practice and it is possible that this preference still exists.

However, it may be that the nature of learning for mentors within formal mentoring relationships is fundamentally different.

Emotional and enabling outcomes were the most frequently described outcomes for mentors in the participant sample. Most of the mentors indicated that they had enjoyed the mentoring relationship and had received some personal satisfaction from the experience. In mentor seven’s case two of the mentoring experiences had been frustrating with one resulting in reported feelings of inadequacy. As previously discussed, there were rapport building issues in each of these relationships but it is noteworthy that the negative outcomes were received by the mentor as opposed to the mentee. Long (1997) has suggested that in some circumstances the mentoring relationship may be detrimental to the mentor or mentee and has identified a number of factors which may be important. Previous studies have noted submissiveness, unwillingness to learn, and performance below expectation as contributing to ineffective relationship experiences for mentors (Eby et al 2004). Further, it has been suggested that relationship difficulties have a cumulative effect and therefore dissatisfaction will increase over time (ibid). Perhaps the main difficulty in mentor seven’s case was the lack of alternatives available within this organisational approach. Mentor seven had been employed to mentor the management team and therefore relationships continued whether they were satisfying or not.

Some developmental outcomes were reported by the mentor group, perhaps indicating a more reciprocal dynamic within these specific relationships. Mentors one, two and four described new managerial, sector, or organisational knowledge which they related directly to their mentoring experience. However, these mentors were in the minority as the findings indicated that enabling and emotional outcomes were more common for this participant group. Grima et al (2012) have suggested that mentors value the personal dimension of the mentoring relationship more than the professional one and it is possible that this finding reflects that. None of the mentors reported career related outcomes and some commented specifically that their career had not benefitted from mentoring at all. Mentor three stated, “Career-wise it hasn’t developed me in any way whatsoever.”

The majority of the learning outcomes reported by mentors were unplanned. Only one mentor (mentor four) identified specific learning goals, which included developing a more empathetic approach at work. The learning received by mentors can therefore be categorised as predominantly informal as the learning processes were incidental, focused on everyday activities, and had few predetermined objectives (Malcolm et al 2003; Eraut 2004). Further, the findings indicate that mentors reported fewer learning outcomes than mentees. It is possible that this might be due to the informal nature of mentor learning. Such learning is often invisible or taken for granted and therefore learners lack awareness of their own development (Eraut 2004).

Activities like mentoring have been described as being in the middle of the formal-informal learning continuum (ibid) although the distinct differences between mentor and mentee learning have not been discussed. Whilst this may be true for mentee learning outcomes, the findings in this study indicate that the majority of the mentor learning was informal. The mentors who did report developmental outcomes indicated that social comparison or working out of type had been influential. Mentor one described how the mentoring process had helped her to become more organised whereas mentors two and four discussed the impact of working with a dissimilar mentee. It is possible therefore that by increasing participant understanding of individual differences, mentors will be able to enhance their learning. Moreover, by raising their awareness of individual differences, mentors may be more able to identify learning that has taken place, thus giving us a fuller picture of the outcomes mentors derive from these relationships. This finding, whilst preliminary, suggests that strategies to capture mentor learning are needed and may be a valuable area for further research.

5.6.2 Organisational Outcomes

Previous mentoring studies have shown that organisational mentoring outcomes stem from the individual participant outcomes (Scandura 1996; Noe et al 2002; Wanberg et al 2003). Again organisational outcomes have been categorised into groups including proximal and distal outcomes (Wanberg et al 2003). Some dyads reported proximal organisational outcomes that had been identified from the mentoring experience. For example, mentor four described improved communication and interface between working environments. Mentors one and six appreciated and felt greater commitment towards their respective organisations. The positive impact of mentoring initiatives has been well documented (Chao 1997; Young and Perrewe 2000; Eby et al 2006) and the mentoring narratives illustrate the changes mentees experienced in emotional state, self-efficacy, and confidence, which often result in increased motivation and retention for organisations (Clutterbuck 2004).

However, the findings also suggested that within some relationships there were negative outcomes for organisations. In mentoring relationship five the mentor had helped the mentee to focus more exclusively on his own career goals and aspirations. This provided the mentee with a different perspective: “What I am doing in my day to day job is not necessarily the right thing to be doing.” Subsequently the mentee reduced the number of additional tasks he had acquired within his department, thus suggesting a reduction in OCBs. Whilst this mentoring relationship was perceived by both mentor and mentee as a positive one, it had potentially negative implications for the organisation. There is an assumption with the mentoring literature that negative outcomes are the result of relationship dysfunction (Scandura 1998; Feldman 1999; Eby et al 2004). This finding suggests that negative organisational outcomes can also be derived from positive relationships. Herrbach et al

(2011) note that some mentors may encourage mentees to distance themselves from organisations rather than commit themselves to them; it is plausible that those who do not exhibit strong organisational commitment may influence others in that direction too. There is an assumption that it will be the mentor's attitude towards the organisation that will determine the extent to which this happens. Mentor five, however, was positive about the organisation and industry in which he worked but still did not demonstrate strong organisational commitment. One explanation relates to labour market factors within the Energy industry at the time of study. Skills shortages in some job areas had resulted in wage inflation and associated employee movement between organisations (OPITO 2014). However, it is also possible that these negative outcomes may be attributed to individual differences in the mentor and his more detached perspective. This is an important issue for future research if the full complexity of mentoring relationships and their impact on outcomes are to be understood.

In the relationships which were characterised by relational difficulties, the mentees did not report negative outcomes. This is in contrast to earlier findings (Feldman 1999; Eby and Allen 2002). Instead it was the mentor who reported negative consequences. As both of these relationships were conducted with a professional mentor, there were no negative outcomes for the organisation. It should be noted, however, that the mentor's perceptual biases may have had an influence here. This finding suggests that the professional mentor was able to conceal any antipathy he felt towards mentees and still provide a positive mentoring experience. Further, the findings suggest that the mentor was not identifying the learning that had taken place within these dyads, perhaps due to MBTI learning style differences with the dyad. This finding may also highlight perceptual biases within mentoring relationships and illustrates the importance of mitigating generalisations and perceptual errors through mentoring orientation sessions. Studies have suggested that mentor outcomes are important in predicting intentions to mentor in the future (Eby et al 2006) and thus this finding has implications for non-professional mentors too. This was corroborated by mentor two's early and dissatisfying mentoring experiences after which she indicated that she had considered leaving the scheme due to what she perceived as her "lack of ability around those relationships".

5.6.3 Type Dynamics and Learning Outcomes

The dynamics between the individual personality types within each mentoring dyad can be seen to have had some bearing on the learning outcomes derived from each mentoring relationship. Whilst complete type similarity within the dyad did facilitate friendship within the mentoring relationship, it perhaps had more impact on the mentor outcomes as opposed to mentee. In dyads seven and nine, where type congruence was reported, it was the mentor that reported a broader range of psychosocial outcomes. The literature (Lankau et al 2005) suggests that demographic similarity may be more important for mentors than deep-level similarity. These findings challenge that assertion. Further,

prior studies (Burke et al 1993; Ensher & Murphy 1997; Lankau et al 2005) have indicated that similarity promotes psychosocial outcomes within mentoring relationships. Whilst both these cases support these findings, other dyads that exhibited more diverse preferences between mentor and mentee reported similar outcomes.

Type similarity within the dyad did, however, facilitate relationship development, enhancing the potential for increased learning through relationship longevity. Whilst factors external to the dyad, such as scheme design and mentoring relationship type (cross-organisational), will also have impacted on relationship length, it was only in relationships where there were fundamental differences in MBTI function preferences (dyads eight, eleven and twelve) that issues existed. It is noteworthy, however, that all three of these relationships were facilitated by the same professional mentor and that in other relationships, where similar differences existed (dyads two, five and six) participants were able to use type differences constructively. It is possible that this individual mentor was indeed biased. He did after all suggest this himself. However, it may also be that the commercial nature of these relationships led to relationship continuation whereas similar relationship issues may have resulted in relationship closure in other circumstances. Nonetheless, the opportunity for learning from type differences was overlooked in these relationships thus limiting the potential individual learning outcomes for mentor and suggests that over-reliance on a single organisational mentee may be unadvisable.

Some type differences between the dyad were, however, important and were seen to facilitate relationship development for introverts. However, it was noted, as in the case of dyad one, that differences between the orientation of energy (E-I) and lifestyle (J-P) preferences between mentor and mentee may have influenced psychological attraction within the dyad. Differences in MBTI learning style also enhanced informal learning by offering an alternative model or perspective. Participants in dyads two, three, four and six commented on the impact their partner's alternative approach had on their outlook. This finding supports Turban et al's (2002) contention that differences may be beneficial within mentoring dyads but extends understanding in this area by considering the type of learning that is enhanced. The informal learning outcomes which were derived from the type differences between these mentors and mentees included enabling, developmental, and psychosocial outcomes. However, differences within type preferences also enriched formal learning within the dyad. For example, the thinking mentee two was able to develop a coaching managerial style with support from his feeling mentor.

The results show that MBTI function differences were present in six dyads within the sample group (Table 6). Within these dyads, four pairs of participants differed in one function preference whereas two pairs differed in both function preferences. The relationship dynamics between the dyads with

opposing function preferences were varied. Dyad eight, facilitated by mentor seven (NT), was characterised by a lack of trust between mentor and mentee whereas in dyad 6 the NF mentor was able to build trust and professional respect within the dyad. Both of these mentoring relationships consisted of individuals who reported different preferences on the S-N dichotomy which, in MBTI terms, is the preference pair which has "the most significant difference" on learning style (Briggs Myers 2000). It may be, therefore, that the feeling preference of mentor six helped to facilitate rapport building within dyad six despite the fundamental differences in approach between mentor and mentee. The reported learning outcomes for mentee six suggest that the mentor's intuitive-feeling preferences had mediated the mentee's learning within the dyad. However, the results also suggest that the S-N differences between mentor seven and mentee eight had created difficulties within the dyad, although notably the feeling mentee revised his initial judgement of the mentor but the thinking mentor still found this relationship more challenging. Feeling may therefore be an important mediating mentor characteristic where S-N differences are present within mentoring dyads, enabling these individuals to use type differences constructively for learning.

5.7 Chapter Summary

The aim of this chapter is to interpret and discuss the research findings in relation the research objectives, taking into consideration the implications for HRD theory and practice. The MBTI data has been reviewed against UK normative samples and explanations for the atypical type distribution within the sample have been considered. The findings suggest that there may be type preferences which are typical of individuals who become mentors. A preference for intuition was reported by the majority of mentors in this sample and is associated with mentor antecedents in other studies. A reasonable level of consistency was apparent between the participant self-report data and MBTI results thus supporting the reliability of the MBTI instrument. Introverted participants were, however, less forthcoming in interview and thus MBTI data provided insight into their individual differences.

The various approaches to mentoring, taken by the organisations studied, were distinct although developmentally focused. Each organisation had developed an approach to mentoring which addressed their organisational needs and the approaches were therefore aligned with organisational strategy. In each organisation, however, the mentoring relationships studied were categorised as traditional due to the demographic differences and perceived experience gap between the mentor and mentee. However, the findings suggest that it was the dynamics within the relationships that determined the mentoring relationship type within the sample. Feeling types sought mentoring relationships which operated on a more equitable basis and this impacted on the relationship dynamics and resultant mentoring relationship type. Further, feeling preferences were reported by the sensing mentors within the sample suggesting that feeling may be an important mentor

characteristic for non-intuitive participants. Again the literature (Johnson 2003; Waters 2004; Kiersey 2009) supports the assertion that feeling may be an important antecedent factor for mentors. However, the results suggested that thinking mentors may facilitate a broader range of learning outcomes than feeling mentors due to their broader agenda or motives for mentoring. There was also evidence to suggest that prosocial behaviour and social exchange motives were relevant to mentors regardless of their personality type characteristics.

The findings suggest that extraverted mentors took a more directive role within the mentoring relationship. However, previous experience of developing others also played a role here. All of the mentors were able to facilitate learning to some extent although career development was only facilitated by those mentors who took a more directive role. Type similarity and feeling preferences were seen to facilitate relationship development and friendship within the dyad although friendship was not seen as a mentoring function by some mentors. Introverts indicated that they liked being matched with extraverted mentors as this reduced social anxiety on their part and facilitated relationship development.

Some mentors viewed the mentoring relationship as a functional relationship and it may be that the importance of attraction and liking at the initial stage of the mentoring relationship has been over-emphasised within the mentoring literature. Similarity in learning and communication style did, however, facilitate relationship development in one relationship where attraction to the mentee was low. It is possible therefore that liking is not an important variable in formal mentoring relationships but that some degree of similarity is. However, there was evidence to suggest similarity in basic assumptions and values could mediate relationship development.

