

https://dspace.org/

Mentoring of early career academics in South African higher education : a transformation strategy

Geber, Hilary Margaret

2004

http://hdl.handle.net/10539/23074

Geber, Hilary Margaret (2004) Mentoring of early career academics in South African higher education : a transformation strategy, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, <http://hdl.handle.net/10539/23074>

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

MENTORING OF EARLY CAREER ACADEMICS IN SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION: A TRANSFORMATION STRATEGY

Hilary Margaret Geber

Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

2004

Declaration

I declare that this report is my own, unaided work. It is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (in the field of Public and Development Management) of the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.



Hilary Margaret Geber
12 November 2004

The copyright of this thesis rests with the University of the Witwatersrand and no quotation from it or information derived from it may be published without the prior written consent of the author and the University of the Witwatersrand.

© University of the Witwatersrand 2004

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Better supervisors than Professor Zak Nel and Dr Cecile Badenhorst, I could not have hoped for. Their calm unfailing guidance, support and steadiness over the years have been a great source of strength and reassurance for me. To them and to my colleagues at University of the Witwatersrand I offer my gratitude for their encouragement.

My children Simon, Katherine and Justin, my family and friends have affirmed my desire to go through this process and have made all the effort worthwhile. Without their love, humour and immeasurable support, I would have found it so much more arduous.

To all the mentoring participants who gave their time and shared their experiences with me, I salute you all in the brave new world of transformation in South Africa.

ABSTRACT

Early career academics in South Africa enter a higher education system with a historical legacy of division along lines of past discrimination and apartheid. The higher education system has been undergoing profound transformation in the last decade through the promulgation of the SAQA Act (No 58 of 1995) and the Higher Education Act No 101 of 1997. Although numbers of black students at historically advantaged, predominantly white higher education institutions have increased dramatically in the past decade to over 50% in some cases, the change in the academic staff at these institutions has not been nearly as rapid. Less than 30% of the academic staff is black, even at institutions which consider themselves to be progressive.

The argument in this research is that the professional socialisation and development of early career academics in all South Africa universities is generally neglected or receives scanty attention and that the professional development in teaching which they receive at entry-level, is minimal. Although mentoring as a professional development strategy has been shown in many studies to have a positive impact in careers at entry-level, South African universities are not doing enough to support and develop early career academics and consequently the transformation of higher education is being retarded by institutional lack of support. The case of the University of the Witwatersrand illustrates the situation common in many higher education institutions.

The purpose of the study is to investigate mentoring as a transformation strategy for the professional development and socialisation in the career development and management of the early careers of entry-level academics to higher education in South Africa where transformation of higher education is a critical issue on the national agenda.

In this study there are 28 early career academics in formal mentoring relationships as a result of specially designed mentoring programmes or academic internships which have been established since 1999. They were interviewed in-depth for their interpretations of their experiences in formal mentoring programmes where almost all the mentors are white and the majority of mentees belong to different cultural groups.

The findings in the study show how necessary it is for early career academics to be paired with mentors who are aware of the functions and roles of mentors in higher education and who are seriously committed to fulfilling those roles themselves or in conjunction with others in their networks. One new career development function and one new psychosocial function of mentors were added to a model of existing functions derived from the literature. Transformation is an important new function of mentors and their function as role models is emphasised by the context of this mentoring research. Mentoring may be lauded as the panacea for transformation in higher education but unless mentors are adequately trained, supported and monitored, and are committed to transformation, the strategy is not likely to meet with success. Mentoring in cross-cultural contexts in higher education in South Africa is also likely to be only partially successful because too little is being done to address the effects of institutional and covert racism which lingers on.

A wide spectrum of recommendations is made for making mentoring work in higher education institutions. These range from broadly based macro interventions at national and institutional levels, to quite detailed micro interventions at the individual level. Without a systematic and committed thrust throughout the sector to accelerate transformation, the whole sector is likely to languish and busy itself with meeting legislative demands for equity compliance and quality assurance drives without addressing the fundamental issues of developing those young academics who are instrumental in transforming the system.

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Academic Development.

In South Africa, the term 'academic development' has two generally accepted meanings. One covers the concept of the development of academic and research staff in higher education and the other covers the concept of the development of students in all levels of education with the specific emphasis on student development in higher education. As I use the term, it will apply to academic staff in higher education.

The literature often refers to this type of development as 'staff development' in the UK and Commonwealth countries and in Europe and Scandinavia. The same concept is known as 'faculty development' in the United States and Canada.

The concept itself covers a fairly wide range of activities and is defined like this by Webb (1996b, p1):

"Staff development is normally considered to include the institutional policies, programmes and procedures which facilitate and supports staff so that they may fully serve their own and their institution's needs. Despite differences in their origins, 'staff development' and 'professional development' are currently read as one."

In higher education institutions such as universities academic development has until recently been primarily concerned with the educational development of staff – the development of teaching and learning.

Francis (1975) defines faculty development as 'an institutional process which seeks to modify the attitudes, skills, and behaviour of faculty members toward greater competence and effectiveness in meeting student needs, their own needs, and the needs of the institution. Successful programmes change the way faculty feel about their professional roles, increase their knowledge and skills in practice.'

Career management

Career management is the term used to refer the organisational practices and policies which are deliberately designed to enhance individual careers and includes a huge range of organisational activities some of which are: designing training and development programmes; conducting performance evaluations; rewarding supervisors for employee development and providing counselling (Pazy, 1988).

Employment Equity

The Employment Equity Act of 1998 prohibits unfair discrimination against anyone on the grounds of "race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language and birth." It requires employers to put in place affirmative action measures to ensure equality for people from previously disadvantaged groups.

Early Career Academics

Dalton, Thompson and Price (1977) propose a model of organisational career stages which are not age related, nor do formal positions account for the stages. Stage I involves working under the direction of another professional; the term as it is applied to academics would include those at entry-level in higher education and could include those in a probationary period or any early career academic who has not yet been promoted to another more senior position. Dalton (1989) expands this later to show how early careers of professionals are developmental in nature.

Historically advantaged and disadvantaged institutions

Universities and other higher education institutions established after 1959 specifically to educated black South Africans are referred to as historically black or historically disadvantaged universities or institutions, HDIs or HDUs or HBUs. Those which specifically excluded black South Africans are referred to as historically white or

historically advantaged universities or institutions, HAIs or HAUs or HWUs. The word 'institutions' refers to universities and technikons in the higher education sector.

Managerialism

According to Dixon, Kouzmin and Korac-Kakabadse (1998) managerialism places emphasis on policy management and implementation rather than policy development; it stresses efficiency, effectiveness and quality in the management of public resources. It involves goal setting, performance benchmarking and appraisal. It advocates the use of private sector management practices in the public sector and shifts the public accountability focus from inputs and processes to outputs and outcomes. It also attempts to create a competitive administration for public agencies responsible for delivering government services.

Academic managerialism entails the strategic management of change by new decision making bodies comprising the university executive, key administrators and senior academics; creating strategic plans; forming stronger central leadership and decentralising budgets. In addition, it involves establishing closer collaboration with industry and commerce, integrating technology as an essential management tool and devising explicit training programmes for managers and administrators (Webster and Mosoetsa, 2001).

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAHE	The American Association for Higher Education
ETDP SETA	Education, Training and Development Practitioners Sector Education Training Authority
CHE	Council on Higher Education
HESDI	The Higher Education Staff Development Initiative
HERDSA	The Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia Inc
HAI	Historically advantaged institution
HDI	Historically disadvantaged institution
HAU	Historically advantaged universities
HDU	Historically disadvantaged universities
ICED	The International Consortium for Educational Development
IUT	Improving University Teaching
POD	The Professional and Organisational Development Network for Higher Education
PDP	Personal Development Plans
RAU	Rand Afrikaans University
SHRE	The Society for Research into Higher Education
SEDA	The Staff and Educational Development Association
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
UNISA	University of South Africa
UN	University of Natal
UPE	University of Port Elizabeth
Wits	University of the Witwatersrand

Table of Contents

Chapter One 1
The higher education landscape: exotics overshadowing the indigenous 1
1.1 Introduction 1
1.2 Problem statement 11
1.3 The purpose of this study 15
1.4 Research proposition 16
1.5 Research questions 17
1.6 Overview of Chapters 17
1.7 Conclusion 22
Chapter Two 24
Bitter fruit on the tree of knowledge for disillusioned early career academics 24
2.1 Introduction 24
2.2 Wits during the Apartheid years 1948 - 1994 25
2.3 Pre- Apartheid: The 'open years' from 1939-1959 26
2.4 Resistance to Apartheid segregated education from 1959-1987 27
2.5 Staff development changes for Wits after 1985 till the end of Apartheid 29
2.6 Organisation and staff development from 1987 -1993 32
2.7 Current Transformation from 1997 to 2003 44
2.8 Critique of the transformation at Wits: a model for higher education institutions in South Africa 48
2.9 Conclusion 52
Chapter Three 52
The sapling nursery: the changing work environment in higher education 52
3.1 Introduction 52
3.2 Academic managerialism 52
3.3 Professionalisation of academic work 52
3.4 Accreditation of teaching in higher education 52
3.5 Staff development as organisational career management and support 52
3.6 Conclusion 52
Chapter Four 52
The academic seedbed 52
4.1 Introduction 52
4.2 Current concepts of mentoring and definitions from different contexts 52
4.3 Mentor Functions 52
4.4 Implementation of Mentoring models 52
4.5 Mentoring in higher education 52
4.7 Gender issues in mentoring 52
4.8 The rationale for mentoring of black academics and women in the South African higher education context 52
4.9 Institutional strategies for mentoring for transformation in South Africa 52
4.10 Conclusion 52
Chapter Five 52
Investigating the preparation of the seedbeds 52
5.1 Introduction 52
5.2 The research context 52
5.3 Research interviewing as a research method 52
5.4 The research questions and propositions 52
5.5 The Research Process from 2000 –2003 52

5.6 The context of the data collection....52
5.7 The interview participants....52
5.8 The participant profiles....52
5.9 The Interview Schedule....52
5.10 Ethical considerations....52
5.11 The interview process....52
5.12 The kind of data elicited from the survey....52
5.13 Validity....52
5.14 Data analysis....52
5.15 Storage of the data....52
5.16 Conclusion....52
Chapter Six....52
Academic topiary: mentoring for career development....52
6.1 Introduction....52
6.2 Theoretical frameworks for category construction....52
6.3 A priori data categories....52
6.4 Further Data Categories....52
6.5 Findings and discussion of the *Career Development functions and roles* of the mentor....52
6.6 Career development functions and roles: Aspects of the relationship *most beneficial* for mentees....52
6.7 Career development aspects of the relationship *not beneficial* for mentees....52
6.8 Career development aspects of the relationship *negative* for mentees....52
6.9 Length of relationships, selection of mentoring pairs, career progress, and retention of mentees in higher education....52
6.10 Structural issues that do not involve mentors....52
6.11 Conclusion....52
Chapter Seven....52
Optimal nurturing: the mentor's psychosocial and role model functions....52
7.1 Introduction....52
7.2 *Psychosocial* and *role model* functions fulfilled by mentors in higher education....52
7.3 Establishing trust....52
7.4 Psychosocial functions: Aspects of the relationship *most beneficial* for mentees....52
7.5 Aspects of the relationship *not beneficial* for mentees....52
7.6 Aspects of the relationship *negative* for mentees....52
7.7 The *Role Model* functions of the mentor....52
7.8 Role Model functions: Aspects of the relationship *most beneficial* for mentees ..52
7.9 Aspects of the relationship *not beneficial* for mentees....52
7.10 Role model Aspects of the relationship *negative* for mentees....52
7.11 Effective behaviour in mentoring relationships....52
7.12 Conclusion....52
Chapter Eight....52
Growing our own timber: new cross-cultural, cross-gender and transformatory functions for mentors....52
8.1 Introduction....52
8.2 Cross-cultural relationships....52
8.3 Gaps in the traditional mentoring model....52
8.4 Socio-historical, cultural and environmental forces....52

8.5 Black academics as agents of change 52
8.6 Conclusion 52
Chapter Nine 52
The transformed tree of knowledge 52
9.1 Introduction 52
9.2 Conclusions about staff development as 'sapling nurseries' in higher education 52
9.3 Conclusions about academic 'seed beds' for mentoring in South African universities 52
9.4 Conclusions about mentor and mentee behaviours affecting transformation: academic 'topiary', optimal nurturing and growing our own timber 52
9.5 Conclusions about the gaps between South African current practice and international mentoring best practice in higher education 52
9.6 Conclusions about the impact of mentoring on transformation in South African higher education 52
9.7 Implications for national higher education policy 52
9.8 Holistic recommendations proposed by this study 52
9.9 Implications for further research 52
9.10 Conclusion 52
APPENDIX A 52
MENTORING QUESTIONNAIRE 52
References 52

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Research Active Academics in South Africa 1990-1998 6
Figure 2.1 Model of organisational development in higher education 50
Figure 3.1 Higher education teaching accreditation systems 52
Figure 6.1 Cohen's six mentor dimensions 52
Figure 6.2 Stage 1: Composite Model of mentor functions and component roles 52
Figure 6.2a Mentor career development functions and component roles 52
Figure 8.1 Stage 2: New Composite Model of mentor functions and component roles 52
Figure 8.2 Mentors' and mentees' perceptions of functions required in cross-cultural mentoring relationships 52
Figure 9.1 The transformation mentoring model 52

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Permanent Black 'Instructional / Research' Staff at Historically Advantaged Universities (HAUs) for 1988, 1993 and 1998. 13
Table 2.1 Permanent Black 'Instructional / Research' Staff overshadowed at Historically Advantaged Universities (HAUs) from 1988 to 1998. 47
Table 2.2: Permanent Academic Staff at Wits by race and gender, 1998 to 2003 ... 47
Table 2.3 A brief summary of transformation at Wits from 1983 -2004 52
Table 4.1 Mentor functions described by theorists in 1980s 52
Table 4.2 Formal hierarchical mentoring schemes 52
Table 5.1: Year 2000 cohort academic mentees in formal mentoring programmes in South African universities 52
Table 5.2: Designated Group 'Black' academic mentees in Year 2000 cohort 52
Table 5.3: Designated Group 'Women' academic mentees in Year 2000 cohort 52
Table 5.4: Cross-cultural mentoring pairs in Year 2000 cohort academic mentees . 52
Table 5.5: Same-culture mentoring pairs in Year 2000 cohort academic mentees .. 52
Table 5.6: Academic disciplines of Year 2000 cohort academic mentees 52
Table 5.7: Academic rank of mentees in Year 2000 cohort 52
Table 5.8: Mentors interviewed in Year 2000 cohort at Wits 52
Table 6.1 Kram's model of mentor functions 52
Table 6.2 Additional mentor career development functions 52
Table 6.3 Additional mentor psychosocial functions 52
Table 6.4 Roles fulfilled by mentors in higher education 52
Table 6.5 Matrix of mentor roles and functions in aspects of relationships. 52
Table 6.6 Matrix of career development roles fulfilled by mentors in higher education 52
Table 7.1 Role model and psychosocial roles fulfilled by mentors in higher education 52
Table 7.2 Matrix of psychosocial aspects of mentoring in higher education 52
Table 7.3 Matrix of role model aspects of mentoring in higher education 52

Mentoring of early career academics in South African Higher Education: a transformation strategy

Chapter One

The higher education landscape: exotics overshadowing the indigenous

1.1 Introduction

Experiences of career development recounted by early career academics vary widely, ranging from enthusiasm to more cautious and neutral accounts, to those telling of complete isolation from colleagues. Some tell agonising tales of the struggle for acknowledgement in departments at universities and some experience sabotage of their work and disillusionment about the system. Many unspoken expectations about finding a supportive community of senior scholars are sometimes met in fulfilling ways but these contrast with others who report that they have experienced loneliness, isolation, intense competition and rudeness, resulting in a stressful and unrewarding entry into academic life (Trower, Austin and Sorcinelli, 2001).

This chapter introduces the South African higher education system and the context of the research work covered in the study and looks at the professional socialisation of early career academics in higher education in South Africa.

South Africa has moved through the first two democratic elections of the post-Apartheid era and tackled the task of transforming South African educational institutions. Politically liberal higher education institutions in South Africa, during the Apartheid era and afterwards, see themselves as open, non-racial organisations where academic merit is what counts. Yet many of the early career academics in these South African universities

have to face covert institutional discrimination, lack of interest, care and guidance from more established members of their departments and become disillusioned about the academy as a workplace. Early career academics are faced with the prospect of participating in transformation processes in university departments and classrooms and putting the ideals of equity and equal opportunity into practice. Many feel that it is difficult to integrate into academic life and the social milieu of the campus. Women and especially those with young children find it difficult to work in such an environment (Geber, 1999b).

The South African Higher Education system between 1985 and 2001 comprised 21 universities, 14 technikons and approximately 100 teacher-training, nursing and agricultural colleges. The state sector comprised more than 600 000 students in higher educational institutions in 1998, with a further 100 000 enrolled at private institutions. Universities dominated the sector, with more than 60% of students in higher education enrolled at university, approximately 30% in the technikons and the remainder in the college component. By the mid 1990s, 20% of South Africans aged 20 to 24 were receiving some form of higher education, which compares very favourably for middle income developing countries, and reflects the high level of public commitment to extending the boundaries of the sector (Geber and Munro, 1999).

In 1995, the South African Qualifications Authority Act (No 58 of 1995) articulated the new vision and policy in terms of a single national system which would transform education in South Africa. There is a clear agenda for transformation, beginning with the Draft White Paper on Higher Education (Notice 712 of 1997) which led to the passing of the Higher Education Act No 101 of 1997, and the SAQA Act of 1995.

Transformation in education involves the amalgamation of the disparate components and structures into a single, cohesive, integrated and co-operative system offering wider access to the entire population, ensuring greater accountability and delivering a better product at all levels of education. Planned efficiency, higher participation rates, greater social sensitivity and explicit global competitiveness are now to be added to the more

traditional market responsiveness, professional training and personal development goals of the older educational approach. Access, redress, quality and development are the cornerstones of the new South African educational system with the National Qualifications Framework offering a mechanism for benchmarking achievements and quality improvements, whilst at the same time offering a concrete grid for the demarcation of qualifications and the setting of standards in response to business, professional, labour and educational needs. Higher Education and in particular the university system, has been presented with the challenge of both integrating into a unified system which amalgamates education and training, and transforming itself into a cost effective, efficient player within the bigger structure. It also has to reflect the demographics of the country's populations both in student and staff bodies.

However, after five years of transformation driven by legislation, the Minister of Education, Minister Kadar Asmal recognised the crisis in education at all levels and indicated by his emphasis on his nine point plan for education for the five years from 1999 to 2004 that implementation of policy is vital. Higher Education also features in the plan, and transformation of the sector is viewed as a matter of urgency (Asmal,1999). The Minister commissioned a report from the Council on Higher Education (CHE) on the size and shape of the higher education system which recommends reconfiguring the system to remove Apartheid fragmentation (CHE, 2000). Several higher education institutions are in the process of merging to transform the system. Internal transformation is also underway at many higher education institutions where staff development and mentoring are being used strategically to transform the teaching-learning process, and career development relationships established to break decisively with past discriminatory practices in order to create an environment where the full potential of everyone is realised.

Fragmentation of higher education institutions along racial lines between 1959 and 1994 gave rise to a group of 10 English and Afrikaans medium historically white institutions known also as historically advantaged institutions, all located in urban areas. Universities specifically established for black students under Apartheid are known also as 'historically

black or disadvantaged institutions' and are mostly located in rural areas. There is also considerable contrast between the rapid changes in the demographics of the student populations in higher education since the mid 1980s and the slower changes in the demographics of the academic staff. This is especially evident in historically advantaged institutions (Cooper and Subotsky, 2001).

Traditionally, universities have appointed promising young graduates as junior academics to learn the nature of academic work and to acquire the knowledge necessary in research and in teaching. At most South African higher education institutions, newcomers serve a probationary period during which their work performance is scrutinised and reviewed with an understanding that satisfactory performance will lead to the confirmation of the individual as permanent member of staff. The probation process itself is often not clearly structured and securing a confirmation of a permanent appointment or tenure is often mysterious and fraught with obstacles and unexpected hurdles (Boice, 1992).

Early career academics experience high levels of anxiety about many aspects of academic work when they first begin. Balancing the workload of research, as well as teaching for the first time and completing a higher degree, can require great effort and also involves finding time for family and social life as well (Gaff, 1975; Boice, 1992; Sorcinelli and Austin, 1992; Boyle and Boice,1998).

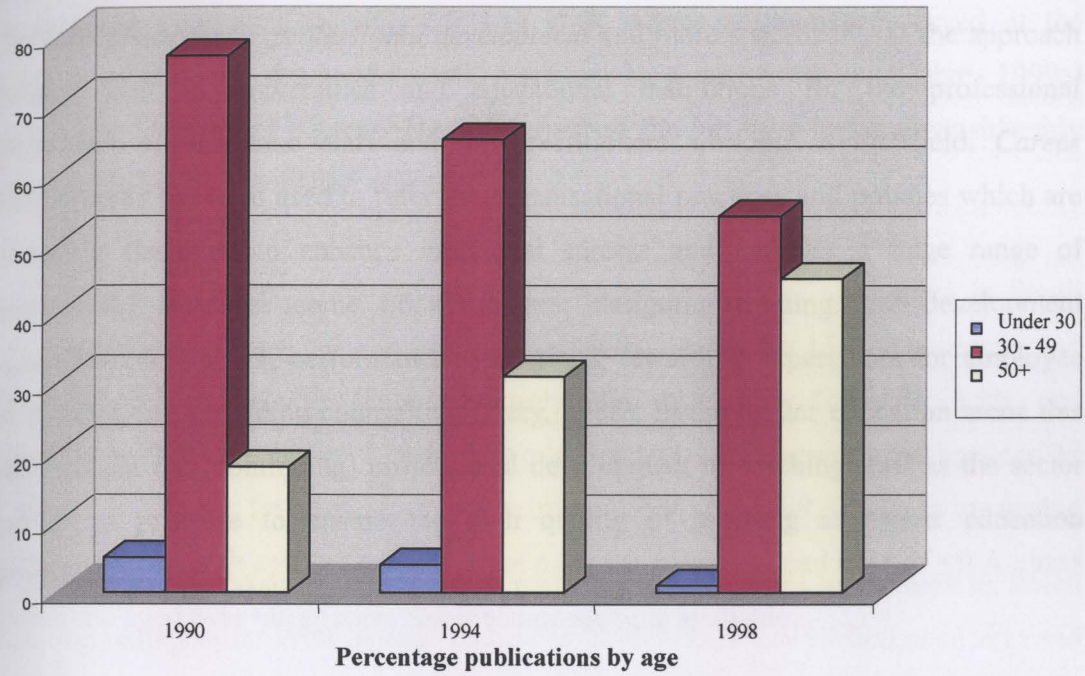
In South Africa, hundreds of early career academics are appointed annually to junior positions at higher education institutions. Large historically advantaged institutions located in urban areas employ the majority of academics in South Africa (Cooper and Subotsky, 2001). The largest English medium university, the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) alone has employed an average of 77 new junior lectures and tutors annually since 1997 (University of the Witwatersrand, EIS database, 2001). Many of them have little work experience either in higher education or in other occupations although some may have worked as tutors in one or two courses or as laboratory demonstrators while they were postgraduates. There is some formal orientation offered to newcomers at some South African higher education institutions. About half of South

African universities conduct a formal induction to the institutions (Geber, 2000). Academics are appointed with three expectations: that they already have some specialist knowledge of their discipline; they have research skills; and that teaching will naturally flow from this expertise (Weimer, 1997). The large majority of university lecturers do not have teaching qualifications; only 35% of early career academics surveyed at the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) have teaching qualifications, (Geber, 1999a) although the demands of the teaching component of the job have become considerably more complex in the last quarter century.

The CHE is greatly concerned about the publication profiles of academics in South Africa. According to the CHE annual report for 2002/3 there are 15 000 academic and professional staff in Higher Education but only 2000 are research "active" (13.5%) and produce publications. In addition, as is shown in Figure 1.1, academics aged between 35 and 49 are producing fewer publications between 1990 and 1998. There is an ageing population of research active staff, 45% are over 50 years old and half of all A-rated scientists are aged over 60, so there fewer senior mentors available.

The younger generation of qualified professionals usually find work outside higher education after obtaining a first degree, not least because salaries in higher education are not competitive with other sectors. Some of those young people who do qualify, may begin to work in higher education but many don't regard the academy as a long-term career option and consequently don't move through the ranks. Many who start academic careers leave before they are senior enough to make policy decisions for transformation in their institutions. Mentoring can be used as a strategy to keep them in the system longer, and ensure role modelling for early career academics especially black early career academics in the next generation.

Figure 1.1 Research Active Academics in South Africa 1990-1998



Source: CHE, 2002.

During the last twenty-five years, researchers in higher education world-wide and across many higher education systems have begun investigating the development of scholarly careers (Berquist and Phillips, 1975; Gaff, 1975; Seldin, 1997; McKeachie, 1999). Early career academics and new faculty members have been the focus of scrutiny since the establishment of the first academic development units in universities across the United States and United Kingdom during the 1970s. University senior management, academic development practitioners and others interested in professional development have shown a growing interest in the staff development field, starting with an emphasis on more interactive teaching techniques in the early 1970s. The formalisation of higher education teaching qualifications for academics formed a focus of interest in the 1990s (Gibbs and Baume, 1996) and more recently with the wide spread dissemination of the work of

Boyer (1990), the scholarship of teaching has been receiving more attention from staff development practitioners throughout the world (Haigh, 2000).

Staff development or *academic (faculty) development* falls within the broad theoretical framework of *career or professional development* and more specifically as the approach generally used in universities and educational institutions for the professional development of academic staff and the practitioners working in the field. *Career management* is the term used to refer the organisational practices and policies which are deliberately designed to enhance individual careers and includes a huge range of organisational activities some of which are: designing training and development programmes; conducting performance evaluations; rewarding supervisors for employee development and providing counselling (Pazy, 1988). In the higher education arena this would include the (continuing) professional development of teaching staff as the sector responds to pressure to ensure the high quality of teaching at higher education institutions.

Lewis (1997) says that the field of staff development has received increasing attention world-wide over the past twenty-five years because universities and other higher education institutes have had to meet the challenge of restricted mobility of academic staff, growing diversity in student populations and in the increasing number of students demanding access to higher education and good quality teaching. As early as 1970, large universities in the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia and some European countries began to design staff development programmes ranging from very basic to increasingly complex. Groups of interested parties at these universities began to form extensive networks of staff development practitioners in these countries where universities grapple with the widely varying levels of teaching expertise which academics display. They began to conduct research into factors that help or hinder the most effective interchange of knowledge between university teachers and their students (Gilbert and Gibbs, 1998; Gibbs, 1998). Many South African staff development practitioners have become members of some of the most active English language staff development

networks worldwide which include: The American Association for Higher Education (AAHE); the Professional and Organisational Development Network for Higher Education (POD); the Society for Research into Higher Education (SHRE); the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA); the International Consortium for Educational Development (ICED); Improving University Teaching (IUT); and the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia Inc (HERDSA). South Africans present work on professional development in South African universities at international conferences organised by these networks.

Several models of staff development are in use in many universities. These include the *non credit-bearing models* like those described by Berquist and Phillips, (1975) and Gaff, (1975). Non credit-bearing models of staff development usually present stand-alone courses which do not contribute towards a qualification. The *credit-bearing models* like those discussed by Keesen, Wubbels, van Tartwijk and Bouhuijs, (1996) and Nightingale, (1996) are designed to build credits towards a qualification. There are also *collaborative models* as described by Cannon and Hore, (1997); and the off site, online models being pioneered by many universities in the past few years. These models denote varying degrees of acceptance of the necessity of professional development of academics and in the academic work throughout the higher education system world-wide.

Boice (1992), Sorcinelli and Austin (1992), Boyle and Boice (1998) and Nyquist (2002) in particular have looked critically at the conditions in which early career academics work at entry level in higher education institutions. They report that career development and advancement through the junior ranks is often a more harrowing experience than young academics expect. Researchers and academic development practitioners have called for better training and support for early career academics in a world where their careers are becoming increasingly subject to outside scrutiny and calls for the professionalisation of the occupation (Brew, 1995). Kanter (1989a) points out that one of the major career functions performed by organisations is educating and credentialing of employees. Organisations have to provide evidence that employees are qualified to perform certain tasks and then provide opportunities to exercise those skills. In

professional careers there is growth in skill through long periods of schooling and apprenticeship which provides opportunity for the development of cross-organisational mobility throughout the profession.

Academic staff mentoring is defined as a process of promoting professional and personal development among all academic staff by connecting them with others who can advise, coach, and guide them, as well as help them understand the context in which they are operating (University of Wisconsin, 1998). The emphasis on understanding the context of academic work is important for the purposes of transformation in higher education and for early career academics in South Africa.

Simultaneous with the internal demands internationally and in South African on universities to produce more professionally qualified academics, there was an external demand from governments and the tax paying public for universities to adopt management strategies and techniques from private and corporate sectors because of decreasing state funding and the drive to increase student numbers to stabilise income (Currie, 2001b). Within universities, management systems have become more pervasive and sophisticated and operated by a large non-academic workforce. The rise of academic managerialism which began in the 1980s was met with a fair amount of disdain and resistance from academics according to researchers like Zemsky and Massy, (1995), Webb, (1996b), Kayrooz, Pearson and Quinlan, (1997), and Engell and Dangerfield, (1998). The nature of academic work has changed fundamentally and has resulted in heavier teaching loads and increased pressure to become entrepreneurial. The implication of the changes means that academics have less time for research, publication and teaching and yet the expectations of their output in these areas has increased. It has become steadily more evident that higher education institutions will be led in the future by academic career managers rather than by the more traditional scholars (Currie, 2001b; Webster and Mosoetsa, 2001). The traditional academic career will have to make way for fewer 'ivory tower' notions of academic work.

In South Africa the response to governmental demands for managerial transformation, has resulted in the emergence of different kinds of leadership, namely the transformative, managerialist and crisis styles, (Kulati, 2001). Within the managerialist agendas of many higher education institutions, there is an emphasis on management development of senior academics in faculty leadership positions, leading to the professionalisation of the management function in higher education. Some of the management development training provided for senior academics is also becoming part of the training and development of non-managerial academics and early career academics as the discourse of managerialism overtakes the discourse of educational development in staff development. The issue of the change from educational to managerial and entrepreneurial discourse in higher education leads to a change in the way funding is allocated and the way academic work is viewed (Popkewitz, 1996; Currie, 2001a). Bertelsen (1998) points out that the managerial discourse of change and the market discourse of branding have been absorbed virtually unchallenged by universities. These have led to restructuring of institutions and academic programmes, cost cutting of academic expenditure and a proliferation of managerialist controls which have produced expensive administrative excess and a tendency to employ part-time, contract and exploited graduate labour.

In the South African context, higher education has been subject to radical changes in policy since 1994 and is now outcomes based and driven. The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) imperatives make teaching and learning the first priority in education but academics are rewarded for research output and the National Research Foundation (NRF) funding given to research essentially undermines the SAQA teaching and learning priority. There is a great tension around these issues and the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) is no exception in driving academics hard for research output and yet not rewarding teaching excellence in the same way. Academics are punished for favouring teaching over research output by not being promoted or confirmed in permanent posts.

Early career academics in South Africa commence their careers in a rapidly changing environment, often very different from the environment they experienced as students.

Many do not know quite what to expect when they join higher education institutions and some still harbour the outdated view of universities as a haven or paradise of intellectual work. The reality of the academic workplace is tougher and much less idyllic than many imagine (Trower et al., 2001).

1.2 Problem statement

Early career academics in South Africa enter a system with a historical legacy of division along lines of past discrimination and apartheid. At the time this study began, the university system comprises 10 historically advantaged institutions, 10 historically disadvantaged institutions and Unisa, the major distance education institution. Prior to 1994 most black students were enrolled at historically disadvantaged institutions and most white students at historically advantaged institutions. Most members of the academic staff at historically disadvantaged institutions were black; academic staff members at historically advantaged institutions were predominantly white. Although numbers of black students at historically advantaged institutions have increased dramatically in the past decade to over 50% in many universities, the change in the academic staff at historically advantaged institutions has not been nearly as rapid; less than 30% are black (Cooper, 1998). Newly appointed black members of staff at historically advantaged institutions enter departments and faculties where the senior academics, governing and administrative members are usually white males.

The SAQA Act (No 58 of 1995) articulated the new vision and policy for a single national system for transforming education in South Africa by means of a well-planned and integrated, high quality national system of higher education whose students and staff are increasingly representative of South African society. The system is linked to national and provincial reconstruction, in particular to human resource development and production of scientific and other knowledge to service the economic, political, cultural and intellectual development of communities in the South African nation.

Government has stressed its determination to transform higher education through the promulgation of the Higher Education Act No 101 of 1997. There is a clear transformation agenda in both pieces of legislation. Transformation in education as defined in the legislation, involves the amalgamation of the disparate components and structures into a single, cohesive, integrated and co-operative system offering wider access to the entire population, ensuring greater accountability and delivering a better product at all levels of education.

After 1994, South African universities emerged from their isolation after the academic boycott by the international academic community (Murray, 1997; Shear, 1996). Many of the changes which have taken place in American and British universities have also appeared in South Africa. These include the "massification" of higher education; the demands of larger classes; poor transfer of knowledge by traditional methods and in many cases the lack of adequate preparation for higher education (Gardiner, 1994); a decrease in public funding per capita; and impact of technology and information, and marketing (Pickert,1992). In the process of transition to a more equitable and balanced academic staff, many early career academics are appointed into Employment Equity or Affirmative Action posts. There are few senior black academics to act as role models or guides and this may make for difficulties in adjusting to working in an historically advantaged institutions (HAI), especially when the young academic comes from a historically disadvantaged institutions (HDI), (Geber, 1999a). Throughout the sector, as the number of appointments of black academics at entry-level increases, so the numbers of appointments of white academics decreases. Some early career academics establish informal mentoring relationships with more senior academics, partly as a result of higher degree supervision. A smaller number of early career academics are in formal mentoring relationships as a result of specially designed mentoring programmes or academic internships which have been initiated since 1999. Most higher degree supervisors at historically advantaged institutions are white and increasingly their postgraduate students belong to different cultural groups. Supervision of postgraduate students follows a well-established system (Rudd, 1985) where the quality of supervision arrangements ranges

from close supervision to much less intensive supervision depending on the ethos of the faculty or supervisor and the independence of the student.

Changes in the academic staff at English historically advantaged institutions began before it was fashionable to talk of transformation when some efforts at changing the demographic structure of the academic staff were made. Table 1.1 shows the changes at historically advantaged institutions from 1988 to 1998.

Table 1.1 Permanent Black 'Instructional / Research' Staff at Historically Advantaged Universities (HAUs) for 1988, 1993 and 1998.

Afrikaans HAU		**1988**	**1993**	**1998**
	Free State	0%	0%	3%
	Port Elizabeth	0%	3%	6%
	Potchefstroom	0%	0%	2%
	Pretoria	1%	1%	2%
	Rand Afrikaans	1%	1%	2%
	Stellenbosch	1%	1%	1%
Afrikaans HAU %		**1%**	**1%**	**2%**
English HAU				
	Cape Town	5%	6%	9%
	Natal	7%	12%	18%
	Rhodes	5%	10%	8%
	Witwatersrand	5%	8%	13%
English HAU %		**6%**	**9%**	**13%**

Source: Cooper, 1998

By the end of 1988, five percent of the instructional or research staff members at the University of the Witwatersrand were black, representing 27.5% of all instructional or research staff at the four English historically advantaged universities (HAUs) (Cooper, 1998). The percentage increased at the University of the Witwatersrand to seven percent by the end of 1992. By 1993, the University of the Witwatersrand had almost doubled the number of black instructional or research staff and the proportion had risen to eight percent. Of the four English historically advantaged universities (HAUs) employing black instructional or research staff, 29% were employed by the University of the Witwatersrand (Cooper, 1998). To date, no further comparative studies like this have

been published. Cooper and Subotsky (2001), in their book 'The Skewed Revolution', show more recent trends for all HEIs prior to the mergers instigated by the Minister of Education in 2002, but do not offer as detailed a breakdown of HAUs as those in the table above. Some of the institutions report on their employment profiles on their websites.

In the governance and managerial hierarchies of HAIs some changes have also taken place, not all of them driven by the legislation. Changes in the university councils are not systematically reported and are not readily available. In most historically advantaged institutions the councils of the universities were exclusively white entities until the late 1980s. The first black Council member at the University of the Witwatersrand was elected by Convocation in 1989. State appointments of black Council members began in 1992. In the same year, for the first time, representative members from the Student Representative Council were also elected to Council to voice student concerns (University Calendar 1980-1994).

Changes in the University Senates are also not systematically reported but as more black academics and women were appointed to professorial positions gradual changes become evident. Cooper (1998) reports that within the non-academic staff categories 'executive-administrative-management', and 'specialist-support staff' even in 1998 the 'traditional' Apartheid division of labour had been transformed only very slightly within the university system as a whole. At historically advantaged institutions in 1998, the senior 'executive-administrative-management' group was 91% white. The most obvious of these changes was initiated by the University of Cape Town with the appointment of a black woman Vice Chancellor in 1995. The slow rate of transformation at senior levels raises the question of whether early career academics are able to find role models and mentors of the same cultural background when they enter the academic workplace (Geber, 1999a; Potgieter, 2002). This study is situated within the South African academic workplace where the situation is complicated by pressure from Government for higher education institutions to appoint and retain black early career academics to show transformation of staff. Professional development practices as they exist at present, are insufficient to

address the specific needs of current South Africa higher education context in terms of transformation required by legislation, and this leads to the reasons for conducting the present research.

1.3 The purpose of this study

The purpose of the study is to investigate mentoring as a transformation strategy for the professional development and socialisation in the career development and management of the early careers of entry-level academics to higher education in South Africa where transformation of higher education is a critical issue on the national agenda. A conceptual design of the possible professional and career development strategies is proposed to optimise the professional development of early career academics. This design is proposed within the framework of new international trends in the professional socialisation of academics and increasing professional development of the core function of teaching in higher education institutions.

The argument is that universities are complex organisations undergoing rapid and pervasive change. South African universities are also confronted with the need to change and transform in order to redress the discrimination of the legacy of Apartheid throughout the higher education system. Training and development of novice academics needs to be transformed as well if these early career academics are to compete successfully in the global sphere of higher education. Many sources, including Boice, (1992); Gaff, (1975); Berquist and Phillips, (1975); Gibbs (1998) and Brew, (1995) amongst others, indicate that there are great demands made on entry-level academics and that in many cases they are not sufficiently supported in their early career development. One way of ensuring that they get the assistance and guidance they need to become fully functioning academics within a relatively short time is to provide mentoring for them. I argue that that South African universities, and the University of the Witwatersrand as one example of such institutions, are not doing enough to support and develop early career academics and that

the transformation of higher education is being retarded by institutional lack of support. The University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) is used as the site of enquiry and investigation and is compared with other historically advantaged institutions in the higher education system.

The argument in this research is that the professional socialisation and development of early career academics in all South Africa universities is generally neglected or receives scanty attention and that the professional development in teaching which they receive at entry-level, is minimal. Mentoring as a professional development strategy has a positive impact in careers at entry-level. The study makes recommendations for the transformation of the professional development in early academic careers in South Africa. This examines the formally structured mentoring initiatives which can be assessed against identified outcomes and standards to ensure more widespread and thorough professional training for academics instead of the uneven and limited practices in place at present.

1.4 Research proposition

The research proposition is firstly that the present professional socialisation and professional development of early career academics in the South African higher education system is inadequate and therefore South African higher education institutions need to design the training and development of early career academics in keeping with changes in higher education legislation and its transformation agenda.

The proposition is that carefully mentored professional development programmes for early career academics would address the inadequacies of their present development and that the literature provides sound evidence for using such development programmes. A conceptual designing of the present career development strategies is proposed to optimise the professional development of early career academics.

Secondly, the design of a range of career development strategies will contribute to the transformation of higher education, depending on the need and capacity of higher education institutions.

Thirdly, the design of career development strategies addresses issues which might work in the present higher education context and what factors might mitigate against its being implemented

1.5 Research questions

The aim of the research is to investigate the gap in the existing knowledge about mentoring as a transformation and professional strategy by addressing the questions:

- What are the staff and career development models currently in use for the transformation, professional development and socialisation of the careers of academics in a changing work environment in higher education?
- What kinds of mentoring happen at Wits and in other South Africa universities?
- What mentor and mentee behaviours affect transformation through mentoring relationships?
- What are the gaps between current practice in South Africa and best practice in higher education early career development and mentoring internationally?
- How can mentoring impact on transformation in South African higher education?

1.6 Overview of Chapters

The introduction to the study gives a broad outline of the milieu in which the research is situated and looks at the higher education landscape in the last decade. The growing of young talent is likened to the cultivation of scarce, potentially endangered indigenous

species, struggling to establish and maintain a viable position in an inhospitable climate overshadowed by large numbers of exotics.

Chapter 2 reflects the disillusion of academics trying to establish careers in a turbulent and often chilly climate. The transformation of the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) within the South African higher education system forms the basis of this chapter. Wits is used as a case study to allow an in-depth investigation of staff transformation in one HAI from 1986 to June 2003 when Wits entered a new phase following a large restructuring period and appointed its first black Vice Chancellor. It shows how transformation of various levels of academic staff has taken place during the Apartheid era and following the dissolution of it (Shear, 1996; Murray, 1997). Many ad-hoc equity development and mentoring schemes were established in that period. I argue that transformation has been constrained by social and political factors and that Wits has been slow to put sufficiently powerful programmes in place that will facilitate transformation of the organisation or ensure the professionalisation of the teaching staff. Continued failure to do so will retard transformation and the optimal career development of early career academics in this institution. Many academics have left the University after tasting bitter fruit from the tree of knowledge

Chapter 3 offers a survey of the literature on staff development as 'sapling nurseries' for growing and developing talent. The conceptual framework of professional development and the increasing pressure in universities to professionalise academic work and teaching forms the framework for the investigation. Academic managerialism, which arose as a result of the crisis of management in American universities, has become increasingly pervasive despite the initial resistance of academics to it (Kayrooz, Pearson and Quinlan, 1997). Management development training has become more frequent in the training of senior academics who hold leadership and management positions in faculties and in university administration and many of those training strategies and interventions are also commonly used in the training of non-managerial academics, alongside their development as teaching professionals. The nature of academic work is changing and managerialist monitoring and evaluation methods are becoming more widespread,

(Webster and Mosoetsa, 2001). Staff development as a profession within higher education is also becoming more formalised and encompasses both educational development and management development for all university staff (Baume and Baume, 1996; Webb, 1996a) and could provide a more amenable environment for growing young talent.

The literature survey in Chapter 4 details the current state of staff development and mentoring in higher education institutions. This is where talent is nurtured in the academic 'seed beds'. Mentoring as a career development strategy, in the management literature, is first suggested as a developmental, and possibly a 'fast tracking' intervention for individuals who are considered to have potential in a wide range of organisational positions and at many levels. A number of models are discussed and critiqued. A more specific focus on mentoring in higher education follows to show the uptake of such strategies in the sector and why they might be important at this juncture in South Africa. This gradual increase of interest in developing early career academics is shown and the kinds of issues which arise when mentoring is encouraged and what happens when it isn't. The benefits and disadvantages of formal and informal development programmes are discussed.

An investigation of how the 'seed beds' are prepared is at the heart of the research methodology discussed in Chapter 5. Survey research methodology formed the initial research method during the first phase of the research. The reasons for using survey research and the construction and development of the survey is discussed in detail. The survey gives broad, fairly general trends and tendencies in the working lives of early career academics and highlight common themes which can be probed further. The results, especially the quantitative results which have been analysed, are used as base-line data for the sample and as a guide for further investigation.

In-depth interviews were used in the second phase of the research to elicit much more data which would include qualitative data about early career academics' interpretation of some of the events or interactions which they have experienced. The interviews focused

on the sample of 28 currently employed early career academics in formal mentoring relationships and programmes in three English HAIs. In the sample, 23 of 28 mentees are in cross-cultural mentoring pairs and 9 of these are cross-gender as well. There is some comparison with similar early career academics in an Afrikaans HAI and in the only HDI in the system where more formalised mentoring occurs and how different 'seed beds' affect their growth and development.

The research was specifically designed with complementarity in mind, to give quantitative, statistical, general data and also to give more detailed, personal qualitative responses which would put a 'human face' on staff development and working environments at the South African universities. It is in the complementarily of the two methodologies, both quantitative and qualitative, that a more comprehensive and holistic view of the working lives of early career academics can be obtained. Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research are discussed with respect to this study.

The three chapters which follow deal with the data analysis, research findings and discussion generated by the findings, showing what growth and development conditions exist and what conditions appear to be optimal. Chapter 6 discusses career development roles and functions in the mentoring model, the academic 'topiary' which mentoring facilitates and enhances. In terms of the model of mentoring developed from this research, the study examines the findings in the literature about the career development roles and functions of mentors. Mentees in this study report that some of these are more beneficial than others. The most beneficial functions identified are the ones which need particular attention in the higher education context. Other less frequently demonstrated career development functions, may apply more readily in corporate contexts than in higher education. The role of protection of 'saplings' seems to be too narrowly described by the model to be sufficient in the higher education context in South Africa. Mentees report that neglect or omission of career development roles and functions is not beneficial for them and in some instances is so marked as to create negative experiences in their mentoring relationships.

Chapter 7 deals with the findings in the study about the psychosocial functions of mentors and the optimal nurturing which support provides to 'saplings'. The findings in this study show the complexity of mentoring relationships where effective mentor and mentee behaviour hinges largely on the ability of the mentor to perform psychosocial and role model functions in a changing and uncertain environment. The role model and psychosocial functions are linked to the mentoring model developed in this research but the innovative findings in this study concern those behaviours which mentees viewed as positive, those viewed as more neutral and those which are negative in the developmental relationships which currently occur in higher education contexts in South Africa. Additional mentor functions emerge which are crucial to the viability of indigenous academics.

The findings in Chapter 8 concern the external societal and cultural issues and those external factors which directly affect mentoring relationships within South African society and the ability of HEIs to 'grow our own timber'. Specific gaps in the literature have been identified and those gaps require the addressing of the issues in cross-cultural relationships. Mentoring can be a potent strategy in the collaborative efforts to effect change in individuals, and in institutional and societal arenas. A new mentoring model for transformation is developed to incorporate the findings which have emerged and which can enhance the vigorous growth of academic talent.

Chapter 9 gives a picture of the transformed tree of knowledge showing the major findings concerning career development and psychosocial support of early career academics and the functions of mentors as role models and agents of change for transformation. It also shows how this research into South Africa mentoring programmes has contributed to the construction of new knowledge in the field, what the applications of such new knowledge might be and how this could be used to influence higher education policy in the holistic development of early career academics in South Africa.

In conclusion, I argue that the professional development of early career academics in all South Africa universities is poorly operationalised. The pervasive neglect of entry-level academics can not be effectively reduced or excused by developing small numbers of Employment Equity and Affirmative Action appointees who are often stigmatised for belonging to special programmes. The implementation of the Skills Development legislation provides all higher education institutions with the opportunity to remedy this situation. The recommendations for the systematic transformation of the professional socialisation and development of early academic careers in South Africa could ensure more widespread and thorough professional training for academics instead of the uneven and limited practices in place at present. Transformation of the system is critical if South Africa higher education is to remain an important player in the global higher education context. The transformation framework potentially provides the most nurturing environment for indigenous talent to grow and flourish.

