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IMPROVING SKILLS OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS

Training Course for Mentors of Social Entrepreneurs

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Module Introduction

Mentors are a precious resource in any learning process because they combine firm, objective guidance with encouraging gesture. Especially for those dedicated to implementing solutions to social problems, as only experience and creativity seem to help in the most difficult times.

One might think that a good mentor has personal and professional characteristics that are hard to teach. In fact, there are profiles that are naturally prone to this role, but everyone without exception can develop their skills to improve their performance as mentors.

Mentoring visualized in the Mentor - Mentee dyad, with its purposes, benefits and limitations, is transposed, on the one hand, into a human relational act, even if it is assisted in a virtual environment, and on the other hand, in a procedural act, filled with stages, milestones and supposed outcomes occur within a certain period of time and if possible favorable to the success of both actors. A win-win situation is therefore desirable!

However, the “real game” of mentoring is difficult and filled with doubts, vulnerabilities, uncertainties, deadlocks and perhaps frustrations.

Thus for the present training module for **Training Course for Mentors of Social Entrepreneurs** of the European project ISSE - Improving the skills of social entrepreneurs, and considering its adaptation to a short training event it was proposed approach it by adjusting it to four fundamental points or four main topics divided that will cover the relational act and, on the other hand, to the procedural act of mentoring, even if limited to the period of training.

Thus, and from the didactic point of view of the modular curriculum, the first two topics of the module relate essentially to the procedural act and the last two topics are addressed from the face of the prism of the relational act.

Despite its limitations on the period of training, it is a module designed to be of the open course type and can be delivered through virtual learning environments, with the aim of offering to a large number of learning mentors the opportunity to start and broaden their knowledge in the mentoring universe.

Still from the point of view of the curricular structure, each topic is followed by its content and at the end presented with a Quiz for the learning process.



In parallel, and preferably before completing the Quiz, in each specific topic, a set of practical exercises in the EXERCISES NOTEBOOK are proposed apart from the module curriculum so that the mentor consolidates his / her learning.

In the overall four main topics of the module, 33 exercises are proposed to be worked on during the training period with the mentors, of which 23 exercises are real working tools that can be organized in a toolkit for the new mentors.

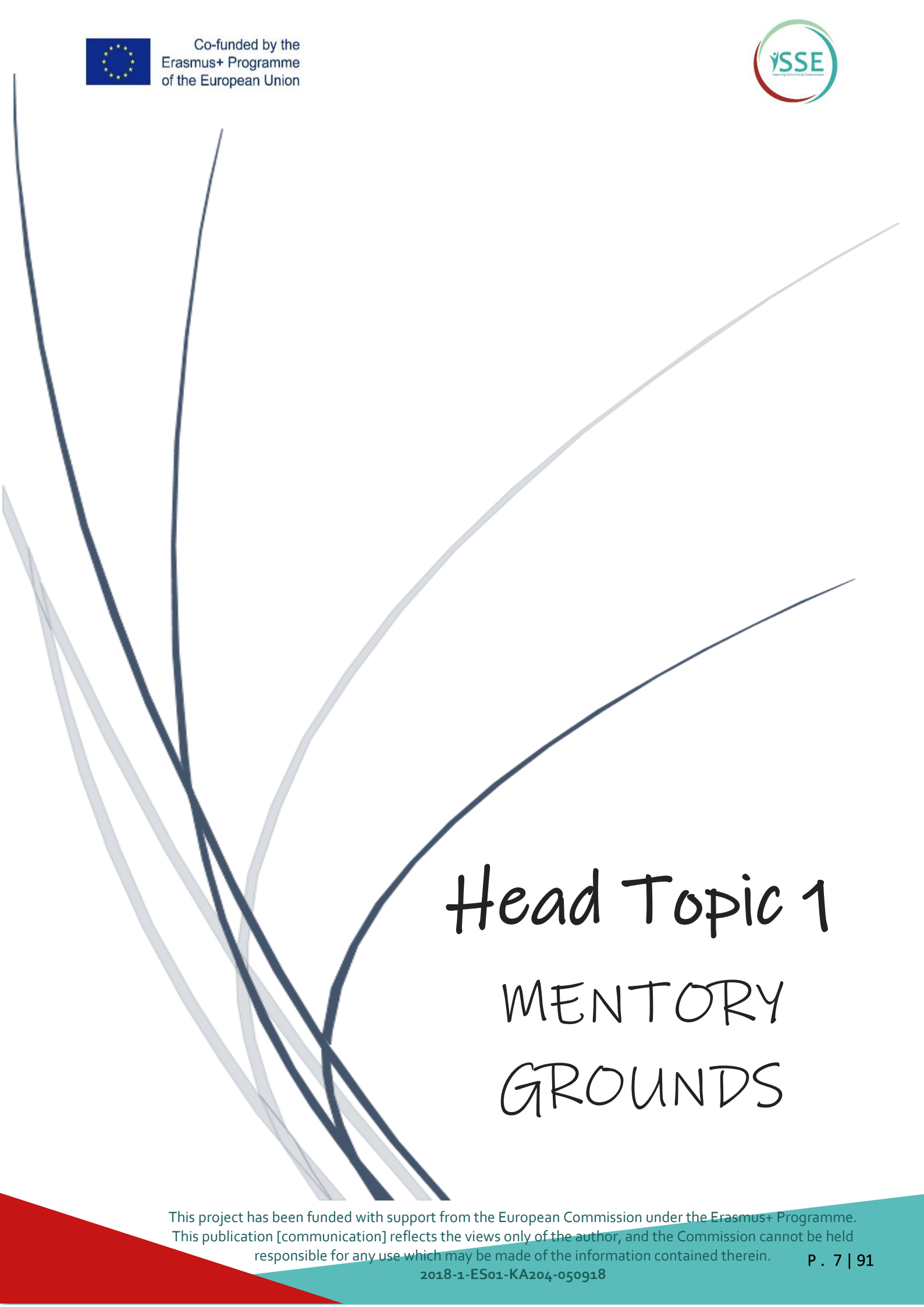
At the end of the module, an important training evaluation sheet is left for each learner to give their feedback on the training experience and everything that can be evaluated with a view to further improvement in the future.

Lastly, before we move on to the programmatic contents, we clearly expose here the overall goals and learning outcomes that we intend for this specific training. As general objectives, learners are expected to be able to:

- a) increase their knowledge about mentoring, as a process and relational act;
- b) improve the skills useful to the mentor of social entrepreneurs, and;
- c) know strategies and approaches to effectively manage the mentoring relationship.

At the end of the training and as learning outcomes, it is expected that the mentors, by starting their noble activity in mentoring, will be able to relate to the mentee and to ensure a firm and objective orientation filled with concrete steps and, simultaneously, with the encouraging gesture of support and odd relational support.

We can only wish all the learning mentors, in a nutshell, an excellent learning and, above all, a great adventure full of challenges in the mentoring universe!



Head Topic 1

MENTORY GROUNDS



1. Introduction to Mentoring

Mentoring has been widely recognized as one of the key factors contributing to the development of individual skills, psychosocial or socio-emotional support, success in career advancement and equally in the field of entrepreneurship (Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, & Wilbanks, 2011; Jacobi, 1991; Kram, 1985; Packard, 2016). As such, efficient mentoring contributes to increased self-efficacy (Kram, 1985), improvement and broadening of skills and competencies (Jacobi, 1991). Therefore, mentoring can be transported to diverse contexts, such as entrepreneurship and business, education, job search, immigrant integration, among others (CEC/CCIC¹, 2014).

While mentoring is increasingly common in today's working contexts, it is not obvious what it means to be a mentor, or what a mentoring process entails.

1.1 What is mentoring and its relationship goals?

Mentoring can be considered a “confidential, voluntary, free personalized follow-up resulting from a good follow-up period by a mentor to respond to a person's specific needs: the mentee, according to goals for their personal and professional development / maturity, namely their skills and learning in a given context” (CEC/CCIC, 2014).

Mentoring is essentially helping people to develop more effectively. It is a relationship designed to build trust and support the mentee so that they can take control of their own development and work (Manchester Metropolitan University, s/d).

Mentoring takes place through a process that usually presupposes a clear and realistic start and end and objectives set by and for mentor and mentee from the very beginning, and also flexible and adjustable to the emerging situations of process evolution throughout the process time.

According to Claudio Brito (2017), mentoring almost is coaching but the difference is that coaching is more task-based, based on specific needs and goals that must be met, while mentoring, despite having goals, is more oriented to the process or “path” and responds to the needs of mentee and his initiative.

¹ Source: Câmara de Comércio e Indústria do Centro - Conselho Empresarial do Centro.



So, mentoring is not the same as training, teaching or coaching, and a mentor doesn't need to be a qualified trainer or an expert in the role the mentee carries out. They need to be able to listen and ask questions that will challenge the mentee to identify the course of action they need to take in regards to their own development / project (Manchester Metropolitan University, s/d).

1.1.1 Mentor functions and mentee roles

Mentors are professionals with extensive experience in a specific area who will pay attention to a less experienced professional, the mentee, showing them the "stone path" (Cláudio Brito, 2017).

When thinking about mentoring, one often thinks of someone older as a mentor and the younger mentee, but it does not necessarily have to be that way. Importantly, there is a posture of humility on both sides and of wanting not only to impart wisdom but also to receive it. By way of example, it may well be that a young person mentors an elderly person in the context of new technologies. Yet studies seem to reveal that the relationship is more likely to succeed if the mentor is older than the mentee.

There are multiple **mentor functions** (CEC/CCIC, 2014: pp 22, 23):

- a) "*Career functions*": it favors the integration of (a) mentoring (a) a business community, sharing information and knowledge, confronts to advance reflection, gives suggestions and advice;
- b) "*Psychological functions*": aids in reflection, reassures the mentee, gives him confidence, motivation, friendship (becomes a confidant of mentee);
- c) "*Function of the role model*": expose their successes and failures, setting an example and counter-example and helping the mentee to integrate the experiences in his reflection.

As for the **mentor's roles**, they go through (CEC/CCIC, 2014: pp 25):

- a) Freely accept to be accompanied by a mentor for the purpose of improving their skills;
- b) Adopt a positive attitude towards the mentoring relationship;
- c) Act according to the ethics of the mentoring program in which it participates;
- d) Be transparent with the mentor.



1.1.2 Skills and experience required to be a mentor

According to Manchester Metropolitan University:

- **Self Awareness** – you should have a good understanding of your own strengths and development needs.
- **Organisational know-how** – you should know how to get things done and how things work.
- **Credibility** – you should have personal and professional credibility, this may include being a member of relevant organisations.
- **Accessibility** – you should be willing and able to commit sufficient time to your mentee to offer support and guidance.
- **Communication** – you need excellent communication skills and be able to understand the ideas and feelings of others. You also need to be a great listener.
- **Ability to empower** – you should be able to create an working environment where it is safe for individuals to try out different things, allowing them to contribute in different ways.
- **A desire to help others develop** – you should understand how individuals develop and have experience, either formally or informally, of developing others.
- **Inventiveness** – be open to new ways of doing things and different ways of working.
- **Empathy** – ability to empathise with others.
- **Understanding** – you should be prepared to try to understand different perspectives, approaches and possibly backgrounds of different mentees.

1.1.3 Mentor and mentee rights and responsibilities

According to the toolkit produced by FHI 360 / Linkages (2016, pp 19), the following mentor rights can be mentioned as:

- The right to be treated with respect.
- The right to tailor support as a mentor to his/her professional and personal agendas.
- The right to receive sufficient training, support and resources to perform their role well.
- The right to refuse any mentee if feels uncomfortable with.
- The right to refuse to do any work that it deems unethical or appropriate.



The main responsibilities of the mentor are:

- Know his/her specialty.
- Prepare for meetings or conversations.
- Maintain a professional posture that respects, be patient and attentive to the needs of the mentee.
- Respect the confidentiality of mentee.
- Give feedback from your experiences, positive or negative.

Regarding the mentee rights:

- The right to expect the mentor to have knowledge in the area.
- The right to expect the mentor to be professional and able to conduct meetings.
- The right to feel safe and comfortable with the mentor.
- The right to refuse to work with a mentor that he/she feel uncomfortable with.
- The right not to feel judged or inappropriate.
- The right to expect confidentiality.

As for the mentee responsibilities:

- Be an active learner.
- Prepare for meetings with questions and challenges you need assistance with.
- Take technical and organizational benefits from the relationship by accepting and adapting the advice that is appropriate for your organization / project.
- Give feedback on his/her experiences, both positive and negative.

1.1.4 Mentor and mentee Benefits

The main benefits of mentoring for the mentors are (CEC/CCIC, 2014: pp 24):

- **Personal satisfaction / fulfillment** - proud to support projects that they consider viable and potential people;
- **Recognition** - Enjoy being recognized as selfless and socially responsible people who want to share their knowledge and experience with others;
- **Actualization** – permanent contact with ambitious people with different and innovative ideas and knowledge. The relationship also benefits the mentor from the perspective



that he also learns and increases his knowledge through participation in new realities.

In addition, they sharpen their skills as leaders and facilitators;

- **Legacy** – reproducing one's own success in imparting knowledge and experience;
- **Investment in the future** - their relationship with their mentees is symbiotic because they often pass — during or at the end of the mentoring process, but not a goal — to business partners, often catapulting a business idea or project to success.

With regards to the mentees, the main benefits are (CEC/CCIC, 2014: pp 25):

- **Learn the business world;**
- **Access to networks** of people / contacts;
- **Have trusted people** to ask questions without fear, because they are people who know they are still learning;
- **Motivation** - Mentees are aware that someone is investing in their success.
- **New knowledge and experience** - acquire new knowledge and develop activities that can be very useful in entrepreneurial activity;
- **Faster evolution** - when there is a productive relationship, there are more opportunities;
- **Counseling and support** - Mentors can offer critical capacity and positive reinforcement.

1.2 Social entrepreneurship grounds

We can define Social Entrepreneurship as the “process of finding and implementing innovative and sustainable solutions to major and neglected societal problems, which translates into social innovation whenever more efficient responses (compared to those in place) to the problem at hand. question” (Santos, 2012).

Social entrepreneurship has always existed. However, the term social entrepreneurship was conceptualized more precisely in the late 1990s, emphasizing the social innovation processes undertaken by social entrepreneurs (Defourny, 2009).



According to Miguel Alves Martins and Susana Pinheiro (2012), social entrepreneurship initiatives are characterized by:

- A social mission that seeks to respond to a social problem;
- An innovative solution characterized by the creation of a product, good or service or a new business model that enables greater value creation at lower cost;
- The generation of social impact, having a strategy based on the positive social transformation generated in its target audience;
- A high potential for scalability or replicability as these initiatives are not dependent on a local ecosystem, which allows these projects to grow or replicate;
- A strong achieved through diversification of income sources.

1.2.1 Problem, value proposition and solution

As we saw earlier, it is social problem solving that drives the creation of social entrepreneurship projects. In this sense, a successful project will always be one that starts from deep knowledge and diagnosis of the problem, its causes and consequences, and scope (usually, the most successful social entrepreneurship projects act at the level of the causes).

The solution should be described by a value proposition that summarizes the benefits and differentiating characteristics of the project.

Ideally, it should translate into a clear, convincing, credible and succinct statement.

In order to ensure the sustainability of social entrepreneurship projects, own revenues (through the sale of a product or service) can be generated from the client / beneficiary segment, using abundant or accessible resources or attracting key partners available and willing to pay for the impact or value generated.



The nine building blocks of the Business Model Canvas:

1. **Customer Segments.** The different groups of people or organizations an enterprise aims to reach and serve.
2. **Value Proposition.** The bundle of products and services that create value for a specific Customer Segment. Value may be quantitative (e.g. price, speed of service) or qualitative (e.g. design, customer experience).
3. **Channels.** How a company communicates with and reaches its Customer Segments to deliver a Value Proposition. Communication, distribution and sales Channels comprise a company's interface with customers. Channels can be direct or indirect, owned or partner channels.
4. **Customer Relationships.** The types of relationships a company establishes with specific Customer Segments.
5. **Revenue Streams.** The cash a company generates from each Customer Segment.
6. **Key Resources.** The most important assets required to make business model work. These resources allow an enterprise to create and offer a Value Proposition, reach markets, maintain relationships with Customer Segments, and earn revenues. Key resources can be physical, financial, intellectual, or human. They can be owned or leased by the enterprise or acquired from key partners.
7. **Key Activities.** The most important things a company must do to make its business model work. They are the actions that are required to create and offer a Value Proposition, reach markets, maintain Customer Relationships and earn revenues.
8. **Key Partnerships.** The network of suppliers and partners that make the business model work.
9. **Cost Structure.** All costs incurred to operate a business model.

Business Model Canvas can also be applied to non-profit organizations, charities, public sector entities, and for-profit social ventures. Osterwalder (2010) argue that every organization has a business model, because it must generate enough revenue to cover its expenses to survive. The only difference between traditional business enterprise and social enterprise concerns the focus of the organization.

Business enterprise focuses more on financial returns or shareholder value, while social enterprise focuses more on ecology, social causes, and public service mandates, according to Business Model Generation.

Osterwalder et al. use the term “beyond-profit business models” to characterize business models for organizations that are not traditional for-profit companies.

They further split these “beyond-profit business models” into two categories: a) Third Party Financed Model, and; b) Triple Bottom Line Business Model.

. *Third Party Financed Model*

In this model, the product or service recipient is not the payer. The payer is a third party, which might be a donor. The third party pays the organization to fulfill a mission, which may be a social, ecological, or public service nature. Examples are philanthropy, charities and government (Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010).