Differences were also important in the study sample. The findings suggest that type difference in the dyad enabled informal learning to take place through social comparison and role modelling. In some situations the mentoring process itself enabled informal learning. One perceiving mentor indicated that following a structured process had impacted on her work behaviours. However, some type differences created tension within dyads. Function differences hindered relationship development in some cases but were overcome when the mentor had a feeling preference. Further, these differences either hampered relationship development or facilitated learning within the dyad depending on whether the mentor was able to use type differences constructively or not.

Some mentors were using implicit personality categorisations to describe people in interview and within the mentoring relationship. In some cases stereotyping and perceptual errors were evident. Thus there may be potential for using a priori personality categorisations such as MBTI within

mentoring relationships to avoid such inaccuracies. Some of the mentoring relationships studied had already drawn to a close but the majority were ongoing. There was, however, some anxiety and confusion regarding relationship closure and how to manage this process.

The majority of the mentoring relationships provided positive learning outcomes for mentor and mentee. In the relationships which were characterised by relational difficulties mentees did not report negative outcomes and instead it was the mentor who did so. Overall, fewer outcomes were reported by mentors than mentees, although one case suggested that more mentor outcomes were received when the dyad shared personality type. Mentors predominately reported emotional and enabling outcomes although in some cases developmental outcomes were achieved. The professional mentor reported negative personal outcomes in two mentoring relationships and it may be that the commercial nature of these relationships exacerbated this due to the cumulative effect in which dissatisfaction increases over time.

The majority of the learning outcomes for mentors were derived from informal learning experiences in that the learning was incidental and unplanned. Some mentors were using the reflection to further learning received from the mentoring relationship but few were setting specific goals for their own development. Mentee learning outcomes were derived from a combination of formal and informal learning experiences due to the identification of learning goals. Mentors reported fewer learning outcomes than mentees, perhaps due to the fundamental differences in the nature of their roles. This may also be due to difficulty in identifying when informal learning had taken place.

Some proximal organisational outcomes were reported by thinking mentors, including both positive and negative ones. Some thinking mentors who described both self-focused and other-person focused reasons for mentoring were able to generate positive organisational outcomes early on in the mentoring relationship. However in one case the mentor was providing support to the mentee which was in direct contradiction to the organisation's mentoring goals. The findings suggest that this may have been due to the individual characteristics of the mentor. The implications and conclusions of the research will now be addressed in chapter eight, along with research limitations and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 6 – Conclusions and Implications

6.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the ways in which the aim and objectives of the research have been met. It will also address the implications and significance of the study for mentoring research and practice and detail the contribution to knowledge that has been made. The aim of the research was to examine critically the impact of mentor and mentee personality type, using MBTI, in workplace mentoring relationships and to generate explanatory theory which contributes to the understanding of individual learning and organisational development derived from formal mentoring relationships. This was to be achieved by addressing the following objectives:

1. To review theoretical development to date and to explore disciplinary perspectives on the role of personality type in understanding mentoring relationships, with a view to identifying how MBTI typology relates to mentoring relationship dynamics and learning outcomes.

2. To investigate the impact of individual personality differences, using the MBTI instrument, on the motivation, compatibility and reported learning outcomes of mentors and mentees

3. To evaluate the role of Type Theory in relation to formal mentoring relationships and to propose recommendations, with a view to increasing awareness in organisations, of the ways in which the MBTI instrument can be used to support mentors and mentees to work and learn more effectively together by applying the concept of personality type to mentoring relationships.

4. To develop a typology of mentoring relationships, using MBTI, to illustrate how individual differences impact on learning in the mentoring context.

These objectives were distilled into a series of research questions. These questions will now be addressed in order to meet the research objectives and to consider the practical, methodological, and theoretical implications of the study. Recommendations for the future development of formal mentoring in organisations will be considered in light of the study limitations along with suggestions for future mentoring research.

6.1 Learning from Type?

Objective one research question will be addressed in sections 6.1 and 6.2: How can knowledge of Type Theory aid the understanding of the mentor/mentee relationship?

The exploratory nature of this study has directed the manner in which the research has been conducted. The quality of the research must therefore be viewed with respect to the conventions of a qualitative methodology. This study was not designed to enable generalisation from the results but was instead created to examine the potential roles personality type could fulfil in formal mentoring relationships. Whilst theory has been generated, it will require testing to explore further the implications of the results. The research design employed a qualitative, multi-method approach which was piloted and reviewed prior to data collection. The highest ethical standards were maintained throughout the research period and in accordance with university research governance procedures.

The provenance of the study and the development of the research questions were outlined in chapter one to demonstrate the evolution of the research and the decisions made by the researcher. The perspectives of the researcher and the critical assumptions made during the analysis have been considered throughout the research process adding integrity to the interpretation of data. Data quality was further enhanced by ensuring that the researcher was qualified to administer the psychometric instrument used and through the development of systematic procedures to collect, manage, and store data. Further, the resultant data and analysis procedures have been displayed in a format that can be accessed and replicated by others. Transparency of research procedures is required if the robustness and replicability of qualitative research is to be established. The implications for the research have been reviewed in light of study limitations in order to appraise the original contribution to knowledge that has been made.

The qualitative design of the research has significance in an area dominated by quantitative studies. Mentoring research has typically pursued a psychological perspective and this has influenced the type of study undertaken in the field. A qualitative approach has enabled rich description of the distinct mentoring intervention designs employed in organisations enabling the gathering of data that is more insightful and deep in terms of understanding the mentoring relationship. Moreover, by pursuing a narrative approach, the individual relationship stories of participants have been, more thoroughly from a phenomenological perspective, rigorously synthesised and interpreted from participant views. The research has further significance in that it addresses a recognised gap in the academic literature. As indicated in the literature review, several writers have called for a more person-centric focus in mentoring research. Further, the use of psychometrics in mentoring research has been limited and typically involved the use of the NEO PI-R instrument to identify “Big Five” characteristics. Whilst this

approach is robust given the comprehensive scope of "Big Five" personality classification, it is limited because the NEO PI-R psychometric test is not as accessible to organisations as it is in academia. The significance of using the MBTI instrument to examine personality dynamics in mentoring relationships relates to data which indicate that MBTI is commonly used in organisations. The instrument is therefore more accessible to those responsible for the design and management of formal mentoring initiatives and as such has practical utility.

6.2 The Role of Personality Type in Mentoring Relationships

The first area of study focused on the role of personality type and the MBTI instrument in formal mentoring relationships. The findings have illustrated how individuals will and do use implicit personality categorisations when talking and thinking about others. This challenges assertions in the academic literature regarding the potential for stereotyping when using MBTI. One potential role for personality type and the MBTI instrument in formal mentoring initiatives must be to mitigate perceptual errors derived from implicit categorisation. By using an established personality framework professional relationships, including mentoring relationships, can be discussed and managed using universal categories and common understanding.

The study findings have supported the validity of the MBTI instrument through the MBTI results and the corresponding self-report data collected via interview. However, the findings indicated that consistency between self-evaluated type and best fit type was less reliable within the mentor group, possibly due to personality type development. This finding supports the role of the questionnaire in the MBTI assessment process as it was by using these results in conjunction with self-evaluation data that the mentors were able to identify their best fit type. The questionnaire, therefore, does have a role to play in mitigating some of the issues connected with self-report data and in supporting experienced learners to distinguish between innate preferences and learned behaviours.

The findings also illustrate how some individuals use a process of social comparison to learn informally from their mentoring partner. It is therefore suggested that this process could be enhanced by developing an awareness of type within mentoring dyads. However, it was noted that some individuals did not use comparison within the dyad or did not recognise informal learning if they were doing so. The findings suggested that, whilst opposite MBTI learning styles can be problematic within mentoring dyads; they can also be used constructively to enhance informal learning. Understanding Type Theory may therefore encourage social comparison and raise awareness of informal learning derived from mentoring relationships enabling participants to capture, articulate, and understand what they have

learned. Organisations should therefore facilitate the understanding of Type differences among their employee groups.

6.3 MBTI Typology and Mentoring Relationship Dynamics

Objective Two Research Questions to be addressed in 6.3 – 6.3.2: Which individual differences, in terms of personality type, facilitate/moderate mentoring relationships?

MBTI typology provided insight into a several aspects of formal mentoring relationship dynamics including motivation, compatibility, and learning. The results indicate that dynamics between the mentor and mentee, and their perceptions of one another, determine the type of mentoring relationship which existed, as opposed to the scheme design or demographic categories employed by the organisation. The results indicated that feeling types sought greater equity within the mentoring dyad and were therefore influential in determining mentoring relationship type. However, the organisation's cultural context could be seen to influence the individual perceptions of some mentoring partners and therefore had a bearing on relationship dynamics.

The findings suggested that personality characteristics were influential in determining the interpersonal balance within the dyad and may therefore have impacted on individual outcomes. This could be seen in the more directive dynamics between some extraverted mentors and introverted mentees; though there was some evidence to suggest that feeling preferences could mitigate the effect of this dynamic. Extraverted mentors took a more directive role in the sample relationships and this impacted on the provision of career outcomes. As discussed in the literature review, best practice has suggested that developmental mentoring relationships should be mentee led. However, this may not be the case in reality as personality dynamics within the dyad will tend to determine who the more dominant partner is. The findings suggest that mentoring style may be influenced by type characteristics but also by previous experience in developmental roles.

The data indicated that introverted mentees liked being paired with extraverted mentors as this facilitated rapport building between dyads and alleviated social anxiety on the part of the mentee. There was a lack of data pertaining to introverted mentors matched with extraverted mentees and thus it would be worthwhile exploring the converse situation. It is, however, possible that matching introverted mentees with extraverted mentors will facilitate relationship development within these dyads, although it may challenge assertions that the relationship should be mentee led. In addition there was some evidence to suggest that introverted mentees were less candid within their dyads. It is therefore suggested that MBTI information may provide insight into introverted personalities thus acting as a shortcut to character information which may aid rapport building in these relationships.

6.3.1 Individual Differences and Motivation

Within the study sample the majority of mentors exhibited intuitive preferences. This was is contrast to the UK normative sample of MBTI preferences which indicates that intuitive types are comparatively rare in the adult population. The literature supports the contention that intuitive preferences may be linked with an individual's propensity to mentor. Moreover, in the sample group, where mentors did not report intuitive preferences, they did indicate a preference towards feeling. Again the literature supports the likelihood that feeling preferences may be indicative of individuals who are motivated to mentor. This supports the premise that certain types of individuals are attracted towards developmental activities. Thus NF preferences may be important antecedent factors for those who are motivated to become mentors.

There was evidence to suggest that whilst feeling mentors were other-person focused in their mentoring relationships they perhaps overlooked other needs. Thinking mentors, it would seem, had a broader focus within their mentoring relationships, including self-focused and organisational motives. This subsequently generated a broader range of learning opportunities within the dyad. Nonetheless, there was some evidence to suggest that, where there was a lack of attraction to the mentee, feeling mentors may have also adopted a broader focus within the relationship.

Extraverted mentors adopted a more directive role within the mentoring relationships studied. However, previous experience of teaching or coaching also had an influence here. This was important as it was these extraverted mentors that facilitated career outcomes for mentees. In addition, there was evidence to suggest that introverted mentees sought out mentoring relationships in order to enact their introverted preferences. Again this may be important given Western cultural norms and the subsequent challenges faced by introverts in organisations.

The conclusions find that some personality types may be unlikely to exhibit OCBs or have an organisational focus due to their predilection for detachment and autonomy. This has implications for organisations and mentoring co-ordinators in terms of the alignment between mentors and organisational objectives. Further, the influence of professional or ethical allegiances may be of importance in determining mentor participation and highlights an avenue for potential future research.

6.3.2 Individual Differences and Compatibility

Whilst the results indicate that compatibility in mentoring relationships does not require absolute similarity, they also suggest that similarity in some domains does not guarantee attraction and liking.

Complete type similarity did however facilitate friendship within the sample and generated reports of relationship quality. Nonetheless, some mentors indicated that they did not see friendship as a function of the mentoring relationship and adopted a more pragmatic approach. It was noted however that friendship did appear to be offered by feeling mentors except when there was a lack of attraction between the dyad.

Mentors who took a more functional approach to their mentoring relationships still managed to develop positive relationships and outcomes with their mentees. These relationships, which were characterised by function as opposed to attraction, friendship, and liking, raised questions about the way in which mentoring relationships have been previously viewed. As noted in the literature review, mentoring research has typically been driven from a psychological perspective which has placed importance on similarity, rapport, and attraction between the dyad. This may have been influenced by the progression of mentoring research which originated from studies on informal mentoring and advanced to the study of formal relationships. It is possible therefore that some of the assumptions regarding relationships which are implicit in informal studies have been replicated in formal mentoring studies. Perhaps, therefore, it is time to review the formal mentoring literature and to categorise it as a distinct body of knowledge. It may be that formal mentoring is a function as opposed to a psychological relationship and will have more in common with other professional work practices and relationships. Thus, it may be time to reposition the focus of mentoring research to professional learning and HRD or at least to translate the implications into other domains.