1.7 Conclusion

The development of early career academics has been attracting increasing attention globally because the demands of the academic job appear to be proliferating. There is increasing pressure world-wide to professionalise academic and administrative jobs within higher education. Early career academics in South Africa enter a system with a historical legacy of division along lines of past discrimination and apartheid. Much management and business science literature suggests that mentors hold the key to rapid and holistic development in the entry-level phases in many professions and occupations. The aim of this research is to investigate the experiences of early career academics in universities in South Africa. The research focuses on the strategies used in their career development and career management and the formalising of such strategies in the professional socialisation and development of academic work across the higher education sector. The research methodology used is quantitative although the design includes some quantitative methodology which results in a design using both kinds of methodology in a complementary way. The findings are reported and discussed according to the major

themes to have emerged – those confirming the findings in the literature and those which go beyond it. The recommendations are formulated with design in mind for the optimisation of early career development of academics and bearing in mind the factors in South African higher education and societal context.

In the next chapter, the case of the University of the Witwatersrand is detailed to show how one South African HAI has approached the growth of academic talent in a very turbulent environment of radical political and social change. It examines the University of the Witwatersrand as a site of research and transformation and its professional development and socialisation of early career academics during Apartheid and in the post-Apartheid period. The Wits case study is analysed for transformation both in terms of staff development and organisational development and how the changes affected early career academics and established academics.

Chapter Two

Bitter fruit on the tree of knowledge for disillusioned early career academics

2.1 Introduction

A case study of the transformation of the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) within the South African higher education system forms the basis of this chapter. It is necessary to situate South African universities within the larger context of staff development internationally which began to receive greater attention in the 1980s. South African universities were keen to follow international trends although the social and political constraints in the country made the development of all early career academics very difficult. As an analysis of all the higher education institutions in South Africa is beyond the scope of this study because there are many different types of institutions within the sector, Wits is used as a site of investigation in this study. An investigation of staff transformation is offered in this historically advantaged institution (HAI) from 1986 to January 2003 when Wits entered a new phase following a large restructuring period and appointed its first black Vice-Chancellor. It was during this period that Wits began to employ increasing numbers of black academics and established ad-hoc schemes for them. The environment was not conducive to their sustained growth or to the notion of developing black academics from within the ranks to establish a strong indigenous force for transformation. It shows how transformation of various levels of academic staff has taken place during the Apartheid era and following the dissolution of it. I argue that transformation has been constrained by social and political factors and that Wits has been slow to put sufficiently powerful programmes in place to facilitate transformation of the organization or to ensure the professionalisation of the teaching staff. Continued failure to do so will retard transformation and the optimal career development of early career academics in this institution.

2.2 Wits during the Apartheid years 1948 - 1994

From 1985 Wits realised that change in the racial and gender demographics of the staff would be crucial in terms of its liberal philosophy, political stance against Apartheid, its social responsibility and legitimacy as an important player in the higher education arena (The role of the university in a changing society, 1986).

The initial attempts in 1987 were a first tentative 'testing the waters' venture which was partially successful and the reasons given for the poor success of the first Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme indicate a lack of understanding of the long-term commitment to the professional development, professional socialisation and career development of those Equal Opportunity candidates at junior level. The University showed a clear lack of understanding that boundary-crossing initiations in organisations (Van Maanen, 1982) had to be modified or at least made explicit to such candidates in order to make it possible for them to integrate and advance successfully in the organisation. Boundary-crossing initiations in organisations refer to those written and unwritten socialisation strategies used by organisations to mark rites of passage into the organisation itself, and into various divisions or hierarchical strata once entry into the organisation has been confirmed.

The current definition of transformation as it relates to staff at Wits is articulated for the University by a member of Senate as follows:

"Transformation is a process of negotiated organisational change that breaks decisively with past discriminatory practices in order to create an environment where the full potential of everyone is realised and where diversity – both social and intellectual is respected and valued and where it is central to the achievements of the goals of the University" (Thomas, 1999).

'he definition was built up after a turbulent period of change at Wits from 1987 to 1996. ı order to put the first Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme into context in the ighly politically charged atmosphere of 1987 and the national state of emergency, a hort history follows of Wits' stance in respect of enrolling black students and employing ılack academic staff in a socially and racially segregated society.

;.3 Pre- Apartheid: The 'open years' from 1939-1959

'rom its earliest days, Wits employed only white academics and despite its liberal ɔolitical reputation it was hesitant to employ black academic staff in mainstream ecturing posts. The slow transformation of the academic staff demographics noted by Cooper (1998) has its roots in the larger segregated social history of South Africa. It is with this larger historical perspective in mind that the entry of black students and staff is sketched briefly from their first appearance at Wits in 1939.

The history of Wits during the 'open years' 1939 -1959 is described in detail by Murray (1997), documenting the admission of small numbers of black students from 1939 onwards, to the medical school and a few other faculties where there was a policy of academic non-segregation but social segregation; the employment of four black teaching assistants in the Bantu Languages department between 1946 and 1960, who were never given the status of lecturers; and the final closure of Wits to black students after the failure of the 'Open Universities Campaign', in compliance with the Separate University Education legislation of 1959. Despite ongoing and highly publicised protests by the staff and students at Wits, and by the National Union of South African Students (NUSAS), the 'open universities', namely Rhodes, Natal, Wits and UCT, were no longer permitted to admit black students after 1959 except with the explicit permission of the Minister of Education, Arts and Science. The enrolment of black students at Wits declined from 245 in 1952, to 195 in 1955, to 74 in 1959. A significant increase in 'Asian' admissions of Chinese and Indian students to Engineering and Architecture brought the numbers to 298 by 1959. Established academics and promising young scholars and researchers left South

Africa to pursue their careers abroad or to join the beginnings of the armed struggle. The Sharpeville massacre in 1960 signalled the beginnings of massive overt oppression of the black people during the Apartheid regime.

2.4 Resistance to Apartheid segregated education from 1959-1987

After 1959, white South African universities were permitted to enrol black students only if they were unable to study in their chosen field or with a combination of major subjects not offered at a racially segregated homeland university. The University moved into more turbulent times as its opposition to government's Apartheid policies intensified and marked this by more frequent General Assemblies to protest against restrictive Government policies and the detention of Wits students without charge or trial.

The Soweto Riots in 1976 highlighted the crisis in 'Bantu' education and the dissatisfaction of the black students with the inferior education and the imposition of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. The University submitted its views on the provision of tertiary education for blacks to the Viljoen Committee in 1979, arguing that predictable (white) manpower shortages in technical and middle-management fields, engineering, community health and teaching could be filled by blacks if they were given the required training by universities (Academic Plan, 1980, pp 40 – 44). Wits supported the notion that it should educate more black students to fulfil the manpower needs of the country and especially in the area of continuing teacher education (Academic Plan, 1980, pp 278 –279). There is no indication in the plan that the University intended to employ or develop significant numbers of black academics or train black administrators for the management of the institution. Four black members of staff contributed to the plan, the other 135 were white (Academic Plan, 1980 pp 326 - 327). When the 1980 Academic Plan was submitted to Senate, 10.3% of the total of 13 126 students were black students. Wits had 575 white, 11 black academic and research staff and a 57 member executive and managerial team, which was entirely white (Department of Education, 1980 SAPSE Report).

In May 1983, a General Assembly of the University met to express its objection to the government's intention to impose a racially based quota for the admission of students to white universities in the Universities Amendment Act, No 83 of 1983. The University strenuously opposed the amendment to the Act and the quota system was not imposed. The Senate rejected the Government notion that Wits was a 'white university' or 'a university mainly for whites' or a university 'established to serve a specific population group'. This policy and these fundamental principles of academic freedom would be violated by the enforcement of the proposed quota system (Shear, 1996, p.155). Although it would not be formal policy, the University applied affirmative action in regard to admissions. The Government's failure to enforce the quota system was effectively the end of restrictions on the University's right to admit suitably qualified applicants, irrespective of race. In 1983, 11 per cent of the total student enrolment was black.

During the same period more black students were admitted to the residences in defiance of the Group Areas Act. But these students, especially politically active students, were under constant surveillance and threat from the security police. Wits continued to enrol students who had been expelled from other universities and refused to accede to Government pressure to expel them. Leading political activists acknowledged that educational institutions had become sites of political contestation and struggle. Dr Beyers Naude, an Afrikaans anti-Apartheid political activist, in an address to the University of Cape Town in May 1985, said:

> 'Educational institutions have become a target area for political action and debate. Universities need to respond to this challenge. Universities do not belong to privileged white minorities. They belong to all the people of this land. Academic freedom must become a basis for freedom from the injustices both on and beyond the campus. This means that universities which affirm academic freedom are obliged to reach beyond the customary debate on who shall teach, who shall be taught, and on what shall be taught. There is a need for an alliance between those universities, trade unions, and political groups which affirm justice and equality for all people before the law.'

Resistance to the government escalated after the declaration of a state of emergency in July 1985 and again in June 1986. Hundreds of Wits students and many lecturers were arrested and many were detained without trial under the State of Emergency, some for as long as two years. (Shear, 1996, p.130) Some were banned and some were assassinated or died in detention. On 16th August 1985 a General Assembly met to reaffirm the University's academic principles and on 15th August 1986, a General Assembly of the University expressed its abhorrence of the State of Emergency and the detention without trial of staff and students.

2.5 Staff development changes for Wits after 1985 till the end of Apartheid

Wits continue to maintain its employment of white academics during the period of legislated Apartheid. Even the very gradual increases of black academic staff, less than five percent, was in opposition to Government policy although this was not contested as fiercely as student enrollment which tended to mask the lack of representation of black academics on the staff. The pressure to increase numbers of black staff started to escalate after 1985, bringing with it the need to assess the developmental needs of academics previously excluded from the academic teaching and research environment. This set the tone for staff development of black academics for following fifteen years and had a direct effect on the transformation of the University which has happened to date.

In 1985 the Vice-Chancellor, Karl Tober, commissioned a report to look at the role of the University which included for the first time those communities previously excluded from offering their opinions. While Wits strongly opposed non-segregated education *for students* from 1959 onwards, it was not so quick to champion changes to the demographic composition of the academic staff. The question of the ratio of black to white teaching staff had not been explicitly addressed before and the report emphasises this.

> Another perceived priority is the need to expand the number of black teaching staff at Wits. "What must be stressed is the importance of black staff, not as

> tokens but in order to vitalise and start the debate posed by questions within the social sciences."
>
> This was seen as a priority issue for the administration to address. "There should be a programme of active positive discrimination in its staffing policy. Such a programme should also discriminate on the gender issue, as well as race."
>
> For the ANC, the question of black student access and employment of black teaching staff was seen as being part of a wider process of internal restructuring. "A mere increase in (black student) numbers would not be enough to change the character of white universities. In addition there will have to be representation of all sections of the population in faculty boards, Senate and Council, as well as in the teaching staff and administration".
> (The role of the university in a changing society, 1986).

The academic boycott of South African academics had been in force since the early 1980's. South African academics who wished to attend conferences and gatherings abroad were refused admission and the interchange of visiting academics from universities abroad halted. Those who came flaunting the boycott were themselves boycotted by South African students (Murray, 1997; Shear, 1996.) The 1986 report discussed the impact of the boycott on local and international perceptions of Wits (Murray, 1997; Shear, 1996.)

The 1986 report on the role of the university in a changing society indicates that established and early career academics were aware of the dire necessity for changing the racial demographics of the University staff. Staff development as a career development strategy was in its infancy at Wits and at others higher education institutions world-wide, as was noted in the earlier review of staff development as part of the professional development and socialisation of academics. The first Academic Staff Development Centre (ASDEC) was established at Wits in 1983 and it contribution to the professional development of early career academics through a model of staff development which provided assistance for academics in teaching and learning problems where staff developers and academics collaborated in innovative interventions Boud and McDonald, (1981).

The structure of the University management and Council was also addressed in the 1986 report and changes recommended. The ANC in exile made a statement of firm principles in the interviews on which the report was based:

> "We object as strenuously to all-white Senates and Councils in the universities as in parliament and government. This applies to administrations and staff as much as to the general body of students." (The role of the university in a changing society, 1986, p43.)

Harassment of politically active students reached crisis point in late 1987 when the Minister of Education threatened to withhold the university subsidy unless the universities prevented unrest incidents and disturbances on their campuses, and if these arose, they would have to be reported to the Minister by their Councils and financial constraints would be applied if appropriate steps were not taken (Shear, 1996, p.164). The Vice-Chancellors of Wits, UCT and UWC had solicited the support of the Ivy League universities and many others in the New England Board of Higher Education which released a petition with 90 signatories to urge the South African government to allow students to pursue their studies without police harassment.

The threat of withholding subsidies was the most serious threat ever to the autonomy of universities and was contested in court by the University of Cape Town, the University of Natal and the University of the Western Cape against the Ministers of Education and Culture of the Houses of Assembly and House of Representatives, the Minister of National Education, and the Minister of Home Affairs in 1988, declaring that certain conditions imposed under the Universities Act 61 of 1955 were invalid. Their applications to the court were successful (Shear, 1996, p.194). Nevertheless, there were fifty-two incidents of political activity that led to police action on campus and against students between 1986 and 1988 (Shear, 1996, p.256).

In February 1990, President F W De Klerk announced the end of Apartheid, Nelson Mandela was released from prison and clashes between students and the police

decreased. By 1990 black student numbers had increased to 24 per cent. Between 1986 and 1990 enrolment of white students declined whereas in the same period African enrolment doubled (Shear, 1996, p.157).

During the period 1986 – 1990, during the height of the Apartheid regime, the University addressed the recommendations of the 1986 report in the following ways:

- The composition of the University Council was changed in 1989, from an all white body to one which could include representatives of under-represented groups previously excluded.
- The gender and racial composition of the Senate changed to reflect the appointment of more women and blacks to professorial positions.
- An equal opportunity programme for the appointment of black staff development was introduced in 1987.

This is the first formal indication from the University Senate and senior management that the needs of black academic staff should be taken into account and that staff development of early career academics was an important issue in the transforming university. Each of these issues is discussed in more detail in the following section.

2.6 Organisation and staff development from 1987 -1993

Transformation in the organisation can be tracked through changes to the all white and predominantly male composition of the University Council and the Senate and Senior Executive Team after the publication of the 1986 report. There was an emerging awareness of the necessity for staff development policies to facilitate the transformation already deemed necessary by less conservative academics and to ensure the equitable development of all members of staff. These first initiatives were made prior to legislative demands for change in Higher Education institutions which marked the political change of government in 1994 and which demanded compliance from all higher education institutions which had not begun spontaneous transformation.

2.6.1 Changes in the University Council from 1981-1993

Kulati (2001) describes a model of 'Transformative Leadership' discussed earlier, where 'Reconstructed Collegialists' are found in the historically white, English speaking, universities with a tradition of collegial governance. The changes at Wits can be located within this model. The Council of the University was an exclusively white body until 1989. It had been exclusively white male until 1981 when a woman, Doreen Greig, was elected by Convocation. She remained the only woman on Council until the end of her term of office in 1989. Another woman, Helen Suzman was elected by Convocation and became a member from 1989 until 1993. Professor June Sinclair served on Council as the Senate representative from 1989 until 1990. The first black member of Council was also elected by Convocation in 1989. He was Dr T.W. Kambule who served on Council until 1993. Two years later, Mr A Klaaste was appointed by the State President. In 1992 there was one black student representative on Council and two black student representatives the following year (University Calendar 1987-1994.) A major change to the Council came about in 1993 when four black members were appointed by the Council itself. It was important for staff development and the professional development of early career academics, especially black early career academics, that there were black and women members of Council to represent their interests at the University.

2.6.2 Changes in the University Senate from 1979 onwards

The changes to the University Senate can also be described in terms of the model of 'Transformative Leadership' (Kulati, 2001). The Senate of the University in 1987 had 198 members, one of whom was black, Prof E Mphahlele of African Languages, who had been a member of Senate since 1979. After his retirement, he was succeeded by Prof NC Manganyi in 1988. There were 16 women in the Senate, seven appointed prior to 1980 and the other nine between 1981 and 1987. By 1994 the numbers of women in Senate had not increased although Prof June Sinclair had been appointed as the first woman Deputy

Vice-Chancellor in 1990 after her term as Dean of the Law Faculty from 1986 to 1989. Women have served as Deans of Law, Architecture and Education but with the restructuring of the faculties in 2000-01, none of the five executive Deans of faculties was a woman although one Dean is black, the first black Dean to be appointed to Wits. The only woman Dean was the Dean of Students, a non-academic post, which she left at the end of 2003. In March 2003, 66 of 413 members in Senate were women. There were 35 black members of Senate; four of these were women (Employment Equity Report, 2003). At senior level only 8.5% of the academic staff are black compared to 24% of the total academic complement.

2.6.3 Changes in the academic staff in the University from 1987: internally funded schemes to encourage the appointment of black early career academics

Efforts at changing the demographic structure of the academic staff began before it was fashionable to talk of transformation. Early changes were seen as organisation development and to a lesser extent as staff development. In 1987 the University established an Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme to appoint black graduates to junior positions which would enable their development as qualified and competent academics. This is an ongoing scheme funded *internally* by the University Council for black staff development whereas all other black staff development programmes in the University are funded by external donors. In the first phase of the Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme from 1987 to 1993, candidates were appointed for periods of between one to three years and at the end of their contracts they were expected to apply for permanent posts within their specific departments if available. In effect this meant that only seven or eight posts would be available annually for Equal Opportunity candidates.

The programme was a disappointing failure because out of forty Equal Opportunity academic staff appointees employed between 1987 and 1993, only five successfully applied for permanent posts. This is a success rate of 12.5%, which is a poor reflection of

the investment of internal funds in the programme. Reasons advanced by the Human Resources department for this failure were lack of support from senior academics and administrators, decentralising of responsibility, and a lack of clear information about the real purpose of the programme and its operational plan. The use of the supernumerary post was seen as a short term solution to pressures within specific departments and the programme came to be viewed as a revolving door through which equal opportunity graduates could be moved in one side, and out the other with no sense of commitment to their further development. Even when this was not the case, there was a general failure to provide mentorship or guidance and this, together with the temporary nature of the appointment, reduced any expectation of long-term employment or progression (Report on the Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme by Human Resources, February 1999). More disturbing is the fact that Wits chose to take up a complacent stance and did not make additional internal efforts at transformation. Perhaps the desire to preserve much of the power relationship between white senior academics and early career academics was at the root of the slow change and that although some members of the University were prepared for changing power dynamics, many more were reluctant to change.

An analysis of the Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme in terms of the models of staff development (see earlier discussion of models described by Boud and McDonald, 1981) shows that the ASDEC model of staff development which provided assistance for academics in teaching and learning problems where staff developers and academics collaborated in innovative interventions was available but poorly utilised. The benefits which early career academics in the Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme could have gained in terms of professional development were minimal and no support was given to them through mentoring from ASDEC or through their departments and this affected the retention of Equal Opportunity Supernumerary academics when they applied for permanent posts.

By the end of 1988, five percent of the instructional or research staff at Wits were black, representing 27.5% of all instructional or research staff at the four English historically

advantaged universities (HAUs) (Cooper, 1998). The percentage increased at Wits to seven percent by the end of 1992. In 1992, six years after the report on the role of the university in a changing society, the University saw that it was necessary to make it policy to 'attract and hold top quality staff, both academic and support, with the appropriate mix of talents, skills and interests, and, bearing in mind the University's commitment to excellence, strive to redress historical, racial and gender imbalances' (Policy Document S92/901, 1992). It went on to state that,

'To succeed in this, amongst other things, the University must:

(i) Deploy individuals so as to derive the maximum advantage from their talents and skills.

(ii) Create opportunities for staff development and actively encourage participation by members of under-represented constituencies, and

(iii) Be proactive in seeking suitable applicants from under-represented gender and racial constituencies and, without compromise in the criteria and standards for appointments and promotions, give preference to applicants from those constituencies.' (Policy Document S92/901, 1992).

Because of the resounding failure of the Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme and as part of the 1992 policy implementation, a new post of the Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Officer for the University was created during 1993. Dr Makaziwe Mandela, daughter of Nelson Mandela, was recruited to a newly created post as the University's first Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Officer. She took up her post early in January 1994 and was tasked with carrying out the policy on Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity as laid down in the policy document (Policy Document S92/901, 1992).

By 1993, Wits had almost doubled the number of black instructional or research staff and the proportion had risen to eight percent. The figures show that 29% of all black

instructional or research staff at the four English historically advantaged universities (HAUs) were employed by Wits (Cooper, 1998).

In 1993 there were serious conflicts between the University management and certain groups of students together with organised labour which lead to confrontation and police intervention. The police were called in to prevent damage to property and members of the administration being taken hostage. A Forum for Further Accelerated Transformation (FFACT) was established in September 1993 to address issues which were of pressing concern to the University, and helped it to weather the crisis which faced Wits at that time. It took eighteen months to negotiate the representation of the Forum and to get the body up and running.

In 1994, in order to address the very evident lack of success in the Equal Opportunity Supernumerary programme from its inception in 1987, two new types of appointment were introduced:

- One type of appointment made provision for the appointment of young black staff members for a comparatively short period of one to three years, during which they would complete their studies and gain experience in the academic world. They would be free to apply for vacant posts as and when they arose, but there was also the possibility that they would choose to pursue their careers elsewhere on completing their Wits contract.

- The other type of appointment made provision for offering permanent appointments to more mature/experienced candidates. The Equal Opportunity fund provided bridging funds from the University Council for a period of three years and the department concerned had to commit itself to moving the appointee into the first post that became vacant. If, at the end of the three-year period, no vacancy had arisen (which is a possibility in a small department) the cost of the supernumerary position would be carried by the faculty until such time as a post became vacant. Where possible, these appointments were to be offered to black South African citizens, but consideration would also be given to other black Africans. In effect this meant that only seven or eight posts (less than 1:100 of the entire academic staff complement) would be available annually for

Equal Opportunity candidates. Nevertheless, these posts were no longer likely to be short-term contract appointments but permanent appointments subject to the normal three-year probationary requirement before confirmation of the permanent position.

These recruitment and selection policies generated by the Personnel Department sought to address transformation from the initial employment stages.

In a move to make Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity a greater priority than it had been, and to give it more weight, the office of Dr Mandela was moved out of a reporting line to the Head of Personnel to a direct reporting line to senior management. In 1994 a policy was formulated in a strongly worded document which sketched the background to change, the need for change and specific implementation strategies which included recruitment, selection, career advancement, developmental fellowships, intern training, quality assurance and the appointment of an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Advisor who would report directly to the Vice-Chancellor's office (Policy Document S94/174, 1994). This was the first time that black early career academics had the official support for their professional development of the all white senior executive team and was a significant move forward for Wits at the beginning of the post-Apartheid era. But the new Personnel employment policies were not sufficiently integrated in the a holistic staff development policy so that newly hired early career academics had minimal support for their professional development, little or no informal mentoring to support their establishing careers at Wits. No formal mentoring was in place.

The University clearly set a high priority on staff and student transformation and later in December 1994, when Dr Makaziwe Mandela had been in her position for a year, the Vice-Chancellor announced the appointment of nine members of staff to the Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Advisory Committee. The Deans of the Faculties were advised about the implementation and monitoring of the affirmative action policy, and made departments responsible for the recruitment of blacks and women, requiring them to give

reasons for their selection. But there was no further translation of the policy into staff development policy or staff development strategies. If the initiatives are not integrated into a holistic staff development policy, then Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity initiatives have a high potential for failure except at a level of simple compliance in terms of the numbers of appointments of black staff. Only much later, in 2000, despite Dr Dladla's recommendation in 1994 (discussed in the next section) did official HR policy make mentoring of all newly hired staff mandatory for Heads of Schools to effect (Policy document HRA/24, 2000). Compliance with this policy between 2000 and 2004 has been patchy and poorly implemented.

In 1994, the Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity office drafted a set of goals and key activities for a two-year period in line with the affirmative action policy formulated. The goals also included the development of a comprehensive Human Resources Information system which would facilitate the training and promotion of blacks and women. The recommendations made in Dr Dladla's report had already been carried out in the main by the end of 1994. Since the Equal Opportunities scheme for permanent appointments was revised in 1994 thirty-nine appointments were made to an academic staff complement of over 1000 permanent staff (Employment Equity Report, 2002).

2.6.4 Changes in the academic staff in the University from 1994: externally funded schemes to encourage the appointment of black early career academics

In order to pick up the pace of transformation and to accelerate the numbers of black academic appointments, Wits sought external funding for further Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunities schemes. Funding from international donors was more readily available in the post-Apartheid 'Reconstruction and Development Programme' period in the country from 1994 to 1998.

In mid 1994 a consultant, Dr Yvonne Dladla, was commissioned to undertake a study of black academic development at Wits with a view to the possibility of launching a new externally funded affirmative action scheme for black lecturers, called 'new blood' lectureships. The consultant interviewed fifteen black and fifteen white key stakeholders at Wits and in Higher Education to ascertain the feasibility of such a pilot project at Wits. Her findings indicated that Wits had the resources, infrastructure, and highly skilled administrators and academics to implement the 'new blood' affirmative action project but also stated that the culture at Wits was a barrier to black advancement. The following key recommendations were made:

- To ensure the successful implementation of the project, key stakeholders inside and outside the University should be fully informed and consulted. This would encourage their continuous input and commitment.
- A Steering Committee be established to monitor progress and make decision on areas of project implementation.
- A clear definition of the University Management, Equal Opportunity Officer, Faculties, Departments, Steering Committee, Mentors and Participants roles and responsibilities in the project.
- The University should assess and evaluate its policies and procedures for recruitment, selection, appointment and promotion of staff to ensure that the tools used for assessment reflect the multicultural diversity and that they are fair to all staff members (Dladla, 1994).

In order to boost the number of developmental and Equal Opportunity posts at Wits and increase demographic transformation after the 1994 policy change, donor funding was secured for a five year pilot scheme called the New Blood Lectureship Scheme from 1996 to 2001. All New Blood appointments since 1996 were appointed to permanent positions and only two resigned to take up positions elsewhere. The donor funding for the New Blood Lectureship Scheme pilot programme ended in December 2001.

By the end of 1996, twelve of the seventeen Equal Opportunity and New Blood appointments were in the Arts Faculty, one in Law, one in Science, one in Management, one in Health Sciences and one in the Academic Staff Development Centre (ASDEC). Through internally and externally funded initiatives launched between 1993 and 1996, Wits had anticipated legislative coercion to change racial demographics in the workplace before the announcement of the proposed Measures for Employment Equity published in the Government Gazette No 17303 of July 1996. Changes had been made in terms of the numbers of black academics recruited but the ability of the University to keep them, grow and develop them to more senior levels was not successful.

There was other donor funding available through the Mellon Foundation for a Postgraduate Mentoring Programme that would increase the number of black postgraduates in the University. This was the first programme to include a specific mention of mentoring in its title. Since 1995, 90 men and women have received the bursaries; 16 have completed their higher degrees and two have been appointed to Wits staff and four to other Higher Education institutions in South Africa. This is an indirect benefit of the affirmative action external donor funded scheme. The funding for this phase of the programme ended in 2002 with last intake of recipients.

In a study undertaken by Geber (1999a) the experience of early career academics of being mentored at Wits was investigated. Less than half, 43% of the 118 respondents said that they had an informal mentor in their department; 57% did not. In some cases, those surveyed were lecturers who hold doctorates who said they did not require a mentor. Although there was no formal mentoring system in place for academics at Wits before 2000, the School of Law seems to be an exceptional case where each new staff member from 1990 – 1996 was assigned a formal mentor but neither mentors nor mentees received any formal training as suggested in the *generic implementation process*, Murray (1991), reviewed earlier. The mentoring is no longer part of the induction of young academics in the School of Law except in particular cases such as a 'New Blood'

appointments made until 2001. This isolated initiative was not replicated in any other Faculty.

In the University's striving to align staff development policy and the professional development of black early career academics through capacity building and equity development programmes, external donor funding was sought for a new early career academics mentoring programme. This was a completely new strategy in staff development at Wits and marks the beginning of a fully articulated, holistic development initiative for early career academics. The Dr T W Kambule Growing our own Timber Mentoring programme provided funding from 2000 until 2005 for 10 black academics annually in a mentored scheme. The programme assists associate or junior lecturers in studying for a doctoral degree while teaching with a reduced teaching load for a three-year fixed term employment contract.

The Dr T W Kambule Growing our own Timber Mentoring programme is the first formal mentoring programme for academics at Wits and the first to have dedicated staff development practitioners and administrative support exclusively available for the professional development and mentoring of black early career academics. This programme is the only one at Wits to have implemented an expanded *generic mentoring process* described by Murray (1991) which was discussed earlier and to have a dedicated co-ordinator who additionally maintains and monitors the ongoing progress of the grant holders in accordance with international mentoring best practice (Geber, 2003a). The programme is the only one to have an external evaluator who evaluates implementation and other issues on a regular basis. The grant holders in this programme and others like it in other higher education institutions are the participants in the present study. Their experiences inform the growing body of knowledge about mentoring in the transformative context of higher education in South Africa.

2.6.5 Transformation of the Senior Executive Team at Wits in 1994

The first appointment of a black academic to the senior executive team was made in 1994 after the first democratic elections in South Africa. This was a transformation strategy to move with the times as 'reconstructed collegialists' in English HAUs do in Kulati's (2001) model of university transformation discussed earlier. Professor William Makgoba was chosen because he was seen by Senate and Council as a moderate but he saw his appointment as DVC (Academic) in October 1994 as a "wonderful opportunity" to realise his mission to transform Wits "kicking and screaming if necessary" from an essentially white institution to a university for all the people (Makgoba, 1997, p77).

His actions in this regard and the bitter and acrimonious backlash from what he regarded as "conservative" academics at Wits brought the full glare of sensational publicity to the transformation issues. His high profile transformation campaign in the press continued unabated for a year amid a very public wrangle and dispute with senior academics. Gevisser (1996) saw him as "an unashamed 'elitist' who was in the business of 'creating elites' – he just wants them to be black". After his suspension as Deputy Vice-Chancellor, he took up a research position in the School of Pathology.

During Professor Makgoba's suspension from office as Deputy Vice-Chancellor, FFACT was able to convene without his support and without the support of Dr Mandela, both of whom were regarded at the time as key players in transformation and who were expected to drive the process. To facilitate change in the years to come, FFACT was tasked with negotiating representative joint leadership of the body; it negotiated a set of criteria, processes and representation on the selection committees for the appointment of the Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellors and other senior appointments; it negotiated agreement on the composition of a demographically representative "reformed" Council; it drafted a new mission statement for the University. FFACT was so effective in its facilitation of transformation that it formed the blueprint of the model of the additional Governance structure which was incorporated into the Higher Education Act (No 101 of

1997) which imposes a legal requirement in Section 31 on all Higher Education Institutions to establish an Institutional Forum to deal with matters of transformation. Transformation at Wits is acknowledged as ongoing and a model for other historically advantaged universities. It has continued to be driven from within at Wits which is in sharp contrast with Webster's prediction after Makgoba's published account of the crisis that Wits remains " deeply entrenched in the ways of the old South Africa and institutional change will take a long time" (Webster, 1998).

Under the auspices of FFACT, the first Trust and Transformation Conference was held in June 1996. A Second Trust and Transformation Conference was held in 1998 to review the progress made and to plan action for the transformation of the University. FFACT was involved in the selection and appointment of the Director of Transformation and Employment Equity in 1999.

During the third FFACT Trust and Transformation Conference in August 1999, the conference theme "Shaping the Future: an Agenda for Action" encompassed discussions and resolutions on the University's strategic plan, the first of the three-year rolling plans, the SADC Protocol on regional cooperation, the policy on internationalisation, and the code of conduct for University staff. The strategic plan includes the selection, recruitment and retention of high calibre staff and this has a significant effect on the ways early career academics are supported and developed after the difficulties of the 1994-1997 period.

2.7 Current Transformation from 1997 to 2003

After the promulgation of the Higher Education Act (101 of 1997), the University, in compliance with Section 31, designated FFACT as its Institutional Forum and tasked FFACT to attend to the regulations imposed by the Act; race and gender equity policies; selection of candidates for senior managerial positions and so on.

Following the resignation of Dr Mandela, early in 1997, the Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Adviser's portfolio was handled by the first black woman Director of Human Resources at Wits, Sybil Ncgobo. She directed compliance with the Employment Equity Bill of 1 December 1997 and the Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998) until the appointment of the Director of Transformation and Employment Equity in August 1999.

Professor Colin Bundy during his term as Vice-Chancellor from September 1997 to March 2001 made the transformation of Wits his most important priority. He undertook a major initiative in assembling a Strategic Planning Team with eight strategic focus areas to align Wits with higher education world-wide and nationally, and to gear it internationally for structural, curricular and demographic changes. The systematic strategic alignment of Wits, its mission and goals has featured prominently in activities of university life since then.

Between 1997 and 1999 the exclusively white male senior executive team was transformed with the appointment four black men and one black woman. The only remaining white men in the Senior Executive were the Vice-Chancellor and the Registrar. When Professor Bundy resigned his position as Vice-Chancellor in 2001, he was succeeded by Professor Norma Reid, the first woman to be appointed as Vice-Chancellor at Wits. After her resignation at the end of 2002, Professor Loyiso Nongxa was appointed in 2003 as the first black Vice-Chancellor.

The Key Strategic Task Team on Transformation of Staff was the task team which looked at this aspect of Transformation from September to November 1998, presented its report in December 1998. Major issues highlighted by SWOT analysis were; leadership, target setting, structure, policies, human resources policies and practices, organisational culture, accountability, establishment of an employment equity committee. Much of what the task team recommended is being implemented by the Director of Transformation and

Employment Equity and the Institutional Forum (previously FFACT) in the drawing up of the Equity Plan for the University. Work Place Skills Plans are drawn up annually in compliance with the Skills Development Act, to reflect the demographic changes resulting from the Equity Plan and the training and development provided for all staff. These plans enable the University to track transformation and staff development in these areas in a systematic way. The legislation around the Work Place Skills Plan enables the University to formalise staff development for all staff in a much more comprehensive way than ever before and to monitor and report on it annually.

In response to the national priorities concerning size and shape of higher education institutions, and as a result of the 1997 subsidy reductions, the University embarked on a large restructuring initiative and the reorganisation of academic structures in 1999, reducing the number of faculties from nine to five, reducing 99 departments to 34 schools, and eliminating duplication and overlap in academic programmes. Comprehensive structuring of the academic structures which deal with the postgraduate student body was initiated in 2000 in a systematic strategic drive to "grow our own timber" and train postgraduates with a view to augmenting the numbers of black academics on the staff.

By the end of 1998, Wits had increased the proportion of black instructional or research staff to 13 % and was employing 36% of all black instructional or research staff at the four English historically advantaged universities (HAUs). The University of Natal has consistently employed a greater proportion of black instructional or research staff than any of the other English historically advantaged universities (Cooper, 1998). Wits and Natal were considerably ahead of the other eight English and Afrikaans historically advantaged universities in their diversity of their employment of permanent instructional and research staff by 1998.

Table 2.1 Permanent Black 'Instructional / Research' Staff overshadowed at Historically Advantaged Universities (HAUs) from 1988 to 1998.

Afrikaans HAU		**1988**	**1993**	**1998**
	Free State	0%	0%	3%
	Port Elizabeth	0%	3%	6%
	Potchefstroom	0%	0%	2%
	Pretoria	1%	1%	2%
	Rand Afrikaans	1%	1%	2%
	Stellenbosch	1%	1%	1%
Afrikaans HAU %		**1%**	**1%**	**2%**
English HAU				
	Cape Town	5%	6%	9%
	Natal	7%	12%	18%
	Rhodes	5%	10%	8%
	Witwatersrand	5%	8%	13%
English HAU %		**6%**	**9%**	**13%**

Source: Cooper, 1998

The figures for the period 1998 to 2003 appear below in a separate table. Table 2.2 demonstrates the decline in white male academic staff from 57% to 42% of total; with concomitant increases in white female from 31% to 34%; black male from 9% to 14%; and black female permanent academic staff from 3% to 9%.

Table 2.2: Permanent Academic Staff at Wits by race and gender, 1998 to 2003

	FEMALE					**MALE**					**TOTAL**
	African	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Total**	**African**	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Total**	
1998	16	3	5	223	**247**	34	8	23	418	**483**	**730**
2000	22	3	10	224	**259**	43	8	26	390	**467**	**726**
2003	56	9	33	356	**454**	91	10	40	438	**579**	**1033**

Source: T and EE Progress report, 2003

It is clear that setting institutional race and gender demographic targets for transformation that the Office of Transformation and Employment Equity has made a significant impact

on the numbers of black academics at Wits; the percentage of black academics at Wits has risen from 12% in 1998 to 23% in 2003.

In 2001, as part of the overall restructuring of the University, the two staff training development units, the Academic Development Centre (ADC) for academic staff development and the Staff Training Development Unit (STDU) for support staff development were merged as a single unit called the CLTD, with responsibility for *all* staff development. A new comprehensive staff development policy was formulated and approved by Senate in January 2004.

2.8 Critique of the transformation at Wits: a model for higher education institutions in South Africa

The race and gender demographic changes at Wits during the Apartheid years after the closure of the open universities and the implementation of separate development policies in the racially segregated universities will be reviewed briefly. An adaptation of the model used by Du Toit (1996) serves as a base for discussing the nature of the changes at Wits with the implications these have for staff development policies in general and the professional development of early career academics.

Du Toit used a model of organisational change using strategic change and crisis to analyse the 40 years of the development of the University of Port Elizabeth (UPE) from its establishment in 1960 to 1996. Du Toit (1996) accounted for UPE's change in terms of an "organisational dynamics model", which traced how UPE and its managerial actions had changed over time, and discussed the feed-back processes that lead to such changes. Blunt (1999) argues that the theory of change which Du Toit favoured is realistic: managers resist changes which conflict with their predominant way of understanding their organisation and its environment. Ultimately the organisation becomes more and more out of alignment with its environment until "sudden revolutionary adjustments" are

made. Blunt (1999) depicted the change on a graph (Figure 2.1), the base axis of which represents organisational maturation, and vertical axis its extent, and identified five stages of growth, each of which was or would be (he predicted) followed by a crisis:

Phase 1:

Growth through entrepreneurship developed into a crisis of management structuring and leadership, i.e. establishing decision making mechanisms and finding the best academic and administrative leaders.

Phase 2:

Growth through the protection and support of the government policies of the time was followed by a crisis of retaining autonomy through rationalisation.

Phase 3:

Growth through proactive strategic planning was followed by a crisis of establishing legitimacy for the institution when a new government came into power in 1994.

Phase 4:

Growth through negotiated transformation led to the crisis of empowerment - restructuring and decentralising of decision making authority

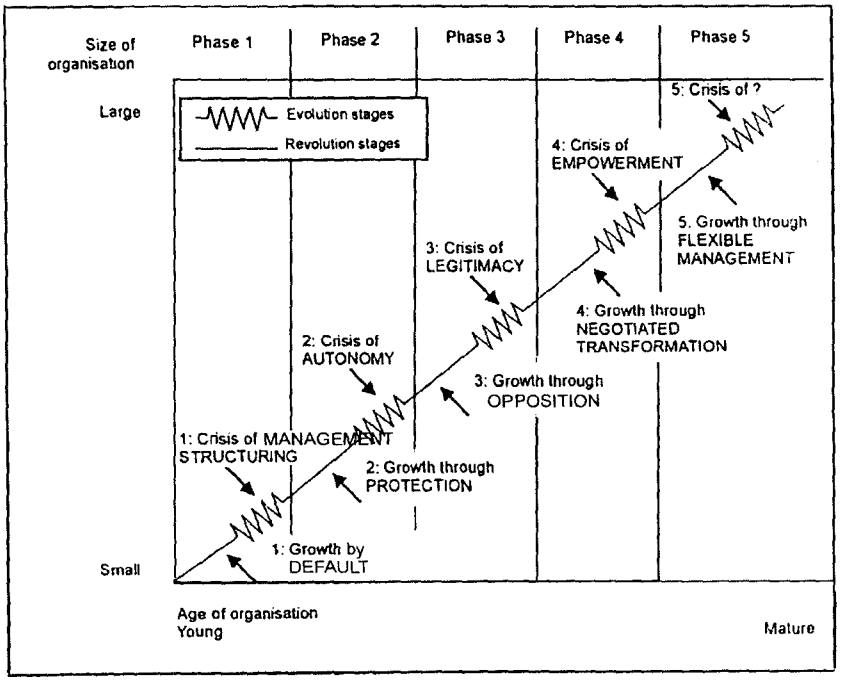
Phase 5:

The expected growth through flexible management may be followed by an as yet unknown new crisis. (Du Toit 1996).

2.8.1 Critique of the transformation at Wits: application of the model for staff development and professional development

The model used to chart the organisational changes at UPE (Blunt, 1999) is also used for Wits. However, Wits has a much longer and more complex history than UPE and the growth periods and crises in its development are necessarily different. The time span discussed below is a period of more than 60 years, from 1939 to 2003, from the outbreak of the World War II until the present. The change is depicted on a graph (Figure 2.1), the base axis of which represented organisational development and vertical axis its extent.

Figure 2.1 Model of organisational development in higher education



Source: Du Toit, 1996.

Phase 1:

The admission of black students to Wits marked a change from the exclusive admission of white students prior to 1939. These admissions were reluctantly made because black

and Indian medical students could not pursue their studies abroad during World War II. Wits grew in Phase 1 *by default* with the number of these admissions because it had no policy which could exclude them (Murray, 1997.) This developed between 1939-1945 into a *crisis of management structuring and leadership*, i.e. establishing decision making mechanisms, finding the best academic and administrative leaders with a very conservative Vice-Chancellor and Senate, and a Council which was anxious not to alienate the parents of Wits' majority of white students by offering non-segregated education to a very small number of black students. Staff development policies did not exist at this time and early career academics were expected to fit in to the University culture and ethos in the traditional hierarchical manner and serve time as a junior before aspiring to more senior ranks in the organisation.

Social custom and a long history of racial discrimination in South Africa allowed Wits to grow in Phase 2 during the post war era, 1945-1959 in a *protected conservative environment* (Du Toit, 1996) with the return to South Africa of the volunteer ex-servicemen. They joined Wits as mature students to begin their studies which were interrupted by World War II. The phase ended with the introduction of the Separate University Education Bill in 1957 when the University entered a *crisis of autonomy* in its struggle with the government to preserve its open status (Du Toit, 1996.) What followed was a protracted and increasingly turbulent period of contestation about university autonomy and enforced university segregation while Wits nevertheless maintained practices of racial discrimination at most social events (Shear, 1996.) No policy was formulated for staff development or the specific development of early career academics. Fewer than ten black academics were employed at the University during this period.

Phase 3:

After the establishment of the racially segregated universities in the 1960s, Wits continued to grow *by opposition* to government policy in Phase 3, 1960-1986, and enrolled the permitted numbers of black students to courses in faculties and departments which were not available elsewhere. The numbers of black students increased to the point

where black academic and administrative staff in the mid 1980s began to question the legitimacy of the administrative structures as non-representative of the student body and society (Shear, 1996.) The *crisis of legitimacy* (Du Toit, 1996) which followed lasted until 1996 when the University had partially resolved the issues.

During this phase the first staff development centre, the Academic Staff Development Centre (ASDEC) was established in 1983 in response to need to support white early career academics to obtain confirmation in permanent posts at the end of their probationary period. Staff development was narrowly focused on assistance for academics to address student problems in learning in a remedial fashion (Boud and McDonald 1981), in the 'student deficit' approach to development which sees the student as the problem and does not address staff teaching methods as a source of difficulty for students. Very little attention was paid to developing the skills of staff to deal with the changing student preparedness to cope with the demands of the academic studies. The Academic Staff Development Centre provided some professional development for academics in the form of an induction or orientation to the University and a short three-day course in basic teaching methodology. While there was at least some professional development provided on a voluntary basis, within the 'one-shot' model discussed earlier, this type of staff development was shown to be relatively ineffective (Cannon and Hore, 1996, Isaacs and Parker, 1996). In addition, there was very little ongoing support throughout the probationary period for early career academics unless the individual specifically requested it. Most newly hired black academics did not attend these courses voluntarily until 1992. It is not clear why they were encouraged to attend, although lack of support from departments was a feature of the early Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity set up in 1987. Since the Academic Staff Development Centre would not routinely have been informed about newly hired Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity employees, it was difficult for staff developers to identify them and offer ongoing support and professional development.

Phase 4:

Wits embarked on a process of growth in Phase 4, 1987-1997 through *negotiated transformation* which is still ongoing (Du Toit, 1996.) The negotiated transformation phase began with the eighteen-month debate about the constituency of the FFACT body and the agenda for its first conference in 1996. It was this body which pioneered the inclusive and transparent process by which Vice-Chancellor Bundy was elected in 1997. Thomas, (1999) in her definition of transformation for Wits, says that it is a process of negotiated organisational change that breaks decisively with past discriminatory practices in order to create an environment where the full potential of everyone is realised and where diversity – both social and intellectual is respected and valued, and where it is central to the achievements of the goals of the University. The definition implies ongoing staff and professional development within the context of transformation for all individuals at Wits.

The *crisis of empowerment* during restructuring and decentralising of decision making authority was characteristic of Professor Bundy's term of office. It began with his changes to the demographics of the senior executive team. The same inclusive and transparent process has been followed for each new appointment to the senior executive team from 1998 to 2003, and in the appointment of the executive deans, Vice-Chancellor Reid in 2001 and Vice-Chancellor Nongxa in 2003. A small number of equal opportunity schemes were introduced to address the needs of black early career academics. Generally these were stand-alone Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunities schemes and not integrated into the larger mission of Wits. Initial attempts to bring all such schemes under a single umbrella of Affirmative Action failed dismally. A few very high profile black academics were head-hunted from abroad or as returning exiles to show that Wits was willing to transform but very little support was given to them. They were in fact simply token black appointments who did not fare very well in the predominantly white racist culture (Makgoba, 1997) and who found it very difficult to transform the institution as quickly as they would have liked.

Phase 5:

After a period of intense racial conflict at management and student levels in phase 4, there was a period of growth through *flexible management* in Phase 5, ongoing from 1998 to some date within the present decade. Strategic change began with the strategic planning process of 1998 and was due to culminate with the implementation of 'Wits 2001', the restructuring of the University academic, administrative and support structures. The next crisis may be the *crisis of regional or national collaboration* which the National Plan for Higher Education (2001) demands of higher education institutions throughout the country. The appointment of Vice-Chancellor Nongxa in 2003 may signal the beginning of the next phase of strategic change at Wits. A new staff development policy has become more clearly formulated and integrated within HRD. Internally and externally funded schemes for the development of all early career academics and especially black early career academics have become more numerous and more extensive in scope since 2000.

All equity development programmes for all staff from 2004 now fall under one portfolio, that of the newly appointed Equity Development Manager whose brief it is to ensure consistency of approach to mentoring and professional development across all staff and equity development schemes at Wits. This is a much more strategic approach than the piecemeal approach adopted since 1983 and is likely to result in equitable, consistent and holistic development of all early career academics across many levels in the University. This is a first for Wits as other higher education institutions in South Africa have not yet instituted such a holistic development approach for their early career academics.

The whole process of change has not been as clearly demarcated as the model shows. The process is an uneven one where various phases merge and overlap and new phases begin before the previous one is entirely complete. The crisis in South African Education in general has received much attention from the government as a study of the policy

documents and legislation shows (Kraak and Young, 2001). The changes at Wits have mirrored these developments and have also reflected the internal transformation which the University is undergoing.

2.8.2 Critique of the transformation strategies adopted by Wits in Phase 4 in the period 1987 to 1996

By way of a summary of the transformation at Wits, the most important changes in terms of staff development and initiatives concerning early career academics have been tabulated in Table 2.3 below and can be seen schematically so that the critique offered is more easily related to changes in the South African political and legislative landscape.