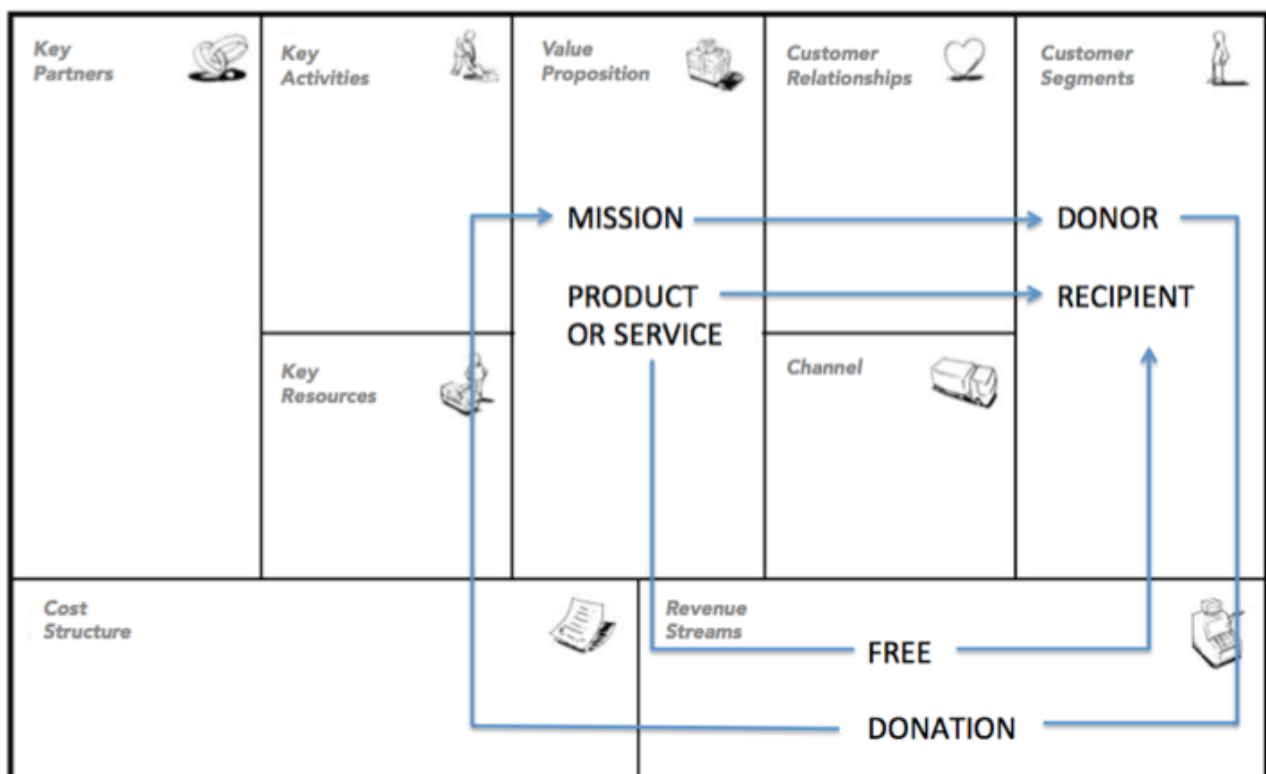


Figure 2. Third-party Funded Model. Adapted from Business Model Generation (2010) by Osterwalder A. & Pigneur Y.



. *Triple Bottom Line Business Model*

Elkington (1994) introduces the term of triple bottom line concept for corporations to focus not just on economic value, but also on environmental and social value. This concept was first articulated by Spreckley (1981) in *Social Audit - A Management Tool for Co-operative Working*. Since then, it gains leverage with the growing awareness of environment and need for sustainable. In order to make the triple bottom line concept a little easier for people to grasp, Elkington comes up with three Ps: people, planet and profits. One is the standard measure of corporate profit—the “bottom line” of the profit and loss account. The second is the bottom line of a company's “people account”—a measure of how socially responsible an organization has been throughout its operations. The third is the bottom line of the company's “planet” account—a measure of how environmentally responsible it has been. These three are referred as the three pillars of sustainability.

Organizations using a triple bottom line business model have a different central goal. Instead of maximizing shareholder value, as with many traditional businesses, the triple bottom line organization’s goal is to expand its range not only to account for a continued and sustainable financial base but also for continued collaboration towards solving social and environmental concerns.

In order to accommodate triple bottom line business models, the Canvas is extended at the bottom with two new building blocks: the social and environmental costs and the social and environmental benefits.

The triple bottom line model seeks to minimize negative social and environmental impacts and maximize the positive³.

The screen is then extended at the bottom with two new building blocks: social and environmental costs and social and environmental benefits.

³ See a very similar example - *The Sustainable Business Model Canvas*: https://www.case-ka.eu/wp/wp-content/uploads/2017/05/SustainableBusinessModelCanvas_highresolution.jpg

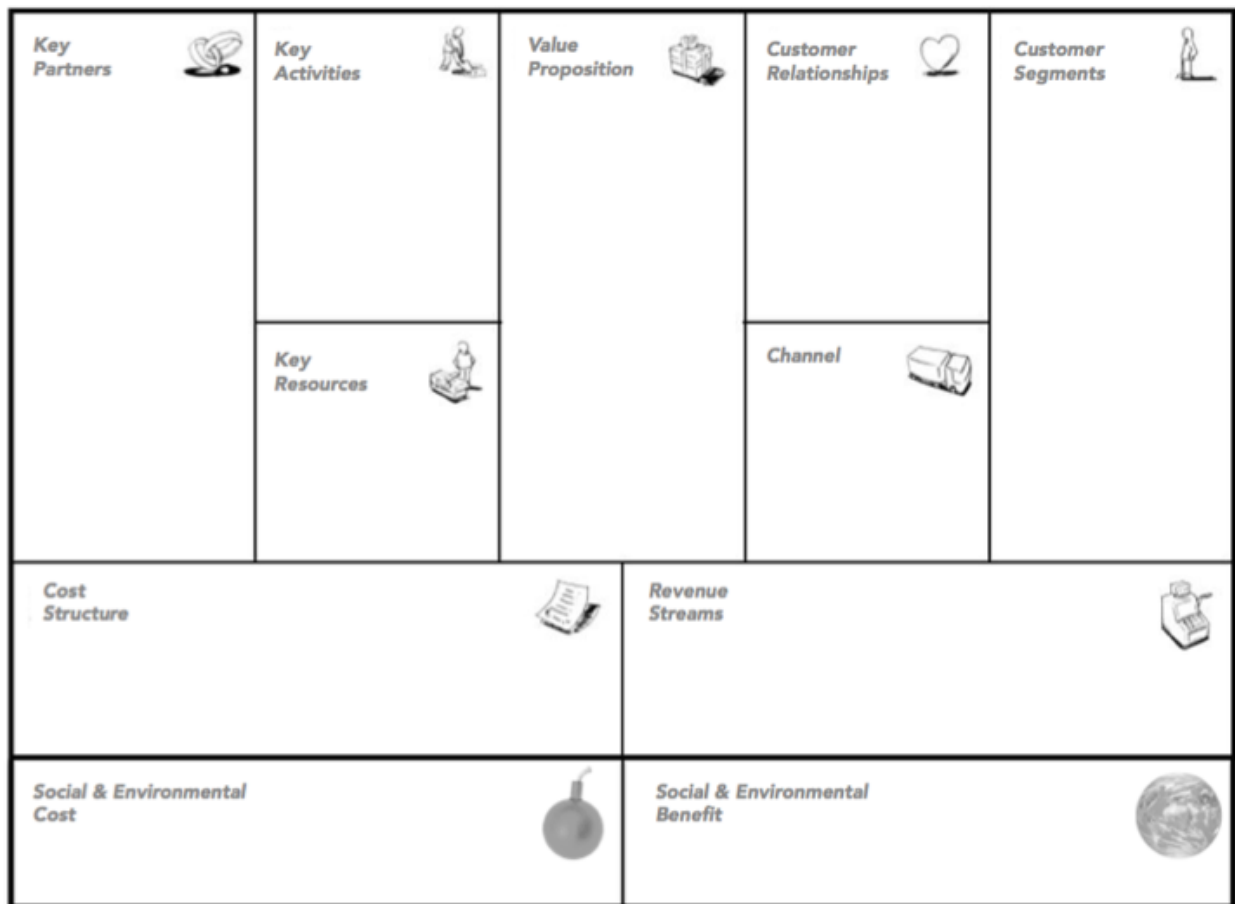


Figure 3. Triple Bottom Line Business Model. Adapted from Business Model Generation (2010) by Osterwalder A. & Pigneur Y

. Social Business Model Canvas

Social Innovation Lab goes as far as rearranging the building blocks; differentiating value proposition into Social and Customer Value Proposition, adding Impact Measures in Value Proposition block; differentiating customers into beneficiary and customer; replacing Customer Relationship with Type of Intervention block; and adding Surplus block into the Canvas. It is an interesting take of Canvas thought it might be confusing for those used to Osterwalder's Canvas, because the sequence is also affected. The most interesting addition is the Surplus building block, because for social enterprise, the Surplus has to be reinvested into the mission unlike the freedom of business enterprise with its surplus.

note that this tool can be confusing for those who are used to the Osterwalder tool, because logic and sequence is also affected.



Social Business Model Canvas

<p>Key Resources</p> <p><i>What resources will you need to run your activities? People, finance, access?</i></p>	<p>Key Activities</p>	<p>Type of Intervention</p> <p><i>What is the format of your intervention? Is it a workshop? A service? A product?</i></p>	<p>Segments</p>	<p>Value Proposition</p> <p>Social Value Proposition</p> <p>Impact Measures</p>
<p>Partners + Key Stakeholders</p> <p><i>Who are the essential groups you will need to involve to deliver your programme? Do you need special access or permissions?</i></p>	<p><i>What programme and non-programme activities will your organisation be carrying out?</i></p>	<p>Channels</p> <p><i>How are you reaching your beneficiaries and customers?</i></p>	<p>Beneficiary</p> <p>Customer</p> <p><i>Who are the people or organisations who will pay to address this issue?</i></p>	<p><i>How will you show that you are creating social impact?</i></p> <p>Customer Value Proposition</p> <p><i>What do your customers want to get out of this initiative?</i></p>
<p>Cost Structure</p> <p><i>What are your biggest expenditure areas? How do they change as you scale up?</i></p>	<p>Surplus</p> <p><i>Where do you plan to invest your profits?</i></p>		<p>Revenue</p> <p><i>Break down your revenue sources by %</i></p>	

Inspired by The Business Model Canvas

Figure 4. Social Business Model Canvas. Reproduced from Social Innovation Lab.

For a deeper look at these models we leave here the suggestion for a more detailed reading of the book by Alexander Osterwalder & Yves Pigneur through the following link:

[http://alvarestech.com/temp/PDP2011/pdf/Business%20Model%20Generation%20\(1\).pdf](http://alvarestech.com/temp/PDP2011/pdf/Business%20Model%20Generation%20(1).pdf)

We also propose for an introductory first reading the following videos:

- The Nonprofit Business Model Canvas: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4pcnRIPJvj8>
- The Sustainable Business Model Canvas, 11 Steps to designing a successful sustainability strategy: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gVimMEI2u2w>
- Business Model Canvas for a Non Profit Organization: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YqAOePEMbVO>

Finally, in addition to some learning follow-up exercises for the learner mentor, we have included in this EXCERSICES NOTEBOOK a Social Canvas Business Template for use in the training context.



HEAD TOPIC 1 QUIZ – MENTORY GROUNDS

Part A – Correct option questions

- Q1.** From the four options described below, indicate the one or ones that do not match the mentor's responsibilities:
- maintain a professional posture
 - provide feedback from his/her positive or negative experiences
 - be a psychologist
 - be confidential
- Q2.** From the four options described below, indicate the one or ones that do not correspond to the mentee's responsibilities:
- be an active learner
 - freely accept to be accompanied by a mentor
 - provide feedback from his/her positive or negative experiences
 - prepare for meetings with questions and challenges
- Q3.** According to Manchester Metropolitan University, a mentor requires a skill set and experience. From the four options below, indicate which one corresponds to the following sentence: "He or she should be willing and able to commit sufficient time to your mentee to offer support and guidance":
- Accessibility
 - Ability to empower
 - Inventiveness
 - Understanding
- Q4.** The mentoring process brings benefits to mentors. Of the four options below, please indicate which corresponds to the following sentence: "proud to support projects that they consider viable and potential people".
- Legacy
 - Recognition
 - Personal satisfaction / fulfillment
 - Actualization
- Q5.** According to some authors, social entrepreneurship initiatives are characterized by or by the existence of certain aspects. From the four options below, indicate which one corresponds to the following sentence: "aims to solve a social problem".
- financial sustainability strategy
 - generation of social impact
 - innovative solution
 - social mission
- Q6.** According to Business Model Canvas, nine building blocks are operationalized in the model. From the four options below, indicate which one matches the following phrase: "bundle of products and services that create value for a specific customer segment".
- Key Resources
 - Key Partnerships
 - Customer Relationships
 - Value Proposition



Part B – True or false questions

- Q7.** Of the business models covered in this topic, the Third Party Financed Model is characterized by the notion of donor and the existence of a new block called “Surplus”.
- True
 - False
- Q8.** Triple Bottom Line business model, adapted from Osterwalder and Pigneur, extends two new building blocks: social and environmental costs and social and environmental benefits.
- True
 - False
- Q9.** Examples such as philanthropy, charities, and government are characterized or operationalized through the Third Party Financed Model.
- True
 - False
- Q10.** According to Business Model Canvas's nine building blocks, the Key Activities block is not the most important thing a company must do to make the business model work.
- True
 - False
- Q11.** Triple Bottom Line Business, is a model that brings to the concept three fundamental P's: People, Planet and Profits.
- True
 - False
- Q12.** One of the noticeable changes from Social Business Model Canvas compared to the Business Model Canvas version is the differentiation of customers from beneficiary and customer.
- True
 - False

Quiz End 😊



Head Topic 2

MENTORY PREPARATION



2. Mentoring Process

2.1 Programs, selection and matching

2.1.1 Mentoring Programs

Mentoring programs generally cover people of any age and can be explored in a wide variety of professional goals and contexts (Susan & Searby, 2013), from education to specific needs such as minority groups, entrepreneurship and start-up business, for example (Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002).

According to Poulsen (2013), mentoring programs have become popular in companies, organizations, trade unions, professional associations and many other contexts. In this sense, mentoring relationships are not permanent and can be successive, and a person may have several mentors throughout their professional life (Poulsen, 2014).

These programs are perceived as the "rules of the road" for interactions within mentoring relationships (Ragins, 2007 cited by Chandler, Kram & Yip, 2011).

Traditional mentoring is usually one-to-one but there are still other ways such as peer mentoring and group mentoring, for example (Haggard, Dougherty, Turban & Wilbanks, 2010). The first advantage over other types of mentoring is that it provides the mentee with personalized attention.

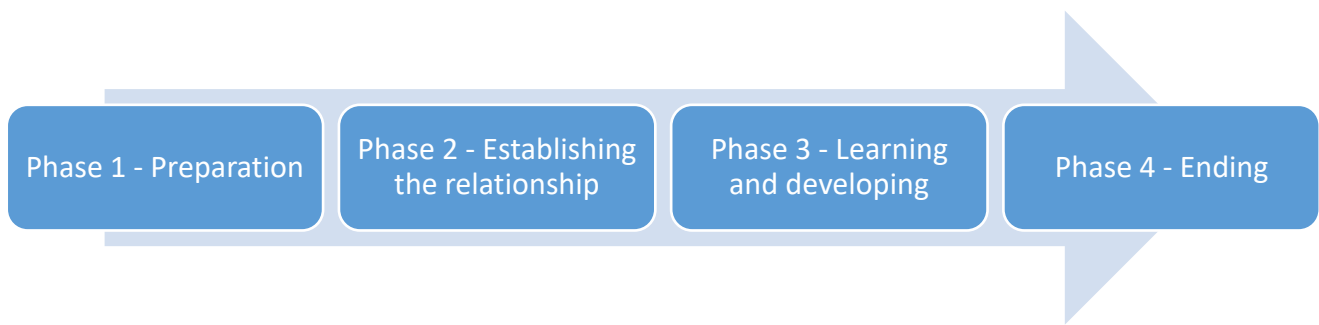
In general, Poulsen (2013) states that a good mentoring program must include a neutral match between a mentee and a more senior mentor, developing a confidential learning and cooperation environment where opportunities, ambitions and capabilities are explored.

The program should be challenging for both parties in self-awareness and self-realization as seen through each other's eyes, as well as benefiting mentors in developing leadership and other skills that come from their role as mentor.

There are different types of mentoring programs tailored to their specific nature, framed within organizations or, for example, specific to particular careers, such as the American Psychological Association program (APA, 2006; Kram, 1983; B. R. Ragins & Kram, 2007, for example).

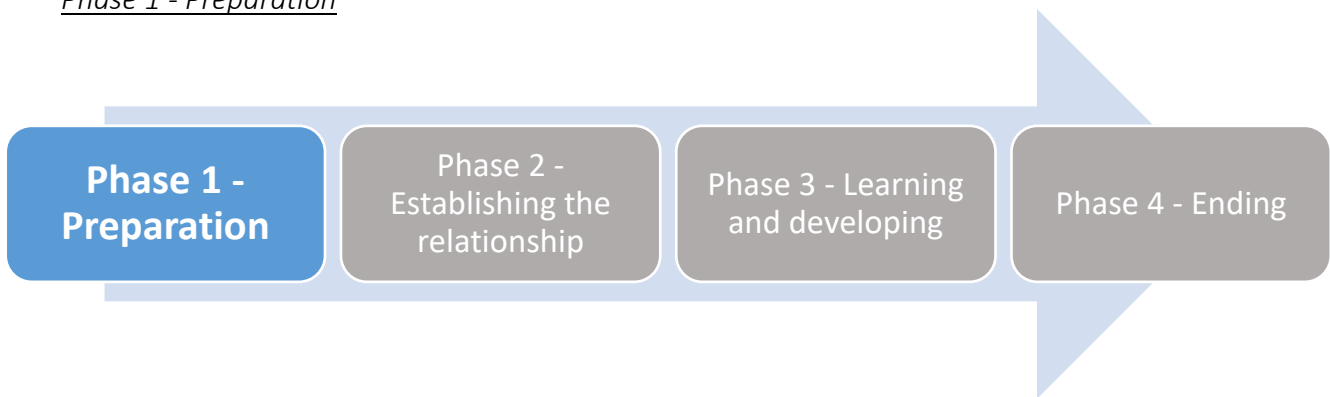
However, we will follow the proposal presented by Kirsten Poulsen (2014), whose mentoring process is marked by four distinct phases in a Formal Mentoring Program, as shown below:

Figure 5: Phases of the Formal Mentoring Program



As the illustration demonstrates, an effective formal mentoring relationship will go through four definite stages. The time spent in each of these stages differs from relationship to relationship, but all relationships come across these four stages.

Phase 1 - Preparation



This first phase involves the final decisions of the mentors and potential mentees to enter the mentoring program. It is the phase of the selection and matching processes ⁴.

The preparation phase is the beginning of the discovery process. Because each mentoring relationship is unique, the mentor and mentee should take the time to set the initial parameters of the possible future relationship.

Mentees should know the proposed overall program and consider if it fits their social business plans and learning needs.

It is therefore the time to take into account the purpose of the mentoring program, the way it is organized and on what terms will be made by the organization / incubator.

⁴ Further to the point described and referred to as Selection in the Mentoring Process, we refer to Mentee Application Form & Mentor Application Form in EXERCISES NOTEBOOK exercises 1 and 2 of the Head Topic 2 which can be explored in the context of training and this stage of preparation.