Dyads with the same MBTI learning and communication style reported positive mentoring experiences and outcomes. However, this was not exclusive as some participants with opposite preferences also reported positive mentoring encounters. Some mentoring dyads were able to use individual differences constructively to enhance informal learning within the dyad and it is suggested that by developing understanding of Type Theory this learning may be enhanced further. Through a process of social comparison and role modelling some mentors and mentees were able to identify different approaches and outlooks that would enhance their own working practices. However, not all of the dyads with different function preferences were able to do this.

The findings suggest that a number of participants found it difficult to address issues within mentoring relationships, including relationship closure. This was evident in both relationships which were characterised by liking and trust and in those relationships which were more complex. In some mentoring dyads the mentor and mentee appeared to have different perceptions of the mentoring relationship, the mentee believing that the relationship was drawing to a close while the mentor was oblivious. However, in one very structured relationship discontinuation of mentoring meetings was

addressed once the learning goals had been met. Again there were different perceptions within the dyad though, with the mentor viewing the situation as a temporary hiatus and the mentee seeing it as final. The results suggested that mentoring relationship closure can have long lasting effects on mentor self-efficacy, possibly more so if the mentor had feeling sensibilities. Nonetheless, despite these difficulties, none of the participants indicated that organisational support was available to mediate these problems. Some of the issues within the mentoring dyads had not been addressed due to reluctance on the part of the mentor, even though the issues had potential ethical implications for the organisation. These conclusions have implications for the management of mentoring schemes and relationships.

There is evidence to suggest that some mentoring relationships were more challenging than others. Dissimilarity between sensing and intuitive preferences could be problematic although in some cases these relationships were mediated by feeling preferences present within the dyad. Cultural norms may also be important in determining the value placed on certain personality characteristics within organisations, thus influencing positive or negative perceptions of work colleagues. Organisational approach and culture will impact upon relationship commitment through the implicit incentives they provide to those involved, whether they are mentors or mentees. It is therefore possible that marginal or even negative mentoring relationships may continue if there is a financial or other incentive to do so.

Type differences facilitated informal learning in some dyads. The majority of mentor outcomes were derived from informal learning and it therefore suggested that MBTI can be used constructively to further enhance this learning and support rapport building within dyads. By raising awareness of Type Theory, mentors and mentees can be helped to identify individual differences and learn from them through a process of social comparison. This process may enable individuals to identify and capture informal learning derived from mentoring experiences, giving individuals and organisations a more accurate assessment of formal mentoring interventions. This may not only be beneficial in terms of mentoring evaluation but may also have the added benefit of attracting prospective mentors and mentees to partake in mentoring.

6.3.3 MBTI and Learning Outcomes

Objective 2 research questions to be addressed in section 6.3.3: How do individual differences impact on mentor and mentee learning within mentoring relationships?

The learning outcomes generated by thinking mentors were broader in range due to the mentor's multiple foci within the mentoring relationship. There was evidence to suggest that feeling mentors were mentee focused but less self-focused or concerned with organisational development. Whilst the majority of mentors described motives for participating as a mentor, they had not identified specific personal learning goals and therefore the majority of the learning that mentors derived from their relationships was unplanned and incidental. Mentees on the other hand had been encouraged to set learning goals and therefore the learning outcomes described by these individuals consisted of both formal and informal learning outcomes.

Career learning outcomes stemmed from mentoring relationships where the mentor was more directive. Direction within the mentoring relationship was affected by the personality dynamics within the dyad. Psychosocial learning outcomes were generated within dyads where there was some similarity in MBTI learning style. Where there was no similarity, psychosocial outcomes were still delivered if the mentor had preferences towards feeling. Where there was no similarity in learning style between the dyad, and where the mentor exhibited thinking preferences, no psychosocial outcomes were present. It is therefore possible that both similarity and mentor feeling preferences facilitate psychosocial mentoring.

A number of mentors did not view friendship as a function of mentoring relationships and instead took a more pragmatic approach to the mentoring task. These mentors took a professional or functional approach to the mentoring relationships thus suggesting that attraction and liking may be less important in some relationships if the professionalism of the participants is high. This finding challenges extant mentoring literature which has placed a great deal of importance on the psychology of the mentoring relationship. Findings suggest that positive outcomes could also be derived from marginal mentoring relationships if the level of professionalism within the dyad was high. Although these experiences were characterised by a lack of trust and attraction between the dyad, the interpersonal differences between each duo allowed for informal learning to take place. It should be noted that this was more the case for the mentee than the mentor. Furthermore, difficulties and marginal outcomes were present in one seemingly positive relationship where both the mentor and mentee described mutual liking and psychological attraction. The reported learning outcomes within the dyad were limited due to the mentor's lack of self-efficacy around this particular mentee and the subsequent lack of challenge offered.

The findings suggest that goal setting preferences will influence the balance between formal and informal learning in mentoring relationships and that scheme design may have some bearing on how structured the mentoring process is within each dyad. In one case the structured nature of mentoring

process itself was seen to facilitate informal learning. However, other relationships could be limited if there was too much focus on planned learning as opportunities for informal learning were missed.

6.4 Using MBTI in Formal Mentoring Interventions

Research questions 4 to be addressed in section 6.4: How can knowledge of personality type assist mentors and mentees to maximise their learning within mentoring relationships?

The findings have indicated that personality type differences may enhance informal learning in mentoring relationships. The majority of mentor learning in this sample was informal; there is therefore potential for MBTI type differences to be used to enhance learning within this group. However, some mentee learning was informal too thus indicating that the MBTI typology could support learning for both groups. The findings suggest that, within the mentoring relationship, informal learning was developed through the processes of social comparison and role modelling. Further reflection on the part of the learner had enabled mentors and mentees to learn from the individual differences within the dyad. Understanding Type Theory may help individuals to reflect upon different personality types and the professional approaches they employ. This increased awareness may enable individuals to recognise, capture, and articulate informal learning outcomes in mentoring relationships.

The MBTI typology may also support processes associated with formal mentoring schemes such as matching participants. Within the dyad, however, knowledge of MBTI personality types may enhance rapport building, particularly for introverted participants. The research indicated that some introverted participants were not forthcoming within the dyad and it is suggested therefore that the MBTI typology may provide mentors with a shorthand guide to some mentee personality types at the rapport building stage. Not only will this enable better communication, it may also mediate relationship length thus enhancing the likelihood of learning outcomes. Further, MBTI profiling may mitigate the likelihood of mentors or mentees using implicit personality categorisations when paired with an introverted partner, thus reducing the possibility of stereotyping or error.

6.5 The Mentoring Context

Objective three research questions to be addressed in section 6.5: How do (participant) organisations support and manage formal mentoring and to what extent do these processes affect individual mentoring relationships?

This research delivered further data which is of interest within the study of mentoring relationships. Due to the inductive nature of the research process and the emergent themes derived from the analysis, conclusions relating to mentoring scheme design and mentoring ethics have been drawn.

Firstly, the findings have illustrated the impact scheme design and structure has on individual mentoring relationships. The interaction between scheme structure and personality type has suggested that different mentoring scheme designs and approaches will be effective for some individual dyads and less so in other cases. The findings indicated that a structured approach could be beneficial for some personality types as it may provide opportunities for informal learning if they are working out of type. However, in other cases a structured approach may be restricting and limit informal learning. This suggests that there will be dynamics between the mentoring structures employed by organisations and individual mentoring dyads. Some mentoring approaches may be more supportive to some dyads than others even within the same organisation. This has implications for mentoring scheme design.

Whilst the approaches used by the participant organisations were varied and distinct, they were to some extent aligned with broader organisational strategies. Despite this there was evidence to suggest that there could be discrepancies between the approach taken within an individual dyad and the organisation's goals. Again this has implications for organisations in terms of mentor selection and the guidance they provide for participants. However, further issues were evident within the data suggesting that mentoring relationships are ethically complex. Participants indicated that some sensitive topics were difficult to address within mentoring relationships and the research indicated that there was a reluctance to address some moral issues and relationship closure or problems. Once again this has implications for organisations in terms of avoiding unnecessary costs and the management of mentoring initiatives.

The study provides insight into professional mentoring and highlighted some of the conflicts of interest present in the commercial nature of this mentoring role. A lack of information pertaining to professional mentors was noted within the mentoring literature and therefore this study has highlighted some of the complexities of this role. The findings suggest that some relationships with professional mentors may continue despite difficulties within the dyad and that there may be a conflict of interest between the mentor's reporting duties and role. This may be an important area for future research.

6.6 A Typology of Mentoring Relationships

Objective four research questions to be addressed in section 6.6: How can the MBTI instrument be used to support mentors and mentees in managing and sustaining mentoring relationships?

Research objective four sought to develop a typology of mentoring relationships, using MBTI, to illustrate how individual differences impact on learning in the mentoring context. Whilst the finding of

this study did not allow for a detailed typology of each personality type to be established there was sufficient information available to collate some of the research findings into a framework which may support matching processes and decisions made within formal mentoring schemes. The resultant typology is displayed in Figure 25.

The typology presents the findings derived from the twelve mentoring dyads studied in this research. The mentor characteristics are presented in the left hand side of the typology and include specific characteristics which are possibly associated with each preference such as “providing friendship function” for feeling mentors. The areas shaded orange highlight potential areas for future research such as sensing mentors (the sample did not contain data relating to these types). On the right hand side mentee characteristics are presented and again summarise the research findings. The middle column highlights some of the possible dynamic relationship patterns between mentor and mentee types.

The typology should be read from left to right starting with the mentor type characteristics on the left. Next to each MBTI preference the key characteristics of the mentors are presented and these should be compared to the MBTI preferences and characteristics of the mentees on the right hand side of the diagram. The middle section of the typology presents the relationship dynamics between the different preference pairings. Arrows have been included to illustrate the type dynamics between different mentor and mentee pairings and where applicable additional labels have been included to highlight other dynamics which may have bearing on these preferences pairings. The information presented is theoretical at this stage and further observations and supporting results will therefore be required to strengthen the validity of the typology (Baker and Foy 2012).

MBTI	MENTOR	Dynamics	MENTEE	MBTI
E	• Liked by *introverted* mentees • Directive: facilitates career outcomes		• Attractive to mentors	**E**
I	Area for future research		• Likes *extraverted* mentors: relieves social anxiety and facilitates relationship development • Seeks mentoring relationship to enact *introverted* preferences	**I**
N	• Attracted to mentoring • Potential difficulties with sensing partners OR opportunity for informal learning using type constructively		• Attractive to mentors	**N**
S	Area for future research		• Potential differences with N mentor OR opportunity for informal learning using type constructively	**S**
F	• Attracted to mentoring • Provides friendship function • Seeks relationship equity • Other-person focused	Feeling can mediate relationship development between *thinking* mentors and *sensing* mentees	• Seeks relationship equity with mentor • May offer informal learning opportunities for *thinking* mentors	**F**
T	• Broad mentoring focus: offers broad learning opportunities		• May offer informal learning opportunities for *feeling* mentors	**T**
J		Judging-perceiving differences: opportunity for informal learning		**J**
P		Scheme design and structure may offer further opportunity for informal learning		**P**

SIMILARITY CAN SUPPORT RELATIONSHIP DEVELOPMENT

WORKING OUT OF PREFERENCE CAN FACILITATE DEVELOPMENT

Fiigure 25: A Typology of Mentoring Relationships (Source: Author)

6.7 Original Contribution to Knowledge

In order to establish this study's original contribution to knowledge it is necessary to identify the theoretical, methodological, and practical contribution of the research. The unique element of the research will lie between the research conclusions and the extant literature. Various bodies of literature have been examined in order to contextualise this study including works from the fields of mentoring, organisational behaviour, and HRD. It is therefore necessary to review the research conclusions in light of these sources in order to identify the contribution this study has made.

The aim of the research was to examine critically the impact of mentor and mentee personality type, using MBTI, in workplace mentoring relationships and to generate explanatory theory which contributes to the understanding of individual learning and organisational development derived from formal mentoring relationships. From the outset this approach was novel due to the lack of psychometric data pertaining to mentoring relationships. Thus, the research has extended understanding of individual differences and learning within mentoring relationships. Further, the research has contributed to knowledge by drawing theory from one field into another. In order to establish the contribution to knowledge it is necessary to look in more detail at the research findings in the context of existing literature.