Table 2.3 A brief summary of transformation at Wits from 1983 -2004

	Internal initiatives by Wits		External coercion by Government legislation
	Transformation	Staff Development and HR Policies	
1983		Academic Staff Development Centre established for lecturers	
1986	The role of the university in a changing society		State of emergency in July 1985 and in June 1986
1987	Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme		
1989	Dr T.W. Kambule elected to Council		
1992	Policy Document S92/901, 1992 for SD and AA /EE		
1993	Forum for Further Accelerated Transformation		
1994	First black Deputy VC appointed First Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Officer appointed		New Government elected
1995			SAQA Act (No 58 of 1995)
1996	New Blood Lectureship Scheme from 1996 to 2001 First black Deputy VC dismissed	ASDEC without director (1996-1997)	
1997	First AA/EE Officer resigned	First black Personnel Manager (1997-1999)	Higher Education Act (HE Act 101 of 1997)
1998	First black woman DVC appointed (1998-2001)	ASDEC renamed ADC with white director	Council on Higher Education founded Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998)
1999	T and EE Office established with white woman director	Human Resources director – white male	
2000	Dr T W Kambule Growing our own Timber Mentoring programme 2000-2005	Policy document HRA/24, 2000: Mandatory mentoring of all new academic staff	
2001	First white woman VC appointed (2001-2002)	Merger of ADC and STDU to form CLTD with white woman director	HEQC founded
2002	First black Dean appointed	Women's development programme	
2003	First black VC appointed	CLTD Staff Development policy for all academic and support staff	
2004		First black Equity Development Training Manager appointed	
2005-2006			HEQC Audit of Wits

Because Wits realised after the release of the 1986 report on 'The role of the university in a changing society' that change in the demographics of the staff would be crucial in terms of its liberal philosophy, political stance against Apartheid, its social responsibility and legitimacy as an important player in the higher education arena, some transformative staff recruitment policies and the first Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity schemes were initiated.

The poor success of the first tentative 'testing the waters' scheme indicated a lack of understanding of the long-term commitment to the career development of those Equal Opportunity candidates at junior level and a clear lack of understanding that mentoring may be especially important for boundary-crossing initiations in organisations (Van Maanen, 1982), where there are first-generation professionals like black early career academics entering careers dominated by persons of a different gender or race (Mott, 2001). The first Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity schemes set a pattern in terms of numbers and what began as a small increment which should have been increased as student enrolments grew, later became entrenched and Wits policy can be seen as too little too late. This very conservative and slow transformation was severely criticised by Makgoba (1997).

Later Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity schemes in 1994 and the New Blood lectureships in 1996 were better thought through. Perhaps candidates were more carefully (or cautiously selected), their progress was monitored, at least initially, and in some instances the candidates were assigned informal mentors who made some attempt to guide and assist these new appointees. These transformation initiatives may have shown conservative efforts to change, but they were not meant to be 'cosmetic' as Makgoba, (1997) called them. However, the lack of a formal mentoring programme and total absence of any training or incentive other than the altruistic meant that any Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity initiative was subject to haphazard implementation. Some departments assigned informal mentors, some did not assign mentors, some departments

made it a 'family' concern where everyone was responsible for the mentoring of the New Blood lecturer.

The literature is clear that mentoring involves commitment in time, energy, good will and a sharing of experience and resources and that where mentors are new to this kind of function, training and ongoing support and formal, public meetings to discuss the progress of both parties are essential for long-term success of the relationship for the parties, their departments and the institution (Mikhleson, 1997; Murray, 1991; Hay, 1995; and Bell, 1997). Evidently the Wits New Blood scheme was sparing in the amount of mentoring offered to New Blood lecturers, and informal mentors were not given any indication that they needed to do anything different from higher degree supervision. Certainly no mentors received training in mentoring or any support for their new role in the transformation of the staff.

There may not have been a lack of good intentions on the part of senior members of the academic staff in this informal mentoring of Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity candidates but there was certainly a lack of know-how, and no formal training or support from the University or Academic Staff Development Centre (ASDEC). There may also have been a lack of management skills in departments so that young Affirmation Action/ Equal Opportunity candidates were managed in an inappropriate way, and certainly a lack of clear performance criteria according to which candidates could measure their performance. The candidates themselves may have lacked the initiative to contract for adequate support, guidance and mentoring, perhaps feeling insecure, disempowered and either overly scrutinized or benignly neglected.

The Academic Staff Development Centre (ASDEC) was not tasked with providing any kind of mentoring training to early career academics or senior staff mentors in Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity schemes and was not itself proactive in making such programmes available. Even voluntary participation in capacity building programmes of this nature would have provided a wider support base for candidates and

mentors. There was no clear directive from any of the Deputy Vice-Chancellors (Academic) from 1987 onwards to indicate that this was a priority. Even the reporting of the progress of candidates was initially simply done on a quantitative comparative basis and the human interaction implications of the mentoring relationships in the early career stage were ignored.

Benignly negligent as this may have been at departmental level, it is unlikely that there was much active subversive undermining of Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity candidates. Lack of effective mentoring, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to support the schemes indicates poor policy formulation, less than optimal implementation and an unnecessary waste of donor funding. Wits missed opportunities to make an important contribution to the growth and development of human potential in an underrepresented segment of the academic staff.

At much more visible and high profile levels, the appointments of Professor Makgoba and Dr Mandela also needed to be assessed for their effects on transformation at senior levels in the University and the impact on early career academics. Dr Mandela was appointed as a political coup for Wits, in addition to her ability to carry out the necessary reforms in the Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity policy. However, she was inadequately inducted or mentored, was inappropriately managed and not given a clear reporting line. She reported to the Head of Personnel and after six months, following her first probation review, reported directly to the Vice-Chancellor.

Professor Makgoba was a renowned medical researcher who arrived at Wits with no formal managerial training and no management experience of academic matters in a university. He was supposed to undergo a fairly lengthy induction period and was then supposed to be guided and mentored by the Vice-Chancellor. Although his induction did begin, the student unrest became so pressing that he was asked to intervene and involvement in student affairs and conflict resolution became his main focus such that his

induction was never completed. At no time did the senior executive engage in an effective change management process or in conflict management during the ideological clashes in the 'storming' phase of the team formation process (Tuckman, 1965). Gevisser (1996) quotes Vice-Chancellor Charlton admitting that "we haven't melded into a senior academic team as fully as I'd like."

The team's inability to address their differences at the outset and their reluctance to talk through or negotiate an agreed set of standards for acceptable behaviour and working procedures jeopardized the executives' ability to get past the 'storming' phase of group interaction. The remaining year of Professor Makgoba's incumbency was characterised by increasingly conflictual and confrontational episodes which paralyzed the entire top management of the University. The destructive energy of the hostile engagement of the opposing parties put any 'norming' or 'performing' behaviour and activities at any level out of the question and the team became totally dysfunctional. Eventually, after mediation failed, the only solution which could be reached was to 'adjourn' or disband the team and start again from scratch with many new players (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977).

The repercussions of the poor management and lack of induction of the new team member when Professor Makgoba initially joined the senior executive were profound and are still being felt. The political naiveté of the Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellor and other older members of the senior executive assumed that a radically different new player could be easily assimilated without much effort, despite the sweeping political changes through which the country had so recently come. The conservative "business as usual" stance of management was unrealistic and the lack of a proactive, supportive and carefully managed approach to Professor Makgoba had disastrous consequences for large numbers of academics, from the highest to the most junior levels. Wits lost credibility as a fair, unprejudiced, non-racist institution, both in South Africa and internationally and has had to work hard to improve its image as an institution committed to transformation.

Because the appointment of the first black academic to a senior executive position was so politically important and gave Wits such a high profile at the time, the senior executive management team should have been responsible for such issues and ensuring training of the team or facilitating important processes. It is unfortunate that in an institution like Wits, that Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunities incumbents in senior positions are sometimes set up for failure, not because they are incompetent, but because they are still subtly discriminated against because of race and gender. They are placed in no-win situations where they should succeed, but are hindered from doing so by an the existing power structure; non induction in the informal or old-boys network; lack of adequate and specific performance criteria; timeous, adequate feedback on their performance; and initiation into the unwritten rules and codes of behaviour which those in the dominant group abide by. The "race reductionism" used by Makgoba as the only factor explaining his dismissal is problematic and divisive (Webster, 1998) because this was only one of the many factors present.

2.8.3 Critique of the transformation strategies adopted by Wits in Phase 5 in the period 1997 to 2003

The current transformation agenda which was started in 1997 with the formation of the Strategic Planning exercise may have a greater chance of success because the process was much more widely consultative than the earlier strategic exercise begun in 1993 under the championship of Professor Sinclair. That initiative was largely discredited because it was not consultative enough and also because it was too closely contiguous with the Makgoba debacle and was abandoned once Professor Sinclair left the University. Vice-Chancellor Reid and Vice-Chancellor Nongxa have continued to promote transformation as a University priority.

Vice-Chancellor Bundy and the senior executive team made concerted efforts from 1997 to publicise the process and indicated by their championing of the new mission and their unflagging promotion of the strategic plan that their priorities lay firmly in a managed, ongoing transformation of Wits on all the fronts which have been identified.

There is still a need for more tangible management of change in the administration and through the middle and lower levels of the academic staff. Change management workshops, information sessions and participation from all staff, cascading down from Deans and Heads of Schools to tutors and junior lecturers would be time consuming, expensive and require enormous effort, organisation and co-ordination but would probably result in a much higher acceptance of the proposed changes and internal restructuring (Spies, 1986). The counter-acting of resistance to change sets in motion the wider acceptance of change, results in less subversive activity and sabotage and a greater ability to tolerate the uncertainty resulting from the changes. Resentment, confusion, fear and anxiety can also be reduced if the process of change is explained, feelings are acknowledged and aired in a supportive, non-judgmental way. The opportunity is provided for staff to reassess themselves, their career development, commitment to the institution and its mission and strategic objectives and to make decisions accordingly. The Office of Transformation and Employment Equity, in an ongoing awareness campaign, organised a series of three seminars in 2003 to address staff on issues around transformation. They were very poorly attended by less than 25 of the 1033 academic staff.

Coherent, smooth, less troubled acceptance of the transformation in the institution may result when the active management of change is not avoided. Individual intellectual and emotional working through of fears and anxiety may result in less resistance to the change. There is a danger in assuming that because the changes look logical and rational that they will be accepted. The emotional investment of staff in maintaining the status quo in systems that they know well is often underestimated. The changes being driven by legislation beyond the control of the University are already exerting considerable

pressure on staff to comply and the reluctance factor in doing is fairly high in some quarters. Changes which involve many bureaucratic manoeuvres and tedious compliance with regulations and legislation are particularly resisted and challenged. The impact on staff development and early career academic professional development is delayed and curtailed because of the long time-lag between policy formulation and the promulgation of legislation and before implementation becomes widespread, as much as five years in some cases. An example is the policy about mandatory mentoring of all staff, HRA/24 of 2000, see Table 4.3. By the end of 2003, this policy is still not in the mainstream of early career academics development. Very few Faculties and Schools have actually made this a regular practice and only a handful of Schools are implementing the policy for all new early career academics.

2.9 Conclusion

We can clearly see from the Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunities schemes that transformation without mentoring has not been successful at Wits. The demographic changes are too slow and early career academics leave before they move through the ranks sufficiently to have any effect on the power relations at higher education institutions because they find it too difficult to establish themselves without supportive mentoring, staff development systems and HR systems.

Wits has been laggardly in making its own internal efforts at staff development and transformation of black staff sustainable and has chosen to use external donor funding which is subject to the vicissitudes of the donor whim and therefore not sustainable, to drive most of its most recent early career academics development and particularly to fund its mentoring programme. Although its HR policies are laudable and voice espoused transformation thinking, the actual implementation is negligible because the policies have no teeth. Deans and Heads of School are not held accountable for the mandatory mentoring of new staff and most Heads of School do not implement the policy. Transformation is thus slowed down and compliance is often reluctant. Heads of School

and those delegated to do mentoring need to be appraised on how well they implement the policy, and recognition and some form of reward should be offered to those who do it.

It is hoped that Wits' long history of intellectual debate, proposing of options and drawing up of extensive and detailed action plans actually results in practical, methodical, pervasive implementation with careful monitoring and evaluation in the current transformation phase. Little pockets of proactive working with change where individual change agents have Wits' welfare at heart, have been surfacing throughout the University. This energy and commitment could be harnessed and used to bring about more pervasive change in a more structured and formal manner rather than leaving it to percolate through isolated departments in a haphazard unmanaged way.

Wits has been attempting the race and gender demographic transformation of the academic staff for about fifteen years. Wits has no lack of awareness or intention to transform but the process is seen to take up much time and energy, implementation is erratic, poorly monitored and poorly managed. The mentoring of Affirmative Action / Equal Opportunity and the New Blood appointees was left to individual departments which lack a clear, coherent and accountable mentoring programme, lack of training for mentors and their protégés and lack of any systematic mentoring and evaluation of any of the schemes. Wits continues to move into the process of transformation and is setting up new systems and initiatives to achieve lasting change in the whole institution. The changes appear to be happening more rapidly as the numbers of senior black academics increase and the influx of black early career academics also gains momentum.

The question remains: what type of staff development and mentoring programmes are necessary for the successful recruiting and retention of early career academics? The research seeks to explore this question and how can Wits support and develop early career academics when the institutional culture and ethos is turgid and resistant to transformation. In my view, only mandatory, sustained and formally structured mentoring with careful monitoring and evaluation can maintain the transformation

impetus. In order to do this, through quantitative and qualitative means, interviews were conducted with early career academics in formal mentoring programmes to investigate staff and career development models currently in use for the transformation, professional development and socialisation of the careers of academics in a changing work environment in higher education ; the kinds of mentoring happen in other South Africa universities and at Wits; the mentor and mentee behaviours affecting transformation through mentoring relationships; the gaps between current practice in South Africa and best practice in higher education early career development and mentoring internationally; and how mentoring can impact on transformation in South African higher education. The present study shows how formal mentoring has been implemented at the beginning of the transformation process in staff development of early career academics begun in 2000. Much can be learnt to enable more widespread implementation of mandatory mentoring for early career academics professional development and the transformation of higher education institutions.

Chapter Three

The sapling nursery: the changing work environment in higher education

3.1 Introduction

There has been increasing acknowledgement throughout the world of higher education that academic work has changed, become more complex and that early career academics need support in the complexities, and mentoring in the first years in higher education. The changing nature of academic work and growing managerialism in all aspects of university life, including the quality assurance drive, has left many academics feeling alienated, disempowered and suspicious of those senior managers who turn universities into business driven corporate clones (Currie, 2001b; Webster and Mosoetsa, 2001). Academic work now includes dealing with under prepared students which requires much more emotional energy. Academics report having to do larger amounts of administrative work, and to feeling powerlessness in the face of change caused by restructuring and retrenchments. More time and energy is spent on marketing courses to students and this form of emotional labour is new and often stressful (Webster and Mosoetsa, 2001). Menzies and Newsom (2001) point out that the proliferation of distance technology and the demand for technical expertise in higher education creates working conditions where academics are run off their feet and their mental and physical health is in jeopardy.

If established academics are overwhelmed by the new forms of academic work, early career academics are also likely to experience difficulty coping if they themselves are under prepared for the range of activities required by their work aside from the traditional core activities of teaching and research. This study argues that immediate,

systematic support for early career academics is vital if they are to understand and cope with the rapidly changing academic work environment and to develop and thrive in it as robust academics.

The nature of academic work is changing including more widespread managerialist monitoring and evaluation methods (Roche, 1996; Ruth, 2000; Webster and Mosoetsa, 2001). Academic managerialism, on the rise since the crisis of management in American universities was first described by Keller (1983), has become increasingly pervasive despite initial resistance to it (Kayrooz, Pearson and Quinlan, 1997). For Pollitt (1990), managerialism represents the belief that more effective management practice is the key to improved efficiency. Management development training has become more widespread in the training of senior academics who hold leadership and management positions in faculties and in university administration. Many of the same training strategies and interventions are commonly used in the training of non-managerial academics, alongside their development as teaching professionals. Staff development as a professional activity within higher education is also becoming more formalised and encompasses both educational development and management development for all university staff.

The professionalisation of careers and occupations in many disciplines has meant that that aspiring newcomers are required to receive accreditation from professional organisations in the discipline. Part of the process of becoming an accredited professional often includes a period of internship or professional apprenticeship required by the accrediting professional body. Accountants and lawyers, for example, are required to serve articles and some write a Board examination after graduating before being accredited as practicing professionals. In higher education the professionalisation of careers is twofold: firstly, the professionalisation of the work of academics in their specific disciplines and in their teaching and secondly, the professionalisation of the work of administrators and managers.

Firstly, this chapter deals with the changes in academic work, the growth of managerialism in higher education and its impact on academics and managers alike. There has been more pressure on higher education to professionalise the work of administrators, some of whom are academics who have moved into administrative positions in institutions. Professional management development provides the knowledge and specialization of credentials of this field of expertise which higher education administrators are expected to utilize in their careers in higher education. There is also some overlap in the professionalisation of academics and some management development strategies are also found in the development of early career academics.

Secondly, this chapter deals with the professionalisation of the work of academics and the increasing pressures on them to become more professional in all their roles. This emerges especially from the staff and educational development movements over the past thirty years which have argued for better teaching credentials for academics who are required to teach. In some instances the call is seen as developmental and supportive in nature and in others it is seen as a managerialist intervention where institutions attempt to exert more control over academic work. Whether or not such calls are developmental or managerialist in intention, for early career academics the moves provide support through the help, guidance and mentoring for the complexity of the roles in academic life. Mentoring is used in organizations as a strategy to facilitate the ongoing professionalisation of the careers of new entrants to various strata in organizations. Mentoring can sometimes be used in conjunction with the obtaining of professional credentials required by the professional accrediting body or by the employer. Formal mentoring is more generally used when newcomers are evolving into their professional roles and are in the process of becoming fully-fledged professionals. The mentoring model of the professionalisation of teachers is widely used in many levels of the education sector but less so in higher education (Maynard and Furlong, 1993).

3.2 Academic managerialism

External demands from government and the tax paying public for universities to become accountable for their expenditure have led to the adoption of management strategies and techniques from private and corporate sectors (Zemsky and Massy, 1995; Engell and Dangerfield, 1998). In South Africa the changes in the relationship between the state, society, and higher education institutions, coupled with the new legislative framework, have transformed the nature of leadership in South African higher education institutions. There has been a marked shift in the governance and management of higher education institutions, from a system whose institutions were largely managed through administrative fiat, to one that is characterised by more managerial and entrepreneurial approaches to leadership (Kulati, 2001).

Benmore (2002) states that the term managerialism has become associated with the changing approach to management within higher education and elsewhere in the public sector. He provides an overview of the development of managerialism in higher education particularly in Great Britain. For Pollitt (1990), managerialism represents the belief that more effective management practices are the key to improved efficiency. Trow (1994), referring specifically to higher education, has distinguished between 'soft' managerialism, which seeks to utilise improved managerial techniques to achieve productivity gains without compromising university autonomy, and 'hard' managerialism which is rooted in the belief that external controls are essential to ensure that universities improve managerial effectiveness through a system of financial rewards for meeting targets; and penalties, for failing to do so. With both variants the managerial imperative is apparent. As a result higher education managers have asserted managerial prerogative in order to implement new structures and systems designed to bring about productivity increases in a system where resourcing levels continue to decline relative to the number of students admitted to courses.

Trowler (1998) contends that too little attention has been given to the responses of academics to the changing nature of their work. As he demonstrates through the use of

a number of individual examples from his research, academic staff retain some degree of freedom to interpret their various responsibilities in their own ways. For Trowler, the actions taken by academics affected by managerialist interventions in their domains of autonomy shapes the reality of policy initiatives implemented by management.

Several managerialist issues in higher education emerge from the literature: there are issues of organisational change, market driven practices, prestige and status, the pursuit of 'clients' and quality assurance measures. There has also been an infiltration of management terminology and jargon from business and management science into higher education to describe many of the financial and organisational developments which have occurred in the last twenty five years.

Bertelsen (1998) points out that the managerial discourse of change and the market discourse of branding have been absorbed virtually unchallenged by universities in South Africa and globally. These have led to restructuring of institutions and academic programmes, cost cutting of academic expenditure and a proliferation of managerialist controls which have produced expensive administrative excess and a tendency to employ part-time, contract and exploited graduate labour.

Leslie and Rhoades (1995) support the stance of Engell and Dangerfield (1998) when they say that in the special non-profit case of higher education, economists and non-economists alike hold that the ultimate aim of revenue maximization is prestige. In pursuit of more prestige, institutions spend all the revenue that they can obtain; in essence costs equal revenues. Seen perhaps most clearly in the case of research universities and elite liberal arts colleges, organizational managers and members direct their energies and institutional resources primarily toward activities that will enhance institutional status, particularly in professional circles. The implicit presumption is that resources will be allocated principally to the production activities of instruction and, especially in the case of universities, of research. But as Gumport and Pusser

(1995) point out, the allocation of funds to administrative functions is increasing and the allocation to teaching and instruction is dwindling.

A study by Broadbent (1997) highlights the nature of academics' perceptions of change within their immediate workplace. Ideally, academics wish for a settled workplace in which they can operate in an effective and efficient manner in carrying out the academic work that they know best, free from the day-to-day constraints on work behaviour and effective execution of duties. Such a workplace environment may have existed in the past but does not accord with present day economic imperatives. Due to the unpredictable nature of the work environment created, academics might well be said to be operating in a state of constant 'shock'. For many, each new change brings with it a sense of loss and new shocks; adaptation can be mentally, physically and emotionally exhausting. Based on Broadbent's observations of the academic workplace, it is likely that established academics do not have the psychological or emotional resources to attend to the developmental needs of junior colleagues when they themselves have difficulty adapting to the changes. Therefore professional development and socialisation of newcomers cannot be left to informal relationships with stressed and overloaded colleagues or left to chance.

It has become increasingly evident that higher education institutions will be led in the future by academic career managers rather than by the more traditional scholars (Webster and Mosoetsa, 2001). Within the managerialist agendas of many higher education institutions, there is an emphasis on management development of senior academics in faculty leadership positions, which results in the professionalisation of the management function in higher education. Some of the management development training provided for senior academics is also becoming part of the training and development of non-managerial academics and early career academics as the discourse of managerialism overtakes the discourse of educational development in staff development.

In South Africa the response to governmental demands for managerial transformation, has resulted in the emergence of distinct transformative or managerialist styles of higher education institutional management and change, (Kulati, 2001). Kulati classifies the different leadership responses to the challenges of transformation into broad categories of leadership approaches to institutional change. These typologies have taken as their point of departure the classification of institutional governance and management developed by Cloete and Bunting (2000). Kulati stresses that the typology of leadership approaches is very much a function of South Africa's fractured past and that each of the approaches is a product of a complex coalescence of the history and culture of the institutions.

Kulati distinguishes between two broad categories of response to institutional management and change: transformative and managerial categories. Each of these has two sub-categories. He sees 'Transformative Leadership' consisting of 'Reconstructed Collegialists' and 'Transformative Managerialists'.

'Reconstructed Collegialists' are found in the historically white, English speaking, universities, who have had a tradition of collegial governance. Although reconstructed collegialists share the view that universities have to "move with the times", and that issues such as efficiency, effectiveness, responsiveness, and accountability have to be embraced by higher education institutions, the leadership approach to change starts from the premise that at the centre of the transformation project of the institution lies an intellectual agenda that is non-negotiable. Part of the transformation agenda is to reclaim and reassert the centrality of the intellectual traditions of higher education institutions, especially in the context of the university.

'Transformative Managerialists' are characteristic of the historically Afrikaans institutions that have managed to transform themselves in a relatively short period. The leadership challenge is to transform the governance culture of the institution, from a historically authoritarian to a democratic one. Usually the institutional management

suffers from a political legitimacy problem – perceived or real - either with the internal or external stakeholders, who feel that the association of the institution with the previous Apartheid regime weighs heavily on its legacy.

Kulati's second category of leadership approaches to institutional change is 'Managerial Leadership' with two sub-categories as well. 'Strategic Managerialists' attempt to get the institution to think and act more strategically, and to convince the academics that 'being managed', and working in an institution that is run on sound management principles, does not constitute a threat to the traditional values of the academy, such as academic freedom.

'Unmitigated Entrepreneurs' see higher education as being a business, as opposed to being run like a business. Institutions are thus in the business of providing their clients - the students - with goods and services that are sold at a competitive price. The institutions have very strong and close links with industry, and generally lack a collegial tradition. The transformation challenge is to gear up the institution such that it is responsive to the rapidly changing customer needs and expectations. This style is characterised by a very gung-ho, and unquestioning, application of private sector management procedures and techniques. The executive management, whose central concern is to ensure that the institution is run efficiently, leads from the front, and is in charge of the transformation process. The institutional strategy for change is underpinned by a very instrumentalist view of education, whose primary function is seen as that of preparing young people for productive employment.

Kulati's typography is an interesting analysis of the South African response to the spread of managerialism in higher education. He shows that managerialist and marketing discourses critiqued by Bertlesen (1998) have not been absorbed entirely unchallenged by the whole higher education sector in South Africa. For early career academics entering the system, those employed in institutions with a transformative leadership style are more likely to find support for their development in the changed

higher education environment whereas those in managerialist institutions may be left to their own devices and be given less support.

Nevertheless, 'hard' and 'soft' managerialist trends identified by Trow (1994), throughout the whole higher education sector give cause for concern, particularly on the part of academics who see the erosion of funding allocated to teaching, increased incentives and pressure to conduct research, generate income and become more businesslike in dealings with non-academic enterprises outside higher education. 'Soft' managerialism (Trow, 1994) which utilises improved managerial techniques to achieve productivity gains without compromising university autonomy may not be regarded as offensive by academics, but 'hard' managerialism, rooted in the belief that external controls are essential to ensure that universities improve managerial effectiveness may result in reluctant compliance only, fulfilling the letter of the legislation and not the spirit of quality assurance imperatives. This would result in efforts which could more profitably be spent on improving teaching in higher education (Geber and Munro, 1999). What Trow (1994) has not noted is that there is also an erosion of funding for research, and greater teaching and administrative workloads are also cause for concern as academics chase funding for their research.

Engell and Dangerfield (1998) maintain that there is an unabated trend in administrative growth at many institutions. Some administrative growth was required to meet increased governmental regulations and a changed student body with new needs for support. In more than 3,000 U.S. colleges and universities from 1985 to 1990, full-time faculty grew only 8.6 percent, administrative personnel rose by 14.1 percent, and their subordinates, "other professionals," increased by *double* that, or 28.1 percent.

Administrators have professionalised, becoming a distinct class of managers who have management degrees and credentials. Management in higher education, formerly

elected collegially from senior academics who have risen in the hierarchy, has become pressured to acquire the discourse of management and even management qualifications and credentials so that higher education institutions can be seen to be organisations professionally managed rather than organisations out of touch with almost universal management practices.

The professionalising of managerial work and the growth of specialised skills in such areas as financial analysis, strategic planning, compensation, and marketing, means that even a manager's fate is no longer tied to a single corporation; most managers acquire a knowledge base and skills that are transferable to other organizations. What economists call "firm-specific knowledge" is also declining in value compared to more general expertise because of a rapidly changing business environment. When change and innovation are the issue, the ability to be flexible and learn is more important than long-term company experience that helps to preserve traditions and routines, (Kanter, 1989b). This trend is also becoming apparent in the management of higher education throughout the world and South Africa is no exception.

3.3 Professionalisation of academic work

Researchers of academic work and academic development practitioners have called for better training and support for early career academics in a world where their careers are becoming increasingly subject to outside scrutiny. There are more calls for the professionalisation of the occupation from governments, the public and staff developers in higher education itself (Brew, 1995). Kanter (1989a) points out that one of the major career functions performed by organisations is educating and credentialing of employees. Organisations have to provide evidence that employees are qualified to perform certain tasks and then provide opportunities to exercise those skills. Both in academic and in professional careers, there is growth in skill through long periods of schooling and apprenticeship which provides opportunity for the

development of cross-organisational mobility throughout the profession. Kanter (1989b) sees the professional career structure as defined by craft or skill. Valued knowledge is the key determinant of occupational status, and reputation is the key resource for the individual. Opportunity to develop status and reputation in professional life involves the chance to take on increasingly demanding assignments that require greater exercise of the skills that are the professional's stock in trade. Upward mobility in the professional career rests on the reputation for greater skill. As occupations professionalise, members command greater remuneration for services because of enhanced reputations and skills enforced through professional associations that provide credentials.

In the case of academics, gaining entry to higher education institutions requires an advanced degree with specialist knowledge in particular disciplines which imparts the 'credentials' needed as members of the academic profession. The requirement of professional teaching credentials of all other teachers in the teaching professions is not usually extended to academics teaching in higher education except where the academics teach in faculties of education. Higher education in Norway is the exception as all teachers require professional as well specialist credentials (Handal, 2001).

Increasingly, external demands by governments, the public, associations of higher education teachers and staff developers has placed more pressure on academics to obtain professional credentials in both parallel sets of core activities in higher education – credentials in the discipline and credentials in teaching. There is pressure from professional bodies to require more comprehensive credentials at entry-level or as continuing professional development later in academic careers. The quality of the professional environment needs to be rich enough to support and sustain their growth.

3.4 Accreditation of teaching in higher education

The drive towards accreditation in higher education internationally resulted primarily from the quality assurance movement. Quality assurance can be seen as a managerialist intervention resulting from reports and audits on higher education systems which investigate undergraduate drop-out and failure rates, time to degree, institutional and national through-put rates and employability of graduates amongst other measures of quality. A prime example in the UK is the National Committee of Inquiry in Higher Education (NCIHE) report known as the Dearing report (1997). The proposals made in the Dearing report (1997) signalled a sea-change in the structures, mechanisms and approaches used to secure and assure the quality and standards of UK higher education. The deliberations of the Dearing report (1997) were informed by the major enquiry into academic standards in undergraduate programmes conducted by the Higher Education Quality Council between 1994 and 1997. The final report of this project listed many recommendations intended to steer the higher education community and the Quality Assurance Agency towards the creation of workable and effective policies. Three of the key measures include:

1. A national framework of qualifications based on agreed credits and levels of achievement - the framework to be developed and maintained by the Quality Assurance Agency.
2. The development of recognized standards of awards and the provision of clear information for students, employers and others about the content, standards and delivery of programmes, and student achievement in respect of these standards.
3. The formal preparation and professional accreditation of all teaching staff.

This conceptual model shows many similarities to the higher education transformation processes which have been taking place in South Africa since 1994 which is discussed later in the chapter.

Most of the accreditation processes in higher education are voluntary in nature at present and very few are mandatory because most systems are based on the self-regulatory modus operandi common to many higher education systems. With the exception of Norway and the United Kingdom, systematic formal credentialising of teaching academics does not take place in the higher education system (Baume and Baume, 1996; Webb, 1996a) although there are an increasing number of programmes which provide professional teaching development without formal accreditation in USA (Adams, 2002; De Neef, 2002). Through the implementation of the quality assurance drive for accreditation, the professional development programmes designed to achieve teaching qualifications have been structured universally to support early career academics. They are supported in their learning to teach through supervision of their teaching and through mentoring as well in many programmes.

As South Africa grapples with accreditation issues, the Council on Higher Education (CHE) has looked at other higher education systems in Europe and the USA to inform its deliberations. The systems established for accreditation of higher education teachers in Norway and in the United Kingdom and Commonwealth countries are reviewed first in the next section, then the emerging system in South Africa and system the Netherlands are reviewed. The systems in the USA are reviewed last.

3.4.1 The system in Norway

Norway has the only university system in the world which has compulsory initial educational training of university teachers (Handal, 1997). It has the first and oldest system of accreditation in higher education internationally. Professional development of academics was common in the system from the 1960s but the professionalisation of teaching became mandatory in 1988 when the National Council of Universities, reporting to the Norwegian Ministry of Church, Education and Research, instituted regulations about the appointment of academics to universities. All recruitment and

selection procedures require evidence by applicants of teaching qualifications in addition to research output. The standard set for the compulsory teaching training of Norwegian academics is state driven as a means of quality assurance of university teachers (Lycke, 1998). This brings academic teachers in line with all other teachers in the country: all teachers in the State funded education system are required to be appropriately qualified (Handal, 2001).

When academics without teaching qualifications enter the higher education system of four universities and six research colleges, they are required to complete the training for Basic Pedagogical Competence (BPC) within two years of their appointment (Handal, 2001). The BPC training indicates a shift from individual responsibility for professional development to institutional responsibility (Lycke, 1998). The training consists of 100 hours of input, half of it is theoretical and half is practical, to be undertaken over the period of about a year. The structuring of the BPC is such that it provides year-long support from staff development practitioners on site for beginning academics. As the National Council of Universities aims to ensure that *all* academics have a common basic educational grounding, established staff who are promoted to more senior positions are also regarded as new staff and are similarly obliged to acquire a BPC qualification within two years of their appointment if they don't have it. The National Council of Universities aims to have all 7000 academics qualified within a generation (Handal, 2001).

The system in Norway is comparatively small in Europe but its initiative to bring academic teacher education in line with all other teacher education shows that without being draconian, Norway is the forerunner in the field. The incremental nature of the institutional change driven from a national level deals with the possible resistance of older academics whilst offering early career academics the opportunity to become familiar with educational theory and practice considered important for high quality teaching.

There are as yet no studies which show how many Norwegian academics have embraced the BPC training and how much of the higher education workforce is qualified in teaching. Implicit in the work of Handal (1997, 2001) and Lycke (1998, 1999) is the understanding that the majority of early career academics appointed since 1988 are qualified and accredited higher education teachers. It may be that organisational change as fundamental as this can be more easily accomplished in a small heterogeneous system than in larger, more unwieldy and widely diverse systems.

Nevertheless, the Norwegian national emphasis on quality teaching learned in a supportive environment is one which resonates with trends in South Africa. The Council on Higher Education (CHE) and the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) are attempting to gain support for a national teaching qualification for South African academics through the Post Graduate Certificate in Higher Education and Training (PGCHET) or similar equivalent as a 'licence to teach'. The South African system is much bigger and much more diverse and has historical inequalities which may make such a quality assurance drive more challenging to implement and whether this will become compulsory is not easy to determine.

Compulsory accreditation is not a feature of the system in the UK but there is widespread voluntary accreditation of higher education teachers. Many South African universities are modelled on the British system and their move towards accreditation has had an influence on the restructuring of the higher education system in South Africa.

3.4.2 The staff development and accreditation system in the United Kingdom

The professional development of teachers in higher education in United Kingdom began with an initiative through the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) when the polytechnics in the United Kingdom became universities, (Baume

and Baume, 1996). The development of the Teacher Accreditation Scheme began in November 1990. In 1992 a pilot programme began with eight institutions when the first higher education teacher training programmes were recognised in 1992. The overall aim of the Teacher Accreditation Scheme is to assure a common and appropriate standard of performance of teachers in higher education who complete recognised programmes of training. The scheme was launched nationally in April 1993 and was sufficiently successful that SEDA offered a national programme in 1996. SEDA had recognized 30 accrediting programmes by the end of the pilot programme in 1996 but there are no figures available for the numbers of teachers who were accredited during the pilot.

The SEDA Teacher Accreditation Scheme recognises programmes to train new teaching staff in institutions of higher education. Recognised programmes have met strict criteria and standards. By August 2001 over 2500 teachers had been accredited through the Scheme (SEDA, 2002) but unfortunately no more recent figures have been published. A programme was recognised if it:

- requires higher education teachers to demonstrate the achievement of each of the eight objectives and outcomes, in a way which reflects the six underpinning principles and values;
- involves an appropriate mix of self-, peer- and tutor-assessment;
- is externally examined and/or moderated;
- has a procedure for dealing with appeals against accreditation decisions; and
- has a procedure for regular review of the programme.

SEDA accreditation represents a professional standard in higher education teaching. The standard is guaranteed through the assessment of outcomes underpinned by professional values and principles, including support for learning by peers and tutors during the period of study. The recognised programmes which lead to this accreditation may also lead to a range of academic qualifications but all must be capable of assessing professional practice.

Higher education teachers are accredited if they demonstrate that they have met each of the eight objectives in a way which reflects each of the six underpinning principles. The Teacher Accreditation Scheme does not prescribe a particular form of programme of training for teachers in higher education. Rather, the Scheme identifies the underpinning principles and values, and the objectives and outcomes, which any course or programme must show that it assesses.

SEDA's approach acknowledges that there is variety of excellent current provision of such credentials in higher education teaching in Britain. It allows institutions flexibility to address their own priorities and resource issues in developing their programmes. SEDA maintains that the process of recognition has been designed to be rigorous, clear and developmental as the association wishes to empower participants. It also aims to achieve a wide acceptance of the Scheme by those with higher education teaching responsibilities and managers in higher education institutions. Although figures for 2002 are not yet available, thousands of higher education teachers throughout the system are being supported through the programmes in their professional development and 2500 had obtained accreditation (SEDA, 2002).

SEDA also has another scheme for accrediting those academics who work in staff development in an attempt to professionalise that occupation within higher education. It was launched and piloted in 1996 to accredit a wide variety of programmes in higher education staff and educational development. In 1996 seven institutions started to pilot the scheme with a variety of staff. University of Hull, Kingston University, University of Leeds, University of Luton, University College Northampton, Nottingham Trent University, University of Sunderland formed the basis of a new pilot for an accreditation the SEDA. It was called the Scheme for the Accreditation of Professional Development in Higher Education.

Since then seven additional programmes for the Professional Development Accreditation Framework (PDAF) have been recognised at Aston University; the

University of East Anglia; the University of Exeter; Kingston University; the University of Luton; the University of Manchester; University College Northampton; and Southampton Institute (SEDA website, 2002). Since December 2002, a greater range of supporting documentation has been uploaded onto the SEDA website in support of the Professional Development Framework (PDF) –formerly the PDAF (SEDA Website, 2003). Implicit in the documentation supporting the PDF is the notion that teachers and staff development practitioners in the process of acquiring accreditation will receive mentoring from already accredited teachers and staff developers in their institutions and from those providing the accredited programmes within the Professional Development Framework.

There is evidence of an increasing trend towards 'credentialism' in the United Kingdom, (Blackwell and McLean, 1996a). More accreditation of British higher education teachers and courses is offered by the Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILTHE) which is another professional body for all who teach and support learning in higher education in the United Kingdom. It was established in 1999 as a response to the Dearing report (1997) to enhance the status of teaching, improve the experience of learning and support innovation in higher education. It also develops and maintains professional standards of practice. It claims that it is becoming the main source of professional recognition for all staff engaged in teaching and the support of learning (ILTHE, 2002). In June 1999, the Institute for Learning and Teaching (ILTHE) published its proposals concerning the accreditation framework and criteria for membership. The proposals included a statement about ways in which members might remain in good standing through demonstrating a commitment to Continuing Professional Development (CPD). The News section of the ILTHE website provides strong evidence that there is wide support from staff in higher education (ILTHE News, 2002).

The initiative to institutionalise Continuing Professional Development (CPD) in teaching higher education would bring it in line with other professions which require updating of skills, practice and knowledge as is the case in health science and

engineering. As far as can be ascertained, SEDA and ILTHE are the only organisations world-wide at present which accredit the professional training of staff development professionals in higher education. It seems that the strong quality assurance movement in higher education the UK, coupled with a long-standing commitment to professional development in higher education, has paved the way for the balancing and redressing the lowly status of teaching, even at higher education level. There is a very evident managerialist emphasis to quality assurance in the UK (Trow, 1994) so that since the Dearing report (1997), managerialist intervention is the context within which more recent staff development has taken place. The move to professionalisation and accreditation of higher education teachers by SEDA and ILTHE follows as a response to an increasing managerialist ethos in UK education.

Systems in the Commonwealth countries may follow the lead of UK staff development associations for the accreditation of teaching of higher education staff and many are investigating the possibility of doing so; the systems in Australia, Canada and South Africa as examples, are reviewed next.

3.4.3 The system in Australia

There is no national accreditation system for training of higher education teachers in Australia. Nightingale (1996) reports on the postgraduate qualifications in higher education offered by the University of New South Wales (UNSW) since 1991, as an example of what can be accomplished in the Australian context. This was a voluntary teacher training qualification with three exit levels as no teaching preparation programme is required at UNSW. At the time of her report there were 85 active participants in the course.

There does not appear to be any other move towards national accreditation in Australia although many universities offer teaching development as part of their institutional staff development packages. Curtin University and the University of

Queensland are examples of this kind of approach and their collaborative projects in South Africa are discussed later in the chapter. Although there is a great increase in managerialism in Australia (Currie, 2001a), the effects at present do not appear to have resulted in national moves towards the accreditation of higher education teachers (Candy, 1996).

Lublin (1996) points out that in Australia it is recognised that the link between quality, individual professional competence and standards, on the one hand, and professional qualifications on the other, is inescapable. The longer that the academic profession remains outside any framework of professional qualification, yet continues to extend its involvement in the education and training of other professionals, the more anomalous the position will seem. There is little counter to the argument that eventually the accreditation of the professional activity of tertiary teaching must occur, in line with other professional accreditations which guarantee standards of performance in an independent and self regulating body of practitioners.

The system in Canada, another member of the Commonwealth, is similar to that in Australia although there are significant influences from USA models of practice.

3.4.4 The system in Canada

Although many universities have faculty/staff development units which offer short courses to early career academics and a range of other support to academics, there is no formal accreditation of teaching programmes for faculty in higher education. There are some innovative programmes for improving teaching offered at a few Canadian universities. One such example is the Partnerships with Professors Program at the University of Lethbridge, Alberta (Adams, 2001; Adams and Townsend, 2002). The Canadian system may respond to UK and US initiatives by instituting accreditation programmes for higher education teachers in the near future.

Managerialist interventions in terms of quality assurance and its concomitant drive towards accreditation appear to be weaker in Canada than in the UK and Australia. It is possible that SEDA and ILTHE would accredit higher education teachers from Commonwealth countries as well as UK.

The system in another Commonwealth country, South Africa, appears to be responding to the UK lead more quickly than either Australia or Canada.

3.4.5 The system in South Africa

The system in South Africa has been substantially transformed since 1994 by the implementation of the new national education policy. The documents show that quality is an aim of South Africa's transforming education system and quality assurance is highlighted as a goal of attaining a single coordinated Higher Education (HE) system Higher Education Act (HE Act 101 of 1997).

The Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) is a permanent committee of the Council on Higher Education (CHE), and both the CHE and HEQC are created by the Higher Education Act (HE Act 101 of 1997). The role of the Council on Higher Education is to advise the Minister of Education on matters of higher education in South Africa, and the HEQC is responsible for quality assurance in higher education. According to the Founding Document of the HEQC amended in January 2001, the HEQC's three functions are to promote quality assurance in higher education; audit the quality assurance mechanisms of higher education institutions; and accredit programmes of higher education.

Debates and initiatives around the transformation of higher education prior to 2001 focused largely on issues of governance, financing, and access to higher education and not sufficiently on crucial issues of teaching and learning, research, and knowledge based community service. The HEQC has been developing a quality assurance framework since 2001 that includes an explicit focus on the quality of teaching and

learning activities, research and community service in order to deepen and extend the process of higher education transformation (HEQC, 2001).

The explicit focus of the HEQC on the quality of teaching in higher education has implications for the accreditation of higher education teachers. At present, accreditation of teaching takes place only at institutional level although the HEQC institutional audits carried out in 2003 and subsequent audits are likely to result in some national policy in this regard, according to Saleem Badat, Chief Executive Officer of the Council on Higher Education (Badat, 2003).

The Higher Education Staff Development Initiative (HESDI) working group, established independently from the ETDP SETA, has compiled a comprehensive report on what accredited qualifications are available across the system in South Africa (HESDI, 2003). As many as eight HAUs and three Technikons in the higher education sector offer accredited programmes ranging from postgraduate diplomas, certificates, to Masters and PhD degrees in higher education studies registered on the NQF. Although the range of qualifications is available, only Rhodes University has made the Post Graduate Certificate in Higher Education and Training (PGCHET) qualification mandatory for all new staff, specifically as a result of a managerialist drive towards quality assurance by the senior executive of the university. Mentoring of all new staff who engage in the PGCHET is an integral part of obtaining the qualification. At University of Port Elizabeth mentoring of all new staff is mandatory, whether they are engaged in PGCHET studies or not and there is a very clear managerialist focus in such mentoring as all mentors of new staff are senior members of the institution and are required to attend mentor training as part of the human resources management strategy at University of Port Elizabeth (UPE, 1999).

The CHE hopes that the PCGHET quality assurance strategy coupled with the professional development initiative will be taken up throughout the sector as a self-regulatory strategy in institutional quality assurance (Badat, 2003). The uptake is

rather slow at present but there are significantly more academics involved in professional development of teaching than there were five years ago (HESDI, 2003), influenced by exposure to professionalisation trends in the UK and the Commonwealth.

The systems in Europe operate very differently from those in the UK and the Commonwealth. Nevertheless, quality of education is a universal imperative which generates many differing responses. There are many European higher education systems which have accreditation of teaching that range from formal and mandatory national accreditation to more arbitrary institutional accreditation. The system in the Netherlands is used as an example because many of the Afrikaans historically advantaged universities (HAUs) in South Africa look to developments in the Netherlands to inform their thinking about organisational and curriculum reform. Many historically disadvantaged universities (HDUs) receive funding for staff development initiatives from universities in the Netherlands and from the Dutch Government and Dutch international corporations like Shell. There is a significant amount of collaboration between Dutch and South African higher education institutions on teaching and research projects. Those at the University of the Western Cape (UWC) and Technikon Northern Gauteng (TNG) are some examples.

3.4.6 The system in the Netherlands

There is no national accreditation of higher education teaching programmes in the Netherlands. The higher education sector consists of two kinds of institutions: universities and polytechnics. Teachers at polytechnics were formerly required to have a teaching diploma from a recognised teacher training college or a one-year postgraduate university teaching qualification but teachers at universities did not have to possess a teaching qualification. Dutch legislation no longer requires the year-long teaching qualification for polytechnic teachers, but has lowered the requirement to attendance at a two month teaching course for new teachers. This is seen by teachers in the sector as unfair because there is still a much greater student attrition rate at

universities where no formal teaching qualifications are required. Teacher training courses are offered by a national network of educational research and development units to teachers in both sectors although most participants teach at polytechnics. Keesen et al., (1996) report that some universities are moving towards mandatory training for teachers especially where non-traditional or innovative curricula form the basis of teaching programmes. The University of Limburg, where medical curricula are taught in a problem-based learning format, is one such example. The University of Utrecht has redesigned academic career paths. Where academics opt for a career in teaching alone or a career combining teaching and research, a Teacher in Higher Education Certificate (THE) is a prerequisite at lecturer level. At senior lecturer, associate professor and full professor levels an Advanced Teacher in Higher Education Certificate is required. It is not possible to achieve a full professorship in research alone. This innovation is the beginning of ongoing accreditation changes in the Dutch higher education system.

The system in the USA is idiosyncratic and also very large and cumbersome to analyse although there is a great deal happening in teaching accreditation at many levels. Several Fulbright scholars have been working in South Africa at higher education institutions in collaborative projects to upgrade teaching and staff development. Austin, a prolific writer on support required by early career academics spent a year at University of Port Elizabeth using US models of academic teacher training.

3.4.7 The system in USA

The higher education system in the USA is the largest in the world and hundreds of state and public higher education institutions are governed by state accreditation legislation. Private higher education institutions are able to accredit higher education teachers in accordance with agreements within their higher education associations. Sorcinelli, (2000) gives examples of what is currently the system in some US

universities for offering teaching credentials to early career academics. She reports that innovative work being done in research universities is sponsored by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU) and the Council of Graduate Schools. Their "Preparing Future Faculty" (PFF) project has developed a number of model programs to better prepare graduate students interested in academic careers (Gaff, et al., 2000). More than 295 institutions are currently participating in the PFF project (De Neef, 2002).