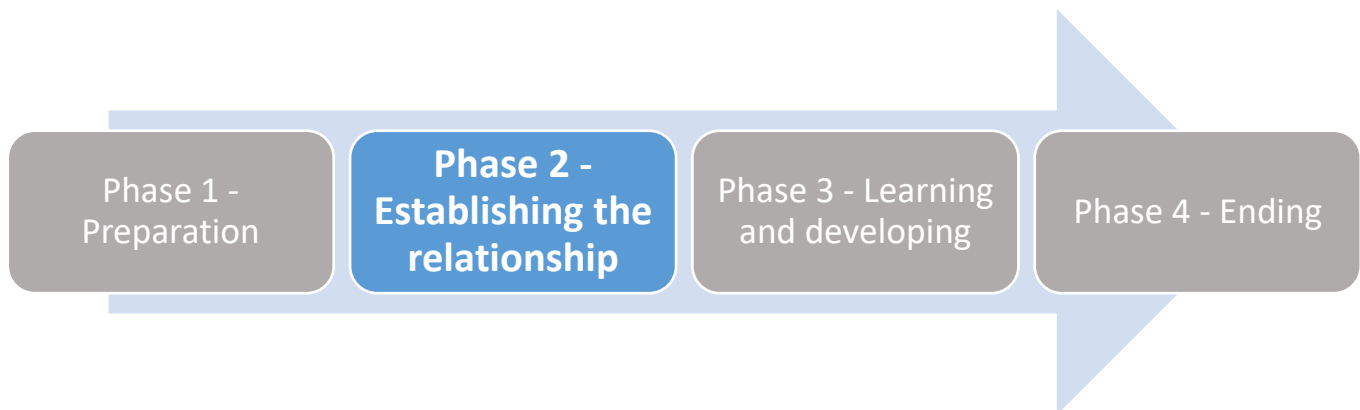
In turn, mentors should consider whether they feel they have the **SKILLS, TIME** and **MOTIVATION**.

Has availability? Can you prioritize time? What is the support of the organization / incubator?

And how can they benefit from assuming the role of mentor?

Thus, both potential mentors and mentees should consider whether the learning benefits and outcomes of the mentoring program will match the investment in terms of time and effort. If these questions are not adequately clarified in the preparation phase, problems in the mentoring relationship may subsequently arise.

Phase 2 - Establishing the relationship



This second phase begins when mentors and mentees first meet.

Here the pair must know well to establish a relationship with openness and trust.

Trust is not automatic. This phase can be referred to as “building a trust account”: speaking and clarifying the elements that create a trust account that can build up during the relationship, rather than creating obstacles that can block valuable dialogue and about oneself and about the mentoring process.

They explore their motivations for joining the program and set the ground rules for their collaboration, including:

- **Objectives** - the benefits you desire by participating in the mentoring program;
- **Expectations** - what they expect from each other;



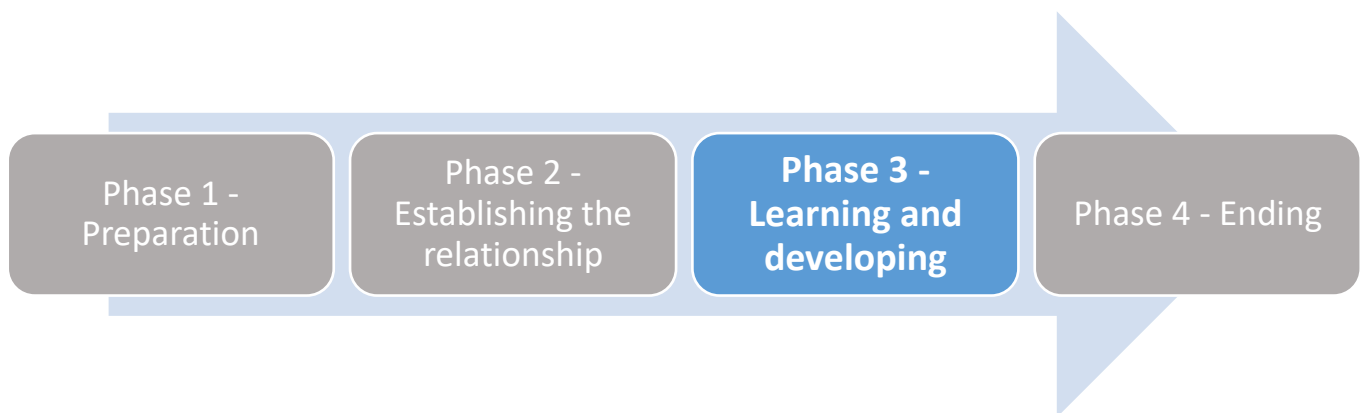
- **Cooperation** - when, how often and where they want to meet, how many meetings, what documentation, the possibility of using a logbook, if necessary, etc .;
- **Basic rules and ethics** - confidentiality, preparation, limits, feedback, etc.;
- **Assessment and monitoring** - regular assessment of the learning process and outcomes;
- **Completion** - when, how and what it means to the end.

According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development mentoring program (2017), for purely mentoring purposes, we propose three important tools for this phase⁵:

- a) Mentoring Contract;
- b) Mentoring Action Plan;
- c) Mentoring Review Form.

However, we recall that the whole mentoring relationship is involved in the social entrepreneur's social business plan and is being built based on the model already discussed in the previous Head Topic 1– *Social Business Model Canvas*.

Phase 3 - Learning and developing



This is the stage when real learning takes place and, despite mentoring meetings, these are sometimes not enough.

Mentoring can speed up the learning process because of mentor support and mentoring conversations, but the mentee needs to act and undertake in real life and not just theorize with the mentor.

⁵ Such suggested template tools are available for learning mentors to train in the context of non-formal training, corresponding to Exercises 3, 4, and 5 of the Head Topic 2 of the EXERCISES NOTEBOOK.



To ensure a good mentoring result, there must be a proper balance between the number of meetings and the time to act / experience.

Meetings should be close enough for the both to maintain the relationship and not continually return to square one. Meetings should also be far enough apart for learners to perform the agreed actions between meetings.

Best practice suggests a meeting **every 3-6 weeks**. During a **12-month program**, there will be about ten meetings, taking into account the vacation period.

The following is a summary table with some tools that we find useful from both the mentor's and the mentee's points of view, so that the sessions that will take place over the course of 12 months will progress as much as possible.

Table 1: summary of documents required for mentoring sessions ⁶

MENTOR	MENTEE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentee Preparation Sheet (to be sent to Mentor before the session) - Exercise 6 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentee Preparation Sheet (to be sent to Mentor before the session) - Exercise 6
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring Session Worksheet (to be used in the session) - Exercise 7 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring Session Worksheet (to be used in the session) - Exercise 7
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring Time Log – Exercise 8 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring Time Log – Exercise 8
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentor Partnership Evaluation Form - Exercise 10 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentee Partnership Evaluation Form – Exercise 9

Source: <https://www.wci.org.uk/sites/default/files/Speed%20Mentoring%20Toolkit%20-%20Handout.pdf>

Finally, although in the next Head Topic 3 this is devoted to relationship regulation, we leave here some suggestions for solutions to problems that may arise from the mentor, mentee, and both. However, this kind of mini “Mentoring Trouble-Shooting Toolbox” presented here just underlines how important the next topic on conflict management is.

⁶ Such suggested template tools are available for learning mentors to train, corresponding to Exercises 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 of the Head Topic 2 from the EXERCISES NOTEBOOK.



Mentor Pitfalls <i>(problems caused by the mentor)</i>	
Pitfalls	Solutions
Overprotection	Realise that your role is not to protect the mentee from usual feedback that is hard but rather to develop the mentee
Ego: the relationship is more important than the mentor	Refocus yourself by concentrating on the development of the mentee and not on yourself
Cloning: “Mini me syndrome”	Respect the individuality of the mentee and focus on his/her development needs according to potential and not your preferences or personality Ask the questions: “Am I trying to mould a mini me?”
Cultural domination	Learn as much as possible about the mentee’s culture and respect it. Do not enforce your own cultural beliefs
Work overload	Be realistic in terms of the mentee’s workload
Lack of flexibility	Always think of new ways of achieving development and learning. Adapt your style according to changing business needs and realities. Realise that your style of learning might be different from your mentee and accommodate for that.
Being too nice	Rather be firm, direct and straight to the point so that mentee gets honest feedback & the opportunity to learn from mistakes. Live by this Emotionally intelligent adage: It’s not what you say...It’s how you say it! It’s not what you do....It’s how you do it!
Being too strict	Be realistic and balance in terms of your expectations, objectives & approach. Ask the question: “Am I a perfectionist and how can this drive to rigid types of expectations and behaviours?”



Mentee Pitfalls <i>(problems caused by the mentee)</i>	
Pitfalls	Solutions
Manipulation	Make it clear to the mentee that you see the manipulation and that you will not tolerate it. Set clear parameters for the relationship. Should the mentee continue with manipulation, terminate the relationship.
Hand-Outs	The mentee must realise that there are no hand-outs in mentoring. A good challenging task with a right deadline will send a clear message that there will be no hand-outs.
Jealousy	The mentor and mentee should be careful not to isolate or neglect other peers or behave in such a manner that feelings of jealousy are encouraged.
Unrealistic expectations	A clear mentoring contract, as well as open communication about realistic objectives will set the scene for a balanced mentoring programme.
Dependency	The mentor should help the mentee understand that the purpose of mentoring is to enable the mentee to develop in such a way that independence is achieved at the end of the relationship.
Under-performance	<p>If the mentee does not perform, organise a meeting to discuss under-performance.</p> <p>Ask mentee to generate possible solutions to improve performance. Based on these ideas set clear targets for performance improvement.</p> <p>If mentee struggles to generate solutions recommend possible solutions and get mentee to commit to choosing a particular course of action. This increases commitment and accountability towards performance improvement.</p> <p>Provide the necessary support and resources</p>



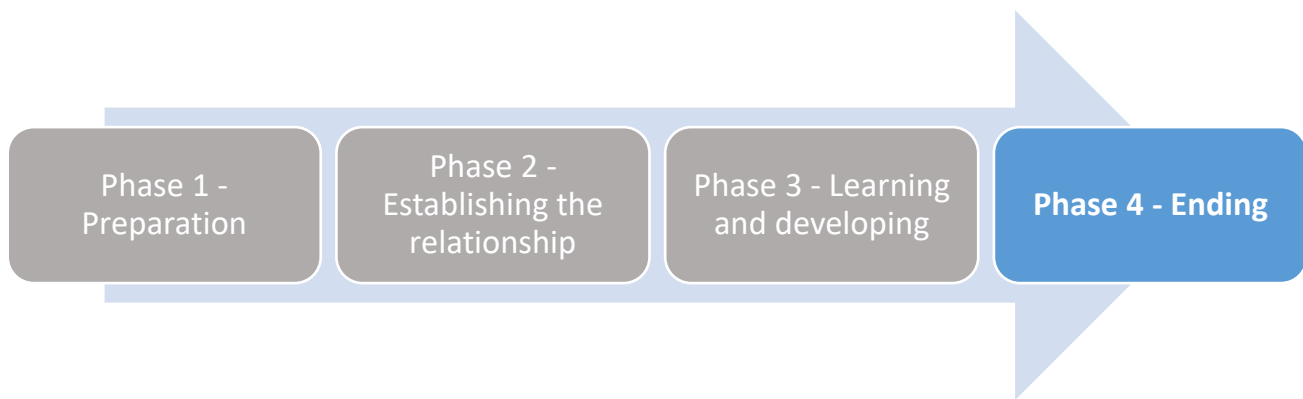
Relationship Pitfalls <i>(problems caused by both parties)</i>	
Pitfalls	Solutions
Intimate friendship	Be a good friend but make sure that the mentoring relationship takes precedence over the friendship. Define parameters of the relationship.
Unequal relationship	The mentee should be treated as an equal. Show respect and encouragement. The higher the sense of equality, the better the chances for open communication.
Too formal a programme	Encourage parties to identify opportunities for informal mentoring Ensure that the mentoring programme is not too structured or rigid
Too informal a programme	Give some structure to the programme by creating a mentoring policy and strategy. Monitor & review the success of the programme.
Diversity problems	Learn about the other party's culture and demonstrate sensitivity & respect.
Confidentiality issues	Both parties must commit to confidentiality when discussing sensitive issues, policy documents or other people that affect the relationship.
Incorrect matching	Do a proper assessment to ensure that mentors and mentees are correctly matched.
Untrained parties	Conduct a mentoring training programme for both parties
Conflict	Have an open discussion about the conflict and reach consensus on a solution

This last conflict trap will be developed in Topic 3, namely a set of tools for managing such conflicts that emerge in a mentoring process.

Before concluding this chapter, we will address the fourth and final phase proposed by Poulsen (2013) in the design of mentoring programs - the "final" phase of the process.



Phase 4 - Ending



This last phase is about ensuring a good and constructive end of the (formal) mentoring relationship.

Mentors and mentees are not required to continue seeing each other when the program ends.

Some of them may want to continue the mentoring relationship, others will continue to see each other less often, some will become friends and move on to a different kind of relationship, and others will just say thanks and move on.

All endings are equally good, however, the importance of formally assessing the individual outcome, giving feedback, and talking openly about the next step is a healthy exercise in itself and ensures that both the mentor and mentee are clear and aligned with their expectations to the next step.

For the program manager, formal process and outcome assessment at both the individual and program levels is important to gain new learning for future mentoring programs in the organization or incubator.

According to the four stages of the American Psychological Association mentoring process (APA, 2006) this stage corresponds to the separation stage.

It largely describes the end of a mentoring relationship. The relationship may end for a number of reasons, among which nothing is left to learn, the mentee may want to establish an independent identity, or the mentor may decide it is time for the mentee to be alone.

If the end of the relationship is not acceptable to both parties, this stage can be stressful, with one party unwilling to accept the loss. There may be problems between the mentor and the



mentee when only one party wants to dismiss the mentoring relationship. Therefore the finalization of the mentoring process is very important⁷.

. Selection in the Mentoring Process

Mentors really do have a big influence on the success of the mentoring program and whether the program will have the intended learning effect.

Mentors become role models for the minds and employees of the organization / incubator organizing the program. Just by being selected, they become role models in terms of behavior, values and competences.

Mentors are therefore responsible to both the mentee and the rest of the organization / incubator, so it is vital that the right mentors are selected based on the skills the organization / incubator wants to develop.

In addition, it is important that mentors understand their role and are genuinely interested and well prepared to play it (Poulsen, 2014).

It is therefore no wonder that the selection of mentors and mentees and their motivation to enter the mentoring relationship is vital to ensure results for themselves and the organization / incubator.

Sometimes, mentees are meticulously selected through assessment centers, personality tests, performance appraisals, etc. However, the selection of mentors and their training and preparation are rarely as complete.

As long as the mentor occupies a high place in the management hierarchy, it is assumed that he (even more commonly a man) is qualified to be a mentor (Poulsen, 2014).

According to the CGIAR program⁸ (s/d), some criteria should be taken into account when selecting both mentors and mentees in the mentoring process,.

Where they have been adjusted here.

⁷ We have provided the Mentoring Relationship Evaluation Form exposed for training through Exercise 11 of the Head Topic 2 from the EXERCISES NOTEBOOK.

⁸ A program of the International Agricultural Research Advisory Group



Criteria for mentees and mentors selection

Selection of Mentees⁹

There are often more mentees than can be chosen. While this is a positive sign that the program is wanted and needed, the disadvantage is that coordinators face a difficult selection process.

The following list provides some guidelines for restricting the candidate's starting field.

Determine that all mentees:

- ✓ are available for the duration of the program
- ✓ willing or motivated to participate in all activities

Select candidates by criteria such as:

- ✓ enthusiasm and initiative
- ✓ career goals and plans
- ✓ skill and knowledge requirements
- ✓ education and training background
- ✓ professional interests and area of expertise
- ✓ supervisory or professional potential

Selection of Mentors¹⁰

Individuals interested in becoming mentors will come from many backgrounds and with varying levels of interpersonal and professional experience, so it is important to be clear from the outset what kind of skills are required for this program.

For all applicants, it is important to consider:

- ✓ desire to be in the program
- ✓ good reputation and recognition
- ✓ skills in communicating and motivating
- ✓ willingness to work with other cultures or gender

⁹ We have provided Exercise 1 of the Head Topic 2 of the EXERCISES NOTEBOOK a Mentee Application Form for the mentoring training context, adapted from the CGIAR Guidelines.

¹⁰ Similarly, we provide Exercise 2 of the Head Topic 2 of the EXERCISES NOTEBOOK as a Mentor Application Form type for the training context, adapted from the CGIAR Guidelines



- ✓ Atual current workload and available Schedule
- ✓ mentees preferences
- ✓ ability to promote mentee visibility globally
- ✓ ability to invite mentees to attend key meetings
- ✓ ability to identify funds and resources for training, for exemple.

As the selection process continues, candidates' professional and interpersonal skills can be divided and thought out in terms of the qualities and experiences that the mentor and mentee “must have”.

. *Matching in the Mentoring Process*

Regardless of how the matching process proceeds, mentor-mentee combinations need to be checked for a “good fit”.

Each participant in the mentor-mentor relationship brings unique skills, backgrounds, learning styles and needs.

The same authors differentiate between types of entrepreneurs and mentors that are complementary (Memon, J., Rozan, M.Z.A., Ismail, K., Uddin, M. & Daud, D. K., 2015).

- ***Creative entrepreneurs*** “discover new industries that need financial or human resources, such as knowledge and skills to provide solutions to customer problems.” These entrepreneurs require mentors with creative leanings and similar experiences;
- ***Technology entrepreneurs*** are those who “successfully use talent and venture capital, innovative ideas and management skills to commercially produce effective and viable technological innovations or effectively leverage innovations using technology”. These techno-entrepreneurs need to gain mentor management skills to support technology-based ventures.
- ***Knowledge entrepreneurs*** who are “able to produce and use intellectual assets to grow new start-ups or services that can guide entrepreneurs to prosperity and wealth creation in the community and provide better and superior services.” This type of entrepreneur requires a mentor who is equally endowed with intellectual capital and practical experience.

Understanding and assessing where a mentee is professionally situated can help to assess or at least give an indication of whether a mentoring relationship can be successful. Applied to the different types of entrepreneurs mentioned above, for example: a “techno-entrepreneur” at the “business plan design” stage may not need entrepreneurial guidance because they are already independent decision makers - but may benefit from a “Psychological” mentor that can improve your communication or people with marketing skills, for example.