6.7.1 Theoretical Contribution

One of the most important conclusions drawn from the research relates to the role of mentoring relationship dynamics in determining mentoring relationship type. The existing literature (Ensher et al 2001; Clutterbuck 2004) has typically categorised mentoring relationships according to the demographic characteristics between mentor and mentee. However, this study has demonstrated that there are individual differences which will influence the type of relationship that exists between the mentoring dyad. Whilst this is not a new concept in the field of organisational behaviour (Nelson and Quick 2013; Rollinson 2008), it is a perspective which has been overlooked within the mentoring literature. Both academics and practitioners appear to assume that organisational seniority will be indicative of greater experience or knowledge; this study has demonstrated that this may not always be the case. In addition this study has indicated that some personality type preferences will impact on the relationship dynamic in these relationships so that they operate on a more equitable, peer or even reverse basis despite the perceived differences in professional experience. This highlights the complexity of mentoring interactions and raises questions about the value of demographic categorisations.

The research finds that intuitive and feeling types may be drawn to the role of mentor in organisations. Whilst researchers have used other personality categorisations to identify personality antecedents in

mentoring relationships (Waters 2004; Bozionelos 2004), the MBTI typology has not been exploited in this field. MBTI can be used as a research instrument but it is also one of the most widely used psychometric tools in organisations. By using this instrument an essential link has been established between theory and practice. The conclusions drawn from this study, which pertain to the impact of individual type characteristics on mentoring dynamics and outcomes, can therefore have immediate practical utility in organisations. Further, a typology of mentoring dynamics has been produced to assist the matching of mentors and mentees but which can also guide future MBTI research in the area.

Another important conclusion originating from this study relates to the development of mentoring knowledge and its related field of study. Analysis of the research data has suggested that psychological attraction may not be important in formal mentoring relationships. A number of mentors described a functional approach to mentoring and did not consider friendship to be part of the formal mentoring process. Further, positive mentoring outcomes were derived from relationships where there was no attraction and liking whereas some negative outcomes were present in relationships where there was attraction and liking. These findings challenge the existing literature which has taken a psychological perspective and applied social relationship constructs to understand the formal mentoring process. Some researchers have inferred that they do this to replicate the reported greater success of informal mentoring relationships (Gayle Baugh and Fagenson-Eland 2007). However, this study has approached the mentoring phenomenon from a HRD and Organisational Behaviour perspective and in doing so has applied a different set of assumptions, including a more pragmatic perspective on working relationships. The conclusions indicate, therefore, that the psychological assumptions inherent in the mentoring literature may be misleading. Whilst in recent years it has been recognised that there are fundamental differences between informal and formal relationship types, only one study (Lankau et al 2005) has suggested that attraction may not be important in the latter. This raises questions about the foundation of mentoring research and highlights the need to examine the construct from a broader social science perspective. Further, the conclusions suggest that formal mentoring relationships should be distinguished from informal mentoring relationships and recognised as having characteristics similar to any other working relationship.

The conclusions have indicated that MBTI typology will have value in supporting informal learning within formal mentoring relationships. The results show that informal learning within the dyad often stemmed from social comparison and thus the individual differences between mentor and mentee provided a medium for learning in the workplace. It is suggested that informal learning can be enhanced and identified by supporting understanding of individual differences.

In addition, by using the formal-informal learning categorisation, differences between mentor and mentee learning have been identified. Again, there has been little attention paid to the application of educational or HRD perspectives in mentoring research. However, by using these alternative frameworks to think about formal mentoring and its outcomes, it has been possible to generate new perspectives on mentoring. The literature suggests that mentoring lies in the middle of the informal-formal learning continuum (Eraut 2004). However, this study illustrates how the balance can be quite different for mentors and mentees. The study has shown how mentor learning is predominately informal and will therefore be difficult to identify and capture (Eraut 2004). Whilst it is recognised that mentor learning does not need to be informal, this finding highlights the need to provide more recognition of and support to mentor learning potential. The identification of informal learning however will be important if individuals are to understand the personal benefits of becoming a mentor and if organisations are to recognise the value of facilitated mentoring. This will have implications for the training of mentors and for supporting learning within formal dyads.

A further research contribution relates to the role of psychometrics in formal mentoring interventions. The study conclusions highlight the value of using MBTI typology to support rapport building in the early stages of mentoring relationships. They also reveal some of the possible relationship dynamics between individuals with different personality preferences which can be taken into consideration when matching mentors and mentees. In addition the research has drawn attention to some of the ethical dilemmas which occur within mentoring dyads and may contest organisational goals and expectations. The research has therefore raised questions for HRD practitioners around mentor suitability, mentor ethics and responsibilities, and the subtleties between organisational development and personal development in mentoring initiatives.

6.7.2 Methodological Contribution

This study has also made an original contribution to mentoring research methodology. As explained in chapter five, the field of mentoring research has been dominated by quantitative designs. The qualitative nature of this study has therefore enabled more in depth study which has shed light on the diverse approaches to mentoring utilised in three different organisations. In addition, this approach has provided insight into the interaction between several variables in mentoring relationships and allowed for a more holistic narrative to be formed. This has been achieved through the development of a new analysis framework for mentoring interactions which was created using AT tenants. This approach supported the immediate collation, categorisation, and interrogation of data from multiple sources. Further, by examining the interactions between the categories, it was possible to reveal tensions between individual differences, mentoring functions and approaches, scheme characteristics,

and features of the organisational context. This holistic analysis technique may be beneficial in future qualitative mentoring research given the number of variables that need to be addressed.

In addition, this research has taken a person-centric approach to the study of mentoring dyads, thus responding to calls for research on individual differences in mentoring relationships (Haggard et al 2011). This has been achieved by applying a new psychometric approach in the field of mentoring: MBTI. The conclusions suggest MBTI is a suitably robust and insightful research tool for future mentoring studies. The research conclusions support the validity of the MBTI instrument both in terms of its relationship with other personality measures and through the triangulation of the MBTI results with self-report data. A further advantage of this approach rests on the dual function MBTI may have as a research tool and psychometric instrument thus providing an essential link between research and practice.

6.8. Recommendations

A number of recommendations have arisen from this study and consist of implications for HRD practice and suggestions for future research. It is hoped that these recommendations will enhance formal mentoring practice and research by providing potential guidance for those with responsibility for formal mentoring in organisations.

6.8.1 Implications for HRD practice

The recommendations for HRD practice include implications for mentoring intervention design, the matching and orientation of participants, suggestions to enhance learning in formal mentoring relationships, and the role of the HRD practitioner. Below is a summary of the main practical implications of this study.

6.8.1.1. Mentoring Intervention Design

It is recommended that those responsible for formal mentoring in organisations should provide guidance for mentoring relationships which address role and ethical expectations. Ongoing informal evaluation should support alignment between organisational and individual learning goals. It is recommended that scheme design should avoid prescription, where the mentoring process is concerned, and incorporate approaches to informal learning in scheme design. This will enable participants to plan for some learning outcomes but also to recognise and value informal learning which may be derived from interaction within the dyad. In addition, more emphasis should be placed on mentor learning within formal mentoring schemes. Strategies to facilitate informal learning for mentors should be developed. Mentors should be encouraged to set personal learning goals so that they too can achieve a balance of formal and informal learning outcomes. By renewing the focus on

mentoring learning, both individuals and organisations will benefit in terms of outcomes. This may also encourage wider participation in formal mentoring initiatives.

6.8.1.2 The Matching Process

It is recommended that practitioners broaden matching criteria for formal mentoring relationships to include MBTI psychometric information. However both matching and differing should be taken into consideration during the relationship facilitation process if formal and informal learning is to be maximised. Some type similarity will facilitate relationship development but mediated differences will increase learning. In addition, introverted mentees will benefit from being matched with extraverted mentors as this will alleviate social anxiety and facilitate relationship development, enabling learning to take place.

Feeling mentors may have value in particular mentoring situations such as induction and graduate development when friendship and belonging are important. It is recommended that mentors with feeling type preferences are also considered to facilitate learning when there are substantial differences within the dyad such as sensing-intuitive preferences.

It is recommended that matching criteria are considered when facilitating formal mentoring between employees and professional mentors or consultants. Organisations should consider using a range of strategies and resources to facilitate formal mentoring but be mindful of the individual differences which impact on learning in mentoring relationships.

6.8.1.3 Enhancing Learning in Formal Mentoring Relationships

It is recommended that organisations consider using Type Theory to enhance understanding of individual differences in formal mentoring interventions. Awareness of differences using a priori personality categorisations will lessen perceptual errors within mentoring relationships thus enhancing rapport and relationship satisfaction. In addition, understanding of type will support social comparison within the dyad, thus enhancing informal learning from individual differences.

It is recommended that, during orientation training for mentors and mentees, strategies to capture informal learning are introduced. It is proposed that mentor training in particular should include reflective learning processes to help participants identify and capture their personal learning outcomes. However, it is recommended that strategies to facilitate mentor learning should address both formal and informal aspects. Thus, it is suggested that mentors are also advised to formulate specific learning expectations for the mentoring relationship.

6.8.1.4 The Role of the HRD Practitioner

It is recommended that HRD practitioners who are responsible for formal mentoring in organisations consider type similarity and difference when matching mentors with mentees. This will require practitioners to have appropriate knowledge of participating staff and individual differences. In addition, it is suggested that the role of mentoring scheme co-ordination moves from being a largely facilitative role to a meditative one. This meditative role should include more emphasis on supporting the development, openness, dialogue, empathy and agreement within the dyad to allow participants to learn from the innate differences between mentor and mentee. It is suggested that scheme co-ordinators should be selected on the basis of their staff knowledge and people management skills, as well as their ability to mediate relationship difficulties and support mentoring relationship closure. Roles should develop to incorporate the mediation of relationships as well as the facilitation of mentoring processes given the value of type differences in developmental relationships.

6.8.2 Suggestions for Future Research

The research has raised a number of questions but has also highlighted areas where more data is required before conclusions can be drawn. Firstly, this study provided an interesting foray into professional mentoring relationships. However, there was an apparent lack of literature pertaining to HRD consultants who take on the role of mentor. The research highlighted the complexity of this role and illustrated how conflicts of interest can arise as consultants try to balance organisational goals with personal learning needs in mentoring relationships. Further, the research raised questions regarding the perception of these mentors in organisations, potential relationship constraints, and the efficacy of using the same consultant to mentor numerous employees in one organisation. Thus, it is suggested that the role of professional mentors and mentoring consultants should be a topic for future research.

An additional suggestion for future research concerns MBTI types that were absent from the sample. It is suggested that mentoring relationships which contain sensing or introverted mentors are studied to identify if these personality factors influence the mentoring function, dynamics, or learning outcomes.

Further, it is suggested that additional research using MBTI is undertaken in order to populate the "Typology of Mentoring Relationships" further. This will provided robust information to support matching processes in organisational mentoring initiatives.

In addition, strategies to enhance mentor learning within formal mentoring relationships should be explored in order to aid mutual learning within the dyad. It is suggested that both formal and informal

learning strategies should be addressed so that increased understanding of mentor learning can help sustain formal mentoring initiatives within organisations.

The final suggestion for future research is concerned with the ethics of mentoring. Whilst there is a small body of work on the ethics of mentoring, more is required if we are to identify how to manage moral differences and conflicts of interest in learning relationships. The research has shed light on a number of issues pertaining to mentoring ethics including the reluctance of participants to address issues within the dyad. Understanding why this happens and what the perceived and actual impacts are of raising ethical concerns in mentoring relationships will be of value to both organisations and the Human Resource Management profession.

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Appendix 1: Reflexive Account

The semi-structured interview method is greatly influenced by the personal characteristics of the researcher (Kram 1985). The interaction between interviewer and interviewee and the interpretation of the interview data will relate to the researcher and how they managed the data collection process (ibid). This reflexive account is intended to address the impact the researcher's personal history and biases may have had on the research process. As this account will be a reflective endeavour it has been written in the first person thus adhering to the conventions of reflective writing.

The Reflexive Account

I am a 44 year old Scottish female who started her career as a Primary School Teacher after completing a Bachelor of Education (Hons) degree. I progressed to become a Depute Head Teacher before leaving the school sector to take up a managerial position within a social enterprise. During my career as a teacher and manager I was involved in mentoring graduate teachers and staff undertaking SVQ qualifications. I was involved in both service and staff development and it was my professional interest in these areas which prompted a return to university to complete an MSc in Human Resource Management. It was during this period that I was able to engage with the subject of mentoring at an academic level. Following the completion of this degree I was fortunate to be able to work on a contractual basis for a number of organisations in a HRD capacity. It was during this period that I decided to start working towards a doctoral degree.

It is recognised that my personal history and my professional and personal values will have, to some extent, shaped the course of the research. I began studying to become a teacher in the 1980s at the age of seventeen. I already had a strong social conscience at this age but met a number of ideas and perspectives, in this first experience of higher education, which were to shape my professional development. Firstly the majority of the teaching and research in the field of education was viewed from a constructivist perspective. Whilst I did not fully realise this as an undergraduate student, later learning and reflection have enabled me to identify some of the assumptions which were inherent in my thinking at the start of the doctoral process. In addition, there was a strong focus on human rights ("UN Convention on the Rights of the Child") and equality in my undergraduate education, both of which have directed my thinking ever since. In terms of my own personal values I therefore consider myself to be a liberal minded individual. I am not religious but I am respectful of other belief systems and have some affinity with humanistic principles. I am a strong advocate of equality and I do consider myself to be a feminist although probably one who "works the system". I wanted to be a teacher from an early age and it is interesting to note that my MBTI profile (INFP) suggests that individuals with these personality preferences are attracted to professions in human development.