Howard University awards a "Certificate in College and University Faculty Preparation" to those who satisfactorily compile a two-year, faculty-supervised preparatory program consisting of higher education topics and trends, a three-credit course on preparing for the professoriate, a week-long training in distance learning techniques, and periodic lectures and symposia on current and future issues impacting higher education and the professoriate.

At the University of Minnesota, four courses form the core of its Preparing Future Faculty program, including teaching in higher education, practicum for instructors in higher education, professional communication skills, and distance learning in higher education.

The New England Board of Higher Education's Doctoral Scholars Program coaches departments and faculty on how to build an environment of support for their non-majority graduate students. The program has developed a range of peer-support, community-building, mentoring, and professional-enrichment practices, which have proved especially helpful for its first-year Minority Scholars (Moody, 1997).

It is not clear how much the move towards teacher development in USA falls within the realm of self-regulatory professional development and how much it is purely managerialist in nature.

Figure 3.1 gives tabulated synopsis of the higher education teaching accreditation systems reviewed.

Figure 3.1 Higher education teaching accreditation systems

Mandatory	Voluntary with national infrastructure	Ad hoc with no national infrastructure
Norway		
	United Kingdom	
		Canada
		Australia
		South Africa
		The Netherlands
		USA

The key problem is that because most academics world-wide have no teaching training or knowledge of pedagogy, they are ignorant of teaching innovations and they remain stuck in old transmission modes of teaching students, despite very apparent changes in student profiles and preparation for university education. When students don't respond well, dropout or fail, academics then blame students who don't cope or the schooling systems which produced them. There is very little interrogation of which institutional factors, including inadequate teaching, might contribute to poor student performance. When academics acknowledge that they themselves need development of teaching competences, then support for their own professional development as teachers through staff development becomes a career management strategy which individuals and the institution engage in for ongoing organisational development and learning.

The need for support for early career academics has been acknowledged at national level in countries like Norway and the United Kingdom and at institutional level in many of the higher education systems reviewed and much of this support derives from the implementation of quality assurance movements world-wide. That support for development has been a feature of many higher education institutions for at least three decades although it has fallen into the organisation development and management approaches which were popular in the 1970s and 1980s. Professional development in higher education was provided under the banner of staff development and academic development as the ways in which less formal professionalisation of academic careers was encouraged. The next section deals with an overview of those more informal interventions and organisational career development strategies.

3.5 Staff development as organisational career management and support

Staff or academic development falls within organisational and career development theoretical frameworks as the approach generally used in universities and educational institutions for career development prior to the quality assurance approaches of more recent times. Career management is the term used to refer the organisational practices and policies which are deliberately designed to enhance individual careers and includes a huge range of organisational activities some of which are: designing training and development programmes; conducting performance evaluations; rewarding supervisors for employee development and providing counselling (Pazy, 1988).

The field of staff development as a movement which began as professional and educational development of academic staff has received increasing attention world wide over the past twenty-five years as universities and other higher education

institutions have had to meet the challenge of restricted mobility of academic staff, growing diversity in student populations and in the increasing number of students demanding access to Higher Education and good quality teaching (Lewis, 1997). As early as 1970, large universities in the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia and some European countries began to design staff development programmes ranging from very basic to increasingly complex; to form extensive networks of staff development practitioners in these countries where universities grapple with the widely varying levels of teaching expertise which academics display; and to conduct research into factors that help or hinder the most effective interchange of knowledge between university teachers and their students. The American Association for Higher Education (AAHE); the Professional and Organisational Development Network for Higher Education (POD); the Society for Research into Higher Education (SHRE); the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA); the International Consortium for Educational Development (ICED); the Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILTHE); and the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia Inc (HERDSA) are some of the most active staff development networks worldwide. There are about twenty international journals devoted exclusively to Higher Education.

As universities established staff development programmes, varying points of focus became evident in the types of development being offered by academic development units or centres and the roles in which development staff cast themselves. Boud and McDonald (1981) distinguish between four different types of centres:

- Professional service centres which provide specialist expertise for solving particular organisational and technical problems;
- Counselling centres where assistance can be provided for teachers and students in teaching and learning problems;
- Colleagual (sic) assistance in the solution of new problems where staff developers and teachers collaborate in innovative interventions

- An eclectic approach combining all of the three approaches. Zuber-Skerritt (1991) cites her action research/CRASP model as an example of such an eclectic professional development approach. The incorporation of critical attitude, reflective practise, accountability, self-evaluation and participative problem-solving in continuing cyclical interventions makes this a valuable method of staff and student development.

Webb (1996a) is very critical of the theories of staff development including those based on Critical Theory of Habermas and Action Research as expounded by Zuber-Skerrit and claims that there are no solid foundations on which staff development theory can stand. He suggests a post-modern stance where the post-positivist theories are especially critically regarded by researchers. "There should be no model for educational and staff development; we should be looking for edification (enlightenment, knowledge, learning) – which are always in process – rather than in closure upon a particular foundational position." (p 65).
I agree with Webb as far as his theoretical reasoning of the post-modern position of the staff developer and researcher is concerned, but I also know from experience that many faculty members do not subscribe to a post-modern view of the academy nor to staff development programmes without some known and comfortable theoretical structure. A post-modern approach is likely to result in little or ad hoc staff development and research in higher education in South Africa at present, because few faculties espouse post-modern research paradigms, whereas existing models and research based on older theories will result in some practical programmes for staff. If the research methodology is flawed, it can be critiqued as Webb has done but some research will be produced within the existing paradigms.

Teacher accreditation systems discussed in the previous section are a formal development resulting from relatively more informal, non-credit bearing qualifications and accreditation which were the norm prior to the quality assurance drives of the 1990s. Staff development programmes which range from short workshops of a few

days' duration to those lasting a week or more are known as 'one-shot' models, in very commonly usage although recent research has shown them to be relatively ineffective (Cannon and Hore, 1997, Isaacs and Parker, 1997). A few universities have formulated accredited certificates, diplomas and degrees at Masters' and Doctoral level for academic staff to become proficient in the theory and practice of teaching and learning. These include Utrecht University in the Netherlands, which began its programmes in 1992 (Keesen et al., 1996); the University of New South Wales which has offered an integrated programme of postgraduate study in higher education leading to three qualifications since 1991 (Nightingale, 1996). In the UK, an Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILTHE) was launched in April 1999 for the accreditation of award-bearing programmes on learning and teaching for higher education staff; collating and disseminating research findings on teaching and learning; and promoting the spread of good practice, within and across subject areas.

Vorbrecht (2002) has shown in his study on academic development in South Africa that the international tendency to identify academic development with staff development has not been emulated in South African higher education institutions, where it continues to be weakly conceptualised and developed. South African academic development emerged as a liberatory educational and social movement in the 1980s for staff and students. Academic development (often called educational development) has burgeoned as an international phenomenon, but with a focus on quality rather than on liberation. South African academic development identified itself with the liberation narrative in ways different from the international versions, which have a primary focus on quality. In its heyday South African academic development also sought to provide a totalising framework for institutional transformation in higher education that does not have a parallel in other countries. South African academic development for staff and students now seems to be struggling to construct its post-Apartheid identity. There are initial indications of a shift in keeping with international trends to professionalise university teaching in the

work of the South African Standards Generating Body (SGB) for educators in higher education and training.

In countries where staff development programmes are scarce or poorly resourced, as in South Africa, international collaborative projects are commonly found for getting staff development started. Such collaborative projects often use 'one-shot' models with some ongoing follow-up. There were two such programmmes in staff development carried out in South Africa: the Australia-South Africa Institutional LINKS Programme, "Collaborative staff development for quality teaching and learning in South African further and higher education," a two year collaborative project (March 1997 until March 1999) between the Free State University and other tertiary institutions associated with it and Curtin University in Perth, Western Australia for the express purpose of getting staff development programmes started and tailored specifically for South African institutions (Hudson and Weir, 1999). They describe the LINKS programme as aiming to enhance and maintain educational, professional and occupational competence and prepare higher education teachers for future challenges in education. Three of the key objectives of the project were to:

- Share ideas and best practice among the network members to improve quality in teaching and learning and also affirm diversity in curriculum and teaching practices in ways which were mutually beneficial to both countries.
- Maximise limited resources available for improving teaching and learning in network institutions.
- Share, adapt and develop academic staff development programmes, activities and materials to support the network.

Bitzer (1999) evaluated the "Collaborative staff development for quality teaching and learning in South African further and higher education" project at each of the participating institutions and found that not only did the project meet its aims and objectives, but improved teaching and learning in a number of ways. Students were

surveyed as well and new ways of facilitating learning were introduced at many of the institutions. All of the HDIs in the project were surveyed and reported that the project provided then with staff development for the first time and staff were greatly appreciative of the empowerment offered through the project. Many institutions made significant changes in their teaching and learning approaches.

The other LINKS project was undertaken by Eastern Cape Universities and Teacher Training colleges, Nursing Colleges and South Queensland University in Australia for Staff Development for distance education. The report of that project is not available.

Alongside the face-to face professional development initiatives nationally and internationally, staff development and professional teaching development support is now available in a distance teaching modes and in online and virtual classrooms as well. With the widespread use of the Internet as a teaching medium, many staff development programmes and teaching resources are available to academics. Two particularly good examples of online staff development sites are Penn State University's Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching (2003) and University of Oregon's Teaching Effectiveness Program (2003).

Penn State University's Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching (CELT) is dedicated to enhancing undergraduate education at Penn State by working collaboratively with those who are responsible for teaching, including lecturers, instructors, teaching assistants, departments, colleges, and campuses. Working in partnership with individual teachers as well as academic units, CELT provides programmes, services, and resources designed to increase understanding of the teaching and learning process, promote teaching as a scholarly activity, and encourage interdisciplinary conversations about teaching and learning among all members of the University community. Their Web site serves as a virtual Centre for Excellence where teachers can access resources, download publications, link to other services, interact with others, or find out more about CELT programs.

The University of Oregon's Teaching Effectiveness Program (2003) provides a wide range and variety of valuable resources for instructors. Among the materials included are general classroom resources, information focusing on diversity, articles about featured University of Oregon teachers, library listings, and web links.

The first online Training and Staff Development Programme was launched by the Cape Technikon in October 1998 for ongoing staff development of its own staff and staff at other institutions who cannot afford a staff development unit or specialists (Parsons, 1998). There has not been much further development of online staff development sites for general or teaching development of higher education staff in South Africa although there has been considerable development of online teaching for students. The University of Pretoria has an exceptionally well resourced telematics centre which does cater for some staff development and support for staff wishing to become involved in online teaching.

Comprehensive online support for teaching and learning is provided by an exceptional web resource centre in the UK called the Learning and Teaching Support Network (2003) for academics who need additional support for teaching or where their institutions do not provide support. The LTSN is a major network of 24 subject centres based in higher education institutions throughout the UK and a single Generic Centre. It aims to promote high quality learning and teaching through the development and transfer of good practices in all subject disciplines, and to provide a 'one-stop shop' of learning and teaching resources and information for the higher education community. Material support is available on the website.

Many universities in South Africa have centres which are responsible for the development of academic staff. Staff development practitioners in these centres are generally affiliated to two large organisations: The South African Association for Academic Development (SAAAD) and the South African Association for Research and Development in Higher Education (SAARDHE) which has published the South

African Journal of Higher Education since 1987. Academic Development, another South African journal was published by SAAAD from 1995 but it has been defunct since 1998 when SAAAD was declared bankrupt and was disbanded. There are two national conferences in this field held biennially in South Africa. The Centre for Learning, Teaching and Development (previously ADC) at Wits uses the eclectic approach although the voluntary involvement of staff at the University of the Witwatersrand and the emphasis on teaching and instructional skills tends to narrow the range of services provided.

My critique of staff development in higher education institutions in South Africa at present is based on two concerns. Firstly, the prevalence of the one-shot model shows a disregard for the lack of efficacy of the model. This seems to imply that staff development practitioners deliver their one-shot programmes and do no research into how effective the programmes are. Johnston (1996) points out that voluntary participation in professional development activities related to teaching is poor under such a model of staff development because academics do not perceive sufficient encouragement from senior colleagues to make time for this aspect of professional development – everything else was more important. Early career academics are pressurised to pay attention to their professional development within their discipline through the showcasing of their research. Teaching commitments are juggled to make time for those activities but far less frequently for professional teaching development activities. If teaching development activities are offered at times which academics make available for their professional development, the criteria they apply to their selection are based on their interest and on immediate applicability. Given that academic work has changed and new demands continually increase the workload, Menzies and Newsom (2001) say that academics are over-extended and run off their feet. The sporadic approach to implementing staff development in a professional and holistic way is too haphazard and unpredictable to ensure that academics have a common knowledge of the basic competencies of professional teaching. Staff development, where needs are individually and incrementally assessed, should be

factored into academic work so that staff development is ongoing, systematic and integrated into the work life of academics especially that of early career academics.

Secondly, where staff development programmes exist and this is by no means in the majority of higher education institutions, the programmes are not integrated holistically into the whole range of initial and continuing professional development activities which constitute professional development for early career academics and other academics.

I also agree with Vorbrecht (2002) that in order for transformation to occur in the higher education system and that if South African academic development is to rejoin international staff development movements several things would need to happen. These would include the formation of a vibrant and dynamic staff and educational/ academic development association in South Africa; the professionalising of university teaching and academic development work through collaboration between such an association and various stakeholders including the HEQC; clearer definition at the national policy level on the relationship between student, staff, curriculum and organisational development in academic development work; the development of appropriate funding mechanisms and staffing policies related to all aspects of academic development, especially staff development.

3.6 Conclusion

The question which arises from this overview of staff development and accreditation concerns the context in which professional development and the accreditation of teaching takes place: is the context one of supportive professional development or is it a further encroachment of the managerialism which is has been increasingly evident in higher education institutions world-wide for almost a decade? South African higher education institutions are fast following international trends in the professionalisation

of teachers in the academic arena and in trends towards increasing managerialism in administrative arena. The trends towards the professionalisation of teachers is not altogether welcomed by research-focused academics, selection and promotion committees and other administrative bodies in the university such as the Research Office but it is welcomed by those who are concerned about the quality of instruction which students receive and those academics who champion the teaching and learning focus of academic work.

Many academics acknowledge that more efficient administrative procedures and highly skilled administrators are desirable, they are nevertheless concerned about the pervasive discourses of the market and corporate management which have been appropriated by academia almost without any debate or questioning. The changing nature of academic work and its profound effects on academics in the workplace means that newcomers enter the system needing more support and nurturing than academics of previous generations. They also need more support to cope with the innovative teaching techniques and online in ways that were unknown in higher education a decade ago. Professional development including formal mentoring of early career academics can provide the necessary support during the early years in a most demanding workplace.

South African higher education institutions are fast following international trends in the professionalisation of teachers and in trends towards increasing managerialism in the administrative and in the academic arenas. The trends towards the professionalisation of higher education teachers is not altogether welcomed by research-focused academics, selection and promotion committees and other administrative bodies in the university such as Research Offices. However, it is welcomed by those who are concerned about the quality of instruction which students receive and those academics who champion the teaching and learning focus of academic work. Many academics acknowledge that better administrative procedures and more highly skilled administrators are desirable, they are nevertheless concerned about the encroachment of managerialism. The changes in higher education require

academics to do more teaching and research, cope with larger student numbers and diminishing funding as well.

Support for newcomers to the higher education work environment is necessary for coping with changes which impact on the relationships between staff, and those between staff and students; the definition of academic work and the role and function of higher education in the changing legislative and social contexts. In South Africa these may be more pressing than in other counties and there may be a greater need to support early career academics through staff development programmes, teaching accreditation qualifications and mentoring given the transformation processes taking place in the country. Given the pressure on established academics to do more work with fewer resources, the professional development needs of early career academics may not feature as a priority unless institutional attention is paid to them.

Many local and international resources are available for professional development and accreditation of teaching in higher education but optimal use of them will depend on the ways in which institutions make them available. The argument in this study is that mentoring of early career academics is an efficient and effective way of developing young professionals in higher education as well as assisting in their accreditation as teachers and reflective practitioners. A discussion follows of the theoretical framework of mentorship and the range of mentoring strategies in higher education which can be used in the career and professional development of early career academics.

Chapter Four

The academic seedbed

4.1 Introduction

The changes in higher education systems in many countries have lead to more complex and demanding work for academics. Quality assurance drives and accreditation of teaching have implicitly confirmed that the changes in the workplace need to be addressed by formal mechanisms and that early career academics in particular should not be left to steer their way through the early years unassisted. In South Africa researchers like Fransman (2001) have advocated for the professionalisation of academics and stressed that the nature of work in South African higher education institutions, because of the legacy of Apartheid, makes it imperative for black early career academics to attain such professional accreditation. It is very much on the agenda of the Ministry of Education and the Council on Higher Education (CHE) that the transformation of higher education be achieved as rapidly as possible but without alienation members of any racial group (Badat, 2003). Mott (2002) makes the case that mentoring may be especially important for first-generation university students, first-generation professionals, those entering careers dominated by persons of a different gender or race, and working-class individuals pursuing higher education career advancement. As large numbers of black early career academics fall into all of these categories, it would be in the interests of higher education in South Africa to facilitate their development through mentoring. The CHE policy documents give a clear indication that it expects higher education institutions to be responsive to the needs of black early career academics. As the quality assurance subsidiary body of the CHE, the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) stresses that it is in the national and institutional interest of individual higher education institutions to make staff development priority in strategic focus. This builds on the

legislation and other definitive policy documents for higher education which have appeared since 1995. The HEQC in its policy documents published in 2001, recognises that holistic and comprehensive career development provision in higher education institutions is vital for the transformation of higher education in South Africa. (HEQC, 2002; HEQC, 2003). Within its policy documents, the HEQC highlights mentoring as a critical focus area for early career academics. According to the HEQC staff development evaluation guidelines, mentoring ideally should form part of an entry-level support which includes an internship during the probationary period. Higher education institutions benefit from mentoring, as do other organisations utilising the strategy, by gaining individuals who experience optimal professional socialisation at their initial entry into the organisation. Fransman (2001) urges South African higher education institutions and academics to follow the lead of institutions in UK which support the professional development of academics. Some higher education institutions in South Africa have begun to formulate comprehensive staff development policies and some have begun to implement formal mentoring as part of the professional and career development management of early career academics on those institutions. Some of these initiatives, like those at the University of the Witwatersrand, pre-dated the founding of the CHE and HEQC but many other institutions in South Africa have begun to do so, spurred by the policy environment. Thomas, (1999) in her definition of transformation for Wits, says that it is a process of negotiated organisational change that breaks decisively with past discriminatory practices in order to create an environment where the full potential of everyone is realised and where diversity – both social and intellectual is respected and valued and where it is central to the achievements of the goals of the University. It is within this framework of transformation that the professional development and mentoring of academics is situated.

In the light of the need for the professional development and mentoring of academics, this chapter gives a critical overview of the literature on mentoring in the last two decades with a specific focus on mentoring in higher education. Theoretical models of mentoring in higher education are reviewed and critique is offered. Models of good practice in higher education are linked to theory and discussed together with the uptake of

such practices in the sector and why they might be important at this juncture in South Africa. The gradual increase of interest in developing early career academics through mentoring is reviewed and the issues which arise when mentoring is encouraged and what happens when it isn't. The benefits and disadvantages of formal and informal programmes are discussed. The advantages of systematic mentoring as a career and professional development strategy is argued because without it early career academics often find it too hard to cope with the complexity of academic work and the rapidly changing workplace. Issues of cross-gender and cross-cultural mentoring in higher education are also discussed.

This study shows the effects for early career academics of mentoring and also contrasts the effects on early career academics who do not receive mentoring. In higher education in the South African context, I argue that professional socialisation and development provided by mentoring is essential in early career development and that the transformative aspect cannot be excluded or ignored because of the massive thrust in higher education towards changing the demographics of the higher education workplace in the post-Apartheid era. Especially in HAUs, the majority of academics are white and the pace of employing black academics to reflect the demographics of the general population has been slow (Cooper and Subotsky, 2001).

4.2 Current concepts of mentoring and definitions from different contexts

Although mentoring is an ancient concept derived from Greek mythology, it has received increasing attention as a result of more accessible management development strategies and interventions in the business and corporate world and increasingly in the fields of education at all levels and in the field of psychology. The current understanding of the concept of mentoring embodies both managerialist understanding of mentoring for the benefit of the organisation and the personal and professional development understanding of it. There seems to be little consensus about the conceptualisation of mentoring and

consequently the definitions of mentoring are widely diverse and characteristic of the literature (Clutterbuck, 2001; Jacobi, 1991; Merriam, 1983). There is little differentiation in the literature before the 1990s between formal and informal mentoring and most reports deal with informal mentoring. This section deals firstly with definitions from the managerial and organisational behaviour literature, then with those from psychology and finally with those from the domain of education. More emphasis is placed on those definitions from education because they are more relevant to the mentoring practices examined in the context of this study.

4.2.1 Management and workplace definitions of mentoring

Definitions from management and organisational behaviour have had a significant influence on the ways in which mentoring has been formulated in other fields like psychology and education although there has been reciprocal influence across many fields of knowledge.

The field of management and organisational behaviour offers many definitions of mentoring. An early definition comes from Phillips-Jones (1982) who says that mentors are influential people who significantly help protégés reach their life goals and they have the power – through what or who they know- to promote the welfare, training or career of their protégés. She places emphasis on the position-power and influence of the mentor as the important feature of the relationship. Zey (1984) in his influential book defines a mentor as a person who oversees the career and development of another person, usually a junior, through teaching, counselling, providing psychological support, protecting and at times promoting or sponsoring. Zey's comparison of mentored versus unmentored groups shows that those who have been mentored have a better sense of career objectives, more knowledge of the organization, and higher job satisfaction. Murray (1991), on the other hand, emphasises mentoring as a process of individual and organisational change. She defines facilitated mentoring as the structure and series of processes designed to create effective mentor relationships, guide the desired behaviour change of those involved, and

evaluate the results for the protégés, the mentors and the organisation. The primary purpose is the systematic developing of skills and leadership abilities of the less-experienced members of an organisation. Bell (1996) in the popular idiom of an implementation guide does not point to any specific purpose in mentoring but says that mentoring is a process in which the mentor manages the relationship through which protégés learn. In managerial contexts, Cotton and Ragins (1999) state that mentors are individuals with advanced knowledge and experience who are committed to supporting the upward mobility of their protégés careers.

Workplace and management definitions have wide acceptance in everyday parlance so that many higher education mentors have an implicit understanding that mentoring is mainly to do with career development; many of the management definitions tend to emphasise this aspect of mentoring rather than the nurturing and role model aspects.

4.2.2 Developmental definitions of mentoring

Definitions from the field of developmental psychology are wide ranging and appear to have developed alongside those in the field of management and organisational behaviour. A seminal definition comes from the work of Levinson, Darrow, Klein and Levinson (1978) who defines mentoring in his study of a small sample of white American men as one of the most complex and developmentally important relationships a man can have in early adulthood. The mentor's primary function is to be a transitional figure in a man's development. Decades later, Hay (1995) sees mentoring as more profound than transitional in an individual's development into adulthood; she sees it as a transformation process in which developmental alliances are forged between mentors and protégés. She defines these alliances as a relationship between equals in which one or more of those involved is unable to increase awareness, identify alternatives and initiate action to develop themselves. Many definitions from management and psychology have found their way into education and definitions in education have evolved to emphasise the role of teaching as an important aspect of mentoring. For mentoring in higher education such

definitions are relevant because the psychological aspects of mentoring forms an important aspect in mentoring in academic contexts and especially in those academic settings where there is an overt transformation agenda, as is the situation in South Africa.

4.2.3 Higher Education definitions of mentoring

Anderson and Shannon (1988) offer an early definition of mentoring in higher education in which they say that mentoring is a nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and / or personal development. Mentoring functions are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and the protégé.

My critique of Anderson and Shannon is that their definition of mentoring in higher education is laudable but idealistic; few academics experience real nurturing in their early careers. Almost a decade later, Luna and Cullen (1995) maintain that (managerialist) quality improvement should also result in empowerment for academics. They say that not only does mentoring develop the profession but by *not* mentoring higher education institutions are wasting talent; academics are educated, and trained, but are not nurtured. Early career academics at Wits and other South African higher education institutions have experienced a lack of nurturing (Geber, 1999a; Potgieter, 2002). Fewer than half of academics on probation in 1999, which covers the first three years of their appointment at Wits before confirmation as a permanent member of staff, reported having an informal mentor. With the exception of 4% of early career academics, namely those in the Law Faculty, none of those surveyed in 1999 had a formal mentor (Geber, 1999a). There is evidence of a lack of nurturing of young talent at higher education institutions like Wits and generally in South Africa.

Some definitions from the field of higher education show that there is an increasing emphasis on mentoring as one aspect of the professionalisation of the academic careers in

higher education (Blackwell and McLean, 1996a; Jacobi, 1991; Merriam, 1983). According to Moore and Amey (1988) mentoring is a form of professional socialisation whereby amore experienced (usually older) individual acts as a guide, role model, teacher and patron of a less experienced (usually younger) protégé. The aim of the relationship is the further development and refinement of the protégé's skills, abilities and understanding.

Higher education institutions concerned with the ongoing work of staff development have begun to define mentoring in more specific ways. A typical definition can be found in the University of Wisconsin (1998), specifically formulated in the staff development domain. Academic staff mentoring is defined as a process of promoting professional and personal development among all academic staff by connecting them with others who can advise, coach, and guide them, as well as help them understand the context in which they are operating. The emphasis on understanding the *context* of academic work is more evident in later definitions and is important for the purposes of transformation in higher education and for early career academics in South Africa.

The definitions selected are not exhaustive but indicate a gradual change of the conceptualisation of informal and formal mentoring from an emphasis on the personal development of individuals to a much greater emphasis on the professional socialisation and development of academics. There is little reflection in the higher education literature on the transformative view of mentoring which is designed to bring about change in organisations and workplaces rather than at an individual level only. The professional socialisation and development provided by mentoring is essential in early career development. The transformative nature of career mentoring cannot be ignored in higher education where changing the racial demographics of the higher education workplace is politically and socially important in the many contexts (Davidson and Foster-Johnson, 2001) and in the South African context of demographic changes to academic staff complements.

All the definitions considered in the overview imply a set of functions and roles performed by mentors. Mentor functions are those actions and activities assigned to or required or expected of a mentor. A mentoring role is a set of behavioral expectations appropriate to an individual's mentoring position. Very often the terms role and function are used synonymously in the literature where the mentoring function is broken down into a number of discrete roles, many of which are performed simultaneously. The following section looks more closely at those aspects of mentoring functions and roles found in the literature.

4.2.4 Basic and most common aspects

Despite the wide range of functions in mentoring and great diversity in the kinds of relationships which exist, Jacobi (1991) suggests that there are several common characteristics:

- Mentoring relationships are helping relationships usually focused on achievement. The primary dynamic of the mentoring relationship is the assistance provided to the protégé by the mentor. Support, in whatever form it takes, is intended to help the protégé succeed in the work-place or in academic contexts. A traditional line manager or teacher helps the subordinate or student perform specific tasks properly, whereas the mentor typically helps the protégé in the achievement of broader and longer-term goals. The mentor does not necessarily have the formal status or authority of the line manager or teacher.
- Mentoring includes any or all of three broad components: direct assistance with career and professional development; psychological and emotional support; and role modeling. The actual mix of functions provided to the protégé by mentors does vary considerably depending on the context in which the mentoring takes place.
- Mentoring relationships are reciprocal relationships. Benefits derived by both mentors and mentees can be tangible in nature or they can be emotional and do not include remuneration for service.

- Mentoring relationships are personal relationships requiring direct interaction between the parties. The relationships need not necessarily be long-term or result in friendship, but they do involve an exchange of information about the unwritten aspects of the workplace which cannot be obtained from public documents.
- Mentors usually have greater experience, influence and achievement within a particular workplace or environment than their protégé.

In addition to Jacobi's analysis of common factors in mentoring, it would appear that mentors serve as an agent of professional or organisational socialisation for mentees especially where organisations do not induct, orientate or socialise newcomers in a systematic way. This is an aspect implicit in all definitions but it is not often articulated in the early definitions although it is more common in recent definitions.

In the following sections there is a discussion of mentor functions, formal and informal types of mentoring and the phases of mentoring relationships. The models into which these aspects are integrated are described afterwards with a particular emphasis on those models commonly found in higher education.

4.3 Mentor Functions

The literature concerning the functions of mentors is extensive and covers formal, organisationally driven mentoring relationships and more informal, sometimes more intensely personal and developmental mentoring relationships. Mentors are individuals with advanced knowledge and experience who are committed to supporting the upward mobility of their protégés careers. Katherine Kram published her seminal work in mentor role theory in 1985. She theorises that mentors function in two types of support areas in their mentoring behaviour: they provide career development support which functions to advance the protégés progress in the organisation; and they provide psychosocial support which functions to assist the protégés in their personal growth and professional development (Kram, 1988). In Kram's theory, mentors' *career development functions*

which focus on the organisation and the protégé's career include five specific functions: sponsoring promotions and lateral moves (sponsorship); coaching the protégé (coaching); protecting the protégé from adverse forces (protection); providing challenging assignments (challenging assignments); and increasing the protégé's exposure and visibility (exposure). These depend on the mentor's power and position in the organisation. The psychological and social functions or psychosocial *functions* of mentors theorised by Kram (1988) concern aspects of the quality of the interpersonal dynamics and the affective or emotional dimensions of the relationship. Four psychosocial functions which mentor's may provide according to Kram's theory are: helping the protégé develop a sense of professional self (acceptance and confirmation); providing problem-solving and a sounding board (counselling); giving respect and support (friendship); and providing identification and role modeling (role modelling).

Alleman (1986) identifies nine different mentor functions in a general organisational context which reflect a greater emphasis on the function of giving different kinds of information: Giving information; providing political information; setting challenging assignments; counselling; helping with career moves; developing trust; show-casing the protégé's achievements; protecting; and developing personal relationship / friendship. The emphasis on giving political information is important in higher education in South Africa where the mentor's knowledge of power relations and covert discrimination can help to prevent damage to early careers (Hansman, 2002; Thomas, 2001).

A conceptualisation of mentoring functions in higher education devised by Anderson and Shannon (1988) has five mentoring functions: teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counselling and befriending. The concepts which Anderson and Shannon list as mentoring functions conflate some of those proposed by Kram (1988) and add the functions of teaching and encouraging. They view these five functions as conjunctive in that the mentor should be ready to demonstrate any or all of these functions as the need arises. They justify this position by claiming that the five functions have been associated historically with people acknowledged as mentors and secondly because it enables others

outside the mentoring relationship to discriminate between those who are, and those who are not mentored and thereby assigning more clarity and potency to the role.

Table 4.1 Mentor functions described by theorists in 1980s

Career Development Functions			
Kram (1988)	***Alleman (1986)***	***Anderson and Shannon (1988)***	***Moore and Amey (1988)***
Sponsorship	Giving information	Sponsoring	Patron
Coaching	Providing political information	Teaching	Teacher
Protection	Protecting		
Challenging assignments	Setting challenging assignments		
Exposure	Helping with career moves		
	Show casing the protégé's achievements		
Psychosocial functions			
Kram	***Alleman***	***Anderson and Shannon***	***Moore and Amey***
Acceptance and confirmation	Developing trust	Encouraging	Guide
Counselling	Counselling	Counselling	Role model
Friendship	Developing personal relationship / friendship.	Befriending	
Role modelling	Nurturing		

Cohen (1999) moves away from naming specific mentor functions and has reframed mentoring as a concept with six dimensional roles for the mentor, particularly in the context of education: the relationship dimension (dealing with the mentor / mentee relationship); expanding the informational dimension (providing necessary information); exploring the facilitative dimension (providing assistance with teaching); engaging in constructive confrontation (providing feedback); sharing yourself as a role model and the employee vision dimension concerning future career planning. This is a departure from the very structured approach of theorists in the 1980s as shown in Table 3.1 where career

development and psychosocial functions are described separately although they are often performed together. Cohen links his six dimensional framework developmentally with specific phases in the mentoring process, early, middle and later phases, and the functions appropriate to each stage.

Blackwell and McLean, (1996b) argue that the widespread application of mentoring in education means that a whole gamut of roles can be ascribed to mentors: trusted friend, guide, counsellor, information provider, door opener, role model and advocate have all been used in higher education. As more scholars examine mentoring in higher education, more specific names are given to the roles, although many of them are implicit in earlier function names. A more specific discussion of the roles present in higher education mentoring appears later in the overview of mentoring models found in higher education.

There are some later additions to the list of mentor functions but many of these are not necessarily categorised into career development or psychosocial functions. In summarising the theories reviewed and the research findings, mentoring may provide any, or all, of 15 diverse functions. These are usually grouped by researchers and theorists into three component functions of mentoring relationships: firstly, direct assistance with career and professional development; secondly, psychological and emotional support; and lastly, role modeling.

Mott (2002) maintains that both career development and psychosocial forms of mentoring provide valuable access to power structures and an understanding of culture in the settings or circumstances of importance to the protégés in the relationships (Ragins, 1997; Ragins and Scandura, 1994). The aim of the relationship is the further development and refinement of the protégé's skills, abilities and understanding (Moore and Amey, 1988) and career development and psychosocial mentor functions are necessary in the refinement and development of mentees in higher education and other work environments.

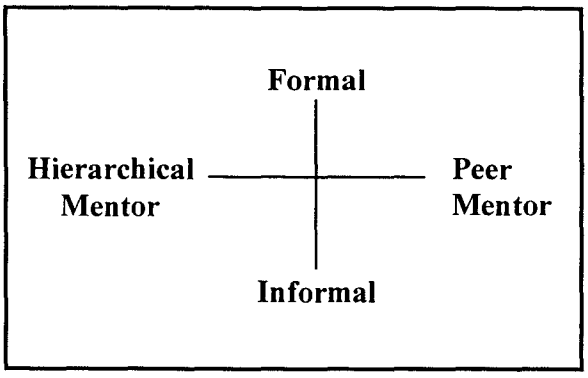
4.3.1 Formal and informal mentoring relationships

The early mentoring literature (for example Levinson, 1978; Zey, 1984; Kram, 1988; Alleman, 1986) is characterised by retrospective accounts of informal, voluntary mentoring but because informal mentoring arises spontaneously, it is often difficult to study except in retrospect. Organisations wishing to gain the benefits of mentoring have established formal mentoring programmes in an effort to replicate these benefits more systematically. Apart from the different ways in which formal and informal mentoring relationships are initiated, the length of informal relationships appears to be longer than formal ones (Douglas, 1997). Many researchers in the US (for example Cotton and Ragins, 1999) have found that informal mentoring is more effective for participants than for those involved in formal mentoring programmes although Clutterbuck (2001) maintains that the opposite is true in the UK. In formal schemes, the key factors in balancing the mentors various roles depends on the scheme's objectives which usually combine induction and development and involve some negotiation between the participants about appropriate mentor roles. In informal schemes, explicit objectives may be absent, although the individual and workplace ethos may influence the defining of roles (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1995).

Mentors may not necessarily provide all of these functions but a combination of some or most of functions. Nevertheless, it is apparent that the mentoring functions discussed earlier appear in both informal and formal mentoring relationships and the emphasis on career development or psychosocial functions depends on the situation in which the mentoring takes place and on the personalities of the partners; there is often greater emphasis on career development in formal relationships than in informal ones where the emphasis may be more focused on personal development (Ellinger, 2002).

Blackwell and McLean, (1996a) offer a diagram which depicts a continuum for formality and informality in mentoring schemes which intersects with organisational rank of the mentor.

Table 4.2 Formal hierarchical mentoring schemes



Source: Blackwell and McLean (1996a)

They give examples of mentoring in higher education in Britain which are located in each of the quadrants although formal peer mentoring is the least favoured model at present. There are many informal hierarchical and peer mentoring examples and those appear to be the most favoured in higher education in Britain. Formal hierarchical models occur where there are formal mentoring programmes in place and the merits of these are acknowledged by mentees participating in them although at the time of the study they were fewer in number than informal relationships.

From my review of mentoring at higher education institutions in South Africa, a similar pattern appears to occur. However, with explicit transformation and capacity building agendas at national and institutional level, the pattern is likely to change in the near future to show more frequent formal mentoring. Large research funding organisations like the National Research Foundation (NRF) have instituted formal mentoring as a condition of awarding grants to early career academics in the NRF Thuthuka Programmes where novice academic researchers who have teaching responsibilities are awarded grant funding (NRF, 2003).

Both formal and informal types of mentoring are processes which develop through a number of phases or stages. The phases of the process are reviewed in the next section.

4.3.2 Mentoring phases

The mentoring process usually involves four sequential phases of variable duration. In the US model described by Kram (1988) the four phases are: the starting phase where mutual trust and respect evolve; the middle period of setting personal and career goals and mentor-assisted mentee advancement; the phase of dissolving the relationship; and a final phase of restarting the relationship by coming to terms with a different status. In the later British model the phases are: establishing rapport (initiation); direction setting (getting established); progress making (development); and moving on (finalising/ maintenance) (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1995, pp30-36).

Pascarelli (1998) describes a four-phase model for higher education: the initiation phase in which the mentor helps the protégé make meaning of experiences; the cultivation phase in which the mentor intentionally builds on the strengths of protégés; the transformation phase which is marked by risk-taking and the translation of protégé intentions into action; and separation phase during which the empowered protégé moves on beyond the mentor's ambit. Cohen (1999) working specifically in adult education in higher education describes a four-phase model with early; middle; later; and last phases which are closely linked to his six mentor dimensions. The relationship dimension occurs in the early phase; the informational dimension occurs in the middle phase; the facilitative and confrontational dimensions in the later phase and the mentor model and employee vision dimensions in the last phase.

Although the duration of mentoring relationships varies considerably from six months to three years in some formal schemes, in most cases it is assumed that the mentor relationship will end, and formal schemes commonly have rules covering confidentiality and privacy of information. There is sometimes a rule for 'no fault' endings where relationships can be terminated before the end of the programme and pairs are able to exit the programme without attributing blame to each other for failure to complete the programme (Clutterbuck, 2001). One issue that arises is how proactive the mentor

should be in phases one and two of the relationship. Both Pascarelli (1998) and Cohen (1999) caution against the inappropriate use of feedback in a confrontative way too early on in relationships in higher education.

Following this overview of mentoring functions, types of formal and informal relationships and mentoring phases, the theoretical models of mentoring most commonly found in higher education are examined and discussed.

4.3.3 Theoretical models of Mentoring in higher education

Hay (1995) describes six existing mentoring models most usually found in organisations world-wide. They are the traditional older/younger model; the expert/novice model; the temporary deficit model; those that are part of the training and development model; the friendship or comradeship model and ad hoc models. Although Hay sees them as discrete models, I have grouped them into two larger categories based on their commonalities: the *traditional hierarchical* model with three common variations; and the *developmental learning* model.

The *traditional hierarchical* mentoring model is found in hierarchical organisations, and is fairly formalised with established sets of procedures and selection criteria for mentees. This is the oldest model and almost all mentoring described by early theorists like Zey, Kram and Alleman use this model. The mentoring is a one-to-one relationship between an older mentor and a younger protégé. The model requires mentors to have a good knowledge of the organisation and to advise protégés about what is expected by the organisation. Hay (1995) offers a critique of the traditional mentoring model by listing a number of drawbacks for mentees. Downsizing of organisations, outsourcing of peripheral activities and the reduction of staff has meant that there are fewer managers to act as mentors. Changes in the structuring of organisations means that there are fewer opportunities for promotion at high levels in the hierarchy, so that mentoring as grooming

for higher level positions in the *traditional hierarchical* mentoring model may be becoming obsolete as the careers paths which senior managers follow at present may no longer exist by the time the protégé is ready to be promoted.

- A variation of the *traditional hierarchical* model is the *expert/novice* model usually found in master/apprentice relationships where the expert passes on the skills and values of profession or trade. Graduates serving articles in law or accounting practices would fall into the type of mentoring model, as would junior academics and teachers in all educational contexts. More detail about this mentoring model is given in a later section on mentoring models for the development of early career academics in higher education.

- The *temporary deficit* model is also a variation of the *traditional hierarchical* model and is used where mentees require only short-term support and may be required to 'shadow' a more experienced colleague or manager until they have acquired enough knowledge and experience for the position. This may happen when there are too few new appointments annually to justify a fully staffed mentoring or training programme. The disadvantages of this model are that the longer term mentoring focus on future development mentees may be restricted to the immediate requirements of the new job and thus the focus may fall more on on-the-job coaching which is a small part of mentoring.

The *developmental learning* model is a later model of mentoring which includes a broadly *developmental* model in which mentee learning is central. *Developmental learning* models are frequently found in educational contexts where beginning teachers and novice academics are trained in their early years in the profession to become professional teachers.

- There is a much narrower variation that Hay (1995) terms the *training and development* model which usually uses trainers or tutors as mentors whose functions may be restricted to coaching and helping the mentee to apply course

content in the workplace. Managers who send subordinates on courses may also fulfil this mentoring function.

- The *friendship or comradeship* model may be seen as part of the training and development model where corporate training departments set up support networks where former course participants can help each other, follow through on developmental goals as "buddies". Support from colleagues is the distinguishing factor and supplants the role of the professional developer.

Developmental learning models may exist side by side with *traditional hierarchical* models in educational contexts because the mentors are often older and more expert teachers than younger protégés in the school or university environment.

Ad hoc models are usually initiated by mentees in an informal way where mentees may realise that they have been mentored long after the relationship with an influential individual is over (Hay, 1995). The literature usually refers to this type of mentoring as informal mentoring which may have both *traditional hierarchical* and *developmental* aspects to it.

Variation across *traditional hierarchical* and *developmental* types of mentoring is not always obvious. Megginson and Clutterbuck (1995) refer to *traditional hierarchical* models of mentoring as *sponsorship* mentoring and claim that there tends to be more emphasis on psychosocial support and career sponsorship in the USA, although these are sometimes not thought legitimate in Britain where increasingly the emphasis is upon *development* and *learning*. In higher education in USA and UK a *developmental learning* model is usually the norm incorporating some of the *expert/novice* and *traditional hierarchical* aspects of mentoring. More discussion of mentoring in higher education appears in a later section of this chapter.

4.3.4 Transformational Mentoring

Hay (1995) sees mentoring as a *transformation* process in which developmental alliances are forged between mentors and protégés. She defines these alliances as "a relationship between equals in which one or more of those involved is unable to increase awareness, identify alternative and initiate action to develop themselves."

Hay's developmental alliances for transformational mentoring is different from the models mentioned before because it is assumes that knowledge resides with the mentees and the function of the mentor is to articulate their preference and help them to make appropriate development plans. Traditional mentoring is designed mainly with organisational self-interest uppermost and the mentor grooms the mentee primarily to suit organisational needs.

In the higher education context Lyons, Scroggins, and Rule (1990) found that mentors play a transformative role for mentees, not only by transmitting formal academic knowledge and providing socialization experiences into their chosen discipline, but also by supplying encouragement and support that bolstered the students' confidence, professional identity, and efficacy, giving them a vision of the identity they might one day achieve. Mentors may provide a special advantage to individuals entering cultures other than their own (Mott, 2002).

In the South African context, transformation mentoring may be the model most appropriate for the overt transformation agenda articulated by the Ministry of Education and the Council on Higher Education (CHE). This model will be explored further in the findings of the present study.

4.4 Implementation of Mentoring models

In her review of mentoring over a twenty-year period, Murray (1991) identified a *generic implementation process* operating in the United States. The *generic implementation*

process for a formal, facilitated or structured mentoring programme includes the following components in the sequence in which they occur:

1. Protégé identified
2. Developmental diagnosis
3. Mentor candidates recruited
4. Mentor candidates selected
5. Mentor selected
6. Mentor orientation
7. Protégé orientation
8. Agreement negotiated
9. Developmental plan executed
10. Periodic meetings
11. Reports to co-ordinator
12. Agreement concludes
13. Programme evaluation

The implementation of mentoring programmes based on the *traditional hierarchical* and *developmental* models reviewed previously has to be carried out in a systematic way and the process outlined by Murray (1991) is typical of formal schemes and programmes found in many contexts throughout the world including higher education. Mentors and mentees in organisations are identified, selected and trained. They are then responsible for getting on with their relationship according to the programme goals and the individual needs, providing reports on their progress until the end of the programme when the process is evaluated.

While programme and relationship evaluation is necessary at the end of the mentoring process, my critique of the *generic implementation process* outlined by Murray (1991) centres on the lack of ongoing monitoring of the process and the weak role of the co-ordinator which appears to be an administrative, clerical role. Such an administrator does not exploit the potential of the facilitating role which the co-ordinator could play. Weak monitoring of the process which lasts for a one or two-year period or more, can mean that mentoring pairs which encounter difficulties in their relationship may struggle on ineffectually without seeking help until it is too late (Geber, 2003b). Boice (1992) insists that planned quarterly meetings with the mentoring co-ordinator are optimal to a structured programme. Geber (2003a) notes that co-ordinating a mentoring project is an extremely relationship-intensive position and is very demanding in terms of time,

especially during the establishment phase of the programme and the initial meetings of the new pairings in the programme. The co-ordinator monitors the programme by providing ongoing support, trouble-shooting and resolving problems and disputes. It is important to get feedback on the programme from both mentors and mentees. Once the programme has been running for a while, it is advisable to assess the progress of pairs, and it may be necessary to revisit expectations, reaffirm confidentiality and monitor the recording of meetings. Programme evaluation at the end of the process should include the findings of the ongoing monitoring.

Mikhelson (1997) reported on a large research mentoring project at the University of Tasmania, where research output of young or newly appointed academic staff was significantly improved through a facilitated and structured mentoring programme in which she played a major role as the co-ordinator. Both mentors and mentees reported that her ongoing monitoring of their progress helped to keep them on track, and resulted in more research articles and shorter throughput times for those engaged in higher degree studies.

Heyl (1999) formulated a variation of Murray's facilitated *generic implementation process* for mentoring women in medical school which places a strong emphasis on the role of the co-ordinator who meets mentoring pairs on a monthly basis, assists them and monitors them on a regular basis. She claims that the consistent presence and interaction of the co-ordinator with the pairs resulted in fewer dropouts and a more timeous intervention in problematic situations.

4.4.1 New developments beyond the traditional hierarchical and developmental models

Blackwell and McLean, (1996a) in their analysis of mentoring of academic staff state that underlying much of the literature on mentors is an implicit, hierarchical model of learning in which the mentor develops the mentee. In the *traditional hierarchical* model, the

relationship is thought to go through a period of dependence by the mentee on the mentor developing in time into interdependence and subsequently into independence when the relationship is likely to end. The *traditional hierarchical* model is clearly in existence in many higher education institutions, although it is not the only one. Mentoring participants in higher education in Britain have commented on the patronising overtones of the term 'protégé' in the *traditional hierarchical* model. Blackwell and McLean, (1996b) have argued that there is an alternative conception of mentorship based on peer interaction and collaborative learning. Such mentorships are characterised by a more collaborative approach towards learning and the formation of a peer relationship from which both parties may learn. The *peer mentoring* model would appear to be particularly suited to universities where traditions of collegiality remain strong, and where peer review is established as an appropriate way to assess the quality of research and teaching. In the *peer mentoring* conceptualisation of the relationship, reciprocal learning is more explicitly emphasised than in other models and many of the roles usually ascribed to the mentor alone - counsellor, trusted friend and guide - may be equally applied to the peer-mentored colleague.