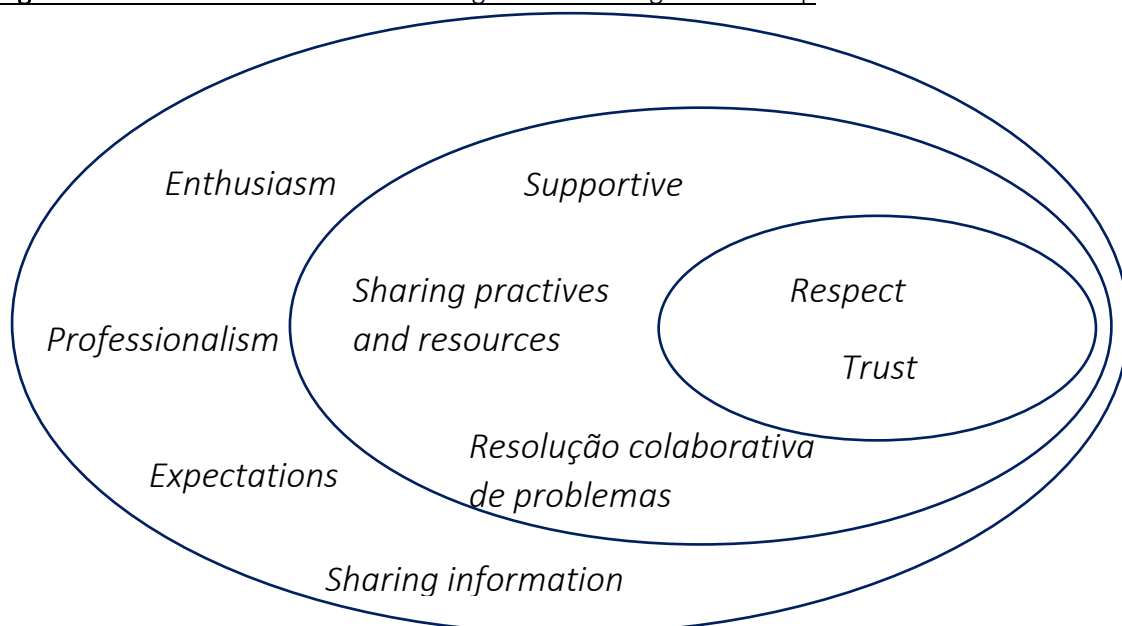
2.2 Credibility in Mentoring

Mentor was the name of a character from Greek mythology. Ulysses left his son, Telemachus, under the tutelage of his old friend Mentor, who was a wise and reliable advisor (Clutterback 1991).

In the years since Levinson's reference study on adult development mentoring (Levinson et al., 1978), a legion of writers and researchers have attempted to define the relationship between mentors and distinguish them from other forms of relationship. However, from the beginning, Levinson and his colleagues acknowledge that the mentoring relationship is more quality than one category, "mentoring is defined not in terms of formal roles, but in terms of character and relationship benefits s serving" (1978: pp 98).

A grounded-theory model proposed by Hudson (2014) illustrate the essential ways how mentors can assist in forming and developing further the mentor-mentee relationship (Figure.

Figure 6. Desirable Attributes for Forming the Mentoring Relationship



Trust is a vital dimension of the mentor-mentee relationship, as it positively increases both the quality and efficiency of the relationship (Kram, 1985). It is considered the most critical feature of any kind of dyadic relationship (Fisher & Brown, 1988; Pratt & Dirks, 2007), and is crucial to establishing and maintaining an effective relationship (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998).

On the other hand, in order to maximize the entrepreneur-mentor relationship benefits, it is expected and essential that the entrepreneur be open to change (Audet & Couteret, 2005), new experiences (Engstrom, 2004) and open to their respective mentor (Gravells, 2006).

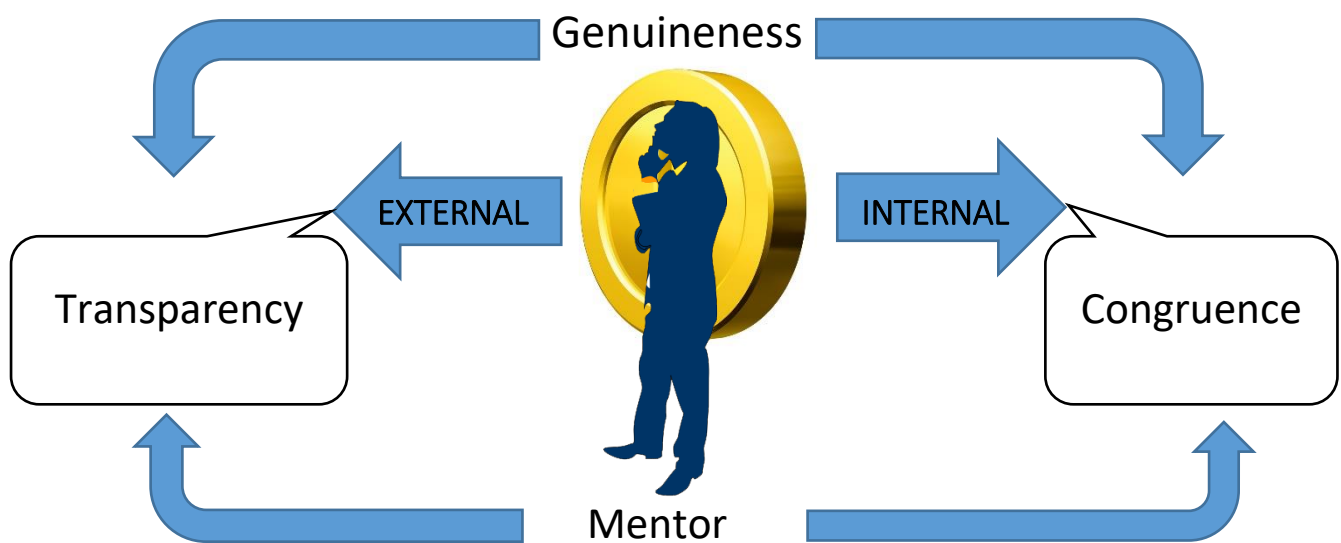
2.2.1 Authentic Relationships

Authentic relationships are the heart of mentoring, because relationships are the vehicle through which mentors can help others learn and grow.

Mentors need to be good at the initial relationship and maintain it over time. Authenticity is being real, it means being your true self: natural, genuine and honest, not an imitation. It is not simple to achieve such a reality. Being real involves the difficult task of becoming familiar with the flow of experience that occurs within yourself, a flow marked especially by complexity and continuous change (Rogers, 1966, p.185).

This concept - *genuineness* - clearly implies including both sides of the mirror: the inner side and the outer side. From the inside, the congruence of the individual mentor (a) and from the outside shows the transparency of the mentor, as illustrated in 7.

Figure 7. The two faces of the mirror of genuineness



The **inner side** refers to the degree to which the mentor is aware of all aspects of his own flow of experience and how he revises himself in his role. That is, this side of the process is called “**CONGRUENCE**” - that is, the consistency, in the face of total experience, in the relationship between the ideal of self and self-image (Schmid, 1998).

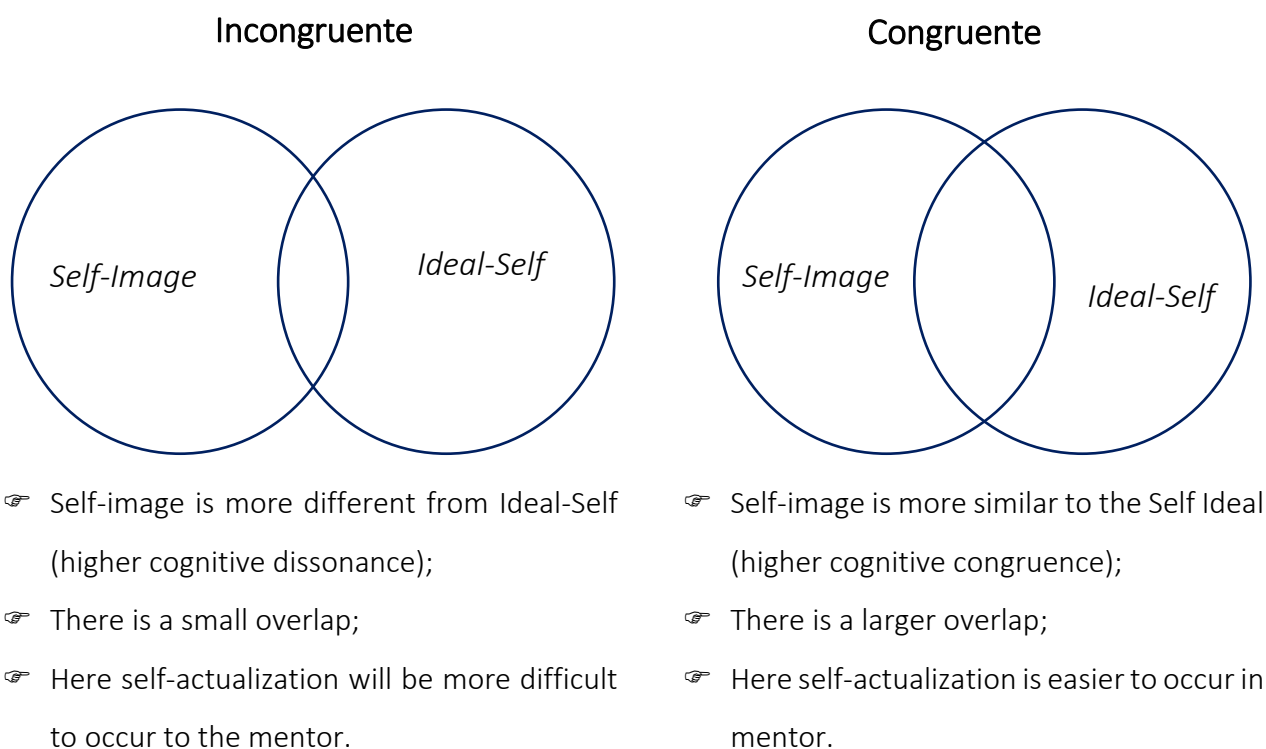
In turn, the **outer side** reflects the explicit communication by the mentor based on his conscious perceptions, attitudes and feelings. This aspect is called “**TRANSPARENCY**” - that is, the mentor becomes “transparent” to the mentee by communicating his or her similar past impressions and experiences (Schmid, 1998).

This fundamental skill for the mentor - genuineness is also called authenticity.

The easiest way to think of authenticity is to consider it as open communication. To make it easier for the mentee to understand the mentor, the mentor needs to be straightforward and open in the way he communicates. The mentor should not try to put himself on a pedestal and leave the mentee thinking that he is the teacher and he or she is the student - the mentor does not have all the answers and solutions to all the problems. Basically the mentor needs to be himself as he really is at that moment.

When a person's ideal self (in this case the mentor) is not consistent with what actually happens in the person's experiences and relationship with others, there is a difference between that person's ideal self and the actual experience in the relationship, what is called incongruence. Rarely, if ever, is there a state of total congruence; All people experience a certain amount of incongruity. The main differences are illustrated in the following figure.

Figure 8. Congruence and Incongruence Characteristics





According to Rogers (1961), we generally want to feel, experience, and behave in ways that are consistent with our self-image and also reflect the way we would like to be, our ideal-self.

The mentor should also encourage the mentee to communicate in this way. Being open communication can encourage them to stop denying, pretending, or hiding thoughts and feelings that may not be conducive to the mentoring process (or becoming aware of their cognitive and / or perceptive distortions) (Stephen, 1994).

Authenticity is not learned by simply forming or reading books, it is rather a way of being or being. However, there are ways to better communicate your authenticity to others:

- Learn to understand yourself and be able to describe yourself.
- Understand your mood swings and your strengths and weaknesses.
- Read books on personal growth, and recognize what you think and feel when reading this type of literature.
- Learn to understand your own behavior by examining or asking yourself why you sometimes react in an unintentional way (Stephen, 1994).

Briefly, and according to Sutton and Stewart (2002), in the relational act, authenticity requires mentor skills to be able to:

- ☞ **Demonstrate genuineness:** being who is open and transparent in the relationship, not hiding behind the mask of professionalism (here also known as realism or authenticity);
- ☞ **Show unconditional positive consideration:** acceptance of mentee without judgment or associated conditions (also referred to as caring, valuing, rewarding, respecting);
- ☞ **Transmit a deep level of empathic understanding:** the ability to “enter” into the other's world, as if one were putting on one's shoes, without getting lost (otherwise operates a defensive mechanism that is harmful to the mentor - projective identification).



HEAD TOPIC 2 QUIZ – MENTORY PREPARATION

- Q1.** Based on the four phases of Poulsen's formal mentoring program, the phases are in the following order:
- 1 - Preparation; 2 - Establishing the relationship; 3 - Learning and Developing; 4 – Ending
 - 1 - Establishing the relationship; 2 - Preparation; 3 - Learning and Developing; 4 - Ending
 - 1 - Preparation; 2 - Establishing Initial Cultivation; 3 - Learning and Developing; 4 – Ending
 - 1 - Establishing Initial Cultivation; 2 - Preparation; 3 - Learning and Developing; 4 – Ending
- Q2.** Of the following Pitfalls which one is not related to Relationship Pitfalls describe in this training module.
- Confidentiality issues
 - Under-performance
 - Incorrect matching
 - Conflict
- Q3.** In a mentoring selection process, indicate which criterion for selection of mentee seems to you to be the least suitable or more debatable in the selection process.
- Available for the duration of the program
 - Motivated to participate in all activities
 - Participate because it was referred by others or institutions
 - With minimum of skill and knowledge requirements
- Q4.** Selecting mentors for a particular mentoring program becomes important to consider some characteristics of such potential mentors. Indicate the attribute that in the exposed options below that seems less appropriate.
- desire to be in the program
 - skills in communicating and motivating
 - mentee preferences
 - Cultural domination
- Q5.** What kind of entrepreneurs can be designated for those who are “able to produce and use intellectual assets for the growth of new start-ups or services that can guide entrepreneurs to prosperity and wealth creation in the community and provide better and superior services”.
- Creative Entrepreneurs
 - Neutral entrepreneurs
 - Knowledge Entrepreneurs
 - Technology Entrepreneurs
- Q6.** What are the core attributes proposed by the Hudson model that are important in forming the mentor-mentee relationship?
- Authenticity and Respect
 - Trust and Respect
 - Professionalism and Respect
 - Professionalism and Trust



Part B – True or false questions

- Q7.** In building an authentic mentoring relationship, the mentor being congruent clearly presents himself with an Ideal-Self distinct from his Self-Image.
- a. True
 - b. False
- Q8.** In the authenticity of the mentor to the mentee, the mentor transparency clearly demonstrates that he is a person able to self-actualise.
- a. True
 - b. False
- Q9.** Confidentiality issues are important when both mentor and mentee discuss sensitive issues. It's one of the pitfalls mentee to watch out for.
- a. True
 - b. False
- Q10.** Cultural domination is one of the mentor pitfalls.
- a. True
 - b. False
- Q11.** Based on the four phases of Poulsen's formal mentoring program, it is in the Establishing the relationship phase when mentors and mentors first meet and not in the preparation phase.
- a. True
 - b. False
- Q12.** Still according to the four phases of Poulsen's formal mentoring program, it is in the learning and developing phase that the mentor should consider whether he or she has the skills, time and motivation to start the mentoring process with mentee.
- a. True
 - b. False

Quiz End 😊



Head Topic 3

RELATIONSHIP BUILDING

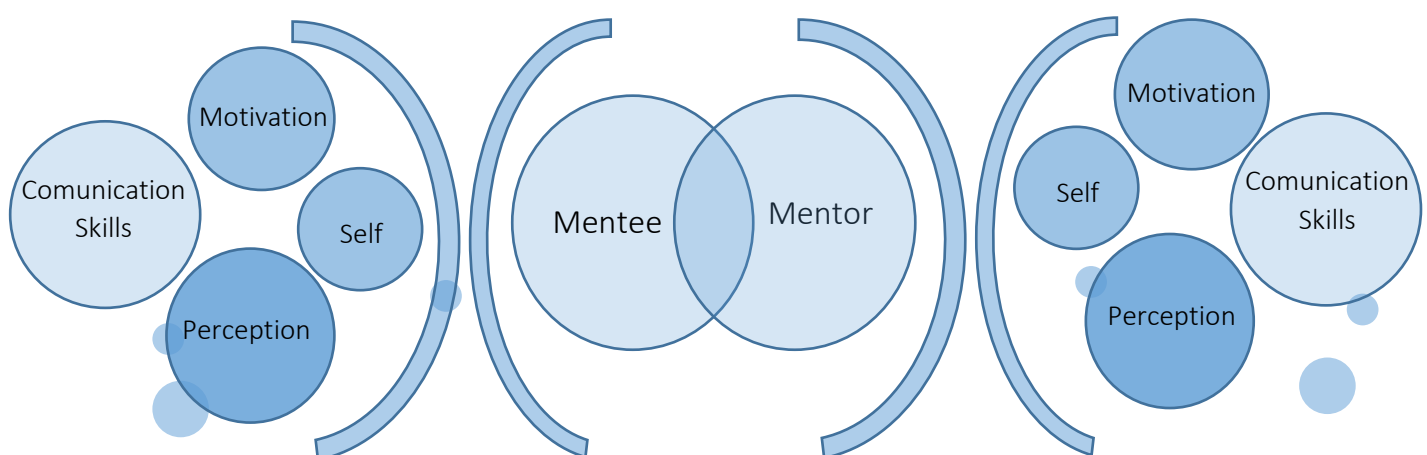
3. Essential elements in relationship building

Although with the prior identification of mentor profiles as well as the mentee (sharing biographical notes, curriculum ...), rights and responsibilities, roles and roles, and purpose of the relationship, which in a way gives us the mold in which the relationship of mentoring will develop between them, to build a relationship even if it is specific to mentoring in the predefined molds, this particular interpersonal relationship is always “sailing in never before navigated seas” because each encapsulates a giant iceberg of motivations, beliefs, expectations, values, attitudes, etc., not always visible (directly observable) and recognized (conscious to the individual).

The mentor can and should be a credible and experienced practitioner and the mentee committed and diligent, but without a good relationship it will never be possible for the life cycle of the temporally determined mentoring experience to be successful.

In this sense, we will address in the following points what we here designate as essential elements in the construction of human relationship important to assist the mentor in the relationship as mentee and the essential elements of and for the management of the mentoring relationship: as the human motivation; the human perceptive phenomenon; the self of the individual involved in the relationship and lastly; communication skills where through the message all the elements mentioned above lead to the relational act as illustrated by the figure below proposed by us. These are elements that we consider preponderant in a mentoring environment even if it is virtual¹¹.

Figure 9. Essential Elements for building the Mentoring Relationship



¹¹ E-mentoring is the fusion of mentoring with electronic communications, also called telementoria, cybermentoria or virtual mentoring. E-mentoring is a relationship that is established between a more experienced individual (mentor) and a less qualified or experienced individual (mentoring), with an emphasis on the use of electronic communications.



3.1 Human motivation

Entrepreneurial action occurs at the confluence of three necessary conditions, namely:

- **Means:** human, financial, technological capital;
- **Opportunity:** perception by the individual of an unmet need or underserved populace; and
- **Motive:** the desire, impetus, interest and propensity to apply the means to the opportunity (Douglas, 2013).

The missing link between intent and action – being motivation – has been well treated in the literature (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011).

Motivation is an important factor that distinguishes between those nascent entrepreneurs who establish enterprises and those who do not (Bullough, Galen Kroeck & Renko, 2012).

Motivation is a psychological construct and a significant driver in an individual mobilising to action (Akhter, Durrieu & Estay, 2013).

There are a variety of definitions of the concept of motivation according to different authors, currents and disciplines. A possible definition can be summed up as a “... set of energetic forces that originate both within and outside the individual, and which give rise to behavior, determining its shape, direction, intensity and duration” (Pinder, 1998).

In general, many definitions of the concept do not vary greatly and tend to include four fundamental elements:

1. **Stimulation** - energetic forces responsible for triggering behavior;
2. **Action and effort** - observed behavior;
3. **Movement and persistence** - prolongation of motivated behavior;
4. **Reward** - reinforces you from previous actions.