My professional background has been largely beneficial in the research process. Firstly, I have always worked with people and have had to build rapport with pupils, parents, colleagues, and clients. In my school career I have had to manage some sensitive issues with families and children and liaise with other agencies involved in social care. This has enabled me to develop empathy and interpersonal skills which were useful in the research interview setting to build rapport and encourage participant engagement in the process. However, my interest in and tendency to like other people could also be a disadvantage.

As an individual with feeling preferences I have a strong interest in other people and in supporting their development. During the interview process I generally liked the interviewees and found some of them particularly engaging if they shared my intuitive characteristics. However, there were two participants who I liked less, probably because they had very different approaches from my own. I perceived both of these individuals to be self-orientated and uncompromising when making arrangements to meet. I viewed their approach as impolite, which offended my feeling sensibilities. During the data analysis period I therefore had to ensure that I considered my own personality biases regarding the interviewees and push myself to view their face-to-face behaviours through the MBTI lens. As a pragmatic Scot, this desire to achieve greater objectivity was central to the analysis process.

My professional background further supported the data collection period as during my career I had managed projects, administrated assessments, and managed sensitive data. The procedural and ethical awareness that I had developed throughout my career supported the management of the research project and conveyed a professional approach to participants. My age appeared to present an advantage in the interviews as, despite being a novice researcher, my maturity appeared to convey the impression of experience. My prior knowledge of dealing with people was also beneficial during the interview process as some participants shared sensitive information, thus suggesting that rapport and trust had been established.

My personality characteristics presented other challenges in the interview setting. As an intuitive interviewer I had to ensure that I remained focused on the interview script and in gathering field notes when talking to participants. This proved difficult where I had established a good rapport with interviewees and where they shared my intuitive characteristics. The interview transcripts indicated that, in some interviews, I had been momentarily distracted by ideas and connections that I was generating in response to participant comments. Nonetheless, by ensuring that I was mindful of my own MBTI characteristics, I was able to return to the script.

One of my concerns throughout the course of the study centred on the potential for gender bias given that all of my supervisory team and I were female. It was my concern that the data analysis might be biased in this respect. I therefore ensured that there were opportunities to discuss my thoughts and perspectives with colleagues, both male and female, within the departmental teams that I worked.

I was quite comfortable during the interview and MBTI feedback meetings despite a number of the interviews involving senior managers. My own personal background was advantageous here as I had been exposed to business people and those in senior executive roles from childhood. Having been brought up in a family where running a business was the norm I have been familiar with the business environment and its expectations for most of my life. My childhood experiences of meeting and interacting with senior professional people allowed me to feel comfortable in their company and not to feel intimidated by their status. However, I also recognised that this might be an obstacle when dealing with some individuals at this level as they may have expected an external researcher to be deferential. Thus during the research process I aimed to ensure that I was responsive to the individuals I met. Further, the dynamics in the interview room were observed and noted to aid the interpretation of the data.

Finally, my lifelong interest in learning and my own education to become a teacher were influential in determining the design of the study. From my undergraduate education onwards, I have engaged in the process of reflection on a regular basis. As a teacher, reflective practice was central to professional development and learning. In my undergraduate years I was taught to keep a Continuous Professional Development portfolio to record reflective statements about my teaching practice and this process has been influential in informing my learning ever since. My reflective practice continued as I progressed to become Chartered Member of the CIPD and it has also been beneficial to my development as a researcher. My natural inclination towards introversion has ensured that this is a process which I both enjoy and find valuable. Throughout the research I have questioned my role, values, and perspectives on a regular basis. Whilst this has had many advantages it has also been a hindrance at times when I have probably spent too long procrastinating in my internal world. Nonetheless, reflection has made me aware of the impact of my own personal characteristics on the research process and allowed me to address some of the biases and assumptions that were present in my thinking.

Appendix 2: The Researcher's MBTI Profile – INFP

INFP strengths

INFP people enjoy devising creative solutions to problems and making moral commitments to what they believe in. They enjoy helping others with their growth and inner development to reach their full potential.

Potential development areas for INFPs

INFPs may struggle to speak up in meetings, leading others to believe they don't care or have nothing to contribute. They risk failing to convince others of the merit of their ideas.

Typical INFP characteristics

INFPs are typically flexible and spontaneous as well as reflective and contained. They are also imaginative and developmental.

INFP careers & career ideas

INFP people enjoy helping others develop and learn, and express their creativity through writing or visual arts. They like doing work that has meaning and enjoy working with people who share their values. INFPs are likely to be attracted to professions in counselling and human development, as well as within the arts and writing.

INFP relationships

An INFP tends to be selective and reserved about sharing their deepest feelings and values and can be sometimes difficult to understand They are seen by their partners as sensitive and introspective.

(Source: Oxford Psychologists Press)

Appendix 3: Purposive Sampling Criteria

Selection Criteria for Participating Organisations/Schemes

- Facilitates formal mentoring relationships for managerial staff
- Medium or large sized organisation (internal mentoring relationships) OR
- Sector/industry wide scheme (external mentoring relationships)

Selection Criteria for Participant Mentors and Mentees

- Works for an organisation that is facilitating workplace mentoring
- Engaged in formal mentoring relationship
- Involved in mentoring relationship for minimum of six months
- Both members of the dyad are willing to participate

Appendix 4: The Interview Script

Interview Purpose

The reason I have asked you to take part in this interview is so that I can learn about your experience of being in your current mentoring relationship. I am not interested in knowing what you think about mentoring as a topic or how you think the process can be improved. You may wish to share this information with me along the way but that is not my purpose. What I want to learn about is the way in which you experience your mentoring relationship and the way in which your mentoring relationship relates, or does not relate, to your learning.

Project Explanation

This research will help me learn about how individual personality differences shape mentoring relationships and the learning resulting from them. I will take the information I gather, from our discussion and your MBTI results, and study it to discover which personality characteristics are most influential in mentoring relationships and how they impact on the learning received and why.

Learning Explanation

When I refer to "Learning", I mean it in the broadest context. I am interested in any "learning" that you believe has been generated from your mentoring relationship.

Recording Explanation

I would like to make some notes whilst we talk so that I can have a better recall of the interview. If I may also have your permission, I would like to record the interview so I can listen to it again later.

******CONSENT FORM ******

Interview Explanation

Along the way I might ask you for more detail or further explanation of the topics we are discussing. At the end of our chat I will ask you for some details regarding your career stage, location in the organisation, etc. We can also arrange to meet again if you would like me to provide you with some feedback assessment regarding your MBTI assessment. Following the interview I will be emailing you a copy of the MBTI questionnaire for you to complete in your own time.

Confidentiality

All of the information that you give me today will be treated confidentially and the data will be anonymised so that participants remain unidentified.

Do you have any questions before we start the interview?

****BEGIN RECORDING****

1. **Participant Biography (Ice-breaker)**
   - Can you start by telling me about your professional background and current professional role?

2. **Relationship Biography**
   - Can you tell me about your current mentoring relationship and why you became involved in mentoring?
   - Why did you want participate in a mentoring relationship?
   - What does mentoring mean to you?
   - How did you meet your mentor/mentee?
   - What made you choose this person to be your mentor /mentee?

PROBE:
- Matching process – how were you matched?
- Length of involvement in relationship – how long have you been meeting?
- Goals – what did you want to achieve from mentoring/being mentored?

3. **Rapport**
   - Can you tell me a bit about what your ideal mentor/mentee would be like?
   - Talk me through how you met your mentee/mentor?
   - What were your first impressions?
   - How would you describe your mentor/mentee?

PROBE:
- How are you similar/different from your mentor/mentee?
- Can you describe what you were thinking and feeling at that point?

4. **Aims**
   - What did you want to achieve from being mentored?
   - What were your goals for the mentoring relationship?

5. **Relationship**
   - Tell me about your relationship with your mentor/mentee?
   - Can you tell me some of your favourite experiences in your mentoring relationship?
   - Can you tell me what you talk about?
   - Take me through a typical mentoring session.
   - What has been the most/least important aspect of your relationship?

PROBE:
- Can you share with me some details about that part of your relationship?

6. Personality

- What do you like about your mentor/mentee?
- How has your relationship with them affected you?
- How do you feel about them?
- Is there anything you would like to change about your mentoring partner?
- If you were telling a friend about your mentor/mentee, how would you describe them?
- Are you similar or different in any way?

7. Learning

- How have you progressed since you have been mentored/been a mentor?
- Can you tell me about the last time you thought about something from a mentoring meeting during the course of the week?
- Are there other, different, ways that mentoring has affected you?
- What have you learned from your mentor/mentee?
- Is there anything that you have not learned that you would have liked to?
- What has been the main outcome from your mentoring relationship so far?

PROBE: Ask specifically about outcomes:

- Psychosocial
- Organisational
- Career
- Technical
- Professional

8. Closing

I have almost come to the end of the interview, before we close:

- Is there anything I have not asked you about your mentoring relationship that you would like to tell me about?

Thank you for taking the time to talk to me today. Can I just ask you to complete this profile sheet and then perhaps we can arrange a time to meet and do the MBTI feedback. I will be sending you a copy of the questionnaire, via email, later on today. Once you have completed it we can meet so that I can provide you with feedback regarding your profile.

******ARRANGE FEEDBACK DATE******

---END OF INTERVIEW--

Appendix 5: Interview Script (Mentor 7/Multiple Mentees)

Interview Purpose

The reason I have asked you to take part in this interview is so that I can learn about your experience of being in your current mentoring relationship. I am not interested in knowing what you think about mentoring as a topic or how you think the process can be improved. You may wish to share this information with me along the way but that is not my purpose. What I want to learn about is the way in which you experience your mentoring relationship and the way in which your mentoring relationship relates, or does not relate, to your learning.

Project Explanation

This research will help me learn about how individual personality differences shape mentoring relationships and the learning resulting from them. I will take the information I gather, from our discussion and your MBTI results, and study it to discover which personality characteristics are most influential in mentoring relationships and how they impact on the learning received and why.

Learning Explanation

When I refer to "Learning", I mean it in the broadest context. I am interested in any "learning" that you believe has been generated from your mentoring relationship.

Recording Explanation

I would like to make some notes whilst we talk so that I can have a better recall of the interview. If I may also have your permission, I would like to record the interview so I can listen to it again later.

******CONSENT FORM******

Interview Explanation

Along the way I might ask you for more detail or further explanation of the topics we are discussing. At the end of our chat I will ask you for some details regarding your career stage, location in the organisation, etc. We can also arrange to meet again if you would like me to provide you with some feedback assessment regarding your MBTI assessment. Following the interview I will be emailing you a copy of the MBTI questionnaire for you to complete in your own time.

Confidentiality

All of the information that you give me today will be treated confidentially and the data will be anonymised so that participants remain unidentified.

Do you have any questions before we start the interview?

****BEGIN RECORDING****

General Questions

1. **Participant Biography (Ice-breaker)**
   - Can you start by telling me about your professional background and current professional role?

2. **Relationship biography**
   - Can you tell me why you became involved in professional mentoring?
   - What previous experience do you have of the mentoring role?
   - How did you become a mentor?
   - And how did you became involved in mentoring here?
   - What does mentoring mean to you? How do you explain the process to clients?
   - What do you want to achieve from mentoring?
   - How long have you been mentoring at this company?

3. **Rapport**
   - Can you tell me a bit about what your ideal mentee would be like?
   - How do you meet your mentees?
   - Take me through a typical mentoring session/meeting.
   - You mentor a number of people here, can you tell me about the different individuals you mentor?

---

1. **Specific relationship questions**
   - Talk me through how you met your mentee?
   - What were your first impressions?
   - How would you describe this mentee?
   - How would you describe your relationship with this mentee?

2. **Relationship**
   - Tell me about your relationship with your mentee.
   - Can you tell me some of your favourite experiences in your mentoring relationship?
   - Can you tell me what you talk about?
   - What has been the most/least important aspect of this relationship?

3. **Personality**
   - What do you like about your mentee?
   - How has your relationship with them affected you?
   - Is there anything you would like to change about your mentoring partner?
   - If you were telling a friend about your mentee, how would you describe them?
   - Are you similar or different in any way?

4. Learning

- How have you developed since you have been mentoring this mentee?
- Can you tell me about the last time you thought about something from a mentoring meeting during the course of the week?
- Can you describe how it affected you?
- Are there other, different, ways that mentoring has affected you?
- What have you learned from your mentor/mentee?
- Is there anything that you have not learned that you would have liked to?
- What has been the main outcome from your mentoring relationship so far?