According to Ellinger (2002) much of the research to date has focused on a *traditional hierarchical* conception of mentoring as a single dyadic relationship. From my review of the literature, it is evident that the one-to-one mentor-mentee pairing is still the norm in most organisational and educational contexts. Scholars like Higgins (2000) and Higgins and Kram (2001) suggest that definitions of mentoring need to be broadened and alternative forms of mentoring should be explored and researched. They advocate for mentoring as multiple developmental relationships, or relationship constellations to move away from the traditional dyad to group of mentors assisting single or clusters of mentees. In higher education institutions this has the potential to work well as academic mentors who excel in certain aspects of academic work can take on junior colleagues when their expertise is required and allow other mentors to take over when the mentee requires other expertise.

4.5 Mentoring in higher education

Mentoring in higher education has been on the increase in the last twenty years and the growing body of literature concerns the mentoring of undergraduate students. A comprehensive and critical review of the mentoring of students appears in Jacobi (1991). The later development in the mentoring of academic staff in higher education parallels the development of staff development in higher education as strategic focus for higher education institutions globally. During the pervasive changes in the higher education environment and context during the last quarter century (Blackwell and McLean, 1996a) the trend has shown an increase and, in particular, the proliferation of extended training schemes for new academic staff which include a mentoring component.

4.5.1 Prevalence of mentoring in higher education : Mentoring of early career academics

Reports in higher education of informal mentoring of entry-level academics and formal mentoring programmes are on the increase. The literature is often confusing about which members of staff are classified as entry-level. For purposes of this review, reports of mentoring for graduate teaching assistants (GTAs), teaching assistants (TAs) and other postgraduates employed to teach students is incorporated into the literature about those appointed as junior academics in pre-tenure or contract positions. It is complicated to analyse how prevalent mentoring of early career academics is because mentoring forms part of larger schemes but sometimes mentoring is reported as a stand alone strategy in higher education institutions for the professional development of staff.

There is a body of work emerging about the ways in which early career academics and novice teachers are mentored and developed. Maynard and Furlong (1993) propose that mentors can be located within three conceptual frameworks:

- The 'apprenticeship model' in which the mentor functions as a master teacher who can be imitated
- The 'competence model' in which standards of practice are used to by the mentor to provide training and assessment
- The ' reflective model' in which the mentor functions as a 'critical friend' for the evaluation of teaching

These models are relevant to mentors and mentees in higher education institutions in South Africa because all of them or variations and combinations of them are present in mentoring practices in higher education institutions where there is formal mentoring. The kind of mentoring received by mentees is influenced by the paradigm within which mentors locate themselves.

Jones (2001) studied mentors' roles of adviser, trainer, partner, friend, assessor and examines the extent to which these aspects of mentoring influence the development of beginning teachers. She bases her work on mentors' roles on the models described by Maynard and Furlong (1993) and shows that mentors from different cultures, British and German, locate themselves differently and depending on their mentoring orientation, give more weight to some roles than to others. British and German mentors showed a high level of agreement in their perception of their main role as the trainee's 'adviser', but held divergent views emerge in relation to their responsibilities as 'assessor', 'trainer', 'partner' and 'model'. Cultural factors, institutional constraints and rigid quality control through legislation influence the number of roles fulfilled by mentors as well.

Jones' findings are relevant for higher education in South Africa where cultural differences between mentors and mentees are greater than those between British and German mentors. Clutterbuck (2001) also illustrates how cultural differences in Brunei, South East Asia affect the expectations around how Dutch and British expatriate mentors see their roles. He shows how cross-cultural mentors consider functions like fostering self-reliance and 'stretching' learning to be their priorities while their South East Asian mentees expect quite different functions from them like support and sponsorship. Mentors were very surprised by the mismatch in expectations of their mentoring.

There is a gap in existing knowledge about what functions black South African mentees require from their mentors and what functions mentors in such cross-cultural relationships think they ought to provide. The present study addresses this gap and may provide new knowledge to assist in mentoring of black academics at higher education institutions in South Africa.

In Britain, mentors often play an important role in relation to programmes of initial training. Blackwell and McLean (1996a) report that the following emerged in their study of early career academics as common requirements by mentees in mentoring relationships:

- Teaching, (teaching methods, discussion of good practice arising from initial observations of teaching);
- Assessment and marking (this emerges as a strong concern for both new lecturers and graduate teaching assistants who are often uncertain about standards and procedures);
- Research (applying for research grants, feedback on proposals);
- Administration (getting to know departmental procedures, who to contact to get things done in the university);
- Career and staff development (the balance between teaching, research and administration; course and conference attendance).

It is also apparent that busy senior staff are less likely to be proactive as mentors and that this can be a cause of some concern for some mentees (Blackwell and McLean, 1996a). One way of addressing lack of mentoring is to formalise the mentoring scheme and schedule time for mentoring into the workload (Clutterbuck, 2001).

In the accreditation schemes being promoted by the Staff and Education Development Association (SEDA) and Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILTHE) now becoming widely adopted, mentors are not a mandatory requirement but in practice, having a mentor is encouraged. According to McLean and Blackwell, (1996a)

the mentor plays a role in assessing the progress of new lecturers and GTAs. In other cases, the mentor plays no role in assessing progress and is not required to observe teaching, although the mentor partners may include such activity if they wish. The recent spread of credentialism in the UK suggests that the trend towards 'vocational qualification' mentoring for new staff is growing. With the introduction of the HEQC audits of higher education institutions in South Africa, and the introduction of the PGCHET for beginning academics, the trend towards formal mentoring of early career academics is growing in South Africa too.

4.5.2 Limitations to empirical links between mentoring and success in early academic careers

Until recently, the links between mentoring and the successful navigation of the probationary or pre-tenure period for early career academics was based on anecdotal incidences. Jacobi (1991) notes that there is a growing body of empirical evidence from sources mainly in the USA, which are rigorous studies linking mentoring and success for early career academics. Empirical studies of the association of mentoring and academic outcomes were in short supply two decades ago and that those tend to be fraught with methodological weaknesses resulting in serious limitations for both internal and external validity (Merriam, 1983). Findings of some studies are contradictory and this is partially attributable to the wide variety of the so-called mentoring programmes investigated; similar mentoring programmes are seldom compared. There is an additional flaw in some studies in which researchers inaccurately make the inference in that having a mentor leads to success, so it is difficult to link success to mentoring with accuracy.

Jacobi (1991) points out that most of the empirical work on mentoring and academic success she surveyed before 1991 relied on retrospective, correlational designs in which data are collected at only a single instance with a limited sample. There is failure to control for potentially confounding factors or alternative explanations of the observed effects. Mentoring research requires quasi-experimental designs that include cross-

sectional and longitudinal components. Much of the research conducted since then is better designed and the overwhelming majority of studies report on the positive outcomes of mentoring.

4.5.3 Positive outcomes of mentoring in higher education

Many positive outcomes have been linked to mentoring in higher education. Graduate students who have a mentor or who participate in mentoring programmes have been involved in more professional activities; have higher rates of research productivity and publications than those who don't (Cronan-Hillix, Gensheimer, Cronan-Hillix and Davidson, 1986) and early career academics get higher student evaluations of their teaching and their courses than those without mentors (Boice, 1992).

Mentoring relationships are a critical career resource for employees in organisations according to Cotton and Ragins, (1999) because the presence of a mentor has many positive outcomes. Protégés report better organisational socialisation (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1993), more career satisfaction (Fagenson, 1989), receive more promotions (Dreher and Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1992), have more career mobility (Scandura, 1992), have higher incomes (Chao, Walz and Gardner, 1992; Dreher and Ash, 1990; Whitely, Dougherty and Dreher, 1991) than nonprotégés. Mentoring can enhance organizational socialization and assimilation; and convey organizational knowledge about values, norms and routines (Swap, Leonard, Shields and Abrams, 2001); and reduce stress (Sosik and Godshalk 2000); help women and minorities overcome organizational barriers for advancement (Russell and Adams, 1997; Van Collie, 1998; Ragins, Cotton and Miller, 2000).

Despite some methodological flaws in the early studies noted by Merriam (1983) and Jacobi (1991), there is accumulating evidence in recent studies of many positive outcomes for mentees in higher education. Women and black academics throughout the world are researched when gender and race issues are studied in mentoring.

4.6 **Mentoring for racial diversity in** higher education

There is burgeoning body of literature which shows that in Europe and the United States of America there is a positive link between mentoring and success in higher education. Most of the literature concerns undergraduates, usually minorities and African-American students or 'students of color'. Blackwell (1989) suggests that mentoring such students can foster a continuing interest in higher education and graduate work. Holland (1995) found that African-American doctoral students had a range of relationships with faculty advisors who were significant in providing career mentoring as well as academic mentoring for them. The effectiveness of cross-race mentoring relationships has also received some attention in American academic settings. Role modeling by same-race mentors shows that success is possible in the academic environment (Moses, 1989) and without the loss of cultural identity (Meznek, McGrath, and Galaviz, 1989). The presence of black or female faculty members as mentors is important in promoting positive attitudes to research and academic careers for African-American students.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) do not regard the automatic pairing of graduate students of colour with same-race mentors as possible at present nor necessarily desirable. What they argue for is that mentors, regardless of racial background be to effective and influential in their departments. They offer five issues for consideration in multicultural mentoring programmes for postgraduates. Firstly, they maintain that the focus of postgraduate education is on the assimilation of students of colour into the dominant culture rather than on authentic cultural pluralism. Secondly, they state that postgraduate schools do not address diversity issues like the awareness of culture, race and ethnicity in formal course work. The third issue is that mentors assume similarity between their workplace experiences and those of their protégés of colour, rather than differences. The fourth issue is that traditional mentoring programmes do not acknowledge the cultural differences of students of colour and the impact these differences may have on student performance and expectations. Lastly they maintain that

the framing of race in cross-race mentoring relationships determines the effectiveness and satisfaction in the relationship. Further discussion of each of these considerations appears in the chapters on the findings of the present study.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) suggest that the current functions of mentoring should be expanded to include aspects related to culture, race and ethnicity to improve the mentor's understanding of different experiences in higher education and the workplace of the protégés. They maintain that four skills are required in cross-cultural mentoring: improving cross-cultural understanding, increasing intercultural communication, enhancing facilitation skills, and increasing flexibility and adaptability. They suggest various ways in which cross-cultural mentors can become better, through improved knowledge and a variety of personal, departmental and faculty actions which will improve the demographically specific dynamic they focus on – white mentors and protégés of colour.

Mott (2002) says that although mentoring is generally viewed as an altruistic, productive activity considered good for both the mentor and protégé, there are limitations associated with mentoring activities and relationships. Mentoring processes and outcomes for women and minorities are power laden, frequently unexamined, and uncritically applied.

In South Africa, the historically advantaged universities have only fairly recently emerged from a racially charged atmosphere where there was considerable tension between the white teaching staff and students and the minority of black students (Makgoba, 1997; Murray, 1997; Shear, 1996) and there is still a residue of institutional racism evident in discriminatory practices in some of the departments where the mentees work (Potgieter, 2002).

By way of extension of Blake-Beard's (2001) framework equity development programmes in countries like South Africa where cross-cultural mentoring is often the norm should pay attention to external aspects of the relationship including: resentment of non-participating peers who come from previously advantaged groups; perception of

formal equity development mentoring programmes as remedial; prevalence of negative stereotypes of previously disadvantaged persons; and damaging racist innuendo and rumours.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) suggest that mentoring relationships in higher education serve to integrate the newcomer into the fabric of the department; cultivate essential professional and social networks; aid newcomers in acquiring core research competencies, and prepare for placement in the workforce when the higher degree study is complete They maintain that the cultural awareness and skill levels of academic staff members in addressing gender and race issues in mentor-protégé relationships is problematic at present in USA. A consequence of this is that black early career academics and women are at greater risk of not receiving adequate training in their specialised disciplines or research; of not completing their higher degree studies, and not being sufficiently prepared for success in postdoctoral careers.

Although Thomas (2001) advocates for same-race pairings, Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) do not regard the automatic pairing of graduate students of colour with same-race mentors as possible at present in USA nor necessarily desirable. What they argue for is that mentors, regardless of racial background be effective and influential in their departments. They are among the few researchers who acknowledge that cross-cultural mentoring is subject to societal and organisational factors and the national context which affect the fabric of the mentoring within that society.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) suggest that the current functions of mentors should be expanded to include aspects related to culture, race and ethnicity to improve the mentor's understanding of different experiences in higher education and the workplace of the protégés. They maintain that four skills are required in cross-cultural mentoring: improving cross-cultural understanding, increasing intercultural communication, enhancing facilitation skills, and increasing flexibility and adaptability. They suggest various ways in which cross-cultural mentors can become better, through improved knowledge and a variety of personal, departmental and faculty actions which will

improve the demographically specific dynamic they focus on – white mentors and protégés of colour. Further discussion of their suggestions appears in the findings of the present study.

The exposé given by Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) of the shortcomings of current cross-cultural mentoring processes in USA is revealing and salutary for those academic development and staff development practitioners in the professional socialisation and professional development of early career academics in South Africa. They provide very valuable insights into the internal dynamics of cross-cultural mentoring which would be necessary to incorporate into cross-cultural mentoring schemes in higher education institution in South Africa. However, their recommendations can only really be effective at a micro levels as they are aimed at individuals and academic departments and do not address the more holistic and global issues in national and social contexts. More broadly based suggestions for change are provided by studies which are situated in South Africa (Harleston and Ngara, 2000; Potgieter, 2002) and these are discussed more intensively later in this chapter.

4.7 Gender issues in mentoring

Mott (2002) says that paradoxically, although women are often left out of formal mentoring programs and might benefit more from informally arranged relationships, there are fewer opportunities for women to be mentored. This is partially due to the unavailability of individuals willing and capable of serving as mentors and because women are seldom included in the informal settings where mentoring relationships are initiated, such as golf courses, private clubs, or sporting events. Chesterman (2003) notes that mentoring of women in the South African context, particularly in HDIs, is often hampered by lack of staff and professional development resources. She describes an Australia/ South Africa Links Project in the Western Cape designed to assist senior women to overcome difficulties in establishing mentoring relationships in higher education. Current social taboos and suspicion of close relationships between mentoring

partners in cross-gender mentoring relationships may arise. Daloz (1999), Kram (1988), and others have suggested additional difficulties with cross-gender mentoring, such as stereotypical assumptions regarding the importance of career and potential resentment by peers of both members in the mentoring relationship, thus limiting the psychosocial developmental potential in cross-cultural mentoring relationships.

Hansman (2002) suggests that mentoring has frequently been touted as the way women can overcome barriers to advancement within the workplace. Early research on mentors assumed that the gender of either the mentor or protégé does not affect the development of the mentoring relationships (Merriam 1983). Research concerning mentoring and women has shown that these notions may be problematic and that mentoring relationships are frequently not as available to women as they are to men (Cox, 1993; Hansman and Garafolo, 1995; Hite, 1998; Ragins and Cotton, 1999); or if they are available, are not as meaningful or helpful as they could be (Egan, 1994; Hansman, 1998; Stalker, 1996). Women who have responsibility not only for their careers but also for children or parents or women who interrupt or delay their careers because of family concerns may also face problems participating in mentoring relationships. Because they may take career breaks to care for children (Geber, 1999b), women may not be perceived as being as serious as men about their careers; thus, they may not be "chosen" as a protégé by men or women mentors (Chandler, 1996). Furthermore, sexual harassment concerns also add to the reluctance of mentors to choose protégés of the opposite sex (Hansman, 1998). Other research studies uncover more dilemmas surrounding cross-gender mentoring relationships, such as sexual tension when the mentor is male and the protégé female (Kalbfleisch, 2000), and gossip and sexual innuendo by co-workers about the mentoring relationship (Hansman, 1998).

Mentors in particular need to be aware that both internal and external relationships with others should be managed in cross-gender mentoring relationships (Blake-Beard, 2001). Blake-Beard (2001) focuses on the ways in which women should pay attention to the external aspects of mentoring relationships including the involvement of the direct supervisor, resentment of non-participating peers, perception of formal mentoring

programmes as remedial, prevalence of negative stereotypes of women and damaging sexual innuendo and rumours. Her caveats are not directed exclusively to women in cross-gender mentoring relationships but may be especially pertinent to them. Her clear delineation of these requirements for women is useful and helpful for women in formal mentoring.

4.8 The rationale for mentoring of black academics and women in the South African higher education context

The slow rate of transformation of the academic staff throughout the higher education sector in South Africa has been pointed out for many years by researchers like Cooper (1998) and Cooper and Subotsky (2001) and more recently by the CHE. Transformation of the academic staff prior to the introduction of mentoring programmes was seldom internally driven before 1994. The case of the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) is discussed in detail in the next chapter as an illustration of transformation in one historically advantaged university (HAU). After 1994 the rate of transformation began to accelerate, driven by legislation and more widespread monitoring of higher education institutions by the CHE. Transformation is the explicit rationale for many equity development programmes in higher education and formal mentoring programmes have been introduced at some higher education institutions with the specific aim of focusing on and accelerating the professional development of South Africa, both blacks and women. The participants in such formal programmes constitute the sample under investigation in the present study. The rationale for the establishing of such programmes shows a clear transformation agenda.

The most extensive information about a mentoring programme for early career academics was provided by the Employment Equity Office at the University of Natal in their Academic Internship Programme (AIP) document of 2000.

> 'The Academic Internship Programme (AIP) was instituted to accelerate the rate of employment of academics who have previously been disadvantaged in respect

> of educational and employment opportunities, professional advancement and academic development. .... The AIP was envisaged as playing an important role as part of long term, strategic, equity planning and was derived to assist in changing the demographic profile of those Schools where there is serious under-representation of the designated groups, compounded by a limited pool of suitably qualified candidates.' (University of Natal, 2000, p 2).

This programme, like the one at the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits), is externally funded and entails the appointment of suitably qualified, meritorious 'designated group' lecturers to externally funded supernumerary posts for an initial three year contract. The University of Natal stipulates that participants may only be placed in Schools in which there are planned or anticipated vacancies after the three year contract to facilitate mainstreaming. This requirement is prescribed by the Employment Equity Policy of Natal University, approved by Senate and Council and which requires that no faculty accept a participant unless it can offer that participant permanent employment at the end of the contractual period. Participants, who complete their contractual period satisfactorily, are offered permanent employment (Academic Internship Programme document, University of Natal, 2000). At Wits, this stipulation has not been as tightly enforced and there has been considerable concern that Schools may be obliged to employ participants when they complete the programme whether or not they are the best candidates for permanent employment in the post.

In the context of 'growing your own timber', nurturing and developing of candidates becomes a crucial determinant in achieving Equity targets in terms of Equity Plans at the University of Natal and at Wits. During the course of the 'internship' programme, participants are required to achieve defined objectives in teaching and research as well as make reasonable progress in relation to the completion of their identified postgraduate degree. To ensure that participants are successfully included into academic life within the University, formal mentoring is regarded as an integral component of the programme.

The appointment of formal mentors is approached quite differently at the two universities. At University of Natal:

> 'The Faculty Executive Committee will appoint a mentor from the relevant School to ensure the orientation and induction of the candidate into the processes and procedures of the School. This appointment will be for the first three months of the envisaged 3-year contract. Thereafter each Mentee will select a Mentor. It must be stressed however that Mentee involvement in the selection of the Mentor at the outset is encouraged to obviate the necessity for a change after the initial three months Both the appointed and selected Mentors will be required to attend appropriate courses/seminars/workshops on mentoring.' (University of Natal, 2000, p 3).

At Wits, there is no provision for an initial three month mentoring period and no provision for a change of mentor should the relationship prove to be unsatisfactory after three months. At Wits, the mentor is also the higher degree supervisor and the participating pairs are expected to stay together until the degree is completed as in the traditional supervision process unless there is an unavoidable necessity to change. The training of mentors is also an area of tension at both universities where the policy requirements and the practical implementation of it differ widely; the mentors do not generally avail themselves of training. The training of mentors is brief and rather cursory despite the policy intention that it should be ongoing, thorough and some of it should be undertaken together with the mentees.

At University of Natal, the AIP is evaluated internally by the Quality Promotion Unit although the Programme is administered by the Employment Equity Office. At Wits there is ongoing evaluation of the programme internally and externally by an independent consultant who sees the mentoring pairs twice annually.

The University of Port Elizabeth has an Affirmative Action policy which requires that a mentor be assigned to every new appointment or promotion for a period of a year. The policy has been in force since 1999.

4.9 Institutional strategies for mentoring for transformation in South Africa

Potgieter (2002) notes that there are some efforts and strategies underway within higher education institutions to increase and retain the number of black professionals but that those initiatives will require the active support and involvement of four major sectors within South Africa. These are National Government, higher education institutions, the private corporate sector and the donor sector. These sectors will need to work cooperatively and in alliances to provide resources, opportunities and support to develop and retain black professionals in higher education positions.

4.9.1 Short to medium-term ongoing strategies: The role of National Government

Potgieter (2002) recommends that the Government should take steps to affirm publicly and enthusiastically the singular importance of higher education and higher education institutions and academic staff in the growth, development and further transformation of South Africa. She maintains that there is a strong perception among academic and professional staff at higher education institutions that the Government does not show confidence in or support for higher education. The participants of her study mentioned this, particularly in relation to salaries. Academics noted the fact that their salaries did not in anyway compare to those of civil servants. She suggests that academics' salaries be placed on the same scale as the salaries of directors and other higher-level civil servants. National Treasury in its annual budget needs to provide funds to implement the requirements of the Equity Act and to fund national-level initiatives to create an enabling environment for the pool of academic staff from the designated groups. Money could be given to individual institutions and not only to organisations such as the National Research Foundation (NRF).

While Potgieter's recommendations are valid and insightful they will not be without difficulty in gaining acceptance. Teaching in general is not particularly well paid except at private institutions and increase in academic salaries would have a serious knock-on

effect in the general and further education bands as well. Service professions like teaching need to be more highly valued and remunerated to attract and retain the most dedicated staff. Better remuneration, perhaps equivalent to corporate training remuneration, would be a major influence in the transformation of higher education but such a considerable adjustment to the national budget might be brought about at the expense of housing, health, poverty alleviation and defence and will require some sound motivation to be accepted by the Minister of Finance.

The role of higher education institution themselves in effecting change is central to sustainable and far-reaching change in the sector. Without a real commitment to be proactive and simply being compliant with legislation, even changes in remuneration are unlikely to have the desired effect.

4.9.2 Short to medium-term ongoing strategies: The role of higher education institutions

Harleston and Ngara (2000) refer to models of best practice in an attempt to retain black academics. Their use of the notion of retention implies development and although neither they nor Potgieter articulate it specifically, their recommendations list several developmental strategies. Potgieter (2002) has consolidated their recommendations and added others.

1. Constantly and consistently championing the policies of employment equity and diversity. These policies need to be supported publicly by senior management such as vice-chancellors. A vice-chancellor responsible for equity issues should be appointed.
2. Providing funds for the development of programmes designed to support the development of an enabling and inclusive non-racial and non-sexist culture on campuses. The success of all programmes would need to be monitored and evaluated. These funds could possibly be accessed from the Skills Development Fund.

3. Setting up mentoring and support programmes for black academics like those initiatives begun in the universities investigated in this study. The universities should also work closely with the National Research Foundation (NRF) which has initiated various development and support programmes.
4. Providing training in diversity management to all Heads of Departments, Deans and other university managers.
5. Providing all staff, black and white, with access to diversity training. This could include value clarification workshops, gender sensitivity training, and other issues in diversity.
6. Providing monetary and other incentives to encourage black academic staff to remain at the institution, such as funding to attend conferences and time to complete doctorates.

Building and supporting leadership teams in higher education institutions which are committed to transformation needs to be a priority of the various institutions of higher learning. It is also important that these strategies encourage black and white academics to work closely together. A culture of inclusively and understanding needs to be built. The strategies should not be implemented in a way that causes white academics to feel excluded (Potgieter, 2002).

Harleston and Ngara (2000) and Potgieter (2002) found that no institution was engaged in all of the activities recommended although many of them are to be found at individual institutions like those investigated in this study.

Potgieter (2002) has made some useful recommendations in her study but they are somewhat general and do not sufficiently cover issues in mentoring of black academics early in their careers which is crucial to more rapid transformation in higher education. Without systematic support in professional socialisation and professional development at the beginning of their careers, many potential leaders, managers and discipline-specific experts will leave higher education institution because it is too arduous to survive without

support. Thomas (2001) notes that this is generally the case where there is no mentoring of members of the under-represented group.

Potgieter (2002) does not make any specific suggestions about the contributions of the private sector or donors, other than to say that they need to be included in the transformation of higher education. The contributions which these stakeholders could make are addressed in detail in the last chapter.

4.9.3 Long-term strategies: Developmental strategies in terms of retention of academics include providing role models, and other incentives, such as ongoing training in educational administration courses

Harleston and Ngara (2000) maintain that short and medium term interventions need to be complemented by the development of long-term programmatic strategies that will also expand the pool of under-represented academics and administrators, deepen and broaden access by black academics and have a pay-off at the national level. They propose three categories of long-term changes for the retention of black academics: developmental, intervention and opportunistic strategic thrusts.

Intervention strategies which focus on programmes designed to work with individual academics to encourage and support their pursuit of academic careers includes:

- Provide funding for the completion of doctorates and money to start small research projects. The National Research Foundation administers scholarships of this type. Individuals and groups of black academics should be assisted in accessing these funding opportunities.
- Establish a national programme of administrative internships that would permit black academic staff to receive fellowships to work with, and under the mentoring and supervision of, senior administrators to gain and strengthen administrative skills in a

supportive environment. Harleston and Ngara (2000) recommend a model for an Administrative Fellowship Program devised by the American Council on Education.

- Establish formal partnerships with a range of sectors. The nature of these partnerships could be worked out in a way that benefits all the stakeholders.

Opportunistic strategies suggested by Harleston and Ngara (2000) involve modifying current procedures, developing novel alternative procedures and establishing new alliances or cooperative relationships that permit institutions to tap into existing talent. Their recommendations outline activities in support of this strategy:

Establish a formal Staff Development and Retention Programme with the following components:

- Mentoring of new academic staff by pairing them and senior academic staff who are paid to work with new academic staff.
- Providing frequent feedback to new academic staff about their progress in teaching, scholarship and service.
- Providing funds to new academic staff for research and attending at professional meetings.
- Adjusting teaching loads so that new academic staff have the time and opportunity to develop and initiate their own research agenda.
- Monitoring progress of new academic staff. This would include monitoring how they are "fitting in".

4.9.4 Institutional constraints: The role of donors and the private sector

The National Government, Minister of Education and Ministry of Education have already created significant resources and opportunities for the development of human capital in South Africa through the Skills Development Act and the Skills Levy which finances it. In particular, the *learnerships* devised through the SETAs are really practical way of building capacity in the country and as there is a mandatory mentoring component included in the learnerships, there is much scope for the private sector to make a valuable input. Learnerships require those registered as learners to obtain a recognised qualification during a two-year work period and include workplace assessment as well.

Donors are a valuable source of funding and support for transformation Initiatives in higher education. Many universities in South Africa have benefited from funding for equity development and capacity building as is evidenced in the higher education institutions investigated in this study. Donors who are involved in sponsoring and funding equity development and capacity building programmes are guided by the funding proposals submitted by higher education institutions and generally the finer details of the operationalising and implementation of the programmes is left to the discretion of the recipient higher education institutions. Reliance on a single source of funding for a particular programme is limiting to the sustainable growth and development of the programmes.

There are multiple examples in the University of the Witwatersrand case study in the next chapter which show the risks attendant on support by a single donor. In the case of equity development and capacity building programmes (like New Blood lectureships and the Growing our Own Timber programmes at Wits) the lessons learnt in capacity building are lost to the greater wider University community because the administrators and co-ordinators move on when the funding dries up and the ethos of mentoring does not spread to the wider community nor does the ethos become institutionalised. This slows down the process of organizational learning and hampers transformation. When new donors fund equity development and capacity building programmes, the initial setting up takes up

much time that could be reduced if input from previous administrators and co-ordinators could be harnessed.

Donors might be encouraged to require that higher education institutions need to make a commitment to equity development and capacity building programme sustainability and institutional learning by committing part of the salary budget to equity development and capacity building, perhaps in an incremental way so that when the funding comes to an end, the programme can continue with its learning intact for the benefit of the community as a whole. Felten and Eynon(2000) suggests ways in which higher education institutions can act proactively in ensuring that programmes initiated through donor funding can be mainstreamed into the general budget. Higher education institutions need to designate specific posts for the management of equity development and capacity building training which are distinct from compliance and auditing functions. It may be desirable to have such a training management position in a centralised unit, so that all donor-funded initiatives can be co-ordinated and implemented with optimal effectiveness. Isolated and stand-alone initiatives are risky and tend to be discontinued. All equity development and capacity building initiatives sponsored by donors should be strategically aligned with the strategic thrust of the transformation vision and mission of higher education institutions particularly in the historically advantaged institutions.

The private sector can be involved directly in equity development and capacity building training through internships or block release periods of exposure of early career academics in industrial and commercial projects in order to give those early career academics without industry or business experience some exposure to workplaces for which they are preparing students. Large parastatals like Eskom and Iskor can collaborate with national government and higher education institutions in long-term capacity building so that academics gain exposure to the kinds of technical and interpersonal issues required in industry and business which can be incorporated into the curricula.

4.10 Conclusion

In higher education in the South Africa context, the professional socialisation and development provided by mentoring is essential in early career development and that the transformative aspect cannot be excluded or ignored because of the massive thrust in higher education towards changing the racial and gender demographics of the higher education workplace in the post-Apartheid era. Especially in HAUs, the majority of academics are white and the pace employing black academics to reflect the demographics of the general population has been slow (Cooper and Subotsky, 2001). Mentors may facilitate continuous professional development and function as a 'professional qualification mentor', Parsloe, (1995). This growth would appear to parallel the expansion of the staff development function since the late 1980s in British higher education generally and, in particular, the growth of extended training schemes for new academic staff (Blackwell and McLean, 1996a).

The theoretical foundations of mentoring reviewed in this chapter show the derivation of mentoring models from management, psychology to education and higher education. Mentoring functions in the domains of career development and psychosocial development show that these are differently emphasised according to the formal or informal nature of the mentoring relationships and the objectives and aims of particular schemes. There does not appear to be any research on the critical ingredients in the mix for schemes in higher education although the present study shows in the findings which of them early career academics receive in their mentoring relationships. There is an increase in formal and informal mentoring in higher education. The gender and racial concerns raised in the literature show that women and black academics encounter many situations which do not arise for white men who are mentored. Mentoring programmes need to be especially sensitive to these concerns and in higher education in South Africa this may be even more important because of covert and subtle discrimination on racial and gender grounds.

Institutional strategies for transformation include governmental and higher education policy changes in the short, medium and long term to effect sustainable and effective professional development of early career academics. The constraints includes the reliance on external funding to boost what is essentially an internal necessity for change and the tendency of institutions to neglect such transformation by offering costliness of interventions as an excuse for lack of transformation.

The next chapter looks at the research methodology used to investigate these questions and the way the research was designed to include reliability and validity of the instruments constructed and refined for the research.

Chapter Five

Investigating the preparation of the seedbeds

5.1 Introduction

Most of the data examined in the chapter on transformation at the University of the Witwatersrand and other higher education institutions in South Africa are quantitative in nature. The outcomes of affirmative action and employment equity programmes are reported in quantitative terms and there was no gathering of qualitative information on the conditions in the academic 'seed bed' from the participants in them about how they succeeded in being retained on the staff. Even less is known about those who did not remain in the university. The present study uses a different approach, a qualitative one, to understand and explain what happens to early career academics in their professional development and mentoring. The purpose of the study is to investigate mentoring as a transformation strategy for the professional development and socialisation in the career development and management of the early careers of entry-level academics to higher education in South Africa where transformation of higher education is a critical issue on the national agenda.

In this chapter there is an outline of an interpretative qualitative research methodology used in the study, giving the reasons for the choice of particular methods and instruments. The background to the study and the initiation of the project is briefly described. The primary methodology used is research interviewing which is discussed in detail and some critique is offered. Research interviewing as a methodology in the social sciences is influenced by two mainstreams of praxis, firstly the research survey methodology, usually regarded as a quantitative method and secondly, field research methodology, usually regarded as a qualitative method. Other methodologies which may provide for some triangulation on aspects of the research question are also discussed. The

instruments, the sampling and the field research are described together with the research propositions and research questions about the professionalisation of early academic careers. The stance of the researcher in relation to the participants in the study and the nature of the researcher's voice in academic writing is noted. A detailed profile of the sample and its selection is provided, as well as a sequenced description of the research process once the sample was selected, the ethical considerations affecting the participants during the interview process. Data analysis was simultaneously begun with the data collection and the methods used for the analysis and data storage are included in this chapter.

The qualitative paradigm of research is based on the notion that people continually make or construct and modify meanings in their lives through social interactions with others. In this interpretist worldview, the aim is to "understand and explain human and social reality ... This approach looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world." (Crotty, 1998, p67). Qualitative researchers within this paradigm attempt to understand the meanings, constructs and categories that people use to make sense of their worlds from their perspectives. This insider's viewpoint is called an emic point of view (Merriam, 1998).

This study is the investigation of a new phase at South African universities in the professional and personal development of early career academics. The professionalisation of the teaching qualifications of academic staff has only just begun in this sector. For the first time in the history of higher education in South Africa, standards generated by the SGB of the Education, Training and Development Practitioners SETA were lodged on the NQF in the latter half of 2001 for the required levels of skills and competencies in the sector. Many staff development practitioners had been involved in the generation of the standards for two years prior to this. The standards also include standards for mentoring and assessment criteria for mentoring which have never been explicitly articulated in the training of higher education teachers in South Africa. Before 2000, the mentoring of early career academics had been an informal process initiated at times by a mentor, in some cases by a mentee. Sometimes this has come about as a result of formal supervision of the

mentee's higher degree. However since 2000, formal mentoring schemes have been offered at a number of higher education institutions as part of donor-funded staff development schemes to redress some discrimination against black academics in the Apartheid era. This is an investigation of two schemes, funded by the same donor for equity development, at English historically advantaged institutions which have been in operation from that time. A third higher education institution made mentoring of all newly appointed staff mandatory in 2000 as part of its Human Resources Development policy and designed a formal programme for them. These are the three sites of investigation for the mentees in the Year 2000 Academic Staff Mentoring cohort. This cohort is the first of several successive cohorts of mentoring pairs, which began their mentoring programmes in 2000, and they have been called the Year 2000 cohort to distinguish them from other cohorts which are also being studied simultaneously by the author and others in research projects separate from this one.

5.2 The research context

The research context in which the present study is located is qualitative research, an alternative tradition in the study of human and social issues which departs from the positivist approaches used in the natural sciences. It is defined as an observational (research) method in which the raw data exist in a non-numerical form (Rosnow and Rosenthal, 1996) and was coined by quantitative researchers to distinguish it from numeric data (Riessman, 1993). Yet the term refers to widely diverse approaches which do not really form a unified research tradition. It is an umbrella term for several research strategies which have some broadly defined commonalties (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Van Maanen, 1993). The interpretive study of a social issue or phenomenon is the characteristic feature of qualitative research methods (Banister, Burman, Parker, Taylor and Tindall, 1994). A research orientation which is interpretive rather than purely descriptive is characterised by the assumptions that multiple socially-constructed realities exist in the individuals participating in the research, and that there is an inter-dependence between the knower and the known; that values mediate what is understood; that

relationships are multi-directional; and that explanations are tentative for one place and time only (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). A researcher's philosophical framework is embodied in the research paradigm which also underlies and informs the methods used in the research.

Qualitative research methodology used in this study relies on interpretive and critical approaches to social research situations making use of data collection techniques which are interactive, documenting real events, recording what people say and studying written documents which are seldom reduced to objective numbers. Qualitative research methodology may be concerned with generating new concepts rather than testing existing ones (Neuman, 1997). The qualitative researcher focuses on subjective meanings, definitions, and descriptions of specific cases in an attempt to capture aspects of the social world, which are difficult to render as objective sets of numbers. The focus on understanding the participant's perspective of the research question is an emic or insider's view (Merriam, 1998).

As research interviewing is the primary research method used for data collection within this context, a brief overview of its use and development is offered in the next section.

5.3 Research interviewing as a research method

The choice of research interviewing as the primary data collection method is based on these reasons: person-to person interviews with participants in formal, structured mentoring programmes would allow me as the researcher to question early career academics about relationships which preclude my presence or observation of their interactions. Merriam (1998) notes that research interviewing is necessary when researchers cannot observe behaviour or feelings or how people interpret what happens to them.

As the present study was carried out with early career academics at different universities in South Africa, the study can be described as a form of field research where the workplace context of each group of participants differs although the general context is higher education institutions in South Africa where there are formal mentoring programmes. Most of the mentoring relationships for early career academics have existed for a year or longer and the interviews in each site in the field enabled me to capture interactions which are not formally recorded for the most part. The progress reports by participants generated by the formal programmes are confidential and were not available to me as an outsider. However, the interview questions did enable me to investigate aspects of the mentoring policy and programme implementation which had an impact on the participants and also to probe how they felt about them. The interview also enabled me to probe sensitive issues such as those where the partners were having difficulty in the relationship and to pick up on non-verbal cues which indicated that issues needed discussion beyond the immediate answer to the interview question. Examples of these are given in the findings. A case study of Wits University was compiled with much of the data gathered in this study so that the professional development of early career academics and mentoring as a transformation strategy at the institution could be further examined.

5.3.1 The researcher / the author/I

During this research into the nature and theoretical foundations of research interviewing, I have had to grapple with my own roles in the research process. Reconciling my roles firstly, as staff development practitioner in researching my professional practice with the client groups of the Centre for Teaching, Learning and Development (CLTD) at Wits; secondly as co-researcher with my colleagues in investigating the working lives of early career academics; and thirdly as a postgraduate student undertaking a doctoral research project using research interviews and other methodologies. What is becoming clear is that it is difficult to separate these facets of my life from each other. Treleaven (1994) experienced much the same situation in her work and says that, in practice, this nesting of activity one within the other somewhat like Russian dolls, has been an effective way to bring together parts of her life that would otherwise have been fragmented.

My voice as the researcher has been distant and detached in this writing but will become more evident as I present the context, findings and discussion in a personal form, often using the first person to express my opinions and critique.

I do not view the respondents simply as providers of information in the classical survey methodology manner. I have adopted a much more participatory approach to the whole survey process. Essentially, the interview instrument which I evolved contains a mixture of approaches and is a hybrid of qualitative and quantitative research. As I am a member of the university staff, I regard myself as being an involved participant in the research process but because I am not a member of an academic department within a faculty, I am somewhat removed from being fully a member of the group which I am studying. There was a considerable difference between my age and that of the participants which may or may not have been a factor in the research process. Younger black South Africans may not have been subject to the very restrictive racial constraints in access to higher education as their parents were but nevertheless I was aware that I belong to a generation of white South Africans who would have been seen as oppressive for most of them and therefore I was careful to be as sensitive as possible in inquiring about cross-cultural aspects of their mentoring relationships with senior academics who would, for the most part, have been of a similar age and race group as mine.

5.4 The research questions and propositions

Having looked at the facts and figures of the situation at the University of the Witwatersrand and transformation in Higher Education throughout South Africa and in general, I investigated what is being done and what can be done about career and academic staff development and retention of early career academic staff. Following the completion of this study the University of the Witwatersrand will be able to design strategies and implement programmes to provide the very best quality teaching, research and support for them, aligned with the strategic planning of the University. The study of the mentoring of early career academics includes suggested strategies for optimising teaching and learning, and for fostering research in the changed academic workplace.

The study entailed an investigation of the following questions, through document analysis, surveys and interviews with participants in formal programmes and in informal mentoring relationships :

- What are the staff and career development models currently in use for the transformation, professional development and socialisation of the careers of academics in a changing work environment in higher education?
- What kinds of mentoring happen at University of the Witwatersrand and in other South Africa universities?
- What mentor and mentee behaviours affect transformation through mentoring relationships?
- What are the gaps between current practice in South Africa and best practice in higher education early career development and mentoring internationally?
- How can mentoring impact on transformation in South African higher education?

Data on the first two research questions were obtained through document scrutiny and analysis of official records like policy documents and official reports and management information generated by universities. Data on the other three research questions were

obtained mostly through interviews with participants in mentoring programmes and relationships at universities.

5.5 The Research Process from 2000 –2003

In qualitative research, the process is often not characterised by discrete phases which follow sequentially. Punch (1998) conceptualised the structures evident in research processes as a range of possibilities positioned along a continuum with pre-specified research questions, tight design and pre-structured data at one extreme and general questions, loose design and emergent data at the other extreme. Quantitative research may be seen as occupying positions at one end of the continuum tending towards strict structure and qualitative research tending towards the less restrictive and more loosely structured positions further away. Research using both kinds of structure can be seen as complementary research. The research process may be flexible as various aspects of the research unfold and reflection about the process takes place in a cyclical fashion as is advocated by the proponents of action research (Zuber-Skerrit, 1992).

5.5.1 The beginning of the project

The present study had a fairly extensive preliminary phase in 1998 and 1999 which was initiated at Wits University to investigate the experiences of early career academics employed at Wits from 1994-1998. The preliminary phase of the research which I conducted involved the construction and development of a survey instrument; the pilot interviews; the training of interviewers; the data collection by means of personal interviews; data capture and analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data; the writing of a report on the survey results and the presentation of the results to the University senior executive team, the heads of the Schools in faculties and the survey respondents themselves.

The use of the survey alone in the initial stage of the research proved to be not only too narrowly focused on the existing sample of early career academics but also provided insufficiently detailed information on several crucial issues which emerged from the survey. Those issues concerned the working environment and mentoring of early career academics; and the academic development of staff which includes awareness of availability of academic staff development programmes, effectiveness of the programmes, needs analyses, career development and career planning, remuneration, secondary income generation and general job satisfaction.

The themes which emerged from the initial survey which required further investigation were:

- The effect of the leadership style of senior academics on integration of early career academics into their disciplines and Schools in the first three years;
- The social support networks which facilitate integration of early career academics; and
- The career development / management of those academics with mentors and those without mentors.

Several concerns emerged from reflection on the research methodology and the kinds of data elicited from the survey. The survey was too narrowly focused on the sample of currently employed early career academics, without any means of comparison with similar early career academics who had left the employ of the University. The information which the survey yielded was copious and covered the broad spectrum of work activities carried out by the early career academics but it was also insufficiently detailed in several crucial areas which were highlighted as areas for much more intensive qualitative investigation.

Consequently, on reflection, a more in-depth approach with a more specific focus was considered and this led to current research process which has extended the methodology in a number of ways.

The structured survey interviews used in preliminary phase were used to establish base line data about the working environment at Wits and the mentoring of early career academics. They were also used to ascertain which of the staff development/career management strategies in their training and development, early career academics had made use of in the early stages of their careers at Wits.

Wits launched a donor-funded mentoring programme for Employment Equity early career academics at the beginning in 2000 and an investigation of another mentoring programme at the University was used to provide some information about the mentoring processes already in place at Wits. Two focus groups were set up to investigate the experiences of mentors of early career academics and to investigate the experiences of early career academics who were the protégés. The first group was used to elicit data and consensus about the University's understanding of mentorship and what the roles and functions mentors assumed in an unstructured and non facilitated mentoring relationship left to the discretion of individual mentors. The second focus group was designed to elicit data from mentored protégés about their experiences in the mentored research relationships.

The data from these focus groups are compared with data from a cohort of mentor/protégé pairs who began the first structured and facilitated mentoring programme to be launched at Wits. Two similar cohorts of early career academics at other universities were also included in the sample.

5.5.2. Criteria for the selection of research sites and participants

The major thrust of this research centres around an investigation of the professional development and socialisation in the career development and management of a sample of 28 currently employed early career academics in newly established formal mentoring relationships and programmes in one bilingual but formerly Afrikaans historically

advantaged institution, and two English historically advantaged institutions in South Africa: University of Port Elizabeth; the University of Natal; and University of the Witwatersrand. The individuals in this sample had been in their universities' academic staff mentoring programmes for a year. The sample is thus a criterion-based sample (Creswell, 1998) as all the participants in the sample have experienced formal mentoring in higher education as an academic member of staff (Criterion 1); and each of them has been in a formal mentoring relationship as an academic member of staff for at least a year (Criterion 2). In criterion-based selection of a sample, a list of attributes essential to the study is created and a unit of investigation matching the list is found (LeCompte and Preissle, with Tesch, 1993). The criteria must be directly related to the purpose of the study and used as a guide in the location of suitable participants. The reasons for the choice of the criteria should also be specified (Merriam, 1998).

Historically advantaged institutions (HAIs) like UCT and Rhodes were excluded because they did not have mentoring programmes in place for staff members at the time the interviews were conducted. There was no formal mentoring programme at any Afrikaans historically advantaged institution nor at any HDI during the period covered by this research. Those early career academics in informal mentoring relationships interviewed at RAU and UDW provided additional information about career development experiences of early career academics in other higher education institutions not included in this study.

5.6 The context of the data collection

The evidence provided by Cooper (1998) indicates that the University of Natal and the University of the Witwatersrand have been the leading employers of black academics in the English medium historically advantaged institutions in South Africa for over 15 years (see Table 1.1). These universities have had various schemes for the professional development of black academics for most of that period although formal mentoring programmes are very recent. The University of Port Elizabeth notably employed the

largest percentage of black academics of all the Afrikaans historically advantaged institutions in 1998. It is possible that the sudden and dramatic increase in the numbers of black academics employed there between 1993 and 1998 came about as a result of the pervasive restructuring and repositioning which UPE undertook after 1994 to transform itself from an Afrikaans historically advantaged institution to a bilingual historically advantaged institution with a redress agenda in staffing policy (Du Toit, 1996).

The question of whether formal mentoring should be part of the mainstream development of early career academics highlights the tension evident throughout the higher education institution system, discernible in these programmes as well, particularly at UPE, where senior academics are rewarded for research and publication and not generally for teaching. There is no formal recognition of mentoring as an aspect of academic life which should be taken into account for promotion or some other form of reward and recognised alongside teaching and research output. The donor-funded mentoring schemes investigated in this study do make payment available to mentors for their research but generally senior academics do not use this money to buy assistance with research or their administrative workload to free up time for mentoring. Despite the funding mentoring is still an add-on to the workload of academic mentors.

5.7 The interview participants

The mentee participants were identified through discussions with senior academics in the staff /academic development units at all South African universities. It transpired that only three historically advantaged institutions had offered formal mentoring for more than a year to early career academics, either because university policy made mentoring mandatory for all new appointees or because they had been identified as Employment Equity appointments eligible for a donor-funded mentoring programme. Once this information was available it was clear that the sample would have to be a purposeful

sample of all mentees in the three historically advantaged institutions willing to be interviewed. A purposeful sample is used when the researcher wants to discover, understand, and gain insight from a particular situation and selects a sample which has much knowledge of that situation (Patton, 1990). The sample was assembled according to the requirements of purposeful, criterion-based selection (LeCompte and Preissle, with Tesch, 1993; Creswell, 1998) as all the participants in the sample had met the two criteria for inclusion in the study: firstly, by having experienced formal mentoring in higher education. The mentoring pairs are formally acknowledged as part of a programme and are obliged to adhere to the rules of each scheme or programme and report on their progress whereas in informal relationships there is unlikely to be any monitoring or evaluation as tracking them is difficult and mostly happens in retrospect. In formal mentoring programmes periodic monitoring and evaluation does take place over the whole duration of the programme and the pairs can discuss the process while it is happening. Secondly, each of the participants has been in a formal mentoring relationship in higher education for at least a year. Formal mentoring relationships are generally shorter than informal ones and many formal mentoring relationships end after a year (Cotton and Ragins, 1999). This is the case for mentees at UPE where all new appointees have mandatory mentoring for the first year but those at Natal and Wits are likely to be in formal mentoring for two or three years depending on the higher degree which the mentee is registered for. In the sense that the sample is criterion-based, it is also a homogeneous sample for those criteria. The possible sample size was 36 of the Year 2000 Mentoring cohort which was felt to be a manageable number to interview within the data collection time constraints of research project which terminated on 30 June 2001. All the participants were interviewed between February and May 2001. In the sample, 24 of 28 mentees are in formal cross-cultural mentoring relationships and nine of these are cross-gender as well.