These elements allow the formulation that motivation management essentially involves the design of two systems: work systems based on the attribution of motivating functions or tasks and reward systems anchored by the work performed and / or the achievement of results (Pina e Cunha et al., 2014).



3.1.1 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

According to (Ryan and Deci, 2000) (pp. 56), **intrinsic motivation** is defined as doing an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequences. It is most commonly defined as “doing something for your own good,” such as when a child plays soccer because he simply wants to do it (Reiss, 2015).

While **extrinsic motivation**, by contrast, is a construct that belongs whenever an activity is done in order to achieve some separable result (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Refers to the pursuit of an instrumental value or goal, that is, taking the previous example, is when the child plays what football does so in order to please the father or win a championship (Reiss, 2015). Every human being has intrinsic and extrinsic motivations.

The economic view of entrepreneurial motivations holds that entrepreneurs are extrinsically motivated by the pursuit of wealth, status, and power. However, it should be noted that the interaction between extrinsic and intrinsic drivers or mobiles is more subtle, and entrepreneurs can get satisfaction from the entrepreneurial activity itself (Carsrud & Brannback, 2011).

From the panoply of existing theories grouped into different categories, such as content theories and the motivational process theories (Campbell et. Al., 1970; Pina and Cunha et al., 2014), we will briefly expose here only two important theories for the mentor to better frame their relationship with their minds, namely McClelland's Motivational Theory (one of the content theories) and Vroom's Expectancy Theory (one of the process theories).

In a narrow way and to clarify the main difference between these categories of motivation theories, content theories focus on the factors within the individual that energize, sustain and stop behavior. It is the specific needs that motivate people.

While process theories try to analyze motivation in a more dynamic way, seeking above all the answer to the following question: how does motivated behavior unfold? What is the process that leads people to apply more energy and more effort to accomplish tasks? (Pina and Cunha et al., 2014).

That is, process theories provide a description and analysis of how behavior is energized, directed, sustained or terminated.



3.1.2 McClelland Motivational Theory

In the early 1940s, Abraham Maslow created the theory of needs. It has identified the basic needs that humans have, in order of importance - physiological needs; security needs; and belonging needs (social or love), self-esteem and "self-realization". Then, in the early 1960s, David McClelland built on this work, another theory of motivation identifying three motivators or mobiles that we all acquire as human beings. According to McClelland (1961), these motivators are learned (this is why this theory is also referred to as The Needs Learning Theory). McClelland says that regardless of our gender, culture or age, we all have three drivers that motivate us, and one of them will be our dominant motivation (McClelland, 1987). However, this dominant motivator depends largely on our life experiences and culture.

According to this theory, McClelland proposed the following needs:

- **Achievement Need** - People have an intense desire for success and an equally intense fear of failure. It represents a drive for excellence, a preference for moderate risks, and seeking feedback to improve performance (Pina e Cunha *et al.*, 2014);
- **Affiliation Need** - According to Robbins (1988), the need for affiliation is the “desire to be loved and accepted by others”. This involves the need to be accepted by others, maintaining good social relationships, and the need to “belong” even if it means subordinating one's own personal motives “in order to be accepted by other group members”;
- **Power Need** - The need for power is the desire to influence people and have an impact on others. McClelland does not talk about power not in the dictatorial sense, but about the need to be strong and influential over others. According to Pina and Cunha *et al.* (2014), this need represents an orientation towards prestige and impact on other people's behaviors or emotions. A high motivation for power is associated with competitive and assertive activities, as well as an interest in achieving and maintaining prestige and reputation, and in exercising leadership roles.

In the following table, we present the main characteristics of the needs of success, affiliation and power, according to Pina and Cunha *et al.* (2014):



Table 2: Summary characterization of achievement, affiliation and power needs

Achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ It strives for success against a standard of personal excellence. ▪ It aspires to achieve high but realistic goals. ▪ Responds positively to competition. ▪ Take initiative. ▪ Prefers tasks whose results may be personally reasonable. ▪ Take moderate risks. ▪ Preferably relates to experts.
Affiliation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Looking for strong interpersonal relationships. ▪ Make efforts to build friendships and restore relationships. ▪ It attaches more importance to people than tasks. ▪ Seek approval from others for their opinions and activities.
Power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Seeks to control or influence others and to master the means that allow it to exercise that influence. ▪ Attempts to assume leadership positions spontaneously. ▪ Needs / likes to make an impact. ▪ Worries about prestige. ▪ Takes high risks.

McClelland's need for achievement is a key motivator for individuals to set up their own social businesses. Social entrepreneurs with higher need for achievement, usually plan ahead, take responsibility for the affairs, and seek immediate feedback to develop their entrepreneurial activities (Barba- Sanchez & Atienza-Sahuquillo, 2011).

3.1.3 Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Motivation

Expectancy theory, or also called expectation theory, is one of the cognitive theories of motivation. According to Vroom, the motivation process must be explained according to the goals and choices of each person, taking into account the expectations that they have to achieve these goals.

Each individual rationally decides how much effort they put into a work situation to achieve the desired rewards. Therefore, this theory is based on the assumption that people can make intelligent and rational estimates of the consequences of a given choice and how those consequences will affect their own interests (Rosenfeld & Wilson, 1999).



According to Pina and Cunha et al. (2014), the main contributions to the theory besides Victor Vroom, was that of Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler.

The degree of motivation towards a behavior, action or task depends on three fundamental perceptions or concepts: valence, instrumentality and expectancy (Robbins, 2002):

- 1) Valence (or Effort-Performance relation) is a measure of the attraction a particular outcome exerts on an individual or the satisfaction he or she expects to receive from a particular outcome. This result can be positive, negative or null:
 - ☞ Positive result: when a person prefers to reach it over;
 - ☞ Negative Result: when a person does not prefer to achieve the result; and
 - ☞ Null Result: when for a person is indifferent to the result.

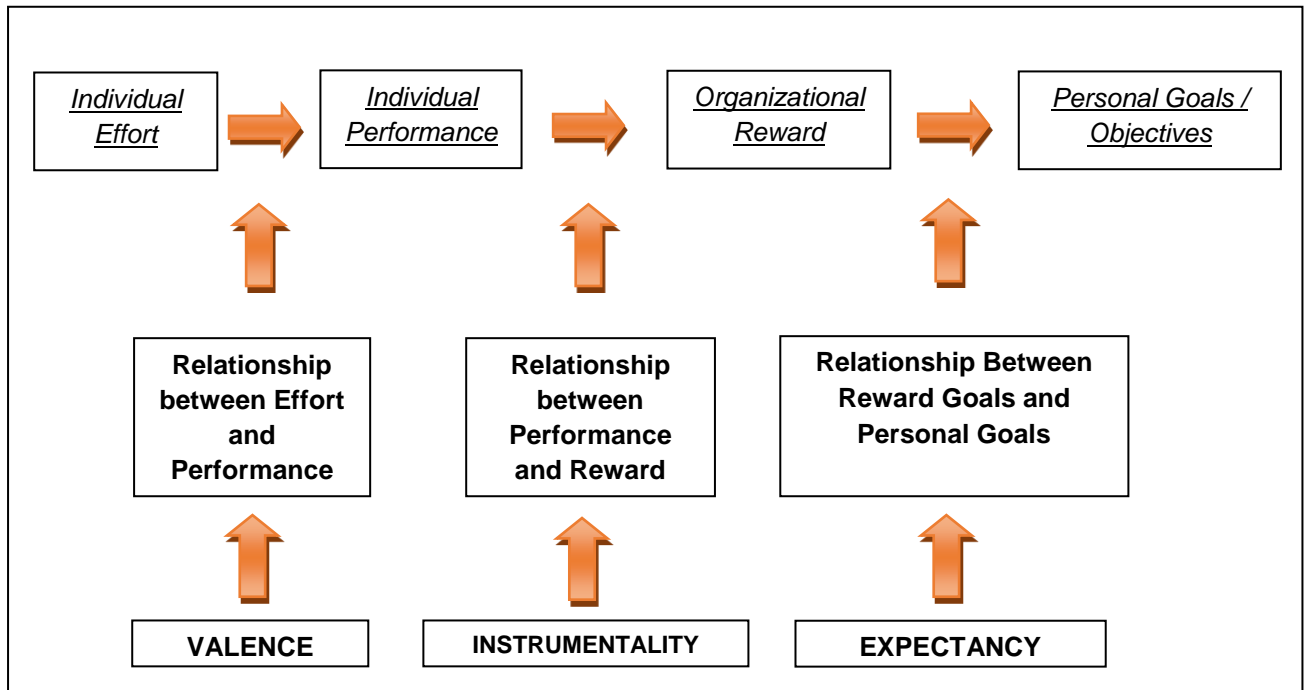
It is important to say that valence and value are different. Valence is related to anticipated satisfaction (imaginary component) and Value is related to satisfaction that a person experiences by achieving a desired outcome (experienced component).

- 2) Instrumentality (or Performance-Reward relation) has to do with one's perception of the relationship between performing an action and experiencing a particular outcome; For example, a social entrepreneur who has invested in specific training wants to achieve the subsequent inherent rewards of such investment, as such new knowledge and practices increase the satisfaction of his social status needs, for example (Chiavenato, 2005).
- 3) Expectancy (or Reward-Personal Goals relation) are beliefs about the link between making an effort and actually doing it well. It is the likelihood that a given action will lead to a desired outcome as long as the means and competencies are available for success.

Although knowledge about valency and instrumentality tells us what an individual wants to do, we cannot know what the individual will try to do without knowing their expectations (Robbins, 2002).

The following figure (Figure 10) summarizes Vroom's theory of expectations.

Figure 10 – Brief explanation of Vroom's Expectancy Theory



Source: Adapted from Chiavenato (2005) and Robbins (2002).

Vroom presents a formula (Figure 11) to explain the motivation of individuals, in which motivation equals the product of the intensity of individual preference for a result (valence), with the probability that a given action will lead to a desired outcome (expectation).

Figure 11 – Equação da teoria das expectativas de Vroom

$$\text{Motivation} = f(\text{Valencia} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Expectancy})$$

Source: Adapted from Pina and Cunha et al. (2014)

Thus, if the value of any of these elements is zero, the motivation is null. That is, if the result obtained does not turn out to be instrumental in value for another desired result, then the entrepreneur is likely to feel unmotivated to increase his effort (Schermerhorn, 1999).

In this context, the greater the value an entrepreneur has given to a reward and the greater the likelihood of being rewarded for accomplishing the task, the greater the motivation for doing so (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999). The emphasis on rewards is evident in this model.

Expectancy theory and goal setting theory are presented to explain the motivations of business entrepreneurs to launch a business (Germak & Robinson, 2014).



The three components, valence, instrumentality and expectancy, are antecedents of the efforts that new entrepreneurs will put at the beginning of a company and, later, may be linked to the operational status of the companies (Bullough et al., 2012).

By linking compassion motivation with the need to achieve social impact, expectancy theory can be integrated into the actions of individuals involved in social entrepreneurship. It can be argued that expectancy (which is the subjective probability that a given outcome will certainly follow certain behaviors) and the valence (the desirability of outcomes) of the desired significant social impact have a multiplicative effect on motivation. The influence of high levels of expectancy on motivation is more prominent when the value of results is perceived as high than when perceived as low (Holland & Garrett, 2015). The expectancy of social entrepreneurship is high as certain beneficial outcomes for society are expected to result from the fulfillment of certain behaviors. Likewise, valence is high, as the results of social change are highly attractive and desirable.

Social entrepreneurs are motivated by the need to bring social justice and make a social impact - “an iconoclastic need to redefine the world based on their own values” (Christopoulos & Vogl, 2014 p. 24). The great narrative that informs the field of social entrepreneurship is to “change the world” in a transformative rather than an incremental way. Changemaker's orientation is an essential element of social entrepreneurship. By definition, social entrepreneurs exist to catalyze social change and the desire to effect change is the main engine of social entrepreneurs (Partzsch & Ziegler, 2011).

Social entrepreneurs are motivated by a compelling social vision, a vision of society that is idealistic and not in keeping with the *status quo*. This greater purpose allows the social entrepreneur to reposition challenges in his environment into opportunities to create social value according to the vision (Nga & Shamuganathan, 2010).

3.2 Perceptive Phenomenon

In this subtopic and due to the limitations of content to be exposed, we will address the phenomenon of perception, which according to DeVito (2004), is a process of experiencing the world and, consequently, giving meaning to what has just been experienced. Of course in interpersonal interactions, both parties are involved in the process of perception.



Thus, perception as a fundamental psychological component of the interpersonal communication process is a component in which we have relatively little control over this process, as it tends to be somewhat automatic.

In other words, an individual's perception of us shapes what he / she thinks about us and consequently how he / she interacts with us and vice versa.

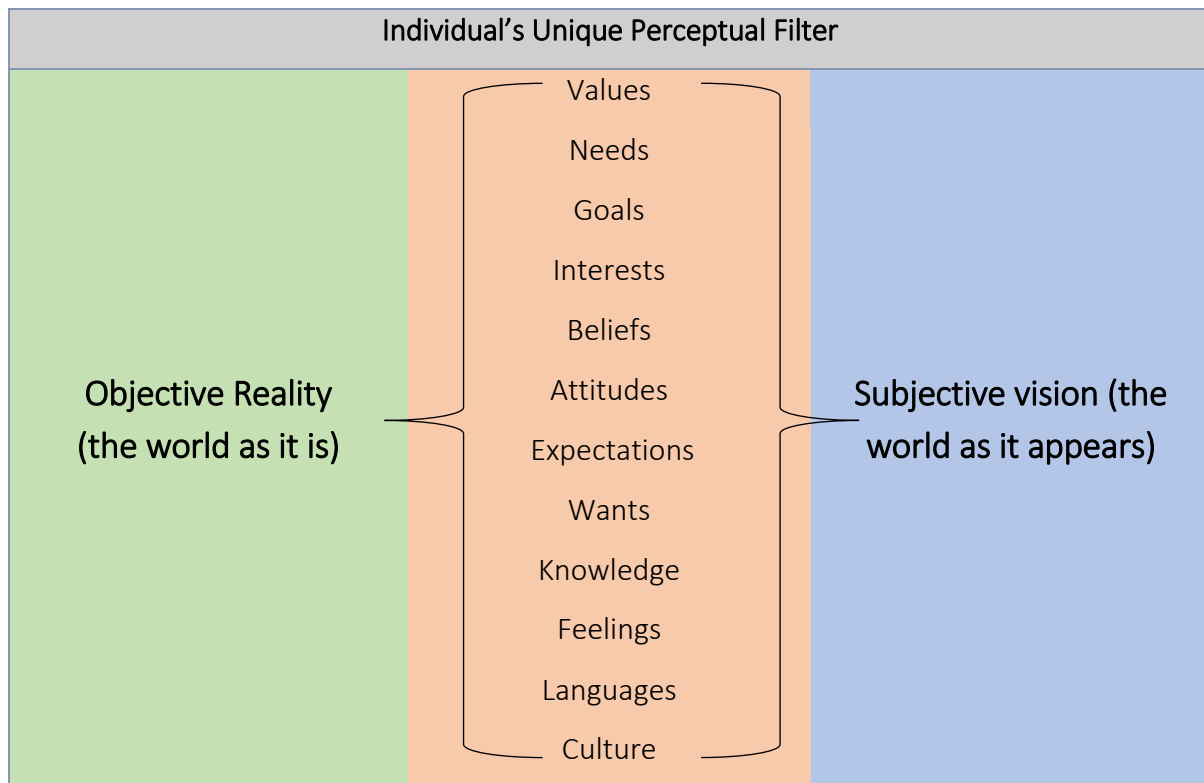
This is why for Sousa (2006), communication is a process precisely because it develops in a continuous spatiotemporal in which multiple psychological factors coexist and interact permanently between the different actors.

Incidentally, Beebe, Beebe, and Redmond (2005) indicate that in most of the literature on interpersonal communication, perception is viewed as a three-part process:

1. **Selection** – represents the first step that determines the stimuli you will “select” to focus on;
2. **Organization** - stage at which stimuli are “converted” into patterns, ie, recognizable to be able to interpret;
3. **Interpretation** - the stage in which meaning is attributed to the observations initially presented.

Given the importance of the psychological component of perception in the communicational process, Hybels, Weaver and Weaver (2003) indicate to us a set of filters that can influence perception, and thus how they allow a better understanding of how perceptions are susceptible of yourself, others, and the world, and how they may differ from anyone else's perceptions, as the following figure illustrates (Figure 12).

Figure 12. Filters that influence the perception phenomenon



Source: Adapted from Hybels, Weaver and Weaver (2003).

It is these filters or psychological constructs that are likely to influence perception and consequently allow us to better understand the daily lives of each interlocutor in the communicational process, that is, allow us to better understand the objectivity of subjective reality.

However, and because there are so many influences susceptible to the preceptive phenomenon and to combine in unknown ways or even have a cumulative effect, Hybels, Weaver and Weaver (2003) all tell us that there is no way to predict or know, if their consequent effects will have an impact on the alteration of the self-concept (part of the conscious self or, according to Anglo-Saxon terminology, of the Self of the individual. This topic will be discussed below).

. Perceptions and self-concept

In the early nineteenth century, Cooley (1902) used the metaphor of the Self as a mirror, as a reflection of how others see us. On the other hand, Coopersmith (1967) later wrote that "each person's self-concept, to a large extent, is a reflection of how he/she was (and is) seen by others who are important to him".



With this, in general, we can affirm that the Self is a reflexive phenomenon that develops in social interaction and is based on the social character of human language and the “self-concept” becomes the product of this reflexive activity that as your childhood becomes more stable. But deep down, it is the individual's concept of himself as a physical, social and spiritual or moral being (Gecas, 1982).

Of all the perceptions that the individual experiences in the course of living his life, none has a deeper meaning than those that are of paramount importance in shaping and maintaining the subject's own personal existence - his concept of who he is and how he is. sees himself “embedded” in the world (ontogenic perspective).

But the perceptions one experiences are subject to processes of elimination, distortion and generalization, and additional preceptive filters. Thus, the individual does not come to the world in a pure, clean, uncontaminated way.

So according to Hybels, Weaver and Weaver (2003), any perception the subject has is not “perfect” because of the **eliminations, distortions** and **generalizations**.

Deletions lead to obscuring, erasing, or canceling information, and this phenomenon occurs primarily because the physical senses are limited. Your sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell are the means you use to gain information, but those senses that focus only on those aspects of the environment or external that are most important to your survival eliminate other surrounding information.

The same applies when eliminations occur because of your beliefs. If the individual believes that something is true, then they have a high probability of erasing information that contradicts that belief¹².

In addition to eliminating information, individuals also distort much information from their environment.