PROBE: Ask about specific outcomes:

- Psychosocial
- Organisational
- Career
- Technical
- Professional

5. Closing

I have almost come to the end of the interview, before we close:

- Is there anything I have not asked you about your mentoring relationships that you would like to tell me about?

Thank you for taking the time to talk to me today. Can I just ask you to complete this profile sheet and then perhaps we can arrange a time to meet and do the MBTI feedback. I will be sending you a copy of the questionnaire, via email, later on today. Once you have completed it we can meet so that I can provide you with the feedback regarding your profile.

******ARRANGE FEEDBACK DATE******

--END OF INTERVIEW--

Appendix 6: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Study Title: *Learning From Type? The Impact of Personality Type And Relationship Context in Formal Mentoring Relationships.*

Introduction
My name is Susan McWhirr and I am a Lecturer at Aberdeen Business School at the Robert Gordon University, Aberdeen. I am undertaking a research project to investigate the impact of mentor and mentee personality type on learning in workplace mentoring relationships.

I am inviting individuals who are currently engaged in workplace mentoring relationships to take part in this project. You are being invited because you are participating in your organisation's mentoring scheme as a mentor/mentee at the time of this project.

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the Robert Gordon University Research Degrees Council and adheres to the University's Research Governance and Research Ethics Policy.

Taking part in the study
For this study I will be asking participants to complete an online psychometric questionnaire called the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI).

The MBTI assesses how individuals prefer to:

- Focus their energy
- Collect information
- Evaluate information and make decisions
- Lifestyle

This will be followed by an informal interview to discuss your mentoring relationship and the learning you have derived from it.

If you agree to participate, I will arrange to meet you for interview purposes at a mutually suitable time. During the interview process I will ask you if you have any further questions about the study and ask you to sign a consent form, consenting to participate. Your gender, age, occupation and nationality will be recorded.

The interview will take approximately 1 hour and will be recorded. Following the interview I will send you a MBTI questionnaire by email and arrange to meet with you again to provide feedback, as a qualified MBTI Consultant, on your personality type. You will also be provided with a summary report of your personality type.

No payment will be offered for your participation but I will send you a summary report of the research at the end of the study and participants will gain insight into different personality types in the work environment from the MBTI feedback session.

You may withdraw from the research at any time without giving a reason.

Advantages to participating
Participants will receive free MBTI consultation and feedback which will provide insight into their own personalities and help them to appreciate important differences between people. It will give you information about your preferred style of working and interacting with people.

The research findings will address some of the issues associated with training and matching mentors and mentees in formal mentoring schemes. It will also focus on the individual and organisational outcomes of mentoring relationships and will thus provide participant organisations with a detailed evaluation of their current mentoring practice. Finally, it is proposed that this study will offer insights into how psychometric information can support and help sustain mentoring relationships within organisations thus presenting new opportunities for using the Myers Briggs Type Indicator within organisations.

Disadvantages to participating
Time commitment of approximately 2 – 2.5 hours per participant
(0.5 hrs MBTI questionnaire completion, 1.0 hr interview, 0.5-1.0 hrs MBTI feedback)

Confidentiality and anonymity
All the data that I collect from you will be anonymised i.e. your name will not be able to be linked to the MBTI assessment or interview recording. In addition, your participation in this study will be confidential and I will not disclose the names of participants. Your data will only be seen by the researcher. Analysed data will be presented in a research report and papers but no one will be able to identify individuals from that.

All data will be collected and stored within the requirements of the Data Protection Act (1998).

Any questions?
If you have any questions please contact the researcher at the address below.

What happens if there is a problem?
Please discuss any problems with the researcher. My contact details are given at the bottom of this letter. If you have a complaint please contact Dr Seonaidh MacDonald, (IMAGES), Kaim House, Aberdeen Business School, The Robert Gordon University, Garthdee Road, Aberdeen AB10 7QG or s.macdonald@rgu.ac.uk

What will happen to my research data?
A research report and papers will be written to be widely disseminated in academic and professional journals and conferences. The data that I collect from you will be destroyed at the end of the research study once all the reporting is complete.

What happens now?
Please feel free to discuss this letter with your Supervisor and HR adviser. If, after consideration, you would like to take part in this study please contact Susan McWhirr at the address below.

Thank you for taking the time to read this letter.

Researcher:

Susan McWhirr
BEd (Hons) MSc Chartered MCIPD
Human Resource Management Lecturer
Department of Management
Aberdeen Business School
Robert Gordon University
ICRGU Building
Garthdee Road
Aberdeen
AB10 7QE
Email: s.m.mcwhirr1@rgu.ac.uk
Phone: 01224 263022
Mobile: 07923 628881

Appendix 7: Consent Form

Aberdeen Business School
Robert Gordon University
ICRGU Building
Garthdee Road
Aberdeen
AB10 7QE
Email:
Phone: 01224

Informed consent form

Please complete this consent form if you are happy to take part in the study.

Title of Study: ***Learning from Type? The Impact of Personality Type and Relationship Context in Formal Mentoring Relationships.***

Name of Researcher: **Susan McWhirr**

		Please tick the box
1.	I confirm that I have read and understand the research information sheet for the above study.	☐
2.	I have spoken to the above researcher and understand that my involvement will involve being interviewed at a time and place to suit me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions.	☐
3.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason and without my legal rights being affected.	☐
4.	I understand that the above researcher from the Robert Gordon University who is working on the project will have access to my personal details.	☐
5.	I understand that any data or information used in any publications which arise from this study will be anonymous	☐
6.	I understand that all data will be stored securely and is covered by the Data Protection Act.	☐
7.	I agree to take part in the above study.	☐

Name of participant:	**Date:**	**Signature:**
______________________	______________	______________________

Appendix 8: Demographic Data Capture Form

Title of Study: ***Learning From Type? The Impact of Personality Type and relationship Context in Formal mantoring Relationships.***

Name of Researcher: **Susan McWhirr**

Interview No.	
Name	
Age	
Nationality	
Gender	
Organisation/Scheme	
Job Role	
Mentoring Relationship Type	
Dyad Gender	
Length of Mentoring Relationship	

Appendix 9: Sixteen MBTI Profile Summaries

ISTJ: Quiet, serious, earns success by thoroughness and dependability. Practical, matter-of-fact, realistic, and responsible. Decide logically what should be done and work towards it steadily, regardless of distractions. Take pleasure in making everything orderly and organised – their work, their home, their life. Value traditions and loyalty.

ISFJ: Quiet, friendly, responsible, and conscientious. Committed and steady in meeting their obligations. Thorough, painstaking, and accurate. Loyal, considerate, notice and remember specifics about people who are important to them, concerned with how others feel. Strive to create an orderly and harmonious environment at work and at home.

INFJ: Seek meaning and connection in ideas, relationships, and material possessions. Want to understand what motivates people and are insightful about others. Conscientious and committed to their firm values. Develop a clear vision about how best to serve the common good. Organised and decisive in implementing their vision.

INTJ: Have original minds and great drive for implementing their ideas and achieving their goals. Quickly see patterns in external events and develop long-range explanatory perspectives. When committed, organise a job and carry it through. Sceptical and independent, have high standards of competence and performance – for themselves and others.

ISTP: Tolerant and flexible, quiet observers until a problem appears, then act quickly to find workable solutions. Analyse what makes things work and readily get through large amounts of data to isolate the core of practical problems. Interested in cause and effect, organise facts using logical principles, value efficiency.

ISFP: Quiet, friendly, sensitive, and kind. Enjoy the present moment, what's going on around them. Like to have their own space and to work within their own time frame. Loyal and committed to their values and to people who are important to them. Dislike disagreements and conflicts. do not force their opinions or values on others.

INFP: Idealistic, loyal to their values and to people who are important to them. Want an external life that is congruent with their values. Curious, quick to see possibilities, can be catalysts for

implementing ideas. Seek to understand people and to help them fulfil their potential. Adaptable, flexible, and accepting unless a value is threatened.

INTP: Seek to develop logical explanations for everything that interests them. Theoretical and abstract, interested more in ideas than in social interaction. Quiet, contained, flexible, and adaptable. Have unusual ability to focus in depth to solve problems in their area of interest. Sceptical, sometimes critical, always analytical.

ESTP: Flexible and tolerant, they take a pragmatic approach focused on immediate results. Theories and conceptual explanations bore them – they want to act energetically to solve the problem. Focus on the here-and-now, spontaneous, enjoy each moment that they can be active with others. Enjoy material comforts and style. Learn best through doing.

ESFP: Outgoing, friendly, and accepting. Exuberant lovers of life, people, and material comforts. Enjoy working with others to make things happen. Bring common sense and a realistic approach to their work, and make work fun. Flexible and spontaneous, adapt readily to new people and environments. Learn best by trying a new skill with other people.

ENFP: Warmly enthusiastic and imaginative. See life as full of possibilities. Make connections between events and information very quickly, and confidently proceed based on the patterns they see. Want a lot of affirmation from others, and readily give appreciation and support. Spontaneous and flexible, often rely on their ability to improvise and their verbal fluency.

ENTP: Quick, ingenious, stimulating, alert, and outspoken. Resourceful in solving new and challenging problems. Adept at generating conceptual possibilities and then analysing them strategically. Good at reading other people. Bored by routine, will seldom do the same thing the same way, apt to turn to one new interest after another.

ESTJ: Practical, realistic, matter-of-fact. Decisive, quickly move to implement decisions. Organise projects and people to get things done, focus on getting results in the most efficient way possible. Take care of routine details. Have a clear set of logical standards, systematically follow them and want others to also. Forceful in implementing their plans.

ESFJ: Warm-hearted, conscientious, and cooperative. Want harmony in their environment, work with determination to establish it. Like to work with others to complete tasks accurately and on time.

Loyal, follow through even in small matters. Notice what others need in their day-by-day lives and try to provide it. Want to be appreciated for who they are and for what they contribute.

ENFJ: Warm, empathetic, responsive, and responsible. Highly attuned to the emotions, needs, and motivations of others. Find potential in everyone, want to help others fulfil their potential. May act as catalysts for individual and group growth. Loyal, responsive to praise and criticism. Sociable, facilitate others in a group, and provide inspiring leadership.

ENTJ: Frank, decisive, assumes leadership readily. Quickly see illogical and inefficient procedures and policies, develop and implement comprehensive systems to solve organisational problems. Enjoy long-term planning and goal setting. Usually well informed, well read; enjoy expanding their knowledge and passing it on to others. Forceful in presenting their ideas.

Excerpted from Introduction to Type® *by Isabel Briggs Myers published by CPP. Inc.*

Appendix 10: Document Summary Form

MENTORING INITIATIVE	SUMMARY
ORGANISATION TYPE/CONTEXT	
AIM	
OBJECTIVES	
ACCESSIBILITY	
PARTICIPATION ROUTE (VOLUNTARY ETC.)	
MATCHING PROCESSES	
TRAINING	
GUIDELINES	

Appendix 11: Mentor and Mentee Profile Summaries

Mentor 1: ESFP	MBTI Summary	Self-report data	Mentee Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Exuberant lover of life • Finds enjoyment in people. • Disregards rules and procedures. • Meets human needs in creative ways. • Learns from doing. • Active. • Decisions are based on personal values. • Good interpersonal skills • Keen observers of people. • Can be impulsive Seen as: • Fun. • Enthusiastic. • Flexible. • Easy-going. (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Energetic Flexible+ People focus Enthusiastic Active	• "natural reflector" • Straightforward and driven" • Likes to resolve issues quickly • "impulsive" • "I had to condition myself to be organised it doesn't come naturally to me" • "They laugh, 'How can you get enthusiastic about [service]?' I can" • "got a great deal of satisfaction out of seeing folk being a success" • "I do a lot of reflecting" • "I take it seriously, I said do my homework and I did make myself"	• "a people person" • Someone who "enjoys life" • Friendly • Approachable • Open • "ability to start conversations and talk to people" • Supportive and interested in mentee's work circumstances

Mentor 2: ISFJ	Summary	Self-report data	Mentee Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI: • Considerate • Dependable • Committed to people • Responsible • Focuses on people's needs and wants • Establishes orderly procedures • Takes roles seriously • Realistic and practical • Remembers details • Seeks co-operation and harmony • Thoughtful and kind • Can feel unappreciated Seen as: • Accommodating • Kind • Committed • Quiet • Values • Someone who dislikes confrontation (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Profile Committed Responsible People focused Kind Supportive	"someone who loves Considerate • people" • "We're touchy feely people" • "We listen as colleagues, we'll be quite respectful" • "natural" for her to mentor because it is about "giving something back and being around for one another"	• Friendly • Approachable • Good listener • Non-judgemental • Professional • Competent • "could speak to her about anything"

Mentor 3 - ENTJ	Summary	Self-report data	Mentee Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Natural leader • Organises people • Good at planning for the future needs of people • Planned/decisive • Natural critic • Sets standards and applies the forcefully to others • Assertive • Values competence • Curious • Action orientated • Energised by stimulating interactions with people Strategic-thinks ahead • Verbally fluent Seen as: • Self-confident • Decisive • Direct • Objective • Stimulating • Urge to organise others can overpower people at times (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Assertive Organised Planned/structured Energetic Standards Communicator	• "good communicator and listener" • Interested in people and psychology in general • "I thought I would be good at it and because I have a lot of experience" • Likes to help others develop/enjoys mentoring others • "I make my sessions quite formal, not formal, quite structured as well." • "I always drop an email at the end of the session just recapping again" • "I would then take from that what I felt was the next stage in our goal we'd set right at the beginning and say 'OK' now we would move on to discuss this part of the next progression"	• Enthusiastic • "You got this positive vibe off her which was good" • Good listener • Empathetic • Very positive • "She said, 'I think you have progressed a lot in the last six meetings. I don't see any benefit in us meeting again, at this point."