As a comparative measure, I conducted several other interviews with mentees in informal mentoring relationships in an Afrikaans historically advantaged institution and in the only HDI in the system where mentoring of early career academics was identified. In-depth

interviews were used in the research which elicited personal narratives in a career biography of employment in higher education institutions where there are no formal mentoring schemes.

A semi-structured interview schedule was constructed to establish the nature of the mentoring relationship and the advantages and disadvantages which mentees experienced as part of the programmes.

5.8 The participant profiles

The participants in the sample are mostly from designated groups defined by the Employment Equity Act with the exception of two white men who were in a mandatory mentoring programme at UPE.

Table 5.1: Year 2000 cohort academic mentees in formal mentoring programmes in South African universities

Year 2000 Cohort	Female	Male	Total
University of Natal	4	4	8
University of Port Elizabeth	6	5	11
University of the Witwatersrand	5	4	9
Total	**15 (54%)**	**13 (46%)**	**28**

Table 5.2: Designated Group 'Black' academic mentees in Year 2000 cohort

Year 2000 Cohort	Female	Male	Total
University of Natal	3	4	7
University of Port Elizabeth	4	3	7
University of the Witwatersrand	5	4	9
Total	**12 (52%)**	**11 (48%)**	**23**

Table 5.3: Designated Group 'Women' academic mentees in Year 2000 cohort

Year 2000 Cohort	Black Women	White Women	Total
University of Natal	3	1	4
University of Port Elizabeth	4	2	6
University of the Witwatersrand	5	0	5
Total	**12 (80%)**	**3 (20%)**	**15**

The sample as a whole from the three universities investigated has 54% women and 46% men. The designated group 'black' comprises 82% of the sample (n=23), only 18% of the sample (n=5) are white men and women from the dominantly white group employed by the universities. The designated group 'women' comprises 80% black women and 20 % white women. The white women form part of the dominantly white group employed in higher education where women are well represented at the three lowest levels in the universities' hierarchies but are poorly represented in the more senior levels (Cooper and Subotsky, 2001).

Table 5.4: Cross-cultural mentoring pairs in Year 2000 cohort academic mentees

Year 2000 Cohort Cross-cultural mentoring pairs						
	Same Gender		Cross Gender			
	Black Women	Black Men	Black Women	Black Men	White Women	Total
UN	1	2	2	2	-	7
UPE	2	2	2	-	1	7
Wits	3	4	2	-	-	9
Total	**6 (26%)**	**8 (34.7 %)**	**6 (26%)**	**2 (8.7%)**	**1 (4.3%)**	**23**

Table 5.5: Same-culture mentoring pairs in Year 2000 cohort academic mentees

	Black Women	Black Men	Total
UN	1	-	1
UPE	1	2	3
Wits	-	-	-
Total	**2**	**2**	**4**

The gender and cultural aspects of the mentoring relationships in the study are such that 52% of the mentees in cross-cultural mentoring pairs in the study are black women: 26% of the black women are in same gender pairs with white female mentors and 26% are in cross-gender pairs with white male mentors. There is only one white woman mentee in a cross- cultural and cross-gender pair with a black male mentor: 4 % of the sample. Of the mentees in cross-cultural mentoring pairs in the study, 44% are black men: 35% of the black men are in same gender pairs with white male mentors and 9% are in cross-gender pairs with white female mentors.

Those mentees in same culture mentoring pairs are in the minority because the formal mentoring programmes for early career academics at higher education institutions in South Africa at present are specifically designed to redress past discrimination and fulfil the requirements of the Employment Equity Act: 14% of the mentees in this study are white, 7% are white women and 7% are white men. With the exception of one white woman, all white mentees are in same culture pairs.

Table 5.6: Academic disciplines of Year 2000 cohort academic mentees

Year 2000 Cohort	Female	Male	Total
African Languages		1	1
Anthropology		1	1
Architecture		1	1
Commerce	1		1
Education	6	1	7
Engineering	1	1	2
English	1	1	2
Industrial Psychology		1	1
Industrial Relations		1	1
Law	2		2
Quantity Surveying	1		1
Science (Physics, Chemistry, Biochemistry)	3	3	6
Statistics		2	2
Total	**15**	**13**	**28**

The majority of the women in the sample are employed in Schools of Education: 40% (n=6) of the women; 34% of the women are employed in Science: in departments of

Chemistry and Medical Molecular and Cell Biology / Biochemistry, Engineering and Quantity Surveying (n=5); and the remaining 26% are employed in Commerce, Law and Humanities (n=4).

The majority of the men in the sample are employed in Science: in departments of Botany, Physics and Statistics, Engineering and Architecture: 54% of the men (n=7); and the remaining 46% are employed in Humanities and Social Sciences and Education: in departments of Anthropology, Languages, Industrial Relations and Industrial Psychology (n=6). There are no men in the sample from Law or Commerce. The faculties of Health Science are not represented at all in the Year 2000 cohort.

Table 5.7: Academic rank of mentees in Year 2000 cohort

	Associate/Junior Lecturer		**Lecturer**		**Senior Lecturer**		**Total**	
	F	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**
UN	2	0	2	4	0	0	4	4
UPE	0	2	5	3	1	0	6	5
Wits	5	4	0	0	0	0	5	4
Total	**7**	**6**	**7**	**7**	**1**	**0**	**15**	**13**

The distribution of mentees at all three levels at the lower end of the hierarchy reflects differences in mentoring policy and in the aims of each of the equity development programmes. The only senior lecturer in the sample, at UPE, reflects UPE's policy of mentoring every new hire, irrespective of rank. All mentees at Wits are associate lecturers because a doctorate is required of individuals at lecturer level in several faculties.

5.9 The Interview Schedule

The items in the interview schedule were derived from various points which had come to light during the review of the literature. They were designed to obtain data on the mentoring process and its effects on participants in mentoring programmes, outlined in the three research questions dealing directly with the participants' experiences (What mentor and mentee behaviours affect transformation through mentoring relationships? What are the gaps between current practice in South Africa and best practice in higher education early career development and mentoring internationally? How can mentoring impact on transformation in South African higher education?)

Several of the questions in the interview schedule allowed for the establishment of profiles of the mentees according to faculty and school and also according to the cultural and gender nature of the relationships. All participants were assured of their anonymity in the reporting of the data and each interview was assigned a number to safeguard the identity of the participant. Biographical data was collected which included the following: gender; academic rank; number of years employed in the position; previous employment (if any); highest qualification; whether the participant was registered for a higher degree at the time of the study; first year of registration, proposed year of completion of the degree. Information was also collected about the participant's mentor: whether the mentor was also the participant's higher degree supervisor; the academic rank of the mentor; how the relationship was initiated and when it began; the gender and cultural grouping of the mentor; whether the participant had more than one mentor; and whether this was a formal or informal relationship.

The interview questionnaire is structured in 6 sections:

Section 1: Biographical information;

Section 2: How and when the mentoring was initiated and the functions and roles of the mentor;

Section 3: The structure of the formal mentoring programme; how highly each aspect of it is rated by the mentee; and what aspects of training or development are missing from the programme;

Section 4: The description of the relationship with the mentor including beneficial, non-beneficial and negative aspects with specific examples;

Section 5: The description of the mentee's career progress and the presence of other informal mentors during the programme and their contribution; and

Section 6: The mentee's perception of effective behaviour of mentors and mentees during the relationship.

The open-ended items (n= 15) formed 60% of the non-biographical questions in the interview. The remaining 40% of the non-biographical items (n=10) were specifically directed towards the mentor's roles and functions and the structure of the programme and the mentor's activities within it. The following are the open-ended items from the interview schedule:

- How was the relationship initiated and when did it begin?
- How would you describe your relationship with your mentor?
- What aspects of the relationship are most beneficial for you?
- What aspects of the relationship are not beneficial for you? Have you had any negative experiences in your mentoring relationship? Give specific examples.
- How successful do you think the formal mentoring programme is?
- What additional structures would you include in an academic learnership (internship) programme and why?
- How would you describe your career progress since the beginning of the mentoring programme?
- Is formal mentoring likely to be a factor in whether or not you continue your academic career?
- What additional training have you received?
- In what way was this training important to your career as an academic?
- If you more than one mentor, what function does each one fulfil for you?
- How does your relationship with each of them differ?

- What do you - as a mentee - regard as effective behaviour in a mentor?
- What do you regard as effective behaviour in a mentee?

The nature of some of the questions developed for this interview schedule involved some thought about the ethics of certain types of questioning in research interviewing in which these considerations were foregrounded.

5.10 Ethical considerations

The entire questionnaire was submitted to the Committee for Research on Human Subjects in the Research Office of the University of the Witwatersrand. The ethical considerations of the interview process, the confidentiality of the information, the voluntary nature of participation and response, guaranteed non-disadvantageous interview exit procedures were scrutinised by the committee to ensure that the research complied with the University's ethical standards.

Some of the information elicited was highly confidential in that it concerned the negative aspects of mentoring relationships which could have a negative impact on certain mentees if their responses were made known to their mentors or the co-ordinators of the programmes. I was aware that any disclosure of difficulties in their relationships with their mentors could have implications for their professional careers and carried a high degree of risk even when being interviewed by a researcher from outside their own university. The information disclosed under such circumstances is very valuable for its honesty and frankness. Some mentees could have seen the interview as an opportunity to offload and express their distress about troubling incidents in a safe and confidential situation and I was aware that some could use the time to air general dissatisfaction with aspects of their mentoring programmes or with the administrative structures at their universities.

The questionnaire was approved by the committee and so I conducted three pilot interviews with mentees at Wits to test the interview schedule and refined only one

question and its placement in the schedule before proceeding with the remainder of the interviews. These interviews were included in the sample. The questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

5.11 The interview process

I obtained formal permission from each university, through the appropriate 'gatekeeper' (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995), to approach each mentee in person for a face to face interview. 'Gatekeepers' at the universities were those directly involved in the selection of the early career academics for the mentoring and those who co-ordinate their programme and / or train them during that process. Typically they are the directors of Employment Equity and Transformation units and directors of Academic Staff Development units or Centres for Higher Education Development or Higher Education Studies. 'Gatekeepers' are able to provide access to participants and provide their names and contact details. I sent a copy of the interview schedule to the 'gatekeeper' at each university with a request that any questions which were thought to be inappropriate should be brought to my attention so that they could be rephrased or excluded. There were no objections to any of the questions from any participating historically advantaged institution at this stage of the process.

I made contact with the mentees telephonically and if they were agreeable then I set up appointments with them. The interviews took place on the campus of each of the historically advantaged institutions in a venue selected by each participant, usually their own offices or a neutral venue on the campus. The interviews lasted 60 minutes on average during which their responses were entered verbatim onto the interview schedule. The interviews at Wits were also tape-recorded. The others were not recorded as permission to do so was not granted. The week after the interviews a letter of thanks was sent to each participant by email.

5.12 The kind of data elicited from the survey

The qualitative responses give more detailed and individual views on a number of issues. Kvale (1996) points out that qualitative research interviews are sites of knowledge construction where that knowledge generates five kinds of intertwined knowledge essential to the post-modern construction of knowledge: the conversational, the narrative, the linguistic, the contextual, and the interrelational. These kinds of knowledge are specifically excluded in quantitative research.

In-depth field research provided information about the kinds of situations and circumstances which face early career academics at work. In-depth interviews or case studies elicit effective data and early career academic's interpretation of some of the events or interactions which they have experienced. This builds a far more intense and feeling account of academic life than an impersonal postal survey would allow. The interviews may bring to light some concerns about the careers of newcomers in academia which are particularly unique to the South African milieu and which are not well documented in the literature.

The value of the responses of a qualitative nature lies in the individual, personal nature of the data which shows the enormous variety of responses to the same question. The nature of qualitative responses arising during the research interviews gives the researcher an idea of some of the difficulties facing early career academics in their teaching and research responsibilities and can give a colourful impression of these aspects of their work. It is in the complementarily of the two methodologies, both quantitative and qualitative, that a more comprehensive and holistic view of the working lives of early career academics can be obtained. The interview schedule was specifically designed with complementarity in mind, to give quantitative, statistical and general data and also to give more detailed, personal responses which would result in a 'thick description' of the mentoring, development and general working environment of early career academics at

the universities in South Africa. The interview schedule raised the issues and did allow for great detail in the responses to provide a rich and nuanced, finely textured picture of the many factors which would make up individual 'lived experiences' of early career academics working at universities in South Africa, to develop a more comprehensive, holistic picture of their working lives.

5.13 Validity

Qualitative research has developed a set of definitions around the concepts of validity because the definitions applied in the positivist paradigm by quantitative researchers do not fit the circumstances in which much qualitative research is carried out. Winter (2000) has shown that validity is not a single, fixed or universal concept but rather ' a contingent construct' grounded in the processes and intentions of particular research methodologies. Consequently, there are many definitions of validity and much of the confusion around the definitions appears to be the result of a blurring of meaning between the definitions of validity and reliability. The cluster of meanings around the concept of validity concerns the appropriateness of the means of measurement; those around the concept of reliability concern replicability of the research. Merriam (1998, p 189) sums this up in her statement that "all research is concerned with producing valid and reliable knowledge in an ethical manner." Taken together, validity and reliability in research constitute the 'trustworthiness' of the research study. This is important because trustworthiness denotes the extent to which others can have confidence in the outcomes or findings of the study (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994, p145). Many other terms for validity have been offered in later perspectives as more appropriate to qualitative research; terms such as 'worthy', 'relevant', ' plausible', 'confirmable', 'credible' and ' representative' show the range of terms which are synonymously used for validity and reliability (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998; Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Hammersley, 1987; Mishler, 1991; Wolcott, 1990). Different conceptualisations of validity and reliability from those of the positivist viewpoint are emerging in the debates around qualitative research. Some writers regard notions of validity in qualitative research as absurd (Wolcott, 1990). Key to qualitative

research is the understanding of human social phenomena and consequently the criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of the research is different from the criteria applied to the study of other phenomena researched using the positivist paradigm.

Hammersley (1987) defines validity in research in these terms: "An account is valid or true if it represents accurately those features of the phenomena, that it is intended to describe, explain or theorise."

Internal validity concerns the meaning of reality for the researcher; in qualitative research reality is regarded as holistic, dynamic and multidimensional. Merriam (1998, pp204 - 205) suggests that qualitative researchers can enhance the internal validity of their work by using six basic strategies. These include: triangulation using multiple investigators, sources of data and methods to confirm the emerging findings; member checks of the plausibility of tentative findings by participants; long-term observation at the research site; peer examination of the emerging findings; participatory and collaborative modes of research; and the clarification of the researcher's biases.

The question of reliability, when it refers to "the extent to which research findings can be replicated" (Merriam, 1998, p 206), is problematic in qualitative research because most circumstances cannot be replicated exactly even using the same participants in the same contexts. The context is dynamic and ever changing, behaviour is never uniform or static, individuals mature and may evolve different interpretations of the events and experiences under investigation when they reflect on them with hindsight, so it is impossible to standardise or benchmark behaviour and replicate it under the similar circumstances. Replication of a qualitative study is unlikely to produce the same results but this does not mean that the original study is unreliable. Reliability for Guba and Lincoln (1989) can be seen as 'consistency' and 'dependability', which refer to dependability of the results and "whether the results are consistent with the data collected" (Merriam, 1998, p 206). She suggests several techniques to ensure that results are dependable. Firstly, the investigator's position should be stated with regard to the theoretical assumptions of the study, the selection of participants, and the social context from which the data is

collected. Second, is the use triangulation by means of engaging in multiple methods of data collection and analysis. Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggest using a third technique, the audit trail, so that readers and independent judges can authenticate the findings of a study by following the trail made by the researcher during the study. These techniques were used in this study to establish reliability of the data.

The ability to generalise findings to larger groups and situations is a common test of external validity for quantitative researchers but holds little importance for qualitative researchers who tend to limit themselves to internal generalisations where and if they consider generalisation necessary (Winter, 2000). For the purposes of this study, reader or user generalisablity is the kind of external validity on which I focus as it relies on other people to determine the extent to which my findings apply to them in their specific situations which have some similarities to those under investigation here. Firestone (1993) calls this case-to-case transfer, where the applicability of this case will rest with other practitioners in staff development and career management. I have provided a great deal of detailed description of the context of the study to enable practitioners to compare their contexts and determine how well the findings fit their experiences.

Strategies suggested by Merriam (1998) to facilitate generalisability or transferability of qualitative research include: rich, thick description and multi-site designs. Both of these strategies are used in this study.

5.13.1 Triangulation of the study with the focus on Wits

Triangulation is research strategy using multiple investigators, multiple sources of data or multiple methods to confirm the merging findings (Merriam, 1998). She says that triangulation can be used to enhance internal validity in research. In addition, Mathison (1988) views triangulation as a means of getting a holistic understanding the situation and the phenomena being studied rather than a technical means of enhancing validity. All the official documents relating to the formal mentoring programmes were scrutinised for the

policies formulated, policy implementation and any integration with other policies at the institutions concerning the professional development of early career academics. In order to obtain information about the mentoring process from another source inextricably linked to the mentees interviewed, their mentors were chosen as valuable sources of information about mentoring relationships and the mentoring process.

Once all the available mentees had been interviewed, I interviewed five formal mentors in the Year 2000 Academic Staff Mentoring cohort at Wits, all of whom are in cross-cultural mentoring relationships with their mentees. This was to provide information on the mentor's views about the formal mentoring programme and their relationships with their mentees. The professionalisation of their role in mentoring was also explored. Three of the mentors have same-gender mentees and two have mentees of a different gender. All the interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Each participating mentor was asked to conduct a member or participant check on the interview to fill in the bits of the interview which were unclear and difficult to transcribe and to check that the transcription was a fair rendering of what had been said (Merriam, 1998). The mentoring pairs are working in the Schools of Modern Languages, in African Languages and in English; Chemistry; and Electrical Engineering. Three of the mentors are South African, one is British and one is Kenyan. Three of them have formal teaching qualifications and two do not.

Table 5.8: Mentors interviewed in Year 2000 cohort at Wits

Mentor	**Mentee**	**Number**	**Mentor**	**Mentee**	**Number**	**Total**
Male	Male	2 (1*)	Male	Female	2 (1*)	3
Female	Male	-	Female	Female	1(1*)	2
Total		**2**	**Total**		**3**	**5**

* Mentor with teaching qualification

5.13.2 External Monitoring and evaluation of the programme at Wits

An additional source of information about the participants and their relationships to each other and the Schools in which they work can be obtained from other research sources. The mentoring programme at Wits is being monitored and evaluated by an external consultant who has been involved since the Year 2000 cohort had completed their first semester in the programme in December 2000. Her evaluation has been used to confirm or extend the observations made during the interviews. Of particular interest are those aspects of her findings which deal with the training and development aspects of the programme and the professionalisation of the work of early career academics and how their mentors assist or do not assist in the process.

This overview of validity, triangulation and reliability issues relating to this study is followed by a brief overview of the analysis of the data collected in the research process.

5.14 Data analysis

In the qualitative research paradigm, the analysis of the data is a process carried out simultaneously with the data collection and at some rudimentary analysis should take place during the initial stages of the data collection (Merriam, 1998). Bogdan and Biklen (1992) suggest that researchers modify their questioning and probing after the first data collection sessions. They also suggest that researchers should write "observer's comments" and memos to stimulate the researcher's critical thinking during the data collection phase.

During the first series of interviews, I made copious notes of my observations during the interviews and wrote several memo's to remind myself to check with programme co-ordinators on various of the issues which had arisen during the interviews. I formulated some tentative categories and themes which appeared to be emerging from the data during each set of interviews and later compared these across all the sets. If participants made comments about their mentoring experiences which I had encountered elsewhere, I

sometimes shared this with them if I felt it was appropriate, especially if they were feeling isolated or in some way different from others on the same programme.

Once a set of interviews was completed the data was captured in electronic format and the quantitative data was transferred to Excel spreadsheets for analysis. The qualitative data from the open-ended questions was consolidated for each interview and coded according to the categories predetermined by the literature review such as the mentor roles proposed by Kram (1988) for example. The thematic content analysis of all the interviews was conducted according to the constant comparative method described by Maykut and Morehouse (1994).

5.15 Storage of the data

The original interviews are stored in a secure safe in the offices of the Centre for Learning, Teaching and Development at Wits. All electronic data is stored on a password protected personal computer belonging to CLTD. Backup copies on compact disc are also stored in the safe. The data is to be lodged in the University Archives at the end of the research project.

A database of the participants was developed using MS Access and data are stored according to data warehousing principles used by Wits. The importance of secure and appropriate storage of data is emphasised by Creswell (1997).

5.16 Conclusion

All aspects of this research process have been discussed in detail and the rationale for the use of the research interview motivated, with some critique from researchers offering various points of view. Full descriptions of the research context and participants have been given to highlight the reasons for their selection to show the professional

development of early career academics in the higher education context in South Africa at present.

This research with its qualitative approach to investigating the 'seed bed' experiences of early career academics was designed to discover what is happening in mentoring programmes and what good practice in mentoring theory is highlighted. The gap between theory and practice is ascertained.

The next three chapters discuss the data analysis and the findings which have emerged from the study. Each of the chapters examines a specific aspect of mentoring practice namely career development, psychosocial support, and role modeling, which are integral to the professional development of early career academics in South Africa and reported through the research interviews.

Chapter Six

Academic topiary: mentoring for career development

6.1 Introduction

The argument has been presented in the preceding chapters that in higher education in the South African context, the professional socialisation and development provided by mentoring is essential in early career development and that the transformative aspect of staff and career development, which includes mentoring, cannot be excluded or ignored. Mentoring provides a nurturing environment in which entry-level academic "saplings' can be vigorously grown and shaped to flourish. According to Moore and Amey (1988) mentoring is a form of professional socialisation whose aim is the further development and refinement of the early career academic's skills, abilities and understanding. As mentors provide career development, psychosocial assistance to mentees and act as role models for them in their careers in higher education, an in-depth study of how they carry out their range of functions will show how they further develop and help to refine the mentee's skills, abilities and understanding of working in, and transforming, the academic workplace.

In this chapter I focus on the findings in the study concerning the career development functions of mentors. Mentees' reactions to them are discussed in relation to *a new composite mentoring model* which I have derived during the review process of the literature and show in Figure 6.1 later in this chapter. This chapter also deals with those aspects of these functions which were beneficial, not beneficial and which were regarded as negative for the mentees. There is also a discussion of those aspects of professional development through mentoring which were found in the academic 'topiary' process. New findings for mentees' career progress, expectations and the length of their mentoring relationships have emerged. In the next chapter, the psychosocial functions in the *new composite mentoring model* are examined and also the role model function of mentors, as

a separate function. In the last chapter on the findings of the study, the nature of gender and race in the mentoring relationships is examined and described. Those aspects of cross-cultural relationships which emerged from the study are examined and the discussion focuses specifically on mentor roles which facilitate and enhance the mentoring of early career black academics and women. Deficiencies of the model for South African situations in higher education are highlighted in the chapter. Gaps in the literature which have been uncovered are discussed in detail with respect to further roles which mentors need to play in cross-cultural mentoring in higher education.

Having discussed the major aspects of the research methodology used in this study and the concepts of validity and reliability in the arena of qualitative research, this chapter presents a discussion of the analysis of the data with a detailed description of the analytic process, the construction of the data categories according to the constant comparative method described by Maykut and Morehouse (1994). This is a method of analysing qualitative data where the information gathered is assigned to categories showing emergent themes. The data is constantly revisited after initial allocation to a category, until it is clear that no new themes are emerging. It is a cyclical process gathering and analysing of data, noticing trends or recurring themes that may become categories.

The findings uncovered are set out in the following three chapters according to the categories and sub-categories established during the data analysis and are compared with the models reviewed in the literature.

6.2 Theoretical frameworks for category construction

During the analysis of the structured questions asked in the interviews, I extracted the responses to each question into a single file so that each of the responses was easily seen and could be compared with the others. I then coded the responses and formed some tentative categories into which to group them and scrutinised them to see whether any of the categories reflected aspects of mentoring which are discussed in the literature. For

example, in Kram's analysis of mentor functions, mentors provide career development support which functions to advance the protégés progress in the organisation; and they provide psychosocial support which functions to assist the protégés in their personal growth and professional development (Kram, 1988). In tabulated form, her model looks like this:

Table 6.1 Kram's model of mentor functions

Mentor functions	Meaning
Career development functions and component roles	**Provide career development support to advance the protégés progress in the organisation**
sponsorship	sponsoring promotions and lateral moves
coaching	coaching the protégé
protection	protecting the protégé from adverse forces
challenging assignments	providing challenging assignments
exposure	increasing the protégé's exposure and visibility
Psychosocial functions and component roles	**to assist the protégés in their personal growth and professional development**
acceptance and confirmation	helping the protégé develop a sense of professional self
counselling	providing problem-solving and a sounding board
friendship	giving respect and support
role modeling	providing identification and role modeling

Some of these functions are useful as possible category labels when I was looking at career development functions. But these did not reflect all the functions described by the participants. Some of the some additional mentor functions identified by Alleman (1986) in her study were added: giving information; providing political information. These are shown in tabulated form below:

Table 6.2 Additional mentor career development functions

Mentor functions	Meaning
Career development functions and component roles	**Provide career development support which functions to advance the protégés progress in the organisation**
Additional functions (Alleman, 1986)	
giving information	giving information about policies and procedures
providing political information	providing information about power relations and interpersonal dynamics

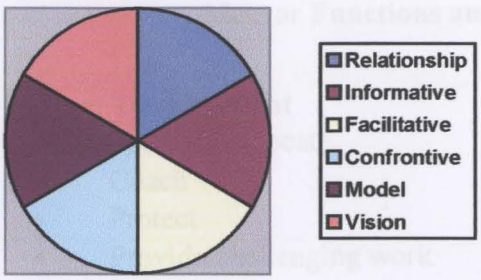
The psychosocial functions of mentors theorized by Kram (1988) concern aspects of the quality of the interpersonal dynamics and the affective dimensions of the relationship. The other psychosocial functions described by later researchers appear in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3 Additional mentor psychosocial functions

Mentor functions	Meaning
Psychosocial role and component functions	**to assist the protégés in their personal growth and professional development**
Additional functions (Alleman, 1986)	
developing trust	developing confidence in or reliance on the mentor, and on the truth of the mentor's statements.
developing personal relationship/friendship	developing a closer relationship than that of formal colleagues
Additional functions (Anderson and Shannon, 1988)	
teaching	imparting or conveying knowledge or giving instruction
encouraging	promoting the continued development of the protégé by giving assistance and stimulation
Additional functions (Blackwell and McLean, 1996b)	
door opener	making opportunities possible for the admission of protégés to otherwise closed groups of people
advocate	defending and publicly recommending, or speaking on behalf of the protégé, making a case for the protégé

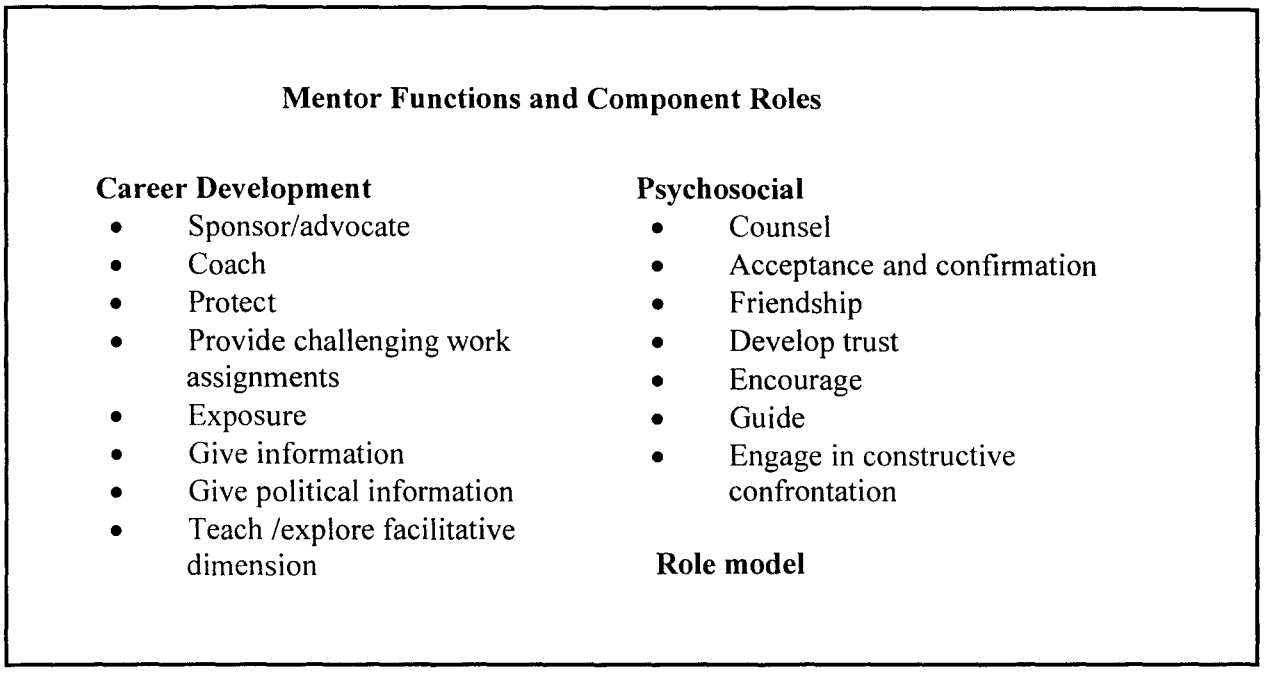
It would appear that the more recent models of mentor roles and functions tend more towards an extension of the psychosocial type of roles in mentoring adults in educational contexts, with much less emphasis on the career development functions. For example, Blackwell and McLean, (1996b) report that in higher education the roles which can be ascribed to mentors include: trusted friend, guide, counsellor, information provider, door opener, role model and advocate. Cohen (1999) views mentoring in terms of six dimensions: Establishing the relational space; expanding the informational base; exploring the facilitative dimension; engaging in constructive confrontation; sharing yourself as a role model and displaying vision for the future. A chart showing the six dimensions is given below in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Cohen's six mentor dimensions



I have used all these categories mentioned as a priori categories, derived from the literature to form the first set of categories into which to allocate responses. I have constructed a model which is a synthesis of the mentor's roles and functions reported in the literature surveyed. The various mentor roles and functions described in the literature are grouped, summarised and presented in Figure 6.2, showing the eight generally accepted career development functions, the seven psychosocial functions and the role model function as a separate function where the mentor, in the performance of organisational and personal roles, is taken as a model by the protégé. This is the first stage of the newly formulated composite mentoring model. The data from the study are used later to formulate another stage of the model when all the findings have been discussed.

Figure 6.2 Stage 1: Composite Model of mentor functions and component roles



The model which I have devised forms the basis of the construction of some of the questions asked during the interviews with the participants and these in turn inform the data categories which have emerged from the analysis process.

6.3 A priori data categories

Each of the priori data categories for data analysis is formed by using terminology taken from the work of Kram (1988), Alleman (1986), Anderson and Shannon (1988), Blackwell and McLean (1996b), and Cohen (1999) and shown in Figure 6.1. The terminology of these writers has been adapted to coincide with the terminology used in higher education. For example, the term coaching is used by Kram (1988) to indicate preparing and the protégé to perform better in the subjects or tasks required by the job. The term 'coaching' in higher education is used synonymously with teaching and here is specific to coaching/ teaching for lecturing, research and writing. It forms parts of the facilitative dimension described by Cohen (1995) as teaching of adults is considered to be

more facilitative in nature than a direct transfer of knowledge. The term 'providing challenging assignments' is also applicable to academic work both in teaching and in research. It is broken down into more the specific terms such as 'collaboration in teaching', 'co-enquiry in research' and 'collaboration in writing for publication'. The term 'consultant' is given to the function of the mentor as a knowledgable specialist or expert in a particular situation.

From the extensive array of mentor roles and functions gleaned from the work of Kram (1988), Alleman (1986), Anderson and Shannon (1988), Blackwell and McLean (1996b), and Cohen (1999), mentees were asked to identify those roles actually performed by their mentors. Table 6.4 shows the mentor roles using the language common to higher education contexts used by Cohen and Blackwell and McLean.

Table 6.4 Roles fulfilled by mentors in higher education

Mentor role	For female mentees	For male mentees	Total reported	Percentage of whole sample
Career Development				
Assessor- teaching and research	9	9	18	64.28%
Coach - teaching and research	11	10	21	75%
Co-enquirer-teaching and research	6	6	12	42.86%
Collaborative publisher	4	4	8	28.57%
Collaborative teacher	9	7	16	57.14%
Consultant- teaching and research	6	4	10	35.71%
Educator	7	8	15	53.57%
Standard setter	9	9	18	64.28%
Sponsor / advocate	2	5	7	25%
Psychosocial				
Counsellor	8	7	15	53.57%
Critical friend	4	6	10	35.71%
Giver of encouragement	11	10	21	75%
Helper/guide during transition	10	9	19	67.85%
Role model	9	7	16	57.14%

The term *coach* is unpacked in this study to include the functions of co-enquirer, collaborative publisher and teacher and similarly, the function of *giving information* is unpacked to encompass the functions of consultant, educator, standard setter and assessor.

Although each mentor does not perform the entire array of mentor roles for each mentee, the whole gamut of roles does appear for the 28 participants in this study. In respect of career development functions, both men and women report the same frequency of the mentor roles of *assessor* and *standard setter:* they appear in 64.28% of the sample (n =18). The role of *coach* is the most frequently found mentor role, appearing in 75% of the sample (n =21) while the role of *co-enquirer* is found in 42.86% of the sample, (n=12). However, the role of *collaborative publisher* appears in 28.57% of the sample, (n =8) and much more frequently, the role of *collaborative teacher* appears in 57.14% of the sample, (n =16). The role of *consultant* appears infrequently in 35.71% of the sample, (n =10). The role of *educator* is found in 53.57% of the sample, (n =15), mentors performing the *educator* role for men slightly more often for them than for women. The least frequently reported role, that of *sponsor/ advocate* appears for 25% of the sample, (n =7); men receiving sponsorship much more frequently than women (71.43%) in this group of participants.

In respect of psychosocial functions, the role of *counsellor* appears in 53.57% of the sample, (n = 15). The role of *critical friend* is found in 35.71% of the sample, (n =10) and is found more frequently for men than for women (60%). The most frequently found psychosocial role, that of *giver of encouragement* appears in 75% of the sample, (n = 21). The role of *helper / guide during transition* is also found frequently in 67.85% of the sample, (n =19). Lastly the mentor as *role model* appears in 57.14% of the sample, (n =16).

Women report that their mentors act in a wide variety of roles for them. The roles of *consultant* (55.5%) and *collaborative teacher*; *counsellor* (53.33%) and *role model* (56.25%) are more frequently performed by women's mentors than by men's mentors. The roles of *helper and guide during the transition* (52.63%), *coach, giver of encouragement*, (52.38%) are only slightly more frequently performed for them than for male mentees.

The implications of the findings are discussed later in this chapter. This is done together with the further data categories derived from the aspects of mentoring which mentees describe and which are discussed in the following section.

6.3.1 Clearly defined functions and roles of mentors and mentees

Research has shown that it is desirable to have a common understanding of what mentoring in higher education is, but it is not always evident or clear in higher education institutions. The mentor's roles and functions, in formal programmes, should be clearly defined and established at the outset of any programme. However, a theme that emerged from the data shows that definition of mentor functions is taken for granted and seldom explicitly spelled out. There is confusion resulting from the assumption that all participants know what mentors are supposed to do.

The overwhelming majority of participants, 92.85% (n = 26) report being in "good, open, honest," "constructive," and "professional" relationships with their mentors. Only one woman, 6.66% of the women in the sample, and only one man in the sample, 7.69% of the men reported relationships with severe difficulties. One man reported a complete breakdown with his mentor but his data are not included in this analysis because a week after his interview, he withdrew permission for me to use any of his data. This is unfortunate because he had raised many of the negative issues concerning the selection and commitment of mentors and most tellingly, issues of trust in a difficult cross-cultural relationship where the environment in the department actively undermined the mentoring

programme and the individual mentoring process. For ethical reasons his responses have been excluded from the study.

When mentoring roles and functions are not clarified, difficulties can arise for both parties. Duff (1999) suggests that mentors and protégés take time at the very beginning of the mentoring process to set the ground rules for the relationship and clarify their expectations. Discussion of the goals of the relationship and for monitoring the progress of the goal achievement is important to avoid unrealistic expectations and the resulting anger and disappointment when expectations are not met (Blake-Beard, 2001). If expectations and roles are not explicitly made clear at the beginning of the relationship by the programme co-ordinator and the mentors, it would be beneficial if the pairs do so themselves in a less formal way. However, this does not always happen and mentees may remain confused and disgruntled by the way things develop. One of the women expressed her bewilderment with the relationship like this:

> "I didn't know responsibilities of a mentor. He should have clearly focused functions. Roles should be clarified for both mentor and mentee. I get the feeling he doesn't know what to do with me. We are supposed to submit monthly reports on our progress but I don't do them because nothing is happening. I don't know what to write, there is nothing to write about."

In situations like this, both mentor and mentee could take active steps to seek advice, help or guidance from the programme co-ordinator, other mentoring pairs or the literature to circumvent the impasse. This highlights the difficulty of lack of training or inadequate training in formal mentoring programmes which structure regular meeting times and regular reporting. The programme structure itself does not guarantee optimal use of the time nor does it ensure creative thinking on the part of the mentoring pair. The longer the situation persists without some reaction from the co-ordinator, the more likely the pair is to undervalue and undermine the support from the co-ordinator and necessary reporting mechanisms in the programme. Questions of programme implementation and the ethical bonds between mentoring pairs also need specific clarification to avoid problems of this nature.

6.4 Further Data Categories

More information concerning the mentor's roles and functions was obtained from the qualitative data from the open-ended questions. The responses were consolidated for each interview and coded according to the categories by Kram (1988) and others tabulated above. The thematic content analysis of all the interviews was conducted according to the constant comparative method described by Maykut and Morehouse (1994) discussed previously. The data is constantly revisited after initial allocation to a category, until it is clear that no new themes are emerging. It is a cyclical process gathering and analysing of data, noticing trends or recurring themes that may become categories.

The open-ended questions in the interview schedule dealing with mentor roles and functions were devised during the construction of the interview schedule to probe which of the functions were viewed positively and which were viewed negatively by the participants. They form the three major categories relating to mentor roles and functions. The questions asked were:

- What aspects of the relationship are most beneficial for you?
- What aspects of the relationship are not beneficial for you?
- Have you had any negative experiences in your mentoring relationship?

Concerns have been raised by many researchers like Baugh, Lankau and Scandura, (1996), Eby et al., (2000), Feldman (1999), and Scandura (1998) about the skewed and distorted focus of mentoring research which focuses only on the positive aspects of mentoring. The open-ended questions in this study attempt to avoid the skewed focus and examine the whole range of experiences which are possible in mentoring relationships.

Participants responded by naming a mix of both career development and psychosocial features of their relationships with their mentors and the table below shows the categories and sub-categories which emerged. A matrix of categories is formed by the a priori data

categories and the emerging data relating to 'Beneficial', 'Not beneficial', and 'Negative' aspects of mentoring relationships.

Table 6.5 Matrix of mentor roles and functions in aspects of relationships.

Beneficial aspects of mentoring	**Career development**	**Psychosocial**	**Role Model**
	Well organised administrator	Giving constructive critical feedback *(not evaluation)*	Availability
	Coaching in research and teaching	Always willing to do more than is required	High academic profile
	Protection	Encouraging	
	Collaboration	Shares experiences	
	Networker	Willingness to listen	
		Help and guidance	
		Caring	
Aspects of mentoring not beneficial	**Career development**	**Psychosocial**	**Role Model**
	Little coaching in research and teaching	Giving poor critical feedback	Poor availability
	Too protective	Poor help and guidance	Power relations
			Poor interpersonal skills
Negative aspects of mentoring	**Career development**	**Psychosocial**	**Role Model**
		Breach of trust	Lack of availability
		Non acceptance	Power relations
			Credit taking

Table 6.5 shows the three major mentoring functions, career development, psychosocial support of mentees and functioning as a role model for mentees. The participants in the

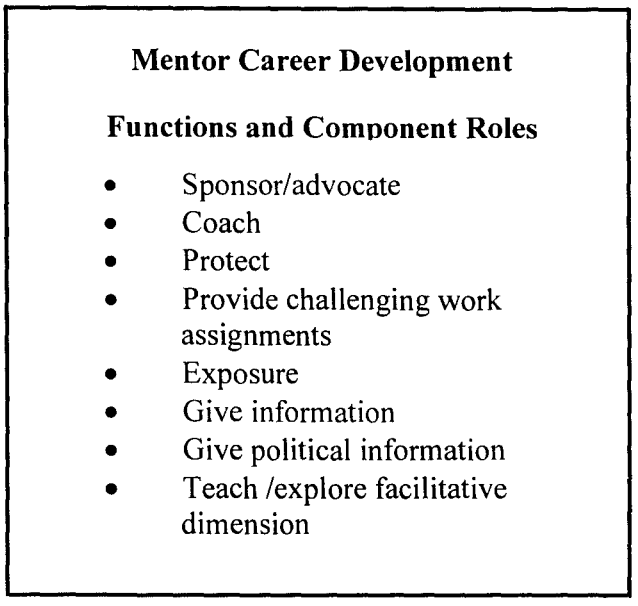
study gave specific examples of these functions and these were allocated by the constant comparative method to the categories indicating beneficial aspects of the *career development* function of the mentor (see column 2), and to the categories indicating beneficial aspects of the *psychosocial* function of the mentor (see column 3), and the categories indicating beneficial aspects of the *role model* function of the mentor (see column 4). The table contains further categories related to the not beneficial aspects of the *career development* and *psychosocial* and the *role model* functions of the mentor. The table also shows further categories related to the negative aspects of the *career development* and *psychosocial* and the *role model* functions of the mentor.

The matrix of mentor roles and functions forms the basis of the data analysis which follows and is discussed in the three parts: firstly the beneficial, not beneficial and negative aspects of the *career development roles and functions*; secondly the beneficial, not beneficial and negative aspects of the *psychosocial roles and functions* and lastly the beneficial, not beneficial and negative aspects of the *role model functions*. Each of these further categories is discussed in detail with examples from participants, in the next three sections.

6.5 Findings and discussion of the *Career Development functions and roles* of the mentor

In Kram's analysis of mentor functions, mentors provide career development support which functions to advance the protégés progress in the organisation; and they provide psychosocial support which functions to assist the protégés in their personal growth and professional development (Kram, 1988). The career development roles and functions have been tabulated in Tables 6.1 and 6.2 shown previously and are shown here again for ease of reference.

Figure 6.2a Mentor career development functions and component roles



Although mentors do not perform the entire array of mentor roles for each mentee, the whole gamut of roles discussed in the literature as shown in Table 6.4 does appear in this study. I discuss the career development functions of mentors in two parts; firstly the functions directly related to the work of academics: coaching for teaching, research and writing; setting challenging assignments; giving information; and protection and secondly, the functions related to career advancement like sponsorship and exposure.

Mentors appear to be comfortable with the *giving information* functions, in the roles of *assessor* and *standard setter* for mentees, each of which appears 64.28%, of the time (n =18). Mentors perform these roles mostly during the research phases of the doctoral study and less frequently for the written work of the mentees where they perform more of an editorial role.

The role of *coach* was divided up into the component parts of the work done by academics and is couched in language that reflects those components. Participants were asked to if their mentors fulfilled the roles of *collaborative teacher, publisher* and *co-*

enquirer for research. Mentees report that the role of *co-enquirer* together with their mentors appears 42.86% of the time, (n =12). Mentees sometimes form part of the mentor's research group and will be conducting research into one aspect of a larger project for their doctoral studies. Where this is not the case, mentees seldom report that their mentors perform the role of co-enquirer. Nevertheless, this means that between and third and a half of all mentees do not benefit from these roles.

There is a very small incidence of the *collaborative publisher* mentor role for early career academics where only 14.29% each of men and women (n =8) report its presence. Just over a quarter of mentees, 28.57% in all, see their mentors in this role. Those young academics who are most successful, about 13% of them according to Boice (1992) who become effective academics within two years, perform well because they schedule regular time for writing, integrate their research into their lectures. It may be difficult for early career academics to begin to publish their work without sufficient mentoring in the whole writing and publishing process. Yet only about one in four mentors in this study is systematically helping to shape the writing and publishing skills of their mentees by collaborating with them in producing written work for publication at the beginning of their careers. As confirmation and tenure rest heavily on an academic's publications, this is one of the most vital functions for mentors to perform and yet clearly, very few of them are doing it or if they do, they do not begin it soon enough with their mentees.

Almost three quarters of the mentees (71.43%) have to brave the world of writing for internal or journal publication on their own with the attendant risk of rejection for any number of reasons. Sorcinelli (2000) points out that one of the most successful ways of developing academics is by creating opportunities for early-career and senior faculty to formally collaborate in co-authoring a paper or grant, or reshaping department curricula. Opportunities for writing together are plentiful and mentors can begin to provide these early for mentees if they are proactive in the mentoring process. Mentees in this study feel the lack of this kind of mentoring but few of them broach the subject with mentors. Nor do they find other sources of support such as research writing group which can provide peer support and mentoring. They struggle on alone and unpublished to the

detriment of their careers. Ongoing, supervised and incremental mentoring of writing is crucial to the quality and successful publication of research. This kind of support is essential for the growth of competent professional academics.

Table 6.6 Matrix of career development roles fulfilled by mentors in higher education

Career development aspects of mentoring		
Beneficial	**Not beneficial**	**Negative**
Coaching in research and teaching	Little coaching in research and teaching	
Collaboration in research and teaching	Not well organised administrator	
Protection	Too much protection	
Networker		
Well organised administrator		

Higgins (2002) maintains that studies examining the consequences of mentoring have tended to aggregate different types of assistance, exploring how receiving substantial amounts of mentoring assistance in general affects career outcomes (e.g. Dreher and Ash, 1990). One mentee encapsulated her experience of the benefits of mentoring when she said:

> "I am growing and I am making quite a lot of progress. I didn't think I would have survived without my mentor because I came from an HDI so the cultural diversity in class was frightening for me. I got over it with help from my mentor."

This study shows how specific kinds of assistance impact on the careers of early career academics. The impact may be beneficial, not beneficial or even negative depending on the way in which the mentor chooses to perform the role or neglects performing the role for the mentee. Examples of specific incidences of career development behaviour of mentors identified in Table 6.6 are discussed in the section below. Each of the identified behaviours in Table 6.6 is addressed separately in the discussion.

6.6 Career development functions and roles: Aspects of the relationship *most beneficial* for mentees

In the responses to the question about which aspects of the mentoring relationship are most beneficial for mentees, the participants mentioned career development support functions which advance the protégés progress specifically in the higher education context. These are functions which directly concern aspects of the academic work in which mentees are involved, in their academic careers. These would include:

- *coaching* in how to conduct research and how to teach;
- *assessing* the mentee's work in research and teaching and *setting standards* for these;
- *collaborating* with the mentee in challenging assignments of teaching, research and writing;
- *protection* of the mentee in certain situations;
- being a *consultant* for the mentee in the giving of subject specific information or political information;
- *networking* with others who can help the mentee;
- being a *well organised administrator*;
- *sponsoring* the mentee's career moves and *advocacy* in promoting the mentee as a colleague; and
- and providing *exposure* to more senior academics to showcase the mentee's work.