Distortions involve twisting or bending information from the surrounding environment of the individual. The subject may distort information in the first place because he is only observing a small part of his external environment. Since only observing such a small part of the whole, the

¹² According to Mucchelli (1981), a **belief** is an irrational (not always unconscious, but often forgotten) subjective certainty of a personal (intimate certainty) or social (certainty of an age) order).



individual must “fill in the blanks” - adding information - so that the information makes perfect sense. The other reason why a person may distort external information lies in the internal support or filters of their attitudes¹³, needs¹⁴ and existing social values¹⁵.

In addition to the eliminations and distortions of information, people also make generalizations based on little substantial information. Generalizations involve principles or conclusions inherent in certain evidence or evidence. Having observed something a few times, people generally conclude that what has proven to be true in the past will be true in the future as well. Generalizations are important to their survival. For example, getting a burn when your child puts a hand on a hot stove will give you a conclusion about the consequences of putting your hand on a hot stove in the future.

Another examples. If the individual has had several bad experiences with members of the opposite sex, or of a different ethnicity, or of a different culture, or of a particular organization, he may generalize that all members of the opposite sex, of different ethnicity, of the different culture, or that particular organization are bad (external reality).

Then all future experiences are filtered through this belief, and the information that contradicts this belief is deleted, and consequently distorts other information so that it can rely on the original belief.

3.3 The Self: Johari's Window

It is precisely about this psychological component or construct - the Self, ie, the conscious self of the interlocutors (mentor and mentee) that in the communicational act their revelation or self-revelation becomes important to the interlocutors because it can be assessed by the

¹³ **Attitude** is a general psychological predisposition to something. I.e., it is a behavior that emerges from an internal predisposition that directs in a certain sense all interactions with the object in question (Mucchelli, 1981).

¹⁴ Unsatisfactory state of tension associated with an essential (biological, psychological or sociological) need, oriented towards a satisfactory category of objects that inclines or impels the individual to seek a more satisfactory state of equilibrium (Mucchelli, 1981).

¹⁵ A **social value** is a kind of general principle (of laws or rules) that can be considered as a generator (influencer) of conduct recognized as an ideal and estimable by a group. It is a form of conditioning (Mucchelli, 1981).



individual through the feedback received. by others, and thus learn more about your personality (Sareen, 2015).

Self-concept is affected by the characteristics we believe we possess and has some components.

These characteristics that are associated with self-concept include self-image and self-esteem (multidimensional nature of self-concept), and expose the relationship between self-concept and self-disclosure of the individual, and expose the subjective character of self-concept. or “mask” we choose to present to others (Lane, 2008).

This is why the Johari Window model is also referred to as a model and actually represents the self-disclosure of information such as feelings, experiences, opinions, attitudes, skills, intentions, motives, values, etc. (Luft, 1984).

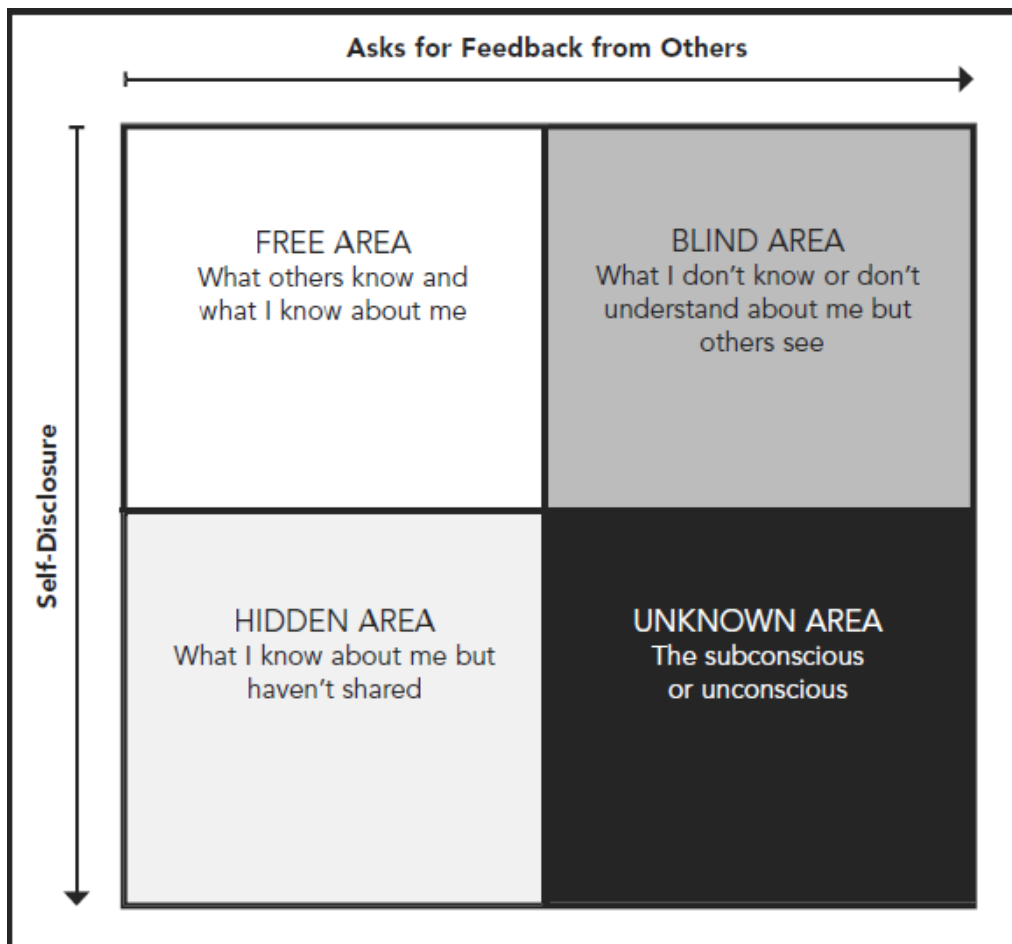
This Johari Window Model was first developed by two American psychologists, Joseph Luft and Harrington Ingham in 1955 (Joseph of Jo and Harrinton Ingham hari) and is a technique used to help people better understand their relationship with themselves. as well as with others (Luft & Ingham, 1955).

Sareen (2015) underlines the phenomenon of self-disclosure as an important aspect of personality that can be improved through the individual's self-awareness and through his ability to evaluate himself through introspection.

The interest of approaching this model here is because in the existing literature it is described that the Johari Window improves the communication capacity of the individual through the identification of their capacities and their limitations (Gou & Sanchez, 2005).

According to Luft (1969), we can see this illustrated model according to the following figure (Figure 13).

Figure 13. Johari Window Model



The “free or open area” includes all kinds of information about us that we know, ie we are aware of it, and the others as well (Luft, 1969; 1984).

This area represents a person's ability to communicate that allows him or her to freely share and receive information with and for others. This skill is the key to a successful interpersonal relations in a relationship or organization, and the larger this area or region, the more effective the individual will be in dealing with colleagues, friends, superiors, and subordinates (Wallace & Roberson, 2009).

The “blind” area includes information about ourselves that we do not know, ie we are not aware of it, but others know it (Luft, 1969; 1984).

This area represents information known to other colleagues, friends, superiors, or subordinates - and is not known to the individual. In many bureaucracies, individuals believe that knowledge or information is power. In a way, this belief is true. Police officers cannot make a valid decision if the information is hidden from them (Wallace & Roberson, 2009).



The more we broaden our self-awareness and learn how others see us, the more we can reduce our “blind” area (Lane, 2008).

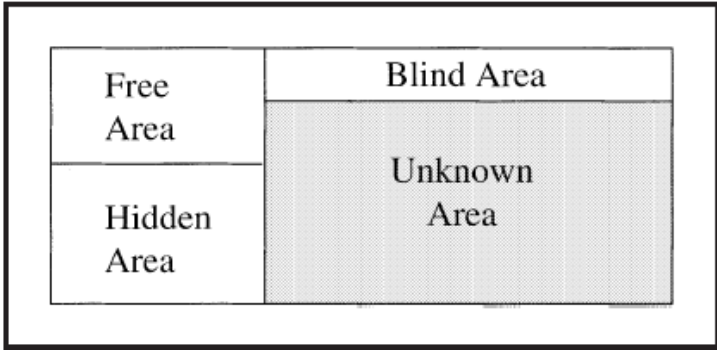
The “**hidden**” area includes information about ourselves that we know, but others don't (Luft, 1969; 1984). This information may relate to personal habits or professional knowledge. Although the suppression of part of ourselves to others may be normal and even healthy, however, a problem arises when an individual withholds information that prevents a free, honest exchange of knowledge (Wallace & Roberson, 2009) in a mentoring relationship.

The “**unknown**” area refers to unknown information about ourselves that neither we nor others are aware of (Luft, 1969; 1984).

This area represents the amount of information that is unknown to the individual, friends, colleagues, superiors, and their subordinates. As free or open area grows through effective communication, the unknown area decreases (Wallace & Roberson, 2009).

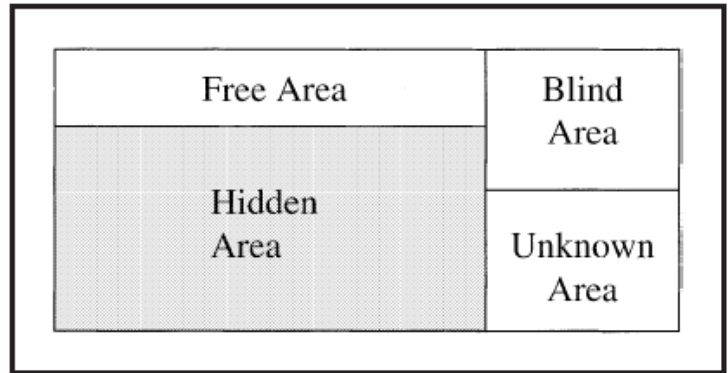
According to Wallace and Roberson (2009), from the Johari Window it is possible to describe four basic types of Communication patterns, shown in the following table (Table 3).

Table 3. Communication Pattern Type

Communication Pattern Type	Johari Window Area
<p><i>Type A (authoritarian)</i></p> <p>The military officer who uses this standard type. Here communication provides little feedback or exposure. The person who is typified by this style of communication in which he does not communicate with subordinates.</p>	

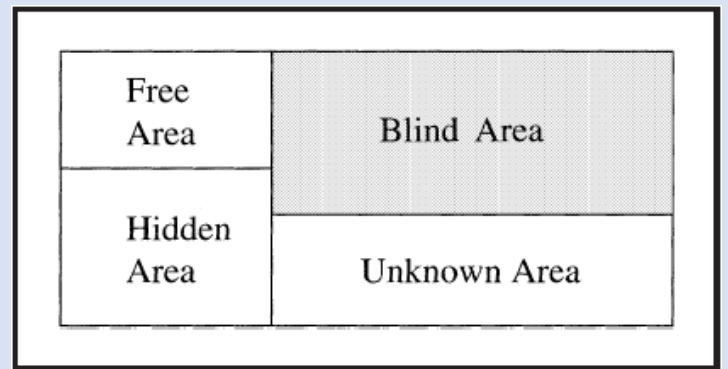
Type B (lonely; suspicious)

The person using the type B communication standard does not transmit information to superiors, subordinates, or colleagues, but will accept some kind of interaction and feedback from them. This type of person does not trust colleagues, but receives information from them as a survival technique.



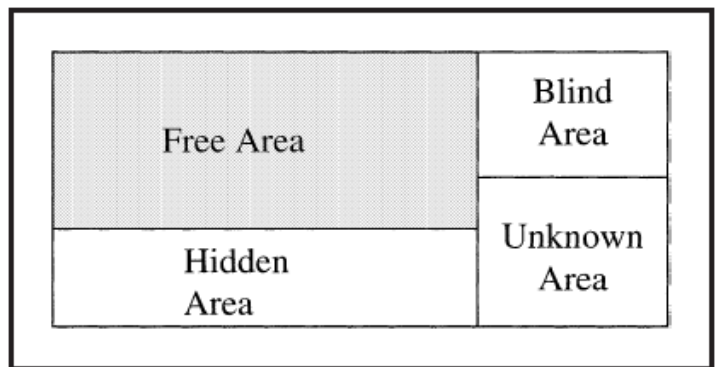
Type C (Narcissistic; egocentric)

The person using the type C communication pattern is characterized by continuous self-expression and refuses to accept feedback from others. In this situation, the model shows an increase in exposure with a corresponding decrease in feedback. The individuals in this category have such big egos that they believe they have all the right answers.



Type D (leader)

The person using the D-type communication standard is the type of person who shows remarkable leadership. He or she emphasizes open lines of communication and accepts feedback from superiors and subordinates alike.



3.4 Communication skills

3.4.1 Active listening

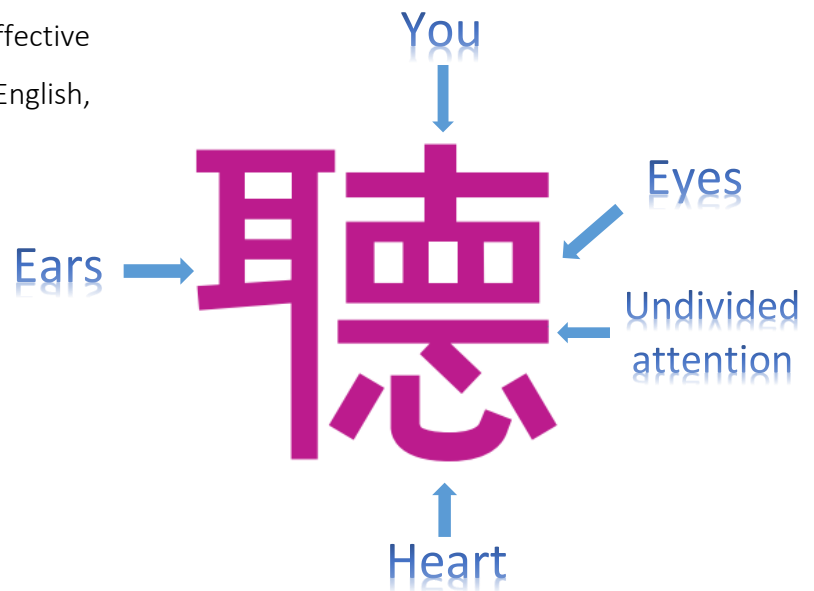
One of the mentor's most important responsibilities is his active listening skills. A good listener knows how to use his active listening skills to help make communication more effective.



Obviously, we must listen carefully to the message. Without a focused and active listening, much of the meaning will be lost even considering what has been said about human perception.

The Chinese have a symbol for effective listening, which, when translated into English, is made up of five elements ¹⁶:

- You
- Your ears
- Your eyes
- Your heart
- Your undivided attention



Listening to each other is not as easy a task as it sounds. However, listening - true listening - is a key factor in mentoring relationships.

As a seemingly simple concept, active listening can help you improve your communication skills with others.

The concept of “active listening” goes back to Thomas Gordon (Gordon, 1977), but has its roots in Carl Rogers' client-centered therapy and non-directive counseling (Rogers, 1951).

Therefore, it was originally developed in the context of therapeutic interviews, but its principles can be applied to other contexts, in this case, applied to the mentoring process of adult social entrepreneurs.

The table on the next page (Table 4) provides an overview of the use and purpose of these techniques, and illustrates with practical examples.

¹⁶ Source: <https://scottishmentoringnetwork.co.uk/assets/downloads/resources/575eca2d9a6a1-anintroductiontoenterprisementoring.pdf>

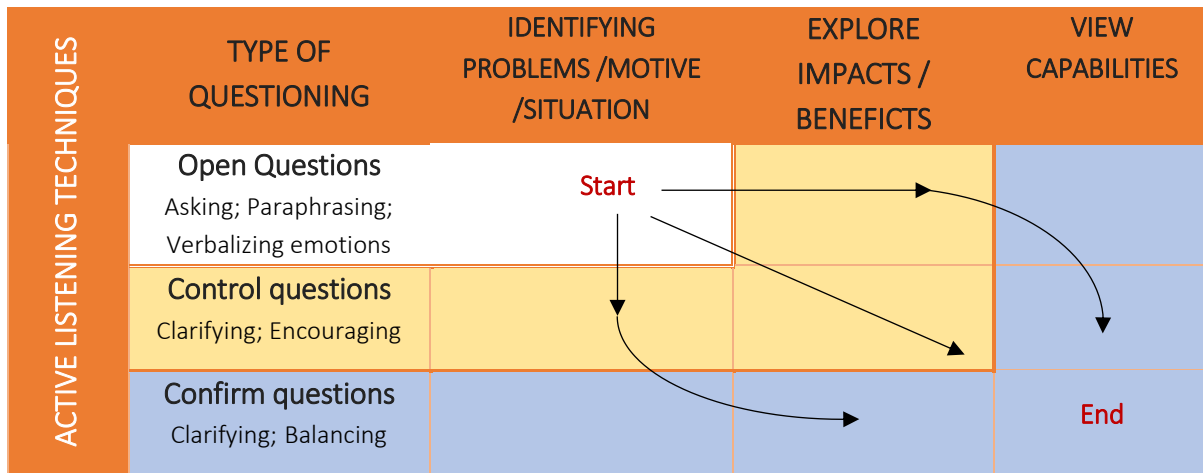


Table 4. Active Listening Techniques (Decker, 1989, adapted)

TECHNIQUE	PURPOSE	TO ACHIEVE PURPOSE	EXAMPLES
Paraphrasing (restating)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Convey interest • Encourage to keep talking 	Restate the information just received with one's own words	"So you think this is the safer way but maybe not the best way."
Verbalizing emotions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show that one understands • Help the speaker to evaluate his/her own feelings 	Reflect the client's basic feelings and emotions in words	"So you were happy to be there..."
Asking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Get more information 	Ask questions	"Are you speaking about yourself?"
Summarizing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review progress • Pull together important ideas and facts • Establish a basis for further discussion 	Restate major ideas expressed including feelings	"So your major concern is not being trusted..."
Clarifying	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarify what is said • Help the client see other points of view 	Ask questions for vague statements Restate wrong interpretations to Force the speaker to explain further	"You said that you have reacted immediately. Was this still on the same day?"
Encouraging	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Convey interest • Encourage to keep talking 	Use varying voice intonations Offer ideas and suggestions	"That interests me."
Balancing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Get more information • Help the client to evaluate his/her own feelings 	Ask questions	"Did you perceive the inconvenience worse than not being taken seriously?"

In general, this set of techniques proposed for “Active Listening” is intended to help solve problems and build consensus on a possible course of action as illustrated in the following figure (Figure 14).

Figure 14. Alignment of question types during session to assist in resolution



Pay attention to “Active Listening” to the designated communication blockers. They are obstacles (meta-noises) for communication not to be effective in its intended function:

“Why” questions. They tend to make people defensive.

Quick reassurance, saying things like, “Don’t worry about that.”

Advising with the mentor own experience — “I think the best for you is doing what I did five years ago in that situaion.”

Digging for information and forcing someone to talk about something they would rather not talk about.

Patronizing — “You poor thing, I know just how you feel.”

Preaching — “You should. . .” Or, “You shouldn’t. . .”

Interrupting — Shows you aren’t interested in what someone is saying.