Mentor 4: ENTP	Summary	Self-report Data	Mentee Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Opportunistic • Understands how systems work • Enterprising and resourceful in manoeuvring within a system to meet own needs. • Innovative • Creative • Likes competence, precision and efficiency • Energetic • Good at reading other people • Knows how to motivate others • Adaptable • Likes challenge • Can be abrasive, critical and combative Seen as: • Adaptable • Enthusiastic • Energetic • Outspoken • Assertive (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Opportunistic Creative Energetic Adaptable Resourceful	• "An extrovert" • "able to take what was thrown at him offshore" • "I was always deemed as one of lack of empathy from previous appraisals" • "If I have something to say I'll generally say it" • "not known for having a long fuse" • "If something happens I have to be able to react to what's happened, I can't sit down and plan for everything" • "I've tried to keep it, I wouldn't say fun, tried to keep it relaxed as well. I think if you have it completely rigid you might actually stifle it" • "I make sure that we just keep facilitating it" • Asked the mentee to identify her "weakest" area/encouraged mentee to identify her own success criteria • "sat down first of all and used notes, I've got a thing there" • "From our side the biggest thing is building up a network of contacts for her – they were quite reactive for a while"	• "easy to have a conversation about with both about work and things outside work" • Knowledgeable • Open • Interesting • Honest • "a good guy" • "tries to find out more about people" • Very clear cut although not in an aggressive way • "he is good at telling you how it is without putting someone down" • "I suppose if you didn't know him you might take that quite personally"

Mentor 5: INTP	Summary	Self-Report data	Mentee Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Independent • Detached • Challenging • Problem solving • Works best alone • Sceptical • Own opinions and standards • Likes intelligence and competence • Contemplative • Objective • Curious/seeks knowledge • Dislikes routine tasks • Intense and focused on problems • Talkative in areas which they are especially knowledgeable Seen as: • Tolerant • Dislikes redundancy • Autonomous (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Independent Solitary Critical thinker Curious/enjoys learning Intense Dislikes routine tasks	• "I don't think there has been an ounce of training…I may or may not agree with it anyway" • "somebody who folk would go to for a blether" • "I've always tried to simplify stuff and give it to someone else to do because they can do it, learn from it and evolve that way" • "I can blether like this quite happily, my natural domain is quite insular. I'm capable of giving it laldy for four hours but after that I don't want to see anyone for three weeks." • "If I think someone has done a good job I'll say it; done a bad job, I'll say 'that wasn't very good'. My wife gives me no end of grief for my ability to just say what I think." • "like a dog, you give him difficult bones and he'll play with them, he'll give you an answer and then two minutes later he goes 'I'm bored'." • "I think he's down to earth, the same way I am" • "I've never say you must work for [company A]. I don't give a toss about that because it's pointless."	• "It's just amazing, his CV here in front of me, Incredible" • "He's been around the block, he knows a lot of stuff" • "the drive he has absolutely got day to day" • "I was absolutely flabbergasted with what he has achieved" • "what he's achieved because it's astronomical"

Mentor 6: ENFJ	Summary	Self-report Data	Mentee Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: Insightful/attuned to others Empathetic Understands emotional needs and motivation Friendly persuader Builds consensus Draws out the best in people Loyal Warm/supportive Energetic Looks for best in others Co-operation and harmony Sensitive to criticism Sees potential for growth in others Needs authentic, intimate relationships Worrier Seen as: • Enthusiastic • Energetic • Compassionate • Supportive • Socially adept (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Perceptive Supportive Gets best out of people Loyal Sensitive Warm Energetic	• "diligent and honest" • "I used to be really shy, so what happened to that?" • "If I don't get any feedback I tend to work more. I assume that if I'm not getting any feedback then perhaps something is not quite right. So I have a tendency to workaholism actually." • I'm quite self-deprecating actually. I'm a little paranoid as well. I reveal an awful lot of me." • "I have this inner voice that sometimes tells me that 'Oh that's pointless, who wants to hear that?'" • "I really enjoy seeing people come on and be happy to do well. I love it." • " a lot of the information I kind of came up with on the spot" • "I was looking for mutually beneficial relationships..."	• "Very nice, very approachable, professional." • "She's a very nice person." • "her attitudes to some of the comments that we made in meetings were 'oh yes there's an opportunity' just form the things we were talking about…And I hadn't really thought of it as an opportunity. It was more like yes that's a fact, it's a passing fact."

Mentor 7: ENTP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentee Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Opportunistic • Understands how systems work • Enterprising and resourceful in manoeuvring within a system to meet own needs. • Innovative • Creative • Likes competence, precision and efficiency • Energetic • Good at reading other people • Knows how to motivate others • Adaptable • Likes challenge • Can be abrasive, critical and combative Seen as: • Adaptable • Enthusiastic • Energetic • Outspoken • Assertive	Opportunistic Creative Energetic Adaptable Resourceful	• "I think I am a natural reflector. I think it is part of my specific creative process about patterns." • "I'm not anxious about having opinions" • Strong set of values • "least empathetic to the career animal" • "I never want to be in the boxes that [mentee] would so happily live in. I don't want to be anywhere near a box like that." • "I'm not in the business of reminding him repeatedly. I've reminded him once." • "maybe I need to be as diligent working with black and white value people as I naturally would be with grey people." • "I'm susceptible to working my preferences: I don't feel comfortable saying it though." • " one of those people I am perfectly suited to work with in the sense that she likes having quite free ranging discussion." • "I'm confident in my ability that I can throw random lines in, I can go off at tangents and explore" • "I'm a mis-matcher…the usual response to a mis-matcher is 'you're a bloody confrontational, contrary	Mentee 7: • "a good guy" • Laid back • "He talks about engineers are this type of people…" Mentee 8: • "he's got something to learn about us as well" • I think [he] hides himself very well behind theory. I think he's applied himself so many times in this facilitators role that he can say and do the things that make him a facilitator and all-round nice guy." • "what he says is less flowery and more meaningful because we're now starting to get down to some detail." • "he understands individual people and what their needs are" Mentee 9: • "really emotionally intelligent" • "very, very good at listening and connecting things up to themes" • "he operates on a completely different axis than I do"

		kind of guy' and I'm not really; just explain, really explain to me how you see it that way, because I just don't see it at all. So until you can explain it to me, I'm not just going to take it and say…That is what I mean by rational." • "being hard on things all the time doesn't always get the results you want." • "Just keeps a balance on her life…there's some empathy there…we're the true believers, they don't understand what the true meaning of life is yet. So there's real empathy around that and keeping things in balance." • I've found myself seeing both sides of this thing, I'm not in a happy spot here." • "it unusual to find someone so ambivalent about that [working for Company]. I find it difficult to get past that." • "I don't worry too much aboutr X because X doesn't worry too much about me, too much about [company] too much about the team, if I want to be honest." • "here I am passing lots of judgements, lots of opinions, feeling quite bad about it, but I'm also replaying lots of conversations" +	• "I wouldn't put myself through the types of things that he puts himself through; things like building a house from scratch in France" • ""I am, to be completely honest with you, more interested in shiny, materialistic things than he is." • "I think of the vast amount of things I can get done in a day. I think [mentor] would be able to get a couple of things done really well. • "enthusiastic" • "lack of ego" • "a really likeable person" Mentee 10: • "engaging and interesting and you think he's got stories to tell." • Outgoing • Enthusiastic • Gregarious • Passionate about his work • More laid back than self • "probably never gets stuck into detail" • "A pragmatic view, we've got our ideals as to how things should be but it's not like a deal breaker if someone doesn't conform to those... we take

			people how they are and not be too, I guess it's different between being judgemental and maybe understanding a bit of character." Mentee 11: • " one of these worldly, wise men" • "Broader perspective than peer group" • " very interested in people, probably an observer, definitely intuitive, ken to be involved, a team player" • Personable • Non-judgemental • "maybe there's a little under-confidence" • "there's not an arrogance to it, it's not 'I know everything' and he put that across the other day." • "I would trust [mentor] implicitly" Mentee 12: • "a really likeable guy" • "Approachable, very open, good listener"

(Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)			• He's pretty laid back, pretty calm" • He's more laid back about where he is in his life" • "he's got a completely different set of priorities from me. • "Being reflective and introspective and being able to analyse things" "enriched" the mentor • "gets a buzz about making friends and developing relationships than any actual focus on 'oh this is improving my services'."

Mentee 1: ISFJ	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI profile: • Dependable and Considerate • Committed to people and groups they are associated with • Responsible • Complete jobs fully and on time • Will go to great trouble to complete tasks they see as necessary • Dislike tasks that do not seem necessary to them • Establish orderly procedures • Focus on people's needs • Take roles and responsibilities seriously • Conscientious • Family orientated • Realistic and practical • Remember details • Value harmony and cooperation • Kind and sensitive • Thoughtful of others • Firm opinions • Respect authority Seen as: • Quiet and unassuming • Serious • Considerate • Honours commitments, preserves traditions (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	• Considerate • Conscientious • Practical • Responsible • Reliable • Traditional	• Finds it hard to get to know people and make small talk • Gets 'bogged down' • Likes calm an understanding environment • Prone to becoming stressed and overwhelmed	• Quiet • Shy • Lacking self-confidence • Reserved • Cautious • "nice lassie"

Mentee 2: ISTP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI profile: • Detached and objective critic • Interested in how things work • Observant • Move quickly to the core of a problem • Organises data • Reasons impersonally • Resists regimentation and rules • Thrives on variety and novelty • Enjoys challenge of solving new, concrete, extensive problems • Analytical and logical • Factual and pragmatic • Realistic • Believe in economy of effort Seen as: • Egalitarian and tolerant • Adaptable • Action orientated • Risk taker • Confident, independent and self-determined (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	• Logical • Objective • Analytical • Adaptable • Pragmatic	• Unwilling to answer questions about mentor: "I don't think I can answer that." • Uncertain job role: ""a lot of to-ing and fro-ing and we still don't know what is happening, which has probably been quite stressful on my part."	• "quiet open" • Easy going • Honest • "good at his job" • Unaware of his strengths and weaknesses • Able to handle criticism • "He would tend to feel that if he can evidence, if he can put evidence behind it, what are you worrying for?" • Struggles with hierarchy • "more direct approach"

Mentee 3: INTP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Independent • Detached • Challenging • Problem solving • Works best alone • Sceptical • Own opinions and standards • Likes intelligence and competence • Contemplative • Objective • Curious/seeks knowledge • Dislikes routine tasks • Intense and focused on problems • Talkative in areas which they are especially knowledgeable Seen as: • Tolerant • Dislikes redundancy • Autonomous (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Independent Solitary Critical thinker Curious/enjoys learning Intense Dislikes routine tasks	• Does not enjoy repetition • "Self-critical" • "I think I know myself quite well but I think I'm probably more unnecessarily hard on myself and negative about myself and I think that is what I was taught; I think people will see me in a particular way." • "She's everybody's friend, everybody's partner. I don't work like that. I can't be like that. It's false, that's just not me." • Good listener • Empathetic • "come across as slightly aggressive even if it is not meant to be, especially if I'm feeling stressed about something." • "If someone says a bad word to me then that's the one I'll remember. I'll chew it over and things rather than the positive. That's my personality." • "in a rut and fairly negative in my outlook at that point" • Trusting: "when your mentor is saying 'I think we've moved on, I'm here if you want me'…then I trust her judgement in that"	• "strong character" • "nervous shyness" • "out of her comfort zone" and "very down about her work" • Low self-esteem • "at the despair stage" • "thrived under loads of work" • "really wanted to improve things" • Could be blunt and was unaware of non-verbal communication