6.6.1 Challenging assignments of teaching, research and writing

It is the nature of the mentoring relationships in this research that challenging assignments are a 'given' because the mentors in this study are also higher degree supervisors for all mentees engaged in postgraduate studies in these equity development programmes. For Kram (1988) the function to 'provide challenging assignments' for mentees is interpreted differently by Clutterbuck (2001) who sees the role as 'stretching' the mentee which he regards as essentially a task-focused function. Mentees appreciate being associated with mentors who demand a high standard of work and who indicate when their work is lacking in this respect. One woman described her mentor's stance with regard to the challenge of her work like this: "He can be critical when necessary so that I will produce a worthy piece of writing." The mentor treats the mentee as a colleague and is not patronising in his dealings with the mentee when setting challenging work.

Mentees enjoy a mentor who commands respect during the process of meeting the challenge of completing the higher degree. One of the women described her mentor's manner like this: "Her personality makes things easier to learn from and to be comfortable in the department. She is caring and I respect her." The mentor has established rapport and trust so that the mentee can begin her professional socialisation in the School in a pleasant way.

Both the research aspect and the teaching aspect of early careers in higher education are very challenging for those beginning their careers. Yet because teaching is regarded as an integral part of academic work it is often taken for granted that aspiring academics will manage teaching tasks as a matter of course. The research area and production of new knowledge receives more attention than teaching as the findings of this study show. Just over half the mentees, 56% receive help with teaching although 44% do not. Coaching for teaching is an important role for mentors as beginning teachers can learn to do teaching tasks and do them better if they are coached and given practice in doing so.

It is clear that lack of standardised quality assurance of teaching leaves large numbers of early career academics without any practical or theoretical support in their teaching endeavours. Lack of systematic professional development in teaching occurs even when the newcomers are in mentoring relationships. The international trend towards obtaining teaching qualifications in higher education discussed in the literature review is being followed slowly in South African although there is little that can be done for those early career academics in the system at present where their teaching development is ignored. It is possible that mentees who do get teaching support will influence those who don't to request it or seek it out for themselves if their mentors have been remiss in this area of their development. Systematic professional development in all aspects of academic work is clearly aligned to the transformation agenda in the policy documents published by the Council on Higher Education.

Whether it is an appropriate role for the mentor to be the mentee's assessor is contested. Clutterbuck and Megginson (1999) are insistent that the best mentoring happens where the mentor is 'off-line' and not in a direct supervisor position to the mentee. However, in the mentoring programmes in higher education examined in this study, the mentor is generally the mentee's higher degree supervisor or the Head of Discipline and such a direct reporting line may not be avoidable. It is considered that the mentee would usually be better advised by a mentor who does not have any direct assessment of the mentee's performance.

The notion of assessment is inherent in teaching in formal educational settings and I argue that the role of assessor is part of the mentoring function in this kind of formal mentoring programme where the mentor coaches mentees for skills in teaching and research and that the role is implicit for these kinds of programmes in higher education.

According to Jones (2001) the role of 'assessor' in higher education can generate tension in the mentor–trainee relationship, particularly when assessment is closely related to predetermined outcomes. The mentee may be at a disadvantage resulting in an uneven distribution of power. Consequently, feelings of dependency and inferiority can impair

the mentor–trainee relationship. While the concept of continuous assessment can enhance the reliability, fairness and accuracy in judging trainees' competence, the power differential between assessor and assessee, i.e. mentor and trainee, can seriously interfere with the development of a trusting and honest relationship.

Difficulties may be compounded when the mentor is also the mentee's higher degree supervisor or Head of School as is the case with several participants in this study.

6.6.2 Consultant giving information, political information and networking

The mentors provided career development support for early career academics in two core areas of the academic career: in coaching for the development of teaching and research. They give direction on how the system works and how the department functions. This is an important aspect of the new relationship for mentees because they are in the process of making the transition from postgraduate student to member of staff and colleague in the department. One mentee said: "When it comes to procedures in the department, I can get to do things more quickly." Some of the information giving is assistance with the administrative load which can be confusing and is often not specifically mentioned in the orientation and induction of new members of staff. One woman summed it up best when she said: "My mentor helped me most with getting things done in the department. He has excellent contacts and he is a very good networker." Burke, Bristor and Rothstein (1995) report that the use of interpersonal networks is positively related to career satisfaction, organisational integration and lower intentions to quit. Kram (1988) suggests that individuals in mentoring relationships have constellations of developmental relationships. Using the mentor's network of relationships may be a first step towards developing a constellation of interpersonal contacts in professional network. Higgins (2000) reports that, in addition to individual-level factors such as race and gender, the composition and quality of an entire set of early-career developmental relationships are related to career satisfaction. The number of developmental relationships formed early in an individual's

career and the amount of career and psychosocial help received are positively related to work satisfaction.

An additional aspect of giving information concerns the teaching of students. Most mentees are new to this and mentors can provide information as well as help and guidance for beginning teachers. Giving information about teaching and coaching in teaching is highly valued by early-career academics in mentoring programmes.

6.6.3 Coaching in research and teaching

It is fairly common for mentors to assist mentees who are new to teaching in concrete ways such as sharing the teaching of a course or sharing the teaching of a particular class, with the discussions, before and afterwards, of the techniques and strategies used and the queries about the content of the sessions. More than half of the mentees in this study, 56%, did receive a variety of such teaching coaching, help and guidance. As very few of the mentees in this study had teaching qualifications, and none of those were in higher education teaching, the concern that the findings raise is that a much larger number of mentored early career academics should be getting support for their teaching. Mentored professional teaching development and obtaining higher education teaching qualifications would result in a much greater likelihood of support for teaching in the early years in academic careers. This is in line with the transformation envisaged by professional associations like HESDI, and governmental bodies like the Council on Higher education and ETDP SETA.

Mentees who are concerned about the quality of their teaching value their mentor's input greatly, as one woman explained:

> "Most beneficial for me is the teaching together, the guiding, the helping with teaching in the classroom. She gives me lots of direction and she's understanding and flexible."

Alleman and Clarke (2000) note that mentor-coaches must be able to teach what they know to mentees because it is the mentees, not the mentors, who have to do the teaching set by their departments. Boice (1992), Sorcinelli and Austin (1992) all comment on the advantages of having a mentor who spends time in the classroom with the beginning teacher and who makes a point of discussing the structure and delivery of the content material, and the teaching methods used in the class. Mentees express their experiences very typically like this: "In research, my mentor is beneficial in giving me guidance and giving me direction. In teaching, in giving me direction and giving me advice and I can use him for consultation." Mentees appreciate help where they are inexperienced and are uncertain of what to do. The unstinting offering of anecdotes and stories is helpful, as one of the mentees said when he remarked on the beneficial nature of this relationship with his mentor: "He always offers his experience. I have done my marking under his guidance. He is a fountain of knowledge."

McNally and Martin (1998) found in their study that mentors of beginning teachers acknowledge that challenge is a key ingredient in mentee growth but that they were not as proactive about it as they could have been. Collaborative mentors lead beginning teachers' reflections about their teaching and provide feedback on teaching.

Beginning lecturers and teachers need a great deal of 'scaffolding' when they begin teaching, whether or not they have a theoretical base of teacher training to guide them. Zanting, Verloop and Vermunt (2001) have identified a 'missing role' for teaching mentors which is the role of *articulator of practical knowledge*. Meijer, Zanting and Verloop (2002) maintain that simply observing an experienced mentor's teaching is insufficient help for mentees and that the results are likely to result in teaching which is imitative and lacking in insight about why their mentors do what they do in the classroom. They stress that when the mentor helps the beginning teacher to think aloud when they recall their own or their mentor's teaching, such investigations of the mentor's practical teaching knowledge can result in a deeper insight into the cognitive aspects of teaching; an understanding of the complexity of teachers' practical knowledge and how

this is related to practice; and encouragement of reflection on their own developing practical teaching knowledge.

It appears that mentors in the present study do not coach mentees in any systematic way unless they themselves have formal teaching qualifications and are aware that teaching is a very challenging activity. One mentee who is a qualified secondary school teacher noted how challenging he found his lecturing in higher education when he said:

> "I had to rethink my identity as a secondary school teacher and about disciplining students, especially about their inattentiveness. I had to reconsider the notion of lecturing vs. teaching. This is not a school set-up. I had to combine the two."

The mentor's role of *collaborative teacher* reported by 56.25% of the sample (n =16) is more frequently performed by women's mentors than by men's mentors. One mentor who is trained as a teacher had this to say about higher education teaching. In the Science Faculty at their university a PhD is a basic requirement for appointment as an associate lecturer and before one is allowed to teach any undergraduate students. He said he had considered this in his helping and preparing his mentee, who does not have a teaching qualification:

> "We are reluctant to put our mentees straight into teaching in their very first year, because we believe it is a fairly large hurdle and it has to be overcome. And we also take care to try select fairly 'good' classes for them. For example my own mentee teaches our Chemistry I Major. So this is perceived to a one of the better and easier classes to teach. Now, without her being in this program, there is a very, very slim chance that she would have been put in front of a class to lecture. She would have been a tutoring, she would have been demonstrating as any PhD student does. And she is a very good tutor and demonstrator. We do surveys of our undergraduate students and the comments about her have been very, very positive. But I very much doubt we would have put her in front of a class."

Mentors who are aware of the challenges posed by teaching do coach their mentees in many aspects of teaching. For the remaining 44.75% of the mentees in formal mentoring programmes in this study, this opportunity to receive crucial mentoring in this

challenging aspect of academic careers is missing or neglected. Lack of mentoring in teaching is a critical issue raised by early career academics in the study by Rice, Sorcinelli and Austin (2002). Aspiring academics state emphatically that such coaching is necessary. Perhaps because organisational models of mentoring are more easily accessible to mentors and higher education specific are not as widely available, this aspect of the mentor's role is so poorly incorporated by academic mentors. The role of assessor and standard setter seems to be applied more consistently in terms of research and its challenges than to the challenges of teaching.

Apart from mentoring for teaching and research, the mentor's experience can be crucial to the mentee when situations which are unusual or unexpected arise. Examples such as student complaints about the mentee's teaching or discrimination against mentees are discussed in the next section. The mentee's career and development can be enhanced when the mentor's experience serves to protect the mentee from harmful actions or situations.

6.6.4 Protection

Mentors can sometimes protect the mentee against "untimely or potentially damaging contact with other senior officials .... when visibility is not in the interest of the individual."(Kram, 1988, p 29) by handling difficult situations which mentees are not ready to tackle by themselves. Alleman and Clarke (2000) report that protection is a function less frequently performed by mentors but that after training mentors understand the importance of the function better. One mentee in the present study encountered some difficulty in the management of students in a course which he was sharing with his mentor. He recognised that he wasn't sure of how to proceed but his mentor realised that he was too inexperienced to handle the situation without considerable difficulty. He says this about the way she assisted him:

> "Her being there as an advisor, she knows the ropes and can dispense advice on the spot. I used to take things personally but she made me realise that I can't always make everybody happy. A student complained about the order of

> practicals and threatened to go to the Dean. This was a repeat student. My mentor helped to contact class representative and kept student away from me and she sorted it out."

In the changing demographics of the students and staff in South African universities, mentees are sometimes exposed to situations which are potentially damaging to them and their careers. If mentors fail to protect them, mentees may feel that they have to meet unrealistic levels of performance or risk becoming scapegoats for anything that goes wrong (Potgieter, 2002). One woman related how she was the only black member of staff in her department and the first black woman. A black male colleague had recently left the department to take up a post at another university. She had been teaching a course in Law to a large class which included a number of white students.

> "The (white) students were discriminatory. During the assessment and evaluation of the lecturer at the end of the course, the students made racist comments. I took it up with my mentor. He said I should not take it personally."

Potgieter (2002) reports that black members of staff feel that they are made to carry an amount of blame disproportionate to any problems that occur. When things went wrong, it was their fault, not the fault of the students nor attributable to any other circumstances. The mentor in this instance considered that the students were at fault but when I probed the way in which the mentor had handled the situation and asked the woman what her mentor had done to help her to address the issue with the students, she said that he had not done anything else and that she "was satisfied with the solution." She sounded as if she would have liked to have taken a more assertive stance herself. It appears that the mentor was using his discretion in reassuring his mentee but not allowing her to face what was potentially a harmful confrontation with students who could have made subsequent courses more difficult for her to teach. Perhaps the mentor realises that racism is overt but is unwilling to challenge all institutional members about it, or to discover whether the mentee is teaching badly and needs coaching. Either way, avoiding taking action may do the mentee a serious disservice.

I shall discuss issues of managing prejudice from students and colleagues in Chapter 8 on cross-cultural aspects of mentoring and argue that while protection of the protégé is important when difficult situations arise, in the transformational context of higher education in South Africa, the mentor has to do more than protect the mentee.

The findings show that the whole array of career development roles and functions is performed by the mentors in this study but that some functions are more beneficial than others. The most beneficial functions are those which advance the career of beginning academics such as coaching in teaching, research and writing; providing challenging assignments in these core areas of academic work; the assessment and standard setting associated with the work; protection; being a consultant for the giving of information or political information; and being a well organised administrator. These are the ones which need particular attention in the higher education context. Other less frequently demonstrated career development functions, particularly sponsorship and advocacy, may apply more readily in corporate contexts than in higher education.

The career development roles and functions which mentees report as being not beneficial to them are discussed in the next section.

6.7 Career development aspects of the relationship *not beneficial* for mentees

Certain of the career development functions mentioned as 'most beneficial' can also be perceived as 'not beneficial' when mentors neglect to perform them or do not perform them at all. Mentees particularly highlight the role of coaching in teaching, research and writing and being a well organised administrator, when they were describing the aspects of their relationships which were not beneficial to them.

6.7.1 Little coaching in research and teaching

The expectations of mentors and mentees in this study are formed and aligned to some extent by the structuring of the developmental programmes in such a way that mentees are paired with a single mentor for the duration of the programme. Some mentors can act effectively in several areas which are necessary for the mentees but this is not always the case. One woman pointed this out when she described where her mentor was not beneficial for her:

> "Publishing and research is not happening for me, I'm not getting this from him. Perhaps there should be more than one mentor where the mentor is not good at some aspects of the work?"

As publishing and research are core components of academic work, it is essential that appropriate mentoring in these skills should be given. The difficulty where a single mentor is appointed is highlighted in this example. Mentees may not feel empowered enough or assertive enough to obtain the necessary mentoring from other colleagues or senior academics in their discipline or further a field. Cohen (1999) points out that abstract, time-consuming and unproductive meandering can be prevented if mentors have a specific focus for meetings. The particular situation in the example above can be seen as a structural flaw in formal mentoring programmes where no provision is made for making up for certain areas of lack of expertise in the assigned or designated mentor. The mentor and mentee may feel constrained by the nature of the programme and not feel able to move outside the confines of the relationship for additional expertise. The networking role of the mentor is important here and demonstrating the empowering use of an extensive network is consistent with good mentoring. Cohen (1999) draws attention to the networking role of mentors when he says that mentors can assist mentees by demonstrating that *who* the person knows can be as valuable as *what* the person knows.

Professional women need to develop relationships with men, both at more senior and at peer levels, if they are to succeed (Burke, Rothstein and Bristor, 1995). Failure to obtain necessary expertise for the mentee is neglectful of the mentee and is discussed by Eby et

al., (2000) as technical incompetence of the mentor. Continued demonstration of incompetence by the mentor, and an inability or unwillingness of the mentor to do anything about it, can result in a dysfunctional relationship.

Responses like the one above lead to concerns about the appropriate selection of mentors and the role of the co-ordinator. This is an example of a situation where the co-ordinator does not use a range of strategies in an efficacious way for addressing issues which arise during the mentoring.

One of the men in the study also complained that his mentor's coaching in teaching was not beneficial for him because he was not able to assist him in a specific way where the mentee is inexperienced in teaching. He explained it by saying: "He gives unsuitable and inappropriate examples for me to use with my classes. His expertise is in a different area so I can't use his examples." Cohen (1999) says that mentees should learn, with the mentor's guidance, to assess the value of information. In this instance the mentee could assess the value of the mentor's information and be assertive in requesting further help.

Where the mentor is not sufficiently in touch with the mentee's needs or where the mentor is too vague, there is also potential for the mentee to experience the mentor as unhelpful and not interested in providing guidance. Mentors need to check out the suitability of their input and clarify it and give additional input where the mentee is uncertain or floundering. Insufficient or poor coaching can be damaging to the mentee's efforts in teaching and can undermine the relationship.

6.7.2 Too much protection

Mentor protection guards mentees against "untimely or potentially damaging contact with other senior officials .... when visibility is not in the interest of the individual."(Kram, 1988, p 29). However, there are instances when the mentee does not find the mentor's

protectiveness as beneficial as the mentor might consider it to be. One woman in the study was understanding of her mentor's behaviour in the departmental context but also had this to say about it: "His protectiveness is not beneficial. He sees me as a daughter and this makes me feel like a child." Feldman (1999) reports that positive expressions of appreciation from the protégé may become entangled with residual negative expressions of resentment and powerlessness. Murray (1991) points out that the parent / child relationship in mentoring is potentially dangerous and can foster an unhealthy dependence in the mentee.

The unintended consequence of the mentor's action is to disempower and infantilise the mentee which makes it more difficult to establish and adult and equal or even collegial relationship with her mentor and others in the department. She went on to say that: "Collegiality in the department is difficult." Many researchers urge mentors to guard against fostering dependency in their mentees (Cohen, 1999; Clutterbuck, 2001). Blake-Beard (2001) suggests that women need to negotiate the internal aspects of formal mentoring programmes including managing the appropriate level of intimacy in the relationship. Clawson and Kram (1984) describe this struggle as the 'developmental dilemma' in cross-gender relationships, although it may not be exclusive to cross-gender pairings. If the developmental dilemma is not managed, certain external aspects of the relationship may also become more difficult to negotiate. Mentors may be accused of favouritism and mentees may be the target of resentment and jealousy from others.

6.8 Career development aspects of the relationship *negative* for mentees

Most mentoring literature focuses exclusively on the positive aspects of mentoring but Eby and her colleagues (2000) maintain that this paints a distorted and unrealistic picture of relationships which fosters the perception that any negative experience is pathological and aberrant rather than a normal aspect of relationships. Feldman (1999) presents an alternative perspective that not all young adults become enmeshed in dysfunctional relationships through the mentor's fault but may also contribute to dysfunctional

dynamics in the relationship. This study looks at the full range of experiences - positive, neutral and negative and as such reveals findings for higher education which have not been reported before.

The participants in this study reported negative experiences but they did not occur in the career development area. They occurred in the area of the mentor's psychosocial roles and functions and are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

In the next section, the findings about career progress and factors which contribute to it during the mentoring programme are discussed. The mentees reflect on what has happened and whether their progress has matched their expectations.

6.9 Length of relationships, selection of mentoring pairs, career progress, and retention of mentees in higher education

In the traditional American model of mentoring (Kram, 1988), the sponsorship role of the mentor is regarded as inherent and positive. Clutterbuck (2001) calls that model of mentoring 'sponsorship' or 'godfathering' mentoring and sees sponsorship as something to avoid in 'developmental' mentoring because it deflects mentees' development of their own resourcefulness. The mentor's roles of sponsoring and exposure have direct bearing on career progress and outcomes for mentees. Limited as sponsorship is in higher education, it is a role which occurs in academic settings where mentors may sponsor promotions and lateral moves within departments at the University or at other institutions.

The role of *sponsor* appears least frequently of all roles for both men and women mentees but only 13% of women (n = 2) see mentors in the role of sponsor at all compared to 38.5% of men (n =5). Alleman and Clarke (2000) report the same finding for their

sample. Kram's definition of *sponsorship* as sponsoring promotions and lateral moves (Kram, 1988) may not be a function which academic mentors can perform for early career academics on three-year fixed-term employment contracts. It may be that academic mentors do not have the kind of flexibility for sponsorship in Kram's sense that corporate mentors do. Male mentees, however, report receiving sponsorships 43 percent more frequently than women mentees in this study.

Men report receiving sponsorships much more frequently than women (71.43%); their mentors are critical friends more often than for women (60%); and mentors perform the educator role for men slightly more often for them than for women, 53.33% of the time.

Women report that their mentors act in a wide variety of roles for them. The roles of helper and guide during the transition (52.63%), coach, giver of encouragement, (52.38%) are only slightly more frequently performed for them than for male mentees. The roles of counsellor (53.33%); consultant (55.5%) and role model and collaborative teacher (56.25%) are more frequently performed by women's mentors than by men's mentors.

The trends towards different emphases in mentoring reported by men and women may reflect the ways in which the paired relationships are constructed. Most men are in same gender relationships with their mentors (76.92%) which may account for the tendency for them to receive more sponsorship, critical friendship, help and guidance during the transition and education than women mentees in the study. Women have fewer same gender relationships (40%), almost half as many as the men. Women generally have male mentors (Murray, 1991) and the tendency is for them to receive more coaching, collaborative teaching, consultation, encouragement and role modeling than men. Black women mentees have no black women mentors as role models and they may be doubly in difficult relationships because their mentors are white men or sometimes, white women (Davidson and Foster-Johnson, 2001). White male mentors may have more status in the academic community than the very few white women mentors and that may work in the woman's favour. But there is the potential of greater disjunctures in communication,

understanding and establishing friendship because of the racial and gender divide. Even women in same gender relationships report difficulty with mentors who belong to different cultural groupings.

6.9.1 Length of mentoring relationships

As Rice, Sorcinelli and Austin (2002) point out the process of socialisation is ongoing and beginning lecturers learn from observing and interacting with established faculty members, as in an apprenticeship model. Feldman (1999) suggests that mentors and mentees will have fewer opportunities to test their compatibility during the early stage of formal programmes because the first stage may be shortcut. The findings in this study show that the length of the relationship between mentors and mentees has an impact on both the expectations of the mentees and their perceptions of their career progress.

Table 6.7 below shows the distribution of men and women in this study who had established relationships with their mentors before the start of the formal mentoring programme and those who did not.

Table 6.7: Length of mentoring relationships for pairs in Year 2000 cohort of academic mentees

	Started before inception of formal mentoring programme		**Started only at inception of formal mentoring programme**		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Total
UN	3	3	1	1	8
UPE	1	3	5	2	11
Wits	3	3	2	1	9
Total	7	9	8	4	28
	57.15%		42.85%		100%

The characteristics of the formal mentoring relationship in the academic institutions participating in this study are different from most formal mentoring programmes reported in the literature where mentees are assigned to mentors in a matching or pairing process (Cotton and Ragins, 1999; Kram, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Murray, 1991). Ragins, Cotton and Miller (2000) found that formal programmes which incorporate aspects of informal mentoring such as voluntary participation, choice in the matching process and focus on protégé career development goals show a marked link to positive career and job attitudes. In the mentoring pairs in this study, there is a wide range of variation in how the pairs are formed but in general the pairs are not assigned by the programme co-ordinator but they are usually self-selected because of the nature of hierarchies in higher education institutions. The variations will be discussed in greater detail following the discussion of the findings above. There are few reports in the literature of pre-existing relationships in mentoring pairs and thus there is uncertainty about how greatly academic mentoring relationships differ from corporate ones usually described in the formal mentoring programme literature.

It is interesting to note that in this sample of mentees from three different universities in South Africa, that 57.14% (n = 16) of the mentees had been in long established relationships with their mentors before the inception of the formal mentoring programme. This is most likely attributable to the structure of the academic staff hierarchy in higher education and the nature of academic study programmes. Many pairs of individuals in mentoring relationships will have had fairly extensive contact prior to the mentoring programme because the mentor had been a lecturer or higher degree supervisor to the mentee during their undergraduate or postgraduate studies. Less than half of the mentees, 42.85% (n = 12) began the mentoring only at the inception of the formal mentoring programme. There are more than twice as many women as men in this category with shorter mentoring relationships. Those relationships which began at the inception of the mentoring usually occur with newly appointed academic staff members who came from other institutions to take up their appointments, either as conventional new hires or as recipients of donor-funded equity development programmes.

It would appear that mentoring is more likely to be available to newly appointed staff if they are already in the university as students. It is less likely to occur if one is a newcomer to the institution unless there is a policy of mentoring all new staff appointments. This finding is not reported elsewhere in the literature. The most troubled and dysfunctional of the relationships in this study occur mostly within the category of mentees who came from outside the institution to take up an appointment. Trust building in relationships takes time and is crucial to the development of satisfying mentoring (Alleman, 1996; Cohen, 1999; Kram, 1988).

Familiarity of the parties in mentoring pairs may have significant positive or negative impact on the evolving formal mentoring relationship. Familiarity may be useful in accelerating the learning curve and action planning at the beginning of formal mentoring but it may also act as a barrier to engaging in a new collaborative interaction and merely replicate old superior/ subordinate relationships. The mentor should openly redefine the purpose of the new relationship and specifically draw attention to the changes in the new relationship (Cohen, 1999). This tricky transition is best summed up by a mentor at Wits who said:

> "My mentee is more or less as a colleague in the partnership, more than just a student, so negotiating that issue, that delicate shift is very important, you know. How far do you go with him as a colleague and how far you go with him as a student? And this is a delicate balance that you really have to achieve. You must treat him with respect, to listen as a colleague but at the same time you also have to ensure that he can still listen and take something from you. Learning is a long life (sic) process."

6.9.2 Selection of mentoring pairs

In this study, there are a number of variations to the terms and conditions under which the mentoring pairs are selected and assigned to work together for the duration of formal

mentoring programme. At the University of Natal, mentors are selected by the Faculty Executive Committee 'to ensure the orientation and induction of the candidate into the processes and procedures of the School' (University of Natal, 2000, p 3). It is important to note that mentors are selected at the outset to form a potential pool of mentors within the faculties at the University of Natal. There are no details about how the mentors are selected or what criteria are used for their selection and consequently it can only be assumed that the quality assurance of the mentor selection is done on a rather ad hoc basis. Once the selection of the pairs is complete and if a good relationship develops during the first three months, the pair remains together for the three-year programme. The University of Natal is keen to involve prospective mentees in the pairing process 'to obviate the necessity for a change after the initial three months' although this is allowed so that the mentoring relationships will develop harmoniously for the remainder of the three-year programme (University of Natal, 2002, p 3). Half of the women in the University of Natal sample (n =2) have continued in the programme with their original mentors. Half of the women, (n =2) had changed mentors within the first year as they explained:

> "I had a previous mentor, my Head of School, but she had too many commitments for one semester, so she suggested another person. I nominated Dr D P after six months. She has been my mentor for a year."

The second mentee who had a change of mentor explained her situation like this:

> "My current mentor has just taken over because my previous mentor went to New Zealand. I nominated him as a mentor because he has vast practical experience."

Most of the women at University of Natal (n =3) had already established relationships with their mentors before the formal mentoring programme began. Two of these began four years before the formal mentoring when the mentees were students; one was an undergraduate and the other was a postgraduate student. A third woman mentee had lectured part-time in the department and had worked as a colleague with her mentor for many years.

All of the women report 'very good', 'exceptional', 'severely accelerated' career development during the first half of the formal mentoring programme. All the mentors of these women were men. The woman who had not met her mentor prior to the mentoring programme and who had been with her for a year, reported being 'on target for personal deadlines' but she did not report the same degree of career progress as the other women at University of Natal. She is the only woman of the University of Natal women with a female mentor.

The men at University of Natal (n = 4) show a similar pattern to that of the women; 75% of them had known their mentors prior to their appointment to the programme. Half of the men (n =2) had met their mentors as undergraduate students and one had met his mentor as a colleague working together on an undergraduate course. Only one of the men was assigned to his mentor by his Head of School.

The men who reported 'good' career progress had female mentors (n =2). The men with male mentors (n =2) reported less or much slower career progress. This does finding does not support the reports in the literature about male mentees with male mentors showing significantly better career progress compared to male mentees with female mentors (Cotton and Ragins, 1999).

The circumstances at Wits are different from those at University of Natal in that the mentees do not have a policy-based option of finding another mentor after the initial three months in the programme. At Wits, the mentor is also the mentee's higher degree supervisor and the participating pairs are expected to stay together until the degree is completed as in the traditional higher degree supervision process at South African unless there is an unavoidable necessity to change.

At Wits, two-thirds of the mentees (n = 6) had been in established relationships with their mentors before they were appointed to the formal mentoring programme. Three of these mentees were men and three were women. The three women had all been postgraduate students doing higher degrees with their mentors in their disciplines. One of these

relationships had been established for five years prior to the inception of the formal mentoring programme. The other two women had worked with their mentors for three years prior to the inception of the mentoring programme.

Three of the male mentees at Wits only had one-year long relationships with their mentors. These relationships started only briefly before the mentoring programme during the application phase for the programmme. Only one man had an exceptionally long relationship of seven years starting in a bridging programme prior to enrolment at Wits and lasting all through his undergraduate studies, through Honours and Masters degree studies as well.

At University of Port Elizabeth, only one of the women had met her mentor before the programme began. Her mentor had been her M Ed supervisor and he had lectured her during her B Ed the year previous. Nearly all of the women, 83%, (n=5) met their mentors when they were appointed, at induction or shortly afterwards. All the women report good career progress. One woman said: "I'm growing and I am making quite a lot of progress. I didn't think I would have survived. I came from HDI and cultural diversity here in the classes was frightening. I got over it with help from my mentor."

In contrast, 60% of the men (n=3) had long established relationships with their mentors. In the case of one mentee, he had been a junior colleague for three years. Two other male junior lecturers had met their mentors as undergraduates. The remaining 40 % of the men in the University of Port Elizabeth sample (n=2) met their mentors shortly before or after the induction programme. Reports of steady career progress were given by three of the men. Only one man reported good progress and one reported slow progress.

6.9.3 Career progress

Ragins, Cotton and Miller (2000) found that protégés who describe their mentoring relationships as highly satisfying have more positive job and career attitudes than those

who are only marginally satisfied or who are dissatisfied with their mentoring relationships.

Many positive outcomes have been linked to mentoring in higher education. Graduate students who have a mentor or who participate in mentoring programmes have higher rates of research productivity and publications than those who don't (Cronan-Hillix, Gensheimer, Cronan-Hillix and Davidson, 1986) and early career academics get higher student evaluations than those without mentors (Boice, 1992).

In Table 6.8 the findings related to the perceived career progress during the formal mentoring programme are shown.

Table 6.8: Career progress of mentees Year 2000 cohort after one year in a formal mentoring programme in higher education

	Very good / Accelerated		**Good / more insight / responsibility**		**On target/ improved / progressing**		**Slow**	
	F	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**
UN	2	0	0	2	2	1	0	1
UPE	1	0	2	1	2	3	1	1
Wits	0	1	2	0	2	1	1	1
Total	3	1	4	3	6	5	2	4
	14.29%		25%		39.29%		21.43%	

The mentees who reported very good, accelerated career progress comprise 14.29% of the sample, (n = 4). Three times as many women as men in this group reported this kind

of rapid and very obvious career development. This is unusual because the literature suggests that women do not often experience as much career advancement and development as men and shows that their progress exceeded their expectations. However, this result may be the result of the sample size and may be different in a bigger sample. Cotton and Ragins (1999) in a much bigger sample, report that male mentees with male mentors show significantly better career progress compared to male mentees with female mentors.

A quarter of the sample, (n =7) report good career progress which they characterise as providing them with greater insight into their careers and increased responsibility, somewhat exceeding what they had expected. Again, 25 % more women than men report such good career progress. The majority of the participants, 39.29% (n =11), report satisfactory career progress and describe their progress as on target, improved and progressing which indicates that their progress is aligned to their expectations. There are slightly more men in this group than women.

Twice as many men as women report that their career progress has been slow and this group comprises 21.43% of the sample, (n =6). It is not altogether clear on what criteria these perceptions rest, whether career progress is a global perception of having made headway in one's development as an academic or whether it is specifically linked to those aspects noted in the literature (Boice, 1992; Cronan-Hillix, Gensheimer, Cronan-Hillix and Davidson, 1986).

What is clear from the data is that those who have had longer established relationships with their mentors are much more positive about their career progress than those whose relationships are comparatively short.

6.9.4 Retention of early career academics in higher education

Retention of early career academics by the universities after the initial career phase is an important aspect of all the development equity formal mentoring programmes in this study. Career progress during the mentoring programme and the individual's experiences during that time may impact on decisions about making long-term career decisions. Table 6.9 below shows the distribution of those contemplating remaining in academic careers and those who are not.

Table 6.9: Formal mentoring is a factor in continuing in an academic career in higher education

	Yes		No		
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Total**
UN	0	2	4	2	8
UPE	3	1	3	4	11
Wits	3	2	2	2	9
Total	6	5	9	8	28
	21.43%	17.86%	32.14%	28.57%	100%

Not one of the women mentees at University of Natal (n = 4) considered that the formal mentoring programme would be a factor in considering continuing their careers as academics. It is possible that this may change by the end of the three-year programme. Half of the men (n = 2) said that it would be a factor in continuing their academic careers and half (n = 2) said that it would not. The gender of the mentors in these decisions is not as clearly demarcated as with the women at University of Natal. Tacit career expectations have not been clearly articulated although some of the men did indicate that the developmental nature of the mentoring programme had altered their career aspirations in ways which they could not have anticipated as students. One man expressed the changes

like this: "I enjoy my job and I am getting better at it, I never thought I would be a teacher at a HAU."

A woman in the sample indicated that her mentor was instrumental in furthering her career in ways which she would not have done for herself when she said: " He has helped me with a lot of things. He encouraged me to apply for the Spencer Foundation Fellowship awarded for three years. I wouldn't have applied otherwise."
At University of Port Elizabeth, half of the women (n=3) said that the mentoring would be a factor in continuing their careers in academia. "Yes. Somebody must map out a career path for me. I'm isolated and carry on, on my own." The other half of the women (n=3) said that mentoring would not be a consideration. One woman said that the mentoring was "useful but not the deciding factor" for her. Almost all the men, 80%, (n=4) said that mentoring would not be a factor in continuing their careers in academia. One man expressed this best when he said; "I don't think so. Personally I would go where there are better opportunities. Staying in academia is not a long-term decision. I will make a decision at the end of the programme."

At Wits, 60% of the women (n=4) said that the mentoring they had received would be a factor in continuing their academic careers. Typically they say things like: "Yes. I wouldn't have thought about being a lecturer but I'm beginning to like it. I'm interested in research." On a more global level, some women are aware that their continued presence in higher education is important for transformation and one woman expressed the situation like this: "Yes. I wouldn't get a post otherwise. There are major problems about it being an Affirmative Action post. Redress in higher education is essential."

In contrast, 80% of the men (n=4) said that the mentoring would *not* be a factor in continuing their academic careers. Mentoring for retention does not appear to be successful in the case of these men. One mentee voiced his attitude like this: "I don't think so. Continuing with an academic career is a personal thing. I might continue

elsewhere. I have built relationships, I'm part of research group here, it is my comfort zone."

In summary, fewer men and women in early career mentoring in higher education in this sample factor the mentoring into their long-term career decisions. More than half of all the men and women are pleased to have experienced the mentoring but clearly have other career agendas which have not been modified by their experiences in the mentoring programme. It may be that there is a structural flaw in the programmes which do not select mentees based on their aspiration to become academics but solely on equity considerations. This is not helpful for transformation of staff demographics because the employment of these mentees falsely inflates the numbers of black staff and their departures after the mentoring programme look like setbacks for higher education institution statistics. This is discussed further in the next section.

It would appear that although career progress is affected by the nature and duration of the mentoring relationship, this does not necessarily have an impact on whether or not early career academics will be retained by the universities which invest in their development through formal mentoring programmes.

6.10 Structural issues that do not involve mentors

The institutional culture and policies sometimes make the career development roles of the mentor in the relationship very difficult. The mentor may be everything the mentee wants and may do everything the mentee expects and yet the mentor's inability to overcome some institutional barriers to the mentee's career development may put strain on the relationship itself and may sometimes reflect poorly on the programme. The perception of the developmental programme by others in the university may itself be problematic for mentees to deal with. One of the mentees was clearly distressed when he said:

> "The academic internship programme (AIP) has a stigma. Academics and students think that AIPs aren't actually qualified. Within some departments they do not like us. They think we got through (as junior members of staff) on AIP instead of

through the usual academic route. We are not really supposed to be here and (they think) the standards are being lowered.

The external donor funds AIP posts. The University can't actually fund such people. This makes you feel unsure of your future. There is an 80 percent possibility that posts will become permanent after three years. Costs are being cut and retired academics in permanent posts are not being replaced."

As the researcher and interviewer, I experienced a measure of cognitive dissonance at this point with this participant, because at University of Natal the mentoring programme is an Equity Development programme which includes all designated groups, there is consequently a white woman on the programme. But because she is the only white person on the programme, she may not be very visible and the programme has become the target of white elitist prejudice by those white men not included in the programme. It is part of the whole transformation process in higher education in South Africa that such perceptions of reverse discrimination and subtle undermining of equity development programmes be addressed within the university as a whole. It is also important that AIP mentees are affirmed and assured that they are in their posts on merit and that they are subject to the same performance criteria and all others on the level of associate lecturer.

The mentees' lack of confidence in the university's ability to grow and develop early career academics is problematic for mentoring programmes of this kind.

6.11 Conclusion

Newly established findings about career development functions of mentors which emerge from the data show that mentees report needing *protection* by their mentors in their careers in the transforming academic workplace. They highlight this need especially where there is general exploitation of early career academics in their departments. This may be a finding particularly pertinent to South Africa where black early career academics have not been valued, nurtured or developed in any systematic way. The case study of Wits has confirmed this as a lack in all previously established affirmative action and equal opportunity schemes both during and after the Apartheid era. Academic 'topiary' needs to avoid stunted and misshapen growth in 'saplings'.

In terms of the model of mentor career development roles and functions shown in Figure 6.2, the study confirms the findings in the literature that mentors do fulfil the roles sponsoring promotions and lateral moves (sponsorship); coaching the protégé (coaching); protecting the protégé from adverse forces (protection); providing challenging assignments (challenging assignments); and increasing the protégé's exposure and visibility (exposure); giving information; providing political information and teaching/exploring facilitative dimension.

Mentees in this study report that some of these are more beneficial than others. The most beneficial functions in academic 'topiary' are those where mentors give help and guidance in research and teaching; where they offer protection to their mentees; where they give professional information or political information; and where they demonstrate how to be a well organised administrator. These would appear to be the ones which need particular attention in the higher education context but the findings are clear that there is insufficient support for teaching, and especially for writing and publication in higher education even in mentored programmes as shown in Table 6.2.

The role of protection seems to be too narrowly described by the model to be sufficient in the higher education context in South Africa and mentors need to be aware that they may

have to be very sensitive in performing this function. Other less frequently demonstrated career development functions, particularly sponsorship, may apply more readily in corporate contexts than in higher education.

Where mentors neglect or omit certain of the career development roles and functions, this study supports the findings of Eby et al., (2000) that such neglect can have a negative impact on mentoring relationships. Mentees report that neglect or omission of these career development roles and functions is not beneficial for them and in some instances is so marked as to create negative experiences for them in the mentoring relationship but none reported the negative impact to be so great that the relationship had disintegrated. The neglect or omission of career development roles and functions seems to be reflected in slow career progress.

Most mentees confirm the findings in the literature that mentoring has a positive effect on career progress. Career progress during the mentoring process also appears to be a function of length and duration of the relationship in that those who have had longer established relationships with their mentors are much more positive about their career progress than those whose relationships are comparatively short. The participants in this study had not been in the higher education system as members of their faculty staff long enough for them to have expected promotion and so career progress in this respect does not include promotion.

In the following chapter the mentor's nurturing function for optimal growth and development, the *psychosocial* functions and roles and *role model* functions are examined and discussed in detail because career mentoring is only part of the whole range of mentoring functions which make for relationships which are successful and which have a transformatory aspect as well. Holistic and systematic mentoring is important for the vigorous growth of early career academics.

Chapter Seven

Optimal nurturing: the mentor's psychosocial and role model functions

7.1 Introduction

The early career years in the academic profession are critical for the holistic and optimal development of beginning lecturers who aspire to careers as academics. The previous chapter dealt with the career development assistance given to early career academics in formal mentoring programmes. "Mentoring as part of that overall development is a form of professional socialization which furthers the protégé's skills, abilities and understanding" (Moore & Amey, 1988, p 45). Some universities have articulated the professional socialization of academics and support it through ongoing programmes for as much a three years. The University of Wisconsin (1998) gives one example of this understanding of the process in its statement that academic staff mentoring promotes professional and personal development among all academic staff by connecting them with others who can advise, coach, and guide them, as well as help them understand the context in which they are operating. Through mentoring, the process of professional socialisation can be facilitated for career development and psychosocial development of mentees.

This chapter deals with those *psychosocial aspects* of professional development through mentoring which were found in the study. The *psychosocial functions* of mentors are examined and the *role model function* of mentors is examined as a separate function. The findings show that those roles and functions occur throughout mentoring relationships in higher education. In addition this study shows how the roles and functions impact on early career academics in their first year of formal mentoring. The findings concerning

the impact of these roles and functions are new to mentoring studies in higher education and are the first systematic findings for formal mentoring programmes in higher education in South Africa. I argue that mentees must have effective psychosocial support before the career development aspects can take place effectively.

7.2 *Psychosocial* and *role model* functions fulfilled by mentors in higher education

From the extensive array of a priori mentor roles and functions gleaned from the literature, mentees were asked to identify those role model and psychosocial roles and functions shown in the model in Figure 6.2 which were actually performed by their mentors. Table 7.1 shows the findings for these roles.

Table 7.1 Role model and psychosocial roles fulfilled by mentors in higher education

Mentor role	For female mentees	For male mentees	Total reported	Percentage of whole sample
Psychosocial				
Counsellor	8	7	15	53.57%
Critical friend	4	6	10	35.71%
Giver of encouragement	11	10	21	75%
Helper/guide during transition	10	9	19	67.85%
Role model	9	7	16	57.14%

Women report that their mentors act in a wide variety of roles for them. The roles of *counsellor* (53.33%) and *role model* (56.25%) are more frequently performed by women's mentors than by men's mentors. A woman mentee described her mentor's counselling function like this:

> "She is someone you can call a friend. I can talk about anything with her, even personal things like marriage. She hands out criticism of my work. Our

friendship doesn't stand in the way of the work. She supported me in my desire to teach even though she favours research."

Male mentees report receiving *critical friendship* much more frequently than women (60%). The roles of *helper and guide during the transition* (52.63%), *giver of encouragement*, (52.38%) are only slightly more frequently performed for women than for male mentees.

In the responses to the question about which aspects of the mentoring relationship are most beneficial for mentees, the participants mentioned fewer psychosocial functions than career development support functions which advance the protégés progress in the organisation. Mentees identified the roles and functions of counsellor, critical friend, giver of encouragement and helper and guide during the transition. Table 7.2 gives an analysis of the data from the open-ended questions about the aspects of the relationship which were beneficial, not beneficial or negative for mentees.

Table 7.2 Matrix of psychosocial aspects of mentoring in higher education

Psychosocial aspects of mentoring in higher education		
Beneficial	**Not beneficial**	**Negative**
Giving constructive critical feedback	Giving poor critical feedback	Breach of trust
Caring	Poor help and guidance	Non acceptance
Encouraging		No help or guidance
Help and guidance		
Shares experiences		
Always willing to do more than is required		
Willingness to listen		

Before discussing these aspects of the psychosocial roles and functions in the mentoring relationships, the issue of trust-building in the early phase of mentoring is examined because trust is a core value in mentoring relationships (Pascarelli, 2002). Trust should be built from the beginning before any issues in the mentee's social behaviour or interpersonal relationships are addressed. Ideally, trust should also be built before career development begins as well so that the mentee gains confidence in the mentor's interactions at the beginning of the partnership.

7.3 Establishing trust

Mentors have to act swiftly and potently at the beginning of the relationship to facilitate the mentees passage from the status of student to member of staff particularly in the case of fairly young academics who have been students in the department. Failure to do so can result in lack of trust and may prove to be destructive of the relationship (Alleman, 1986; Cohen, 1999; Kram, 1988). Pascarelli (2002) points out that trustworthiness is a core value for mentors to show in the initiation stage of mentoring relationships. Career development functions and psychosocial functions occur in the relationship once trust has been established. Clutterbuck (2001) calls it 'rapport-building' but trust goes beyond that rather bland term and many writers emphasise the importance of trust-building.

Cohen (1999) says that prudent mentors should be prepared to develop trust rather than presume that it already exists. Trust may not be automatically or easily bestowed by every mentee. Caution on the mentee's part may reflect a real world experience which knows that not all good intentions always translate into productive outcomes.

There are times when issues of trust surface so potently that the mentee is left in an untenable and extremely difficult position. The mentor is a more senior, established member of the department and the mentee may not have recourse to any other member of staff to assist in resolving the issue. A woman in the study related her experience when she talked of negative aspects of mentoring at the beginning of the relationship where the

mentor's lack of sensitivity and poor listening lead to this extreme incidence of breach of trust which she thought existed with her mentor:

> "The doctoral proposal goes to two critical readers, mine was to be sent to a professor in another faculty. I had had a nasty experience with that Professor in the Master's course. Despite my request that my proposal should not be sent to her, it was sent to her. I spoke up about the power issue but an open relationship hasn't developed (between us) and I felt violated and betrayed."

The mentor must acknowledge that the mentee has a legitimate right to voice divergent opinions and views and that by ignoring them the mentor shows disrespect and disregard for the individuality of the mentee. Breach of trust can lead to the raising of issues of legitimate expert and positional power which the mentor may find hard to address if the mentee feels betrayed and violated and the relationship put in jeopardy. The mentor may be seen as a patronising and condescending authority figure (Cohen, 1999) who undermines and invalidates those with less power. Eby and her colleagues (2000) include in their taxonomy, the use of position power as a manipulative negative behaviour in mentors. Feldman (1999) mentions several reasons why mentoring pairs escalate commitment to dysfunctional relationships: task interdependence which needs to continue until the joint work project is complete; the degree of public commitment to the relationship; the stage of the relationship and other reasons. The mentee in this example cannot afford to jeopardize her higher degree studies and her long-term career plans by dropping out of the programme and the mentor knows this and uses it to her own advantage. The mentee has to use all her coping strategies to get past this breach of trust and continue the relationship.

Generally, mentees in this study report that their relationships with their mentors are professional and progressing well and that they have positive outcomes. The role model and psychosocial roles performed by mentor are vital to the process of mentoring; they are discussed in the next section.

7.4 Psychosocial functions: Aspects of the relationship *most beneficial* for mentees

The participants in this study gave examples of many of the psychosocial roles and functions from which they benefited in their relationships with their mentors. They included those which form part of the model in Figure 6.2, and they also named interpersonal skills and personality traits in their responses. They mentioned attributes like being understanding, being flexible, being open and honest, congenial, sociable, being kind but strict, being sensitive, being encouraging, being willing to listen, always being willing to do more than is required.

One of the mentees commented on her mentor's personality and its impact on their relationship and her mentor's ability to perform necessary psychosocial functions for her: "Her personality makes things easier to learn from and for me to be comfortable in the department. She is caring and I respect her." Cohen (1999) views respect as a stabilising influence in mentoring relationships which ensures that negative or unpleasant critical feedback and confrontation is not seen as harsh and destructive.

The attributes and traits named by mentees help to get the relationship established and also help to maintain it over a considerable period of time. Against the background of congenial interpersonal interactions, the psychosocial roles and functions of mentoring take place and those which mentees regard as beneficial to them are discussed in the next section.