3.4.2 Empathy

An excellent way of translating the relationship into mentoring could be given by the following sentence stating that it is the “Active Listening of an individual's story” and communicating understanding, respect and empathy; clarifying goals and helping individuals in the decision making process” (UNESCO, 2002).



In fact, remarkable things can happen when empathy for others plays a key role in solving the problems or challenges inherent in entrepreneurship that in themselves invite you to project multiple skills across your diverse users, cultures and environments.

The origin of the word empathy dates back to the 1880s, when German psychologist Theodore Lipps coined the term "Einfühlung" (literally, "in-feeling") to describe the emotional appreciation of feelings in the relational act (Ioannidou & Konstantikaki, 2008).

Empathy has also been described as a process of understanding a person's subjective experience indirectly by sharing that experience, yet always maintaining an observant posture (Zinn, 1999). Thus empathy is the ability to experience and relate to the thoughts, emotions, or experience of others. Empathy is not the same as simple sympathy. Rogers (1957), from a humanistic perspective, also foresaw empathic communication for the individual as one of six "necessary and sufficient" conditions for change to occur.

For its part, Brown (1981) offers a sophisticated example for understanding empathic communications that would be situated in the way the mentor / counselor behavioral responses are evidenced. Brown set out a way about how individuals perceive the mentor as empathic.

Brown reported that individuals associate the experience of empathy with a variety of responses from mentors / counselors, including:

- The way questions are formulated;
- The reflections of feeling expressed;
- The interpretations given;
- The syntheses of the living world close to the individual;
- Opinions and suggestions for activities outside the specific context, highlighting in a way the individual who understands it most fully.

This results in what Cully and Teten (2008) call validation of responses (behaviors) to show empathy for the individual. Validation responses are simply statements of understanding from



your entrepreneur's point of view and usually involve the mentor describing what he or she heard the entrepreneur say.

For the present Head Topic 3, we have left 10 exercises in EXERCISES NOTEBOOK related to the theme addressed in order to help consolidate the knowledge learned.



HEAD TOPIC 3 QUIZ – RELATIONSHIP BUILDING

Part A – Correct option questions

- Q1.** Many definitions of the concept of motivation do not vary greatly and tend to include four fundamental elements. Indicate which of the four options is correct.
- Stimulation; Action and Effort; Movement and persistence; Reward
 - Stimulation; Note; Movement and persistence; Reward
 - Rest; Action and Effort; Movement and persistence; Reward
 - Stimulation; Action and Effort; Movement and persistence; Discount
- Q2.** According to the Motivational Theory of McClelland, indicate which motivator is not described in your theory.
- Need for affiliation
 - Need for authority
 - Need for power
 - Need for achievement
- Q3.** According to the Motivational Theory of McClelland, indicate which motivator is applied to the following sentence: “This social entrepreneur gives more importance to people than to tasks”.
- Need for affiliation
 - Need for authority
 - Need for power
 - Need for achievement
- Q4.** Vroom introduced three variables within the expectancy theory. Indicate from the options below the correct one.
- Expectancy; Instrumentality; Valence
 - Expectancy; Instrumentality; Outcome
 - Expectancy; Performance; Valence
 - Expectancy; Motivation; Valence
- Q5.** We can say that the perceptual phenomenon is a process established in three parts that proceed in a certain order. Please indicate which of the following is correct one.
- Selection; Organization; Construction
 - Interpretation; Selection; Organization
 - Organization; Selection; Interpretation
 - Selection; Organization; Interpretation
- Q6.** According to the Johari Window model, an entrepreneur whose type of communication pattern is type B (suspicious), this one works most strongly in a particular area of self-disclosure. Indicate from the options below the correct one.
- Free area
 - Blind area
 - Hidden área
 - Unknown área



Part B – True or false questions

Q7. “Exercising because you want to relieve stress” is related with intrinsic motivation.

- a. True
- b. False

Q8. Social entrepreneurs who prefer working on tasks of moderate difficulty; work in which the results are based on their effort rather than on anything else are “driven” mostly by the Need for power according to the Motivational Theory of McClelland.

- a. True
- b. False

Q9. Vroom presents the following formula to explain individual motivation:

Expectation = f (Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence)

- a. True
- b. False

Q10. In the process of communication between entrepreneur and mentor, a belief, attitude, expectation or social value may constitute perceptual filters that may influence reality and thus trigger a set of personal defense mechanisms such as distance defenses (e.g., verbal accusations).

- a. True
- b. False

Q11. According to the Johari Window model, the social entrepreneur using the C-type communication standard is characterized by continuous self-expression and refusal to accept feedback from others.

- a. True
- b. False

Q12. The Chinese have a symbol for effective listening, which, when translated into English, is made up of five elements. Heart is one of those elements insert in that symbology.

- a. True
- b. False

Q13. “Why” questions in using Active Listening techniques through questioning and create alignment is essential.

- a. True
- b. False

Q14. As an active Listening Technique, verbalizing emotions restate major ideas expressed including feelings.

- a. True
- b. False

Quiz End 😊



Head Topic 4 RELATIONSHIP REGULATION



4. Regulation of mentoring relationship

A key element that stands out throughout the mentoring process is undoubtedly the *mentor-mentee relational act*, ie the relational dynamics between the actors in a process of common interest. And this is not restricted to face-to-face interaction per se, or by e-mentoring because this is so obvious.

Clearly we underline here what is most profoundly human in human interaction such as emotions, feelings, expectations, fears, frustrations, anxieties, excitement that surrounds this interaction with well-defined purposes at the outset, but with degrees of uncertainty about success and therefore with numerous vulnerabilities and insecurities for both in fulfilling their purposes.

It is easy to understand the reason(s) for this relational dynamic “rollercoaster”. Behind all this specific relationship is a lot of doubt and uncertainty from both parties. On the part of mentors, despite more knowledge, more experience, more experience there is always the unknown. In the minds of mentors there are always questions that accompany them from the beginning of the process, despite all the security they already have.

- What will the entrepreneur be like? Here understood as your personality, temperament, shape, self maturity, etc.
- What difficulties does he or she bring?
- What are your anxieties, frustrations, fears?
- How does he or she see me?
- What do you think about mentoring?
- How many mentoring processes have you been through?
- What is your ability to tolerate frustration / failure?
- What are your current expectations?

Certainly on the part of entrepreneurs there is also another package of uncertainties. And no matter how secure he or she is about what he or she is doing, it also brings a handful of questions and doubts into the complex relational field:

- Is my vision correct?
- Did I properly structure my social business model?
- Am I going the best way?



- Does my solution really solve the problem with the properly diagnosed gap?
- What does this mentor see me and think of me? ‘
- Will this mentor help me in building my social business?
- Does this mentor have the ability to put me on another level through your contacts and knowledge?

There are many questions and this only reflects the certainty that we are in the field of uncertainty, that it is the emotion that packs the mentoring process, despite all the rationality that may be at this moment.

Therefore, it is the first five minutes of the mentor-mentee interaction that will define the mentoring climate and potential outcome of this relationship, increase or decrease anxiety, etc.¹⁷

It is in these five minutes that the “mentoring agreement” is signed with the mentor before it even starts.

And what is this Mentoring Agreement?

The Mentoring Agreement is the “contract” (mainly psychological) that, in general, sets the limits of performance of a mentor and that he or she hold as proper behavior of mentoring during the interaction period¹⁸.

What is implicit in a stakeholder agreement is that of the Respect and Trust attributes that strengthen the relationship between the two important for the social enterprise venture that is fundamental to the social entrepreneur (review these attributes outlined and described by Hudson in section 2.2. Mentoring of this Manual).

Conflict management then becomes a key approach in the mentoring process to minimize or eliminate noise, sources that can escalate and end the relationship between them.

¹⁷ In Exercise 1 of the Head Topic 4 EXERCISES NOTEBOOK, an introductory tool is provided for mentors to begin exploring this new relationship between mentor and mentor called the KWHLAQ chart.

¹⁸ In Exercise 2, 3 and 4 of the Head Topic 4 EXERCISES NOTEBOOK, three types of mentoring arrangements are made available to mentor learners for their analysis.



4.1 Conflict management

According to Bernardi (2003), the motivations of economic or psychological nature, which leads a person to undertake, have in return precisely economic and emotional costs that if not well reflected, cared for and worked end up in paradoxical and delicate situations.

In addition to the economic costs inherent in the risk of entrepreneurial activity, there will be a number of emotional costs such as loneliness, personal sacrifice, friction, and conflict that arise with greater influence depending on the relative weight of the motivation scale.

4.1.1. Conflict Definition

The concept of conflict has a broad and plural approach, which leads us to delimit its concept. Indeed, conflict has been studied by various sciences of human knowledge. The understanding of the psychosocial approach with regard to the complexity of the phenomenon itself is highlighted.

Conflict is seen as an active struggle of each other for a desirable outcome for themselves. Therefore, one of the most important skills is satisfactorily resolving conflicts.

Conflict resolution can occur through three fundamental strategies: a) avoiding them; b) postponing them or, c) confronting them.

Conflict is part of human nature, when we come across different opinions and needs, the way we view these differences can lead to a constructive way of conflict resolution. In fact, since always, human beings, inserted in larger or smaller communities, had to deal with conflicts with themselves and others (Cunha, 2008; Deutsch, 1973, 1990; Rahim, 2002; Rubin, Pruitt & Kim, 1994; cit. in Cunha & Leitão 2012).

According to the etymology, the word conflict derives from the Latin "conflictu" which means shock, clash, opposition, confrontation; or the verb "confligere" which means fight.

According to Ury, Brett and Goldberg (2009, cit. In Pereira, 2016), conflict begins when an individual demonstrates a demand to the counterparty and the counterparty does not accept. This requirement may arise from the feeling of loss, offense, want or pretense. Conflict can also be defined as the process of becoming aware of the disagreement between the parties,



associated with some level of opposition between the objectives of both parties, or the threat of the interests of one of the parties (Ferreira, Neves & Caetano, 2011).

Regarding the field of psychosociological analysis, Cunha and Leitão (2012, p.22) point out the various definitions of conflict presented by some authors, namely: “a conflict exists when any type of incompatible activity occurs” (Deutsch, 1980, p.7). “Conflict is an episode in which one party seeks to influence the other and the other party resists” (Pruitt, 1998).

However, as suggested by Pina and Cunha et al. (2014) one can draw from these definitions three components of conflict, without which the phenomenon itself does not occur:

- i) **Interaction** - necessary condition for the occurrence and development of the conflict. Without actions between the actors, conflicts would not materialize dynamically and would only be latent or nonexistent.
- ii) **Interdependence** - the parties to the conflict depend on each other for the realization of their interests and objectives in such a way that the satisfaction of an interest or the achievement of an objective of one of the parties undermines or inhibits the achievement of the interest or objective of the other and vice versa.
- iii) **Perception of incompatibility** - Conflict exists only if at least one of the parties to the conflict becomes aware that its objectives, interests or values are incompatible with those of the other and, consequently, if it determines to dispute them.

4.1.2. Understand the causes of conflict

There are different types of conflicts and they can be classified according to different authors. One of the interesting proposals that help the mentor right away frame the type or nature of conflict that may be arising and presented by the following categories¹⁹:

- ☞ **People-focused** - based on the emotions and feelings that both actors may be experiencing, personal attacks or different personality traits;
- ☞ **Issue-focused** - based on organizational processes, limited resources or goals & objectives that stakeholders disagree with;
- ☞ **Personal differences** - based on different interests or differences in values, perceptions, beliefs, expectations and even different ideological cultures;

¹⁹ Source: <http://www.salto-youth.net/downloads/4-17-1414/NoOffence.pdf>



- ☞ **Informational deficiencies** - based on cognitive dissonances that lead to misinterpretation, lack or poor communication, conclusions based on past experience, or inherent environmental stress (eg weak digital skills when mentoring relationship is worked in a virtual environment on an online platform).

All of these types of conflict sources can be at different levels. Much frustration can be prevented or alleviated at an early stage that varies from state of crisis discomfort as illustrated in the following table:

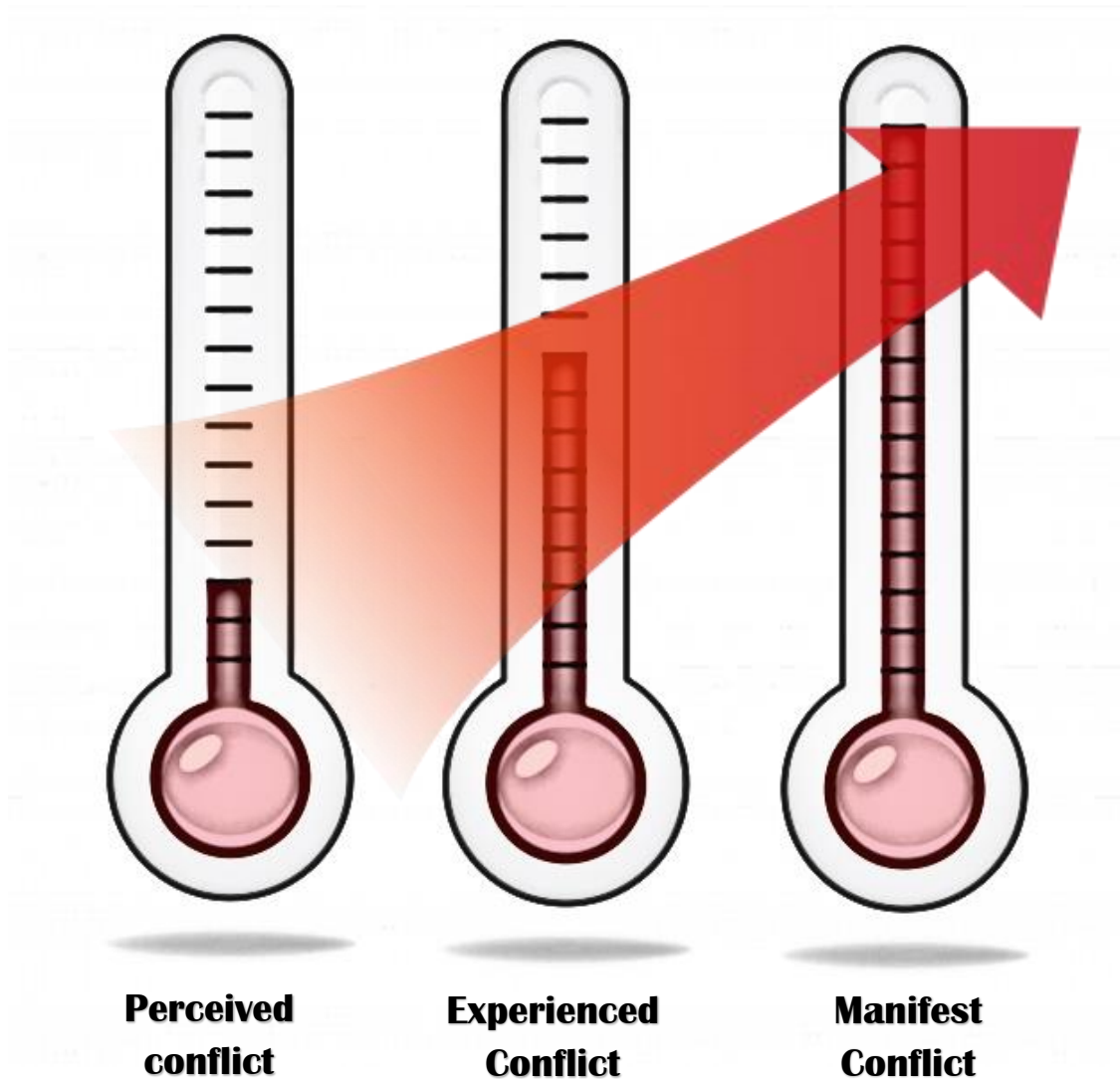
Table 5. “CONFLICT WINDS ITSELF UP?”

CONFLICT WINDS ITSELF UP?	
DISCOMFORT	Difficult to identify the problem. An uncomfortable feeling has arisen, yet the reason is unknown.
INCIDENTS	Short and sharp exchange. An event that has left a person upset with unwanted result.
MISUNDERSTANDINGS	Mind constantly focuses on the problem. Facts and motives are misunderstood.
TENSION	People think worse of each other. The relationship is spoiled due to a negative attitude and a fixed opinion, thus giving reason for worries.
CRISIS	Working becomes difficult and behavior is affected. This can lead to interruption or discontinuation of the project.

According to Chiavenato (2008, p. 179), conflicts can occur at three levels of severity or magnitude:

- ☞ **Perceived conflict:** It occurs when one of the parties perceives and understands that there is conflict because they feel that their goals are different from those of others and that there is opportunity for interference. It is the so-called **latent conflict**, when both parties realize that there is potentially a difference.
- ☞ **Experienced Conflict:** In this conflict there are feelings of hostilities such as anger, fear, discredit between one party and another. It is also called veiled conflict when it is concealed, hidden, and not clearly manifested externally.

- ☞ **Manifest Conflict:** In this situation the conflict is expressed and manifested by the behavior, which is the active or passive interference by at least one of the parties. Also called open conflict because it manifests without dissimulation between the parties involved.



Divergence and conflict are inevitable in the human relationship. Conflicts and disagreements will always exist, as they are part of humanity itself.

What is different is the treatment given to these disagreements. As an instrument for conflict resolution, dialogue is an indispensable condition for the preservation of interpersonal relationships. Communication plays an important role in building interpersonal relationships.



In Exercise 5 and 6 of the Head Topic 4 EXERCISES NOTEBOOK, two different tools are made available to mentor learners for conflict resolution support during a mentoring process that may eventually emerge in the mentor-mentoring-organization interaction.

“Entrepreneurship brings everything less stability”

Nuno Machado Lopes, author of the book “Everything Changed, again”

Making the decision to get out of the box is a very important step, shifting the stability of a long-term job to the entrepreneurial thrill ride is tempting but at the same time very challenging!

According to Dolabela (2000), entrepreneurial candidates often stumble over the objective part of the enterprise; costs, prices, breakeven point, bureaucratic requirements, among other aspects. To convert ideas, insights into business opportunities, the author suggests a four-step process:

- a) **Vision Transformation** - this is clarifying the vision and gaining consensus;
- b) **Implementation of a Continuous Education and Communication System** – ie, determine and set goals as well as link rewards to a system that involves the performance appraisal (of the individual or entrepreneur) of all members;
- c) **Development of Business Strategies** – that is, determine the best way to allocate available resources, establish the current and future prospects of the venture or have an elaborate business plan;
- d) **Transformation Capacity Assessment** – ie, assessing the ability to turn a vision into a viable endeavor by seeking answers to the following questions: (i) are the objectives well defined? (ii) What are my aspirations? (iii) What is the size of the enterprise and its sustainability? (iv) What is the risk tolerance? (v) Do I have the right communication and marketing strategy?

In this sense, it is no wonder that certain entrepreneurial projects may fail. Business project failure occurs when “project activities cease due to unsatisfactory or insufficient progress” (Shepherd, Covin, and Kuratko, 2009: 589).