Mentee 4: INTJ	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Clear vision of future possibilities • Drive and organisation to implement ideas • Love complex challenges • Synthesise complex theoretical and abstract matters • Global thinking • Value knowledge • Expect competence form self an others • Abhors confusion, mess and inefficiency • Quickly relate new information to overall patterns • Trust insight regardless of authority or popular opinion • Insightful, creative synthesiser • Conceptual, long-range thinker • Critical eye • Can be tough and decisive when required • Clear and concise • Rational, detached and objectively critical • Independent • Apply high standards of knowledge and competence most rigorously to themselves Seen as: • Calm, decisive and assured • Private, reserved, hard to know, even aloof • Conceptual, original, independent (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	• Creative • Independent • Objectively critical • High standards • Conceptual • Original	• Concise • Seldom talked about self	• “I don’t know if nervous is the right word, she’s almost insular, quite quiet, not extrovert, not at work anyway.” • Wants to do a good job • “Very academically qualified” • Interested in developing with her own role • Lacking experience and confidence • “She’ll always be a quiet person”

Mentee 5: ESTJ	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
• Likes to organise projects, operations, procedures and people • Lives by clear set of standards and beliefs • Values competence and efficiency and results • Enjoys interaction and working with others as long as they are responsible about meeting deadlines and completing tasks • Objective approach to problem solving • Tough when required • Little patience with confusion or inefficiency • Loyal, analytical and objectively critical • Decisive, clear, assertive • Pragmatic, realistic and matter-of –fact • Systematic and pragmatic • Focus on present • Like immediate, visible and tangible results • Understand systems and logistics • Task orientated • Prefer proven procedures and systems Seen as: • Conscientious and dependable • Decisive, out-spoken and self-confident • Take relationship roles seriously • Clear and straightforward • Can be seen as overpowering (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	• Organised • Objective • Systematic • Practical • Task orientated	• “can do, will do” • “Any challenge, I’m certainly not one for sitting down, just sitting at a computer. I like to keep on the move with something; some task or role.” • “I hope we could meet more regular and be a bit more stable with the setting up and maybe more goals further in”	• “He’s quite careful and I think he knows more than he sometimes let’s on.” • “an absorber” • “a loyal grafter” • “At a juncture in his career to think ‘right where am I going to go?’” • “I think he’s fairly down to earth, same way as I am” • “Don’t think he has any airs and graces about him”

Mentee 6: ISTJ	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Strong sense of responsibility • Great loyalty to organisations, families and relationships • Fulfil commitments as stated on time • Prefer to work alone and be accountable for the results • Comfortable in teams when required when roles are clearly defined and responsibilities are fulfilled. • Competence and responsibility are important. • Dutiful and trustworthy • Respect for facts • Practical, sensible, realistic • Systematic • Logical and analytical • Detached and reasonable • Focus on task or system as a whole • Believe standard procedures exist because such procedures work • Will support change only when facts demonstrate that change will work • clear and steadfast in their opinions Seen as: • sociable and comfortable • calm, reserved, serious • consistent and orderly • valuing traditions (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	• responsible • systematic • logical • consistent • loyal	• open • “I’ll talk and I don’t mind saying if I think I’m not doing brilliant on something: I don’t mind saying that. Or if I am wanting help on something I will ask for it. I’m quite open in that respect.” • “It was a bit intimidating to start off with I guess but I’m quite an open sort of person.” • “”a lot of the meeting was taken up by me talking rather than anybody else talking.” • “I hadn’t really thought of it as an opportunity. It was more like yes that’s a fact, it’s a passing fact.” • “I was thinking nothing about it really. I was thinking yes well maybe he’ll contact me but that would be the wrong approach. It was more like you need to be a bit more proactive on that.”	• “quiet introverted” • “Very, very quiet. Very, but really smiley eyes actually: really likeable” • “You can tell that he’s very, you can tell that he’s really honest and actually very open despite being quiet. So I don’t think there are any hidden agendas with him.” • “He’s diligent and really honest” • “seemed quite vulnerable actually. It seems like he’s got such a lot to give and that he hasn’t quite flowered yet.” • “With a little looking after he could just be, you know, amazing”

Mentee 7: ENTP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Opportunistic • Understands how systems work • Enterprising and resourceful in manoeuvring within a system to meet own needs. • Innovative • Creative • Likes competence, precision and efficiency • Energetic • Good at reading other people • Knows how to motivate others • Adaptable • Likes challenge • Can be abrasive, critical and combative Seen as: • Adaptable • Enthusiastic • Energetic • Outspoken • Assertive (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Opportunistic Creative Energetic Adaptable Resourceful	• Talked very little about personal traits • “quite laid back”	• He’s quiet and strong and sensitive and tuned into wider things than his professional world.” • Very open and concerned about the people he worked with • “If you say something that excites him, he really reflects that.” • “massive” engagement in mentoring process. • “He thinks a lot. He honours the process by thinking a lot and refining, reducing it down to some thoughts that he always shares in a deliberate way.” • Used notes to summarise conversations and would send “powerful distillations” of conversations to the mentor.” • “does 90% of the work himself” • “He’s now set himself goals about what developments he wants to put in place and he’s tracked goals and he’s putting plans in place.”

Mentee 8: ESFP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Exuberant lover of life • Finds enjoyment in people. • Disregards rules and procedures. • Meets human needs in creative ways. • Learns from doing. • Active. • Decisions are based on personal values. • Good interpersonal skills • Keen observers of people. • Can be impulsive Seen as: • Fun. • Enthusiastic. • Flexible. • Easy-going. (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Energetic Flexible People focus Enthusiastic Active	• "For me it's a bit of self-confidence. I believe I can do it, everybody believe I can do it, but I sit back and wait for somebody to cajole me a wee bit. It's mostly about self-belief and drive." • "It's not natural for me to be the inventive one." • Jokes • "stop asking me to think of something I don't know, tell me what you think it should be and then I can move on." • "a lot of the character traits in [mentor] I do anyway, which are how to get the best out of people just by the way you treat them and the respect you show them."	• "a bit of a chip on his shoulder because his perception was that people weren't taking him seriously." • "As a person, he's very hard not to like because he's so friendly, so affable, always joking. He'll always try and help people; I think he's very kind." • "He has a preference to be told what to do. He likes to get specific instructions that can be achieved, checked off, handed off, next." • "a very black and white value system" • "He has all the language of the North-East." • "he is not quite meeting the challenge of what [Hub Director's] expectations around what it takes to be a senior manager. You know high tolerance of risk, big exercise of initiative, lot of commitment, lot of stress."

Mentee 9: ENTP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Opportunistic • Understands how systems work • Enterprising and resourceful in manoeuvring within a system to meet own needs. • Innovative • Creative • Likes competence, precision and efficiency • Energetic • Good at reading other people • Knows how to motivate others • Adaptable • Likes challenge • Can be abrasive, critical and combative Seen as: • Adaptable • Enthusiastic • Energetic • Outspoken • Assertive (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Opportunistic Creative Energetic Adaptable Resourceful	• "I'm keen on getting things done but there are things that I don't do because, and I'm beginning to realise, it's because I can't see a clear way forward with them." • Benefits from talking things through with someone • "I'm a very open minded person if I am provided with cues but I'm dreadful if I've already decided on a path; nothing is put in my path, I will not re-evaluate something until someone gives me a reason. So I'm not looking for a reason to change my mind." • "I'm quite mistrustful of people given a title and therefore you must trust them." • Scepticism of "special techniques" • Values opinions of peers and superiors but not subordinates • Acts like a P when I am not interested in something" • "I am probably, to be honest, more interested in shiny, materialistic things than he is." • "similar kind of emotional intelligence and wavelength that we get along." • "I think of the vast amount of things I can get done in one day"	• "She has very high ethical and moral values about things." • "sometimes has a tendency to fight battels that fall across her path a bit unnecessarily, perhaps, or a bit prematurely." • High intellectual achiever • Hard-worker • "She perhaps gives the impression that she is intense, she's not intense she's very earnest" • Someone who wants to get things sorted. • "ambitious of her own development which is not like ambitious of her own career" • "she likes having quite free ranging discussions where she's confident in her ability to draw her learnings out of it…I can go off at tangents and it won't be disruptive to her thinking process." • "she'll just explain how she sees things" • "someone of her calibre"

		• "I've quite selfishly not really considered that." • "You could argue that I have done that on my own but I think [mentor] has massively facilitated that by being a central person."	

Mentee 10: INTP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Independent • Detached • Challenging • Problem solving • Works best alone • Sceptical • Own opinions and standards • Likes intelligence and competence • Contemplative • Objective • Curious/seeks knowledge • Dislikes routine tasks • Intense and focused on problems • Talkative in areas which they are especially knowledgeable Seen as: • Tolerant • Dislikes redundancy • Autonomous (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	Independent Solitary Critical thinker Curious/enjoys learning Intense Dislikes routine tasks	• "I tend to get really stuck into process or detail quite easily." • "a pragmatic view, we've got our ideals as how things should be but it's not like a deal breaker of someone doesn't conform to those…we take pole how they are and not be too, I guess it's different between being judgemental and maybe understanding a bit of character." • "I usually try and prepare a couple of bullet points and try and refresh what I have done previously."	• "was a bot direct" • "Pugnacious" • "he braces himself for impact when he's presenting a point sometimes…so it is not like he's pugnacious, but his body language, his demeanour might lead one to think that." • "The urgency and energy and the attention he gives to the outcome…and the will he puts into it almost exclusively"

Mentee 11: ENFP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Creative • Keenly perceptive about people and insightful about the present and future. • Experience a wide range of feelings and intense emotions. • Need approval from others • Readily give appreciation and support • Good at understanding how people and groups work • Adaptable • Innovators, • Stimulated by new people and experiences • Curious, creative and imaginative • Energetic, enthusiastic and spontaneous • Value harmony and goodwill • Like to please • Warm, friendly and caring • Co-operative and supportive Seen as: • Personable, perceptive, persuasive • Enthusiastic, spontaneous and versatile • Giving and seeking appreciative support (Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)	• Perceptive • People-orientated • Creative • Adaptable • Supportive	• Interested in people and behaviour • Self-aware • “always reflective” • “I think you can always improve. I think you can always learn from people.” • “I think understanding people and understanding behaviours is important. That’s a big part of my make-up, in any case, understanding myself, understanding how others behave is really important.”	• “a very sorted, self-contained and balanced person. Very, in all those measures” • “she’s very highly regarded…very professional, very on top of her job, master of everything. Does a full shift and more, but has got it completely under control.” • Happy in her role • Someone who had plans for the future and knew where she wanted to go. • Very good at networking • Calm • In control • “someone who sets an aspirational model of how to live well…she sets a very good model of doing that, I think, in a really soft way.” • Able to “maintain a distance but be very personable”

Mentee 3: ISTP	Summary	Self-report data	Mentor Comments
Key characteristics from MBTI Profile: • Detached and objective critic • Interested in how things work • Observant • Move quickly to the core of a problem • Organises data • Reasons impersonally • Resists regimentation and rules • Thrives on variety and novelty • Enjoys challenge of solving new, concrete, extensive problems • Analytical and logical • Factual and pragmatic • Realistic • Believe in economy of effort Seen as: • Egalitarian and tolerant • Adaptable • Action orientated • Risk taker • Confident, independent and self-determined	• Logical • Objective • Analytical • Adaptable • Pragmatic	• I kind of feel like I'm on a little rat wheel and he's not" • "more reactive" • "feistier" • "a lot more stressed generally" • Shows exasperation more readily • "He's pretty laid back, pretty calm and I'm generally not like that. I would like to be like that and I think I used to be like that but the pressures of life and the pressures of work, there's always something else that you need to do. I guess I get more frustrated than [mentor] might as a result of that." • "fairly chatty in most situations" • "If I'm busy …and really up against a deadline then I can tend to sort of shut down and ignore everything else" • Quite hard on self • Not overly ambitious had gone as far as he would have liked career wise • "I want to be a better manager overall"	• "Guarded, very guarded" • "He's an uber-specialist who would love to play the game of his life on a n uber-specialist pitch of his making." • "he is guarded and it's from guarded to devious" • "a regular guy" • "It's unusual to find someone so ambivalent about that [the company]" • "a strong need to know what he's talking about and to be in an environment where that's what's being talked about." • "specialist behaviour pattern lying on top of someone who by inclination is very, I wouldn't say selfish, I'm sure he's not selfish; he looks out for his family, his kids and that kind of thing, but he sees his responsibility in the world to get the best he can out of it." • "it's explanations, whys and wherefores and it takes twenty minutes to say something that the content is two minutes" • His strategy for dealing with it is avoiding it wherever possible." • "His actual interface, certainly in a peer group, is pretty shaky" • "In the peer group he's very, very frail, fragile but has a

(Adapted from Briggs Myers 2000)			phenomenal capacity to tolerate and endure” • “he doesn’t want any of the responsibility” • “Very difficult to communicate, like emails don’t get answered, telephone calls don’t get answered all that kind of thing.” • “you’re just giving nothing here; giving absolutely nothing” • “it just goes through his fingers like sand”