In the field of entrepreneurship, according to Boulding, Morgan, and Staelin (1997) 35 to 45 percent of all new products are estimated to be flaws; or for example, half of all information systems projects are reported as failures (Keil and Robey, 1999); and in an extensive study of adventure units reviewed by Campbell, Birkinshaw, Morrison, and van Basten Batenburg (2003), reported no success stories.

Consequently, after a failure in social business, it seems normal for entrepreneurs to experience a decline in motivation and to be wary of making (at least immediately) new emotional investments to start over.

Again, knowing that they share this experience with others and that many of them have found the motivation to reenter entrepreneurship and succeed in the end can help failed social entrepreneurs escape the “motivational dip”.

In fact, this knowledge can help them escape vicious cycles of ruminations²⁰ - lack of motivation leads to an increase in negative emotions (eg feelings of inferiority or guilt and shame, for example) which in turn decrease motivation, and so on.

In addition, recognizing that the lack of motivation to start a new business after failure is normal and can help those who cannot channel their motivations to different activities, which could help divert attention from failure and speed recovery, allowing the entrepreneur regains the entrepreneurial motivation (Shepherd, 2003).

Failure is an important signal that can generate action as it suggests a disconnect between beliefs and reality (Chuang and Baum, 2003; Sitkin, 1992) and can lead to the exploration of solutions to resolve this disconnect (Ginsberg, 1988; McGrath, 2001; Petroski, 1985). Given the salience of a failure event, it is believed that failure can only motivate individuals to gain new knowledge and that individuals gain greater insights into failure than success (Petroski, 1985; Popper, 1959).

In a business project scenario, learning from failure is likely to occur when projects (Sitkin, 1992: 243):

- 1) result from carefully planned actions;

²⁰ Continued negative thoughts lead to negative beliefs and attitudes from a psychological and subjective well-being perspective.



- 2) have uncertain results;
- 3) are of modest scale;
- 4) are executed and answered with enthusiasm and;
- 5) occur in domains that are familiar enough to enable effective learning.

4.1.3. Mechanisms for learning from failure

There is evidence linking the project cycle and learning to failure by activating three key learning mechanisms - RAC: Reflect, Articulate, and Encode (Prencipe e Tell, 2001; Zollo e Winter, 2002; Shepherd, Williams, Wolfe e Patzelt, 2016).

- 1) **Reflection** about failure, ie, we focus and underline here what feelings, emotions and sensations, thoughts and beliefs the individual is experiencing and, above all, to know how to allow oneself to live such states as a normal process of an entrepreneurial stage of life that is not the entrepreneurial person itself is the result of a less good experience or one that still needs to be rethought and improved. Also, reviewing your goals and reassessing your future expectations with thoughtfulness is essential (contemplative-emotional moment);
- 2) **Articulation** between what went well and what did not work out or did poorly, that is, what was initially outlined was what part of the business plan went well and what did not correspond to what was planned to happen (analytical moment -rational), and;
- 3) **Encoding** or integration of these moments described above into a learning process and even for reference or subsequent use, ie take as a learned lesson that is or is being strengthened for the social entrepreneurial challenge (integrative-experiential moment).

Encoding is one of the key key elements in the process of interrelational regulation between the social entrepreneur and mentor as well as a high contribution to the professional and personal development and strengthening of both actors.

It translates into the full integration of the phenomenon of successful experience, but above all, the moments of failure or mistakes made during the implementation of the social business plan (which are expected to occur!). The role of the mentor to have a systematic record of mentoring experiences are undoubtedly memories that always put him in a better position for new social enterprise adventures.



Based on these assumptions we create tools for the purpose and make available to the learning mentor, namely:

For the moment of reflection, we suggest the tools:

- Case Formulation Worksheet (Exercise 7 of the Head Topic 4 from EXERCISES NOTEBOOK);
- Results and Expectations Review Worksheet (Exercise 8 of the Head Topic 4 from EXERCISES NOTEBOOK).

For the moment of articulation, we suggest the tools:

- How Did “The Problem” Develop? Worksheet (Exercise 9 of the Head Topic 4 from EXERCISES NOTEBOOK);
- Review of the Social Business Plan (Exercise 10 of the Head Topic 4 from EXERCISES NOTEBOOK).

For the encoding moment we suggest the tools:

- Mentor Learning Log (Exercise 11 of the Head Topic 4 from EXERCISES NOTEBOOK).



Head Topic 4 Quiz – Relationship Regulation

Part A – Correct option questions

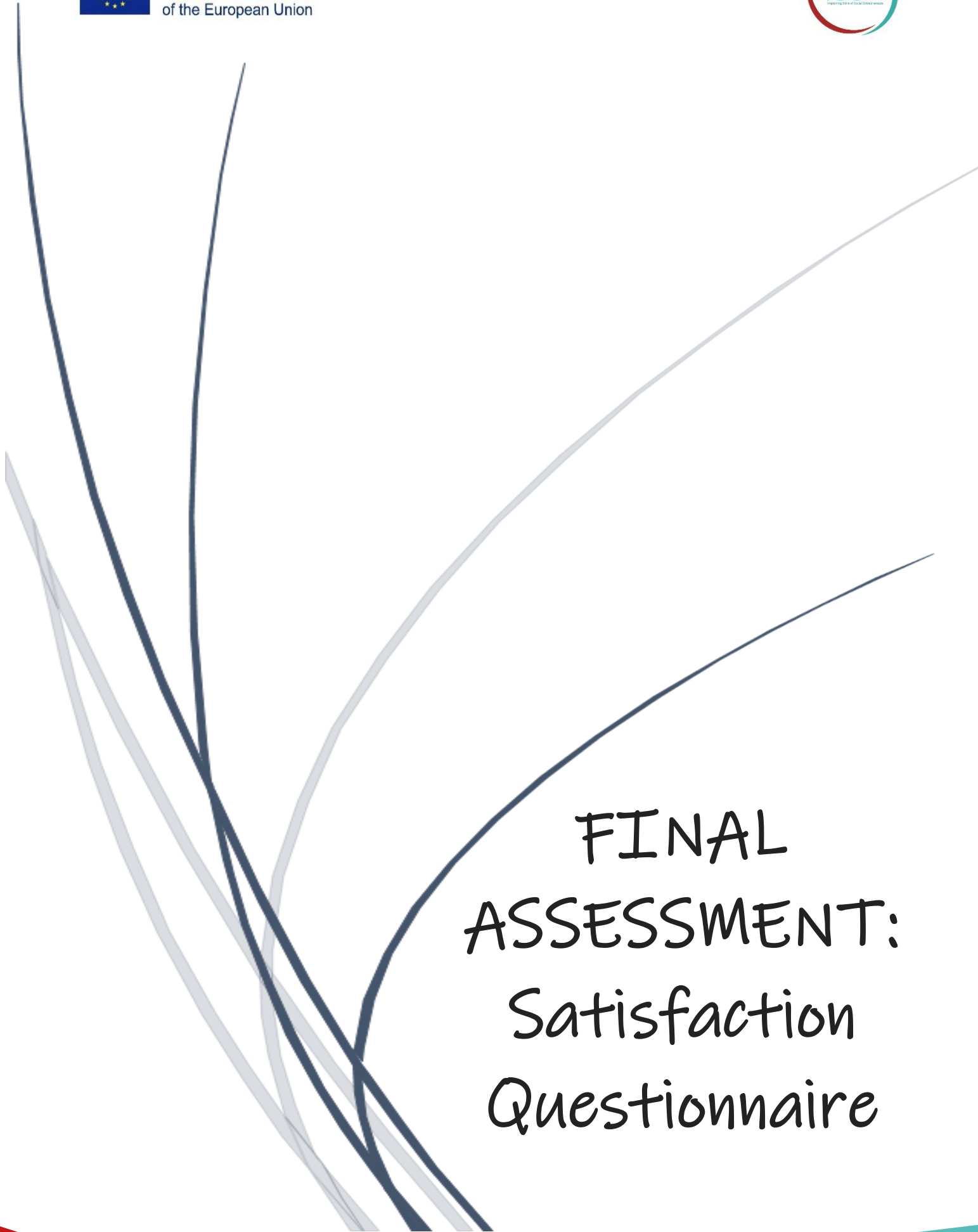
- Q1. Based on the grounded-theory model made by Hudson, which are those two attributes that are the core for forming the relationship among the mentor and the mentee:
- Professionalism and Supportive
 - Collaborative problem solving and Expectations
 - Trust and Respect
 - Sharing information and Enthusiasm
- Q2. Which of the following does not correspond to the three components of conflict:
- Interaction
 - Interpersonal Dissonance
 - Interdependence
 - Perceived incompatibility
- Q3. There are different types of conflicts. Those indicated below indicate one that relates to the poor communication between mentor and mentee:
- Personal differences
 - Informal deficiencies
 - People-focused
 - Issue-focused
- Q4. At what level of conflict does the following statement occur: “The relationship is spoiled due to a negative attitude and a fixed opinion, thus giving reason for worries”:
- Tension
 - Crisis
 - Misunderstandings
 - Discomfort
- Q5. At what level of seriousness of the conflict corresponds what is also called “Open Conflict” because it manifests itself among the actors without dissimulation:
- Open Conflict
 - Perceived conflict
 - Conflict experienced
 - Manifest conflict
- Q6. Several authors point out three fundamental mechanisms for learning from failure. Those listed below indicate the one that is not:
- Reflexão
 - Focalização
 - Articulação
 - Codificação



Part B – True or false questions

- Q7.** The mentoring process there is a set of mentee uncertainties but not so much in the mentor as being the person in the mentoring relationship with more knowledge, experience and therefore more prepared for the unknown.
- True
 - False
- Q8.** The “Mentoring Agreement” it’s a contract that generally establishes the limits of the mentor's performance and what he or she expects as the mentor's appropriate behavior during the interaction period.
- True
 - False
- Q9.** No processo de mentoria assim como nas relações interpessoais o conflito é algo que nunca deve ocorrer e como tal o mentor deve evitar o confronto.
- True
 - False
- Q10.** After a failure in the social business, it seems normal for entrepreneurs to experience a decline in motivation and to be cautious of making new emotional investments, so it is advisable for the mentor to avoid encouraging the mentee to share this type of experience with others to escape the "motivational dip”.
- True
 - False
- Q11.** Failure is an important signal that can generate action insofar as it suggests a disconnect between beliefs and reality and with that, lead to the exploration of solutions to solve this disconnection.
- True
 - False
- Q12.** To convert ideas, visions into business opportunities, a four-step process is suggested by Dolabela. The statement “determining and setting objectives as well as linking the rewards” corresponds to the stage of Business Strategy Development.
- True
 - False

Quiz End 😊



FINAL ASSESSMENT: Satisfaction Questionnaire



Satisfaction Assessment Training Action

We ask for your help in completing this evaluation questionnaire, which aims not only to control how training actions take place, but also to obtain data that allow constant adjustment between the actions taken and the needs of its participants.

1. Program Development							
<i>Evaluation Parameters</i>	<i>Less Positive</i>	1	2	3	4	NA *	<i>More Positive</i>
1. Fulfillment of expectations	Nothing achieved						Fully Fulfilled
2. Course Objectives	Very confused						Very clear
3. Structure of the course program	Totally Inadequate						Totally Adequate
4. Course Contents	Incorrect						Very Correct
5. Practical utility of contents	Inapplicable						Fully Applicable
6. Suitability for professional needs	No suitability						Total adequacy
7. Motivation and participation (self-assessment)	Null						Full
8. Activities promoted by the Trainer	Insufficient						Very suitable
9. Relationship between participants	Negative						Very positive
10. Facilities and equipment	Not Suitable						Totally Suitable
11. Documentation	Inadequate						Fully Adequate
12. Audiovisual Media Available	Insufficient						Totally Suitable
13. Secretariat support	Nonexistent						Very effective

* **NA** - Not applicable

3. Comments (*Topics considered to be developed further or to be included in other courses of this type. Most achieved aspects and aspects to improve. Suggestions and other remarks*)

Date: ___/___/___ Name (Optional):

Muito obrigado!



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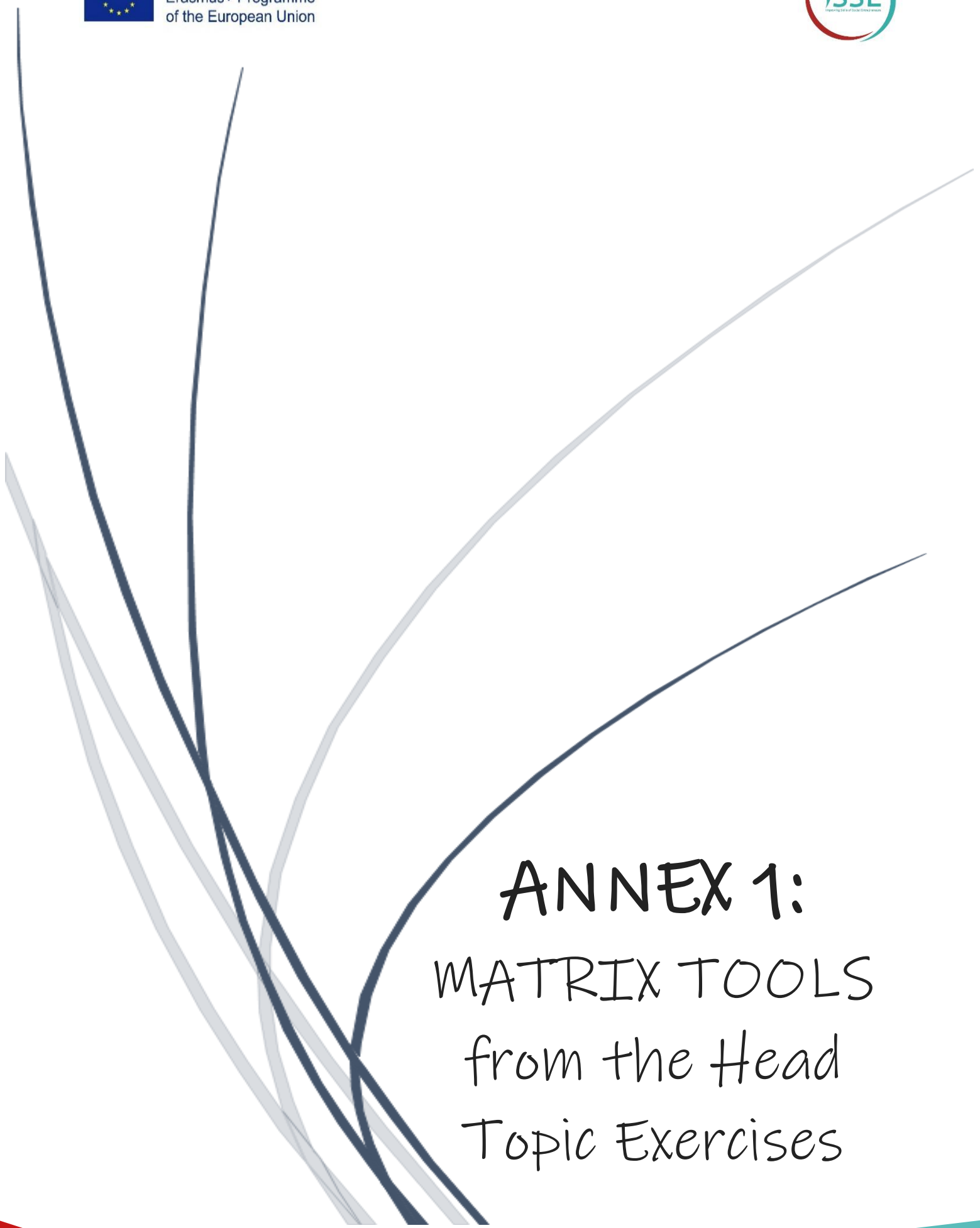
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ANNEX 1: MATRIX TOOLS from the Head Topic Exercises



PHASES OF THE FORMAL
MENTORING PROGRAM

MATRIX TOOLS from the Head Topic Exercises

PROCEDURAL ACT OF RELATION

<i>Milestones</i>	Selection and matching processes	When mentors and mentees first meet	Mentoring learning process sessions during 12 months	Finalization of the mentoring process
<i>Phase 1 - Preparation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head Topic 2. EX. 1: Mentee Application Form • Head Topic 2. EX. 2: Mentor Application Form 			
<i>Phase 2 - Establishing the relationship</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head Topic 4. EX. 1, 2 & 3: Mentoring agreement #1; #2 and #3 • Head Topic 2. EX. 3: Mentoring Contract • Head Topic 4. EX. 1: KWHLAQ Chart • Head Topic 2. EX. 4: Mentoring Action Plan • Head Topic 2. EX. 5: Mentoring Review Form 			
<i>Phase 3 - Learning and developing</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head Topic 2. EX. 6: Mentee Preparation Sheet • Head Topic 2. EX. 7: Mentoring Session Worksheet • Head Topic 2. EX. 8: Mentoring Time Log • Head Topic 2. EX. 9: Mentee Partnership Evaluation Form • Head Topic 2. EX. 10: Mentor Partnership Evaluation Form 			
<i>Phase 4 - Ending</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head Topic 2. EX. 11: Mentoring Relationship Evaluation Form 			



PHASES OF THE FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAM

MATRIX TOOLS from the Head Topic Exercises

Transversal Milestones

RELATIONAL ACT OF MENTORY

Phase 2 - Establishing the relationship;

Phase 3 - Learning and developing, and;

Phase 4 - Ending

- Topic 4. EXERCISE 5: Needs-Fear mapping
- Topic 4. EXERCISE 6: The conflict tree
- Topic 4. EXERCISE 7: Case Formulation Worksheet
- Topic 4. EXERCISE 8: Results and Expectations Review Worksheet
- Topic 4. EXERCISE 9: How Did “The Problem” Develop? Worksheet



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ANNEX 2: HEAD TOPICS QUIZ SOLUTIONS



HEAD TOPIC 1 QUIZ			
PARTE A		PARTE B	
Q1	c.	Q7	b.
Q2	b.	Q8	a.
Q3	a.	Q9	a.
Q4	c.	Q10	b.
Q5	d.	Q11	a.
Q6	d.	Q12	a.

HEAD TOPIC 2 QUIZ			
PARTE A		PARTE B	
Q1	a.	Q7	b.
Q2	b.	Q8	a.
Q3	c.	Q9	b.
Q4	d.	Q10	a.
Q5	c.	Q11	a.
Q6	b.	Q12	b.

HEAD TOPIC 3 QUIZ			
PARTE A		PARTE B	
Q1	a.	Q7	a.
Q2	b.	Q8	b.
Q3	a.	Q9	b.
Q4	a.	Q10	a.
Q5	d.	Q11	a.
Q6	c.	Q12	a.
		Q13	b.
		Q14	b.

HEAD TOPIC 4 QUIZ			
PARTE A		PARTE B	
Q1	c.	Q7	b.
Q2	b.	Q8	a.
Q3	b.	Q9	b.
Q4	a.	Q10	b.
Q5	d.	Q11	a.
Q6	b.	Q12	b.