7.4.1 Giving constructive critical feedback

The giving and receiving of constructive and timeous feedback on performance is a conventional tool for performance enhancement well documented in personal development and management literature. Mentees in this study note that of all the psychosocial functions carried out by their mentors, giving critical feedback is the one

that is most beneficial to them. They are able to gauge their performance with respect to the mentor's and the university's standards and make the necessary adjustments so that they can produce good quality work, appropriate behaviour and be seen as responsive, reflective and active participants in the development programmes. One woman described her mentor's ability to provide the necessary critical feedback to her like this:

> "We can share academic work together. He is open but he does not give unnecessary praise. He praises me only if I've done something good. He looks for the proper words to say my work is 'junk' or is wrong. He doesn't compromise on quality."

Cohen (1999) emphasises that collaborative interpersonal interaction is part of what mentoring is all about and that academic mentors in particular need to be careful of the way they voice their feedback to mentees and the timing of such feedback.

Mentees who have a sense of partnership and collaboration in the mentoring relationship, value the mentor's ability to be understanding of the mentee's developmental process and to make appropriate self esteem enhancing criticism of the work that the mentee had produced. Not all mentees are fortunate enough to be regarded as equal partners in the development process, but even those whose are acutely aware of the hierarchical nature of their relationships, value the diplomatic way in which they receive feedback during mentoring. One such mentee has this to say about his mentor's manner of giving him feedback:

> "In our professor and novice relationship, he puts himself into shoes of a beginner. He doesn't spoon feed me, his criticism makes sense and he points out my errors, mistakes and limitations. But he also lets *me* find a way out."

Clutterbuck (2001) sees mentorship as the *provision of a reflective space* for both parties during a developmental relationship. Providing a safe environment for the critical act of self reflection is what mentoring is all about. The mentor is sensitive to the difficulty which the mentee encounters, and how stressful the educational journey can be but the

mentor also acknowledges the mentee's right to self-determination and the mentor's duty to protect that right (Cohen, 1999).

The mentee's perception that the mentor is non-judgmental and non-directive implies also that the mentor accepts the mentee's position as less expert in some fields of experience and knowledge and yet affirms that the mentee is able to grow and develop, and is striving to reach a level of competence which will be acceptable to the mentor, academic peers and colleagues. A woman mentee had this to say about her striving to respond to the feedback given by her mentor: "He can be critical when necessary so that I will produce a worthy piece of writing." The mentor should refrain from critiquing the mentee's work too brutally, too often and be perspicacious about the timing of critical feedback, relying as much on the right psychological moment to do so as well as the degree of feedback to give. Mentors need to be especially careful in timing their feedback in the early stages of the relationship to avoid negative outcomes if the mentee is not quite ready to receive the feedback (Cohen, 1999).

7.4.2 Willingness to listen

Next to building trust, willingness to listen is deemed to be the most important attribute of good mentors. This is a theme which emerged clearly from the data and is often coupled with being approachable, being respectful, and being concerned about the mentee's welfare. One mentee encapsulated her mentor's willingness to listen when she described him as "listening to the voice of the mentee and responding to the mentee's needs. Having an approachable attitude". When the mentor has invested time in rapport-building and establishing trust, and demonstrated a willingness to listen, then the psychosocial roles and functions offered are seen as beneficial by mentees. One of the men in the study was unstinting in his praise for his mentor who had cultivated a strong bond with him when he said:

> "Prof is willing to share his experiences with me. He is always willing to listen and never too busy to make time for me and others and willing to do more than is required to assist me".

Clutterbuck (2001) notes that ineffective mentors are those who listen too briefly to the mentee, immediately relate the issue to their own experience, telling the mentee what happened to them, how they tackled the issue and what lessons they learned. They advise mentees what to do as a result and miss deeper more important issues. In so doing they subtly undermine the mentee's confidence and erode the trust that they hope to build with the mentee. He says that effective mentors listen with an open mind, demonstrate interest and attention, encourage mentees to speak and most tellingly, hold back on filling the silences so that mentees can find their own voice and work things out for themselves.

When some of the psychosocial functions are not offered to mentees, these are featured as areas of concern for those involved in mentoring relationships and programmes.

7.5 Aspects of the relationship *not beneficial* for mentees

What is new about the present research is that this study shows in detail how the psychosocial roles and functions can have other, non-beneficial and/or negative consequences in the higher education context which are not mentioned in the literature. The gap identified here may be the result of researchers investigating mostly positive aspects of mentoring and not investigating what is negative in relationships. With the exception of the giving of critical feedback, mentees in this study do not mention any other psychosocial functions which are not beneficial for them.

7.5.1 Giving poor critical feedback

Mentees are sometimes frustrated with their mentor's lack of timeous feedback. They rely on their mentor for guidance to make progress with their work. Mentees work around difficulties like lack of feedback but are not reticent in expressing their disappointment by commenting on their mentor's tardy feedback and drawing a poor comparison with

other professors in the department. One mentee encapsulated this when he recounted this episode:

> " I wish to have more feedback – in writing. I gave my mentor and another professor copies of my proposal. Professor A gave it back in a week. My mentor hasn't given it back yet. He should be more specific about what we have to do. Planning is important. More structure and definition is needed in our schedules."

Mentees express their concern about the unstructured nature of some of their interactions with their mentors. Proper planning of activities and setting of deadlines is regarded as beneficial and the lack of it leads to anxiety, slow progress and a build up of tension and frustration. Mentees regard the initiating of the planning as a function which resides with the mentor. Eby et al.,. (2000) mention neglect as a common dysfunctional behaviour in mentoring relationships which are negative for mentees. It is one of a group of distancing behaviours which makes relationships difficult to sustain.

7.6 Aspects of the relationship *negative* for mentees

Most of the mentees in this study do not mention psychosocial functions which are negative for them, although there are exceptions where negative situations occur. Although Scandura (1998) suggests that negative mentoring experiences may not occur that often, there are at least five different kinds of negative mentoring experiences reported by mentees in this study. They occur in the areas of the mentor's psychosocial and role model functions rather than in the mentor's career development functions.

7.6.1 Non-acceptance

Lack of affirmation as an adult learner and as a competent early career individual can be destructive to the relationship and result in a negative and unsupportive environment for the mentee. Being relegated to an offensively junior position is incompatible with being

accepted as a colleague, as well as being insulting. An erosion of trust and a pervasive sense of disempowerment can result. A mentee who experienced such a negative situation described it like this:

> "My mentor leaves me with little or no information, with no answers or merely with speculation. For example, he must let me know how much money he has spent from the grant for *me*. What my programme is costing? The budgeting isn't clear. Budgeting and expenditure needs to be more open to (doctoral) students. This is not only to justify expenditure but if proposals are too costly, I might look for a less expensive alternative. I need information to make informed choices and to make additional individual contributions."

This example is couched in terms of giving information but it is an instance of what Eby et al.,. (2000) call intentional exclusion, an aspect of mentor distancing behaviour. Eby et al.,. (2000) also discuss the use of position power as a manipulative negative behaviour in mentors. The mentee is the one who is disadvantaged by the mentor's intentional exclusion of the mentee from information regarding the mentoring programme research funding. In the South African context in higher education, this is possibly a further example of institutional racism which is as insidious as it is pervasive (Potgieter, 2002). This example also shows the mentor as a patronising and condescending authority figure (Cohen, 1999) who undermines and invalidates those with less power.

According to Olian, Carroll, Giannantonio & Feren, (1988) mentoring relationships can be considered dysfunctional when one or both partners consider that their most important needs are being frustrated. Feldman (1999) also classifies relationships as dysfunctional when one or both parties engage in specific, concrete behaviours to sabotage work projects or career success of the other. In this example, the lack of transparency employed by the mentor is likely to have serious repercussions for the mentees' career success because responsible and accountable handling of research funding is essential to academic research performance and future chances of obtaining funding.

There are further complications in this negative aspect of mentoring for the mentee. Mentoring pairs escalate commitment to dysfunctional relationships for several reasons:

task interdependence which needs to continue until the joint work project is complete; the degree of public commitment to the relationship; the stage of the relationship and other reasons (Feldman, 1999). In this example, the completion of the mentee's higher degree and its supervision by the mentor would account for some of the pair's escalating commitment to the dysfunctional relationship. The high profile of the mentoring programme would also account for their reluctance to terminate a relationship which is difficult and unsatisfactory for both but Feldman's list of reasons does not cover the extent of the damage in this negative situation for the mentee. The mentee cannot afford to the 'dump' his mentor because his job, salary and livelihood are directly affected by being on the mentoring programme and the mentor knows that he is in a position to wield this kind of power over the mentee. If the mentee refuses to put up with the mentor's intentional exclusion, he runs the risk of losing everything he has worked for and effectively ruins the possibility of further employment at the university.

The negative consequences of dysfunctional relationships in formal programmes may be much further reaching and more damaging than for those in informal relationships. In informal relationships there may be fewer direct consequences for the mentee's employment prospects. If the relationship fails, the mentor may decline to provide further psychosocial support. In formal programmes, the lack of further psychosocial support may be much more damaging, not only emotionally but also in career development terms. In this case, the mentor is also the higher degree supervisor and the impact is serious for the mentee.

In providing psychosocial support, the mentors in this study show that they provide many of the supporting functions featured in the model. Generally, the psychosocial functions are beneficial to the mentees, occasionally they are not beneficial and sometimes the lack of certain psychosocial functions is negative or detrimental to the mentee.

In addition to the psychosocial roles and functions performed by mentors, the role model function is regarded by mentee as one of the most important functions that mentors perform during mentoring relationships. The mentor as role model is examined in the next section.

7.7 The *Role Model* functions of the mentor

Clutterbuck (2001) says that a mentoring role model is an example of success in the field the mentee has chosen to pursue and their behaviours, good or bad, are likely to be passed on together with the practical support they give. Being a role model includes showing how to behave in the specific culture of the organisation and what behaviours are valued and rewarded; how to focus one's career aspirations; showing a commitment to life-long learning; and acting as an example in how to be a mentor to others at a later stage.

Mentors in this study were selected because they are successful academics yet only 57.14% of mentees reported that their mentors fulfilled this role for them and more women than men saw their mentors perform this role. This is a matter for concern in formal mentoring programmes. It poses the question: why are mentors not being seen as role models? Some mentees report that the negative behaviour of the mentors prevents them from being positive role models.

Table 7.3 gives an analysis of the data from the open-ended questions about the *role model* aspects of the relationship which were beneficial, not beneficial or negative for mentees.

Table 7.3 Matrix of role model aspects of mentoring in higher education

Role Model aspects of mentoring		
Beneficial	**Not beneficial**	**Negative**
High academic profile	Poor availability	Lack of availability
Availability	Power relations	Credit taking
Always willing to do more than is required	Poor interpersonal skills	Power relations

Some of the mentors and mentees in the study are aware that role modelling is one of the most crucial aspects of the relationship which the mentor fulfils. In being an exemplary role model, the mentor may see the role of the mentee as one in a junior position who is learning from someone more senior in the hierarchy. A senior mentor described the role modelling function best when he said:

> "I hope that she has taken me as a role model. I believe - at the risk of being immodest - I believe that I'm a fairly successful academic, and I hope she has been able to look at me and say: What is it he does in order to became a successful academic? OK – he works hard, he keeps up with the literature, he is interested in research, he is a good teacher, he prepares his lectures well, materials are always done on time, he runs things efficiently. I hope that is sort of thing she has taken from me."

Mentors in higher education are role models for early career academics in being successful academics and researchers; they need to model aspects of the core career activities of academics. The mentor can be a model in all aspects of the research core area of academic life: conducting rigorous and good quality research relevant to the needs of society and the discipline; keeping abreast of developments in the field; writing the results for publication; dealing with editors' and reviewers' comments on journal articles and coping with negative feedback from them; encouraging writing groups for senior students and junior colleagues and collaborating with them in both research and writing and using research to benefit local communities and encouraging students to do the same.

In the teaching aspect of academic work, mentors can be a model in curriculum design; the preparation of their courses and classroom teaching; experimenting with innovative teaching methods; their interaction with and counselling of students; their methods of assessment of students; and their interaction with external examiners. Mentors can particularly role model team teaching, collaboration in course delivery, and provide a reflective space for mentees to question them and ask for the articulation of the mentors specific teaching methods.

In addition mentors can act as role models in the interaction with colleagues; in carrying out their administrative, management and leadership functions in the School. Their attitude to transformation is important and their ability to model a positive view and embracing of transformation and their active engagement in transforming Schools is vital for their role as change agents in higher education. More detail on how mentors can do this is given in the next chapter.

Mentees report that it is not only in career development functions like those in the mentor's example above, but also in psychosocial functions that they regards their mentors as important role models.

7.8 Role Model functions: Aspects of the relationship *most beneficial* for mentees

Clutterbuck (2001) points out that mentor role model behaviours, good or bad, are likely to be passed on to mentees. In this study, the 'good' behaviours that mentees identified for role model functions of mentors include having a high academic profile, availability and always being willing to do more than is required for the mentee. Each of these is discussed in the next section.

7.8.1 Academic status and profile of mentors

Mentees find the academic status and profile of their mentors in the institution and internationally to be beneficial to them. They value their mentors' profile in the discipline as they see it as beneficial to be associated with academics who are widely published. The male mentees in this study commented on this more frequently than the women did confirming the findings of Cotton and Ragins (1999). One of the men stressed this when he was describing the beneficial aspects of his relationship with his mentor: "I can gain from his experience and publications. He is a fountain of knowledge."

Mentees are proud to be associated with mentors who are successful both in the academic world and in their professional capacity. "He is a successful academic and practitioner in the profession" is the way one of the men expressed this sentiment. The professional conduct of mentors is helpful to mentees who regard such behaviour as important in the relationship with themselves and others. One of the mentees, who is a professional architect on the programme, mentioned this as an important factor in his relationship with his mentor: "Her manner as a role model and her professional conduct (in the university)."

Undoubtedly, the successful professional socialization of early career academics is greatly influenced by the kind of role modelling provided by mentors. Jones (2001) found that although 'modelling' is not perceived to be one of the more dominant aspects of mentoring in her study, it is understood to play a part in the development of basic teaching skills and setting of standards in professional behaviour. Mentors were aware of their limitations in performing the role of 'model' adequately. Mentors who do perceive themselves as 'model' presented a view of modelling that located it within specific stages of the training process and promoted a realistic rather than an idealistic concept of modeling and should serve mentors as a warning against playing the "craft master" role who usually produced replicas of himself rather than independent and reflective practice. There is also the danger of trainee teachers over-emphasising the role of the 'model' and mentors adopted a cautious view in respect of acting as the trainee's 'model'.

The significance of this for early career academics shows that mentees emphasise the function of the mentor as role model whereas the mentors may tend to downplay this function in the mentoring relationship, perhaps out of modesty, as expressed by one mentor in this study. However, the fact that mentees expect their mentors to behave like role models cannot be ignored. Mentors play an important part in this aspect of the early career academic's professional development as a successful professional.

7.8.2 Availability of the mentor

The availability of the mentor was one of the most important aspects for the mentees, none of whom had been in the formal mentoring relationships for more than a year, and it is interesting that so many of them named this aspect of their relationships so explicitly. The most surprising finding in this category is the one related to the availability of the mentor. It is mentioned briefly in the literature but is implicit in many of the roles and functions which mentors perform. I have chosen to incorporate this aspect of mentoring in the role model function specifically because Clutterbuck (2001) highlights time for mentoring as a major problem area in mentoring. If it is specifically incorporated as a role model function, perhaps the pervasiveness of the problem would be acknowledged and mentors and programme co-ordinators would make efforts to meet the mentees need for time with their mentors in a more satisfactory way (Murray, 1991).

Early career academics need to be able to speak to their mentors whenever it is necessary. Many of the mentees in this study are paired with mentors who have not received training in mentoring. This is an issue to be discussed further in the final chapter. Many mentors do not arrange a series of fixed appointments with their mentees on a regular basis. Although most of the mentees in this study meet their mentors frequently, often weekly or daily, most meetings appear to take place on an ad hoc basis. Mentors who have received training know that it is desirable to set up fixed meeting times which both parties preserve faithfully and consequently there is less anxiety on the part of the mentee about the mentor's availability. This is generally not the case with the mentoring pairs in this study and so the availability of the mentor becomes more of an issue and is highlighted by several of them.

The very large hierarchical difference in rank is an aspect of the availability of the mentors in this study which affects their mentees. Most mentors are very senior members of the academic staff, some are Heads of Discipline, some are Heads of School, Directors of College or hold positions of authority and power at the university. It is sometimes difficult for a new and junior member of staff to gain access to senior members of their

departments in a collegial way (Sorcinelli and Austin, 1992). One of the mentees whose mentor was Head of School, captured both of these aspects of availability best when he said:

> "I get support and encouragement from my professor. Prof is willing to share his experiences with me. He is always willing to listen and never too busy to make time for me and others and he is willing to do more than is required to assist me."

Accessibility is another way of describing availability which is highly rated by mentees. The amount of time spent together may be a function of the stage of the mentoring relationship. One woman who confessed that she needed reassurance about her work saw this as one of the most crucial aspects of her relationship with her mentor: "His accessibility – I panic a bit and he is there when I have a problem." Mentors need sufficient time to deal rationally and reflectively with mentees who over-react to situational stress or who are unable to distinguish minor from major problems (Cohen, 1999). Their accessibility to mentees provides opportunities for them to do this in supportive ways.

As mentees grow and develop they build confidence in their ability to work independently and may need more of the mentor's time in the initial stages of the relationship than they do at later stages. Mentors may need to be aware that a greater input of time may be necessary during the establishment phase of mentoring. Few of the mentors in this study articulated how time-consuming a successful relationship with mentees is, although one very experienced mentor did comment about his availability like this:

> "Before I became Head in the department, when I had time to sit down with my research students on a very regular basis, we would usually sit in a weekly group meeting and there were perhaps about eight students and two members of staff .... we would ask a student to do short 10-15 minute presentation using the overhead projector in a small venue such as this one."

Mentees like to feel that they are sufficiently important to their mentors so that contact with the mentor is relaxed and does not make the mentee feel as if their demand for their

mentor's time is intrusive. This is borne out by one man who said: "Whenever I need to speak to him, I can contact him."

Mentors too value being able to contact their mentees easily and quickly when the mentors have things to discuss with mentees. Mentoring may be an additional stressor in a mentor's already stressful position as one newly promoted mentor admitted about his availability:

> "I was Head of Department and it was new to me and it was an extremely stressful situation because of (restructuring of Faculties and) the conversion to Schools .... To a degree, I think that may be a danger especially if you've got people in senior positions doing mentoring. But in this case I was new to it, so I had a lot in my mind .... I'm quite a good time manager so that (making time available for her) wasn't a problem really. We met quite a lot informally."

Mentors who make time for mentoring in their very busy schedules show a commitment to the mentee, the programme and to professional development of newcomers. They model competent time management for mentees and indicate that professional relationships are worth making time for, both above and below the mentor in the academic hierarchy.

7.9 Aspects of the relationship *not beneficial* for mentees

Clutterbuck (2001) points out that mentor role model behaviours, good or bad, are likely to be passed on to mentees. In this study, the 'not so good' behaviours that mentees identified for role model functions of mentors include availability, the use of power in the relationship and the mentor's interpersonal skills. Each of these is discussed in the next section.

7.9.1 Poor availability of the mentor

The availability of the mentor was one of the most important aspects for the mentees, none of whom had been in the formal mentoring relationships for more than a year. As noted in the finding of the benefits of the mentor's availability to mentees, it is interesting that so many of them named this aspect of their relationships so explicitly. Many mentees also noted that lack of availability was not beneficial to them. They expressed concern about this, ranging in degree of discontent from fairly mild frustration to desperation about not being able to see or talk to their mentors. Clutterbuck (2001) lists lack of time as one of the three most prevalent complaints and common problems in formal mentoring programmes.

Some mentees attempted to excuse their mentors lack of availability by offering rational explanations for it. They mentioned the mentor's "continued absence due to illness"; the "mentor's work overload, she is not accessible when I need her"; mentor's being "too busy because of her position as Acting Head of Department"; the mentor having to play "too many roles, as Head of Department and higher degree supervisor. It is not easy if the mentor is Head of Department."

It should be noted here that mentors at two of the universities in the study are offered substantial monetary incentives in the donor-funded mentoring programmes for mentoring. Being too busy to find time for mentoring is indicative of two kinds of problems: there may be a structural flaw in the selection of mentors, where they are chosen from an inappropriate level in the hierarchy where time pressure could exclude them from the programme; or it may be a dereliction of duty on the mentor's part.

Some of the participants had accepted that their mentors did not spend sufficient time with them and used other colleagues and peers to make up for the mentor's deficiency. Others just carried on and hoped that things would improve later in the relationship. It appears that not many of the pairs have made firm and regular appointments to meet and

that scheduling of the meetings ahead of time to avoid this kind of frustration and dereliction of the duty.

7.9.2 Power relations

Mentees who have been in their departments as undergraduates or postgraduates sometimes make the transition from student to colleagues fairly easily, as one mentee reports of his changed relationship: "It is a healthy, collegial relationship, it's good." His mentor felt that not only did the other members of the department need to become more sensitive and aware of the mentee's change in status, but mentors also need to change the perception of their respective roles. Mentees in this study are also doctoral students and their mentors are their higher degree supervisors which may result in added complications for both parties in having to separate out the roles of colleague and student. Both mentor and mentee have to juggle the two roles simultaneously. The student role is a subordinate one in the higher education hierarchy whereas an associate or junior lecturer may feel the difference in the hierarchical structure less intensely because of the collegial nature of the academic positions. One mentor in a same-gender pair and the only black mentor in the cohort, reflecting on his relationship with his mentee, said this about his mentee's change of status:

> "He is more or less as a colleague in the partnership, more than just a student, so negotiating that issue, that delicate shift is very important, you know. How far do you go with him as a colleague and how far you go with him as a student? And this is a delicate balance that you really have to achieve. You must treat him with respect, to listen as a colleague but at the same time you also have to ensure that he can still listen and take something from you. Learning is a long life process."

When the transition is not smoothly negotiated, mentees feel caught between roles and find the transition more difficult. A woman mentee who is much the same age as her mentor, explained how the power relations in her pair were not beneficial to her when she said:

> "My relationship with my mentor is just confined to critical feedback. It has not developed beyond this. Her "I know better" attitude is not beneficial to me. I'm not an equal but I'm not a subordinate either."

Levels of authority within the relationship need to be treated very carefully as well and brutally deflating the mentee's ego is neither legitimate nor constructive. Distancing behaviour by the mentor and manipulative use of position power also have negative consequences for the relationship (Eby et al., 2000). Cohen (1999) cautions mentors against a too rapid response to opinions and statements offered by mentees and also against the disservice to mentees when mentors engage in intellectual jousting with mentees who now occupy professional collegial status.

One mentor in the study used his position of power in the department to disadvantage his mentee by the inappropriate delegation of his work to her. Others in the department regarded her with suspicion and she was too naïve and willing to please others to realise her mentor's abuse of his power was not beneficial to her in the long run.

In other instances, the mentee may previously have been doing administrative work in the department as a temporary member of staff and be well known in that capacity. The transition may have to be managed with skill by the mentor as the new black academic breaks away from a previous role into a new collegial role with fellow academics in the department. There are many more black administrative staff than black academic staff at HAUs. The mentee's new role may not be clearly demarcated or visible and it may take quite a while for the mentees new status as an academic to become apparent and accepted by the department as a whole. This was aptly illustrated by a mentor who said:

> "I introduced her as a full member of staff and treated her as such but I don't think everybody did. And people had known her as filling in for the secretary or doing a bit of marking or teaching here and there, and they continued to think it. If she'd come from outside I don't think there would be the same problem. But result was that she tended be given anything, even with the academic teaching situation, she was given whatever was left over."

The assertiveness of the mentor can be useful to the mentee in dealing with hierarchical power issues in departments just as an ineffectual mentor can do little to defuse the power plays for mentees. This is an important area which needs a strong input from the mentor to help the mentee.

7.9.3 Poor interpersonal skills and relationships

Some mentors in the study display poor interpersonal relationships with staff and students. Language is mentioned by mentees as an issue where mentors come from other countries and cultural and educational systems are very different from those in South Africa. An Afrikaans speaking mentee who experienced difficulty with his mentor's interpersonal style explained that his mentor was Eastern European and said that "his English isn't good."

Indecisiveness in a mentor does not benefit the mentee and can cause confusion and frustration in the relationship. A woman who described her relationship with her mentor as successful, said:

> "He's retired. There is a big age gap, he has a father figure approach. He has an open approach with huge amount of experience. I bounce ideas off him, he is more of a coach, more than at the hierarchical level of a higher degree supervisor or professor. We work well as a team."

Nevertheless, she found some aspect of his interpersonal style difficult to deal with because she said: "He is not the most decisive of people. Sometimes it is difficult to reach a solution and stick to it."

Mentors and mentees develop an understanding of each other's interpersonal style during the establishment stage of mentoring and make adjustments as best they can where mentors' interpersonal styles are not beneficial to them.

7.10 Role model Aspects of the relationship *negative* for mentees

Clutterbuck (2001) points out that mentor role model behaviours, good or bad, are likely to be passed on to mentees. In this study, the 'bad' behaviours that mentees identified for role model functions of mentors include availability, taking credit for the mentee's work or ideas, the use of power in the relationship and the mentor's interpersonal skills. Each of these is discussed in the next section.

7.10.1 Lack of availability of the mentor

Mentees regard the lack of availability of mentors during the programme as frustrating and annoying but more than that they see it as disempowering because, in extreme cases, it slows down their progress in the higher degree and can have a direct impact on their success in teaching if the mentor is not available to guide and help during their early teaching experiences. One of the mentees expressed how crucial the availability of the mentor is when he said: "Yes. The time aspect is negative for me. Dealing with his schedule is... a critical problem."

Another mentee voiced his disappointment and frustration with his mentor's inability to meet him for discussions and the reasons offered by the mentor for not keeping his appointments with the mentee: "He is caught up with his own family affairs he is not available, so he doesn't keep an appointment."

"Not meeting deadlines" and offering poor excuses for cancelling or forgetting meetings is not only unacceptable to mentees but is also disrespectful (Cohen, 1999).

7.10.2 Credit taking

When the mentor does not acknowledge the mentee or give credit for challenging work done independently, mentee eventually realises that the relationship is abusive and unproductive. Eby et al.,. (2000) identify credit-taking as a manipulative behaviour in mentors which may be characteristic of some dysfunctional mentoring relationships. A woman mentee commented on the hurt inflicted on her when she said:

> "My mentor went behind my back about modules for the programme. He didn't respect me and the work I had done. He takes credit for my work. I kept that programme alive while he was sick."

Manipulative credit-taking is not something which mentees can easily counteract as it is insidious and the mentee may only discover the credit-taking long after it has happened. The length of time between the mentor's taking credit for the mentee's work and the mentee's discovery of it may be sufficiently long that others may regard the mentee's silence on the matter as condoning what the mentor has done. The mentor's behaviour may further manipulate the mentee into resentful and disempowered silence and outrage. Murray (1991) suggests that making joint projects public can protect mentees to some extent. Mentees who have been exploited can approach the co-ordinator to coach them in establishing better agreements with their mentors and thus avoid having their work used unethically.

Power issues surface fairly often in dysfunctional relationship and further examples of this are discussed in the next section.

7.10.3 Power issues

There are times when power issues surface so potently that the mentee is left in an untenable and extremely difficult position. The mentor is a more established member of the department and the mentee may not have recourse to any other member of staff to

assist in resolving the issue. Another of the women in the study related her experience when she talked of negative aspects of mentoring:

> "The doctoral proposal goes to two critical readers; mine was to be sent to a professor in another faculty. I had had a nasty experience with that Professor in the Master's course. Despite my request that my proposal should not be sent to her, it was sent to her. I spoke up about the power issue but an open relationship hasn't developed (between us) and I felt violated and betrayed."

Power issues and the pervasive denigration of women in some mentoring relationships was not restricted to mentees alone. When I went to the office of a woman mentee of mixed race descent to conduct the interview, I was introduced to her Indian mentor as an outside researcher. He was clearly quite used to making risqué comments with heavy sexual overtones to many women. The offensive remarks were made in the hearing of the Head of Department who happened to be present during the introductions. When I asked the woman about her mentor's sexist remarks, she said that she didn't feel singled out by them as he did this routinely with everybody in the department and that all the women students had been the butt of his 'jokes.' All the women had learned to overcome their embarrassment and disguise their disgust. She felt beholden to her mentor in some sense because she was working at a HDI when the programme was advertised, he had contacted her about it and together they had applied for and been awarded the grant. She acknowledges that without his nomination of her, she would not have been on the programme. It is clear that the whole environment in which they work is highly racially charged as well, as she described:

> "There is a lot of antagonism because of the AIP (academic internship programme). The other PhD students not on the staff kept saying: 'How did she get onto the programme?' Perhaps the AIP is not sufficiently communicated or advertised. I came back from Unitra (University of the Transkei) and the other peers registered for PhD were antagonistic, this is reverse racial discrimination. AIP is a good programme, I know of another lecturer in department who didn't have it and he struggled. AIP lecturers aren't robbed in the process of becoming members of staff. But we don't get enough guidance from the Head of Department."

It is clear that sexist and racial discrimination can be eliminated if the person with the greatest position of power in a department takes a strong stand against it. At least then overt displays of it will be curtailed and women and black mentees would be able to establish relationships that do not rely on their being inferior or subordinate.

Blake-Beard (2001) maintains that women in particular, in formal mentoring programmes need to be aware that they need to pay attention to issues of the resentment of non-participating peers. Other researchers have also reported on peer resentment in formal mentoring programmes (Duff, 1999; Kram & Bragar, 1992). Mentors should assist the mentee in her negotiation of appropriate peer interactions to prevent resentment arising to the degree that it is harmful to women mentees. Obviously, if male mentors behave in sexist and discounting ways, it will be more difficult for the mentee to dissipate and counteract the effects of peer resentment.

Role model functions of mentors are considered as really important by mentees and a range of positive role model functions is demonstrated by the mentors in this study. Some deficient and harmful role modeling was also encountered and linked to the theories of dysfunctional behaviour in mentoring. Effective mentor and mentee behaviours reported by mentees are discussed in the next section.

7.11 Effective behaviour in mentoring relationships

Many sources discussed throughout this study indicate that there is a wealth of information about mentor's behaviour which is essential for effective mentoring. Zey (1984) encapsulates this in his list of what mentors look for in mentees: intelligence in rapid problem solving; ambition in developing their own careers; succession potential and the ability to make new alliances for the mentor. Cohen (1999) notes that mentees should show mature interpersonal behaviour; self-confidence; appropriate reactions to stress; the ability to benefit from constructive criticism; and personal determination to succeed as effective attributes which mentors look for in mentees.

It may be useful to mentees to know what sorts of behaviour will enhance their relationships with their mentors. It may facilitate the growth of mentoring relationships if this is discussed during the training provided for participants in programmes. Should mentees not show some of the behaviour mentors consider desirable, it may take a period of trial and error before mentees become aware that they could show behaviour that mentors favour. Failure to show desirable behaviour could mean that mentees put their mentoring relationships at risk of failure or they may spark conflict which could have been avoided if mentees had been alerted to the kinds of behaviours they should ideally show.

Mentees nevertheless often have an intuitive understanding of what behaviour will be favourably regarded by their mentors as is shown in the next section.

7.11.1 Effective Mentee behaviour

There is very little written from the mentee's point of view about what they perceive as effective behaviour in mentoring relationships. Mentees in this study have some clear ideas about how they should behave in the mentoring relationship and many of them show insight into how their own behaviour affects the relationship. They are aware of those behaviours which foster congenial, professional and optimal growth for them during this period of their lives. They describe effective mentee behaviour almost exclusively in career development terms: the first is taking an interest in learning; being responsive to the mentor's critical feedback; having an interest in their mentor's research; being interested in teaching; and being active in the transformation in the university. Clutterbuck (2001) stresses that how a mentee behaves can have a substantial impact on the quality and type of help received.

Both men and women mentees stress that they should demonstrate clearly that they are interested in learning and have certain attitudes in the learning process that will make it easy for them and their mentors to get the most out of the work and the mentoring. One woman expressed it best when she described her behaviour in this way:

> "To be effective, mentees should have an openness to learning and show a kind of humility when they are learning. You have to have the notion of taking every chance and taking every opportunity you get wisely. It is like making opportunities happen. You have to set a personal development plan for yourself and be guided by a staff development practitioner."

Mentees are aware that the relationship may not always be plain sailing no matter how willing they are or how hard they try. They have a clear understanding that they have different perceptions of what has to be done in the academic arena but they also understand that their attitude to those differences can make or break the relationship. One mentee described his behaviour in this way:

> "You should have a desire of improving and of learning new things. You must be prepared to exert tolerance when there are different personalities and points of view. You should always be looking to unite, building rather that dividing the relationship. A mentee must aim to grow and become more responsible but at the same time still be dependent on the mentor for a number of things to complete the programme successfully. The mentee must show independence in research and decision making, but rely on what a mentor must understand, the limit of surveyance (sic) and what the mentor thinks about what is the best and right."

The mentees realise that they have to walk a fine line between two apparently conflicting sets of behaviour. Firstly they must show a certain amount of deference to their mentors as they are the more junior partners in the relationship but secondly, they must also be sufficiently assertive in getting their needs met, taking ownership of their own career development, learning and academic progress. Both men and women acknowledge the importance of being able to demonstrate both sets of behaviour. The women in particular, express their experiences like this:

> "Mentees are effective by behaving professionally; doing what is allocated to you, being punctual and mostly by taking responsibility for your own learning. This also means having respect for seniors in the School and taking advice from them."

One of the women mentees echoed this when she said:

> "A mentee must be teachable and must be willing to take advice and criticism. I always defer to older members of the department and establish good relationships with students. After all, I am still a student even though I am working with colleagues."

All the women who expressed the expectation that they should act in accordance with acceptable gender roles are black women who have white male mentors. "You are expected to be submissive. But a mentee must be academically informed so that the mentor can learn from the mentee as well." Part of this behaviour may be attributable to women's socialisation in the South African context where women are expected to give greater deference to men in society and have transferred this to their white male mentors. The men do not express their junior status in quite the same way. They acknowledge it more obliquely and in more positive terms, as an assistant in the partnership where effective behaviour on the part of the mentee ensures that the mentor will maintain his status with senior academic colleagues. One of the men with a black male mentor explained the situation in this way:

> "You have to see yourself as research assistant to mentor so you are not left behind. You need to be involved in your mentor's projects. You must also avoid conflict with your mentor by meeting your deadlines because if you don't his reputation is at stake."

One male mentee who has a woman mentor saw effective behaviour on his part not entirely in terms of his own agenda but in far more global terms than any of the other mentees. Personal issues around gender did not really impact on his behaviour. He sums this up when he outlines effective mentee behaviour in this way:

> "You must have an inquiring mind and establish regular, informal relationship and continuous communication with your mentor. You should be professional and that means being objective in your approach to students and course work. You must have a commitment to transformation in the University and not compromise in standards but acknowledge social concerns. You should relate coursework to practice because that helps in training students to be employable so that there is a sustainable approach to their development. You should be clear about student/lecturer relationships."

The mentees in this study show that their behaviour does affect the quality of the support which they receive from their mentors and that in turn facilitates more responsiveness from the mentors to their needs and growth in their careers.

7.11.2 Eliciting psychosocial support

An interesting but unexpected finding is that mentees do not articulate clearly a direct ability to elicit psychosocial support from their mentors. When they were questioned about the roles their mentors fulfilled, all mentees mentioned psychosocial roles and functions in mentors but the findings in this study indicate that mentees can be assured of psychosocial support from their mentors if they are able to behave in appropriate career development and professional ways and as a result can then receive psychosocial support. It is a matter of speculation about whether this is because the mentees in this study are in formal relationships with their mentors who are also higher degree supervisors and because of the systematic power differentials which operate within the higher education context. Is professional, career-directed behaviour a necessary pre-requisite for gaining psychosocial support? What is the repertoire of other behaviours which could elicit support from mentors. Only one respondent in the sample, a black woman with a white male mentor said:

> "You must be forthright and honest about your problems. A mentee must demand and expect assistance and help from the mentor. You have to have a genuine desire to develop your career."

It may be that this is an area in which further investigation could result in interesting and useful data for mentoring.

7.11.3 Effective mentor behaviours

Clutterbuck (2001) lists ten competencies for effective mentors: self-awareness; behavioural awareness; business or professional savvy; a sense of proportion or good humour; communication competence; conceptual modeling; commitment to their own learning; a strong interest in developing others; relationship management; and goal clarity. From the point of view of the mentees, there are various kinds of mentor behaviour which they consider to be effective for themselves as mentees. Mentors who are able to be good role models are the ones whose behaviour is considered to be the most effective for mentees. Mentees mention role modeling more often than any other behaviour. The literature does not provide any empirical data on whether this is so in other studies. Effective mentor behaviour falls into three broad categories: role modeling, psychosocial support and career development support.

There are some widely divergent interpretations of what constitutes role modeling in higher education. The range of behaviour considered by Clutterbuck (2001) as role modeling includes showing how to behave in the specific culture of the organisation and what behaviours are valued and rewarded; how to focus one's career aspirations; show a commitment to life-long learning; and act as an example in how to be a mentor to others at a later stage.

The participants in this study mention examples of each of these aspects of role modeling professional and successful academic behaviour which they would like to emulate. One man in the sample with a female mentor had this to say about the way she fulfilled the role model function for him:

> "I had just started teaching full time with the first and second year Architecture Design courses. With first year course, the course manager and my mentor disagreed about the way the course was being taught. I expressed concern about this situation and the course manager took it as personal criticism and got very emotional. It became very difficult to work together. I discussed with the Head of School and I withdrew from first year teaching. My mentor was very reassuring and gave me the confidence to go on with an appropriate approach to the course. Her response clear and objective, she didn't take sides and helped to resolve the conflict."

It may be that the way the mentor handles difficult professional issues is crucial for the way early career academics can model themselves as members of the profession. One of the women in the study had a very different view of how her mentor should behave as a role model when she said:

> "He must maintain himself as a role model – he must stay on his pedestal. The criticism he gives must be constructive and discreet and given in private. He must treat me the same as everybody else so not to increase antagonism against me with other junior lecturers and PhD students in the department. He must be there for me when I need to talk."

The ability to be non-judgmental is one aspect of good mentoring but the ability to control one's own emotions is an aspect not generally discussed in the literature. Cohen (1999) stresses that emotional control is an important part of the relational dimension of mentoring, which the mentor is responsible for. In his description of effective mentor behaviour, a male mentee added the element of emotional control to the effective role model behaviour of an ideal mentor when he said:

> "The mentor must be a good listener, a visionary who has goals and aspirations. He must be a disciplined person, control himself and not get emotional. He must be considerate and kind, and at the same time be as impersonal (sic) as possible because this is a new field for a mentee."

Mentees also value leadership by example and consider this to be the mark of an effective mentor. The leadership by example may take many forms, by being an excellent teacher, a good practitioner in the profession, a good manager and administrator and a good listener.

> "Effectiveness in mentors is shown by openness for discussion and approachability. The mentor should have good administrative and management skills. They should be regularly available for meetings. The mentor must be a good listener. Most of all, the mentor can be effective by leading by example: by delivering good lectures and by putting up good architecture."

Mentees are quite clear that their role models should be active in putting their philosophy into practice. Posturing and intellectual superiority are not regarded as a bonus in mentoring. This emerged several times in the descriptions of effective mentor behaviour, being able to make profound statements is counteracted if mentors don't act on their convictions. A woman mentee expressed this best when she said:

> "The mentor is effective when he shows patience and gives the mentee constructive criticism. He must be a role model and standard setter. The mentor can do this by *doing* not *saying*. He must be unselfish and not let his ego stand in the way."

Mentees also said that they valued mentors who were insightful about themselves and have respect for mentees and be aware that mentees have different values and experiences particularly as the majority of the mentees in this study are in cross-cultural and cross-gender relationships. One of the women expressed her opinion in this way:

> "He must be genuinely concerned with your well being and career progress. He must have knowledge and skills to assist you in developing your career but he must be aware of his own limitations and insecurities."

The role model function of mentors is often demonstrated in conjunction with their psychosocial support and also in the career development support which they offer to mentees. Mentees report that certain career development mentor roles such as taking an interest in their work, in their teaching and in their research, constitutes effective mentor behaviour. The literature shows that academic mentees who receive appropriate career development support in their mentoring relationships do well in their careers (Michelson, 1998). One mentee expressed this best when she said:

> "He is effective in showing an interest in my work and my progress from teaching and research point of view and also ensuring that I can turn to him with problems."

Effective mentors do not attempt to turn their mentees into clones of themselves despite the strong overtones in Zey (1984) and Hay (1995) which might imply that they do. Mentees are concerned that mentors understand that they are different and honour the differences. A woman mentee said this about effective mentors:

> "An effective mentor shows respect for individuality and brings about mutual respect. She has respect for my own set of experiences. She knows that I do not want to be discounted and she respects me for not wanting to be moulded."

The mentees in this study indicate that appropriate career development interactions are inextricably bound together with certain psychosocial support interactions. Mentors also need to display certain behaviours in a consistent way for mentees to rate these as effective. One of the women in Engineering said this about effective mentor behaviour:

> "An effective mentor is someone who is willing to let you explore your own philosophy of teaching and learning but who is able to offer advice. He should mete out criticism in a positive way. He makes every effort to integrate you into the 'club'."

When they are fulfilling the role model and psychosocial functions of academic mentors, the mentee in this study see their mentors' primary activities taking place in the areas of research and teaching and to a lesser extent in administration, academic citizenship and outreach or community service.

7.12 Conclusion

The findings in this study concerned with optimal nurturing of 'saplings' show the complexity of mentoring relationships where effective mentor and mentee behaviour hinge largely on the ability of the mentor to develop trust as a pre-requisite to any

effective long-term functioning. Mentors with insight into their own internal dynamics and who are aware of the delicacy of developing others with sensitivity and respect are those who are the most effective in stretching and growing early career academics in their personal and career development.

The innovative findings in this study concern those behaviours which are viewed as positive which are more neutral and which are negative in the developmental relationships which currently occur in higher education contexts in South Africa.

Mentees must have effective psychosocial support early in the relationship before the career development aspects can take place successfully. This involves mentors in giving constructive critical feedback, being caring, willing to listen and to do more than is required and to share their experiences with mentees. Mentees need to be able to elicit psychosocial support when they require rather than wait for their mentors to intuit when they might be in need of it. This allows their mentors to see them as effective mentees, able to benefit from the nurturing they are offered.

Mentees need effective role modelling to become fully grown young professionals and a clear understanding of what it takes to be a successful academic. At the same time mentors should be able to demonstrate this without attempting to turn their mentees into clones, pruned to resemble their mentors too closely. Mentors need to acknowledge that the mentee's life, background and experiences in the workplace are very different from their own particularly if mentees are part of the designated groups of those previously disadvantaged by Apartheid. Black academics, especially those educated in rural or township schools, have experienced social conditions which most of their senior white colleagues and mentors have not encountered and find difficult to imagine. Acknowledging these differences is especially important in terms of the transformation agenda in equity development programmes and formal mentoring schemes and in the wider national context of pervasive change in higher education.

What has also emerged strongly from the findings are those negative mentor behaviours which do not promote the optimal nurturing. Breach of trust is one of the most destructive but lack of acceptance and lack of help and guidance also impede the growth of mentees. When the mentor is a poor role model, is not available to act as a mentor or is undermining, the mentee suffers. The negative consequences for mentees of credit taking and abuse of power are profound and can be very destructive. In some cases mentees are able to use the experience of negative role modeling to make conscious decisions not to follow the mentor's example when they leave the relationship.

Accelerating the growth and development of black academics underlies the notion of 'growing our own timber' evident in many equity development mentoring programmes in this study. Additional aspects of mentoring which deal with cross-cultural and cross-gender issues which emerged from this study are discussed in the next chapter and the further changes which are made to the composite mentoring model discussed in this chapter and the previous one. The additions to the model reframe mentoring distinctly in a transformation context and emphasise the holistic, systematic nature of mentoring for all early career academics.

Chapter Eight

Growing our own timber: new cross-cultural, cross-gender and transformatory functions for mentors

8.1 Introduction

The previous two chapters dealt with the career development, psychosocial and role functions of mentors. The majority of the sources reviewed in chapters three and four deal with the internal dynamics in relationships between mentors and mentees because the majority of relationships exist as single dyads. There are some sources like Blake-Beard (2001), Murray (1991) and Kram (1988) who note that formal mentoring relationships attract attention from other members of organisations who are not part of the formal programmes and that relationships with parties external to the single dyads also need to be managed. Internal and external aspects require careful management by all parties participating in mentoring and possibly more so if the programme is a formal one because mentoring programmes often receive a great deal of publicity within organisations, especially if they are designed as equity development programmes.

This chapter deals with certain 'external' aspects of mentoring which are important to the successful development of relationships and which are often discussed as separate race and gender issues in literature other than the mentoring literature. Only more recently have race and gender issues in mentoring been investigated as important aspects of mentoring which need to be disaggregated from the more general studies which do not make special mention of the race or gender of mentees. The aspects discussed in this chapter are gender and cultural issues, those factors which directly affect relationships within a specific society. Other environmental forces which help or hinder change and transformation through mentoring in higher education are examined. Aspects of cross-cultural relationships which emerged from the study are examined and there is a specific focus on mentor roles which facilitate and enhance the mentoring of black and women

early career academics while they are establishing themselves in their universities. Gaps in the field of mentoring which have been uncovered during this study are discussed in detail with respect to further roles which mentors need to play in cross-cultural mentoring in higher education. Mentoring as a strategy for transformation in higher education is also discussed in this chapter with a view to articulating the emerging findings within the context of professional and career development of early career academics, to realise the aspiration of 'growing our own timber'.

8.2 Cross-cultural relationships

There is growing body of literature which shows that in Europe and the United States of America there is a positive link between mentoring and success in higher education. Most of the literature concerns undergraduates, usually minorities and African-American students or 'students of color'. Blackwell (1989) suggests that mentoring such students can foster their continuing interest in higher education and graduate work. Holland (1993) found that African-American doctoral students had a range of relationships with faculty advisors who were significant in providing career mentoring as well as academic mentoring for them. The effectiveness of cross-race mentoring relationships has also received some attention in American academic settings. Role modeling by same-race mentors shows newcomers that success is possible in the academic environment (Moses, 1989) and without the loss of cultural identity (Meznek, McGrath and Galaviz, 1989). The presence of black or female faculty members as mentors is important in promoting positive attitudes to research and academic careers for African-American students.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) do not regard the automatic pairing of graduate students of colour with same-race mentors as possible at present nor necessarily desirable. What they argue for is that mentors, regardless of racial background, be effective and influential in their departments. They offer five issues for consideration in multicultural mentoring programmes for postgraduates. Firstly, they maintain that the focus of postgraduate education is on the assimilation of students of colour into the

dominant culture rather than on authentic cultural pluralism. Secondly, they state that postgraduate schools do not address diversity issues like the awareness of culture, race and ethnicity in formal course work. The third issue is that mentors assume similarity between their workplace experiences and those of their protégés of colour, rather than differences. The fourth issue is that traditional mentoring programmes (see those reviewed in chapter two) do not acknowledge the cultural differences of students of colour and the impact these differences may have on student performance and expectations. Lastly they maintain that the framing of race by mentoring partners and programmes in cross-race mentoring relationships determines the effectiveness and satisfaction in the relationship.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) suggest that the current functions of mentoring such as those depicted in Figure 6.2 should be expanded to include aspects related to culture, race and ethnicity to improve the mentor's understanding of different experiences in higher education and the workplace of the protégés. They maintain that four skills are required in cross-cultural mentoring: improving cross-cultural understanding, increasing intercultural communication, enhancing facilitation skills, and increasing flexibility and adaptability. They suggest various ways in which cross-cultural mentors can become better, through improved knowledge and a variety of personal, departmental and faculty actions which will improve the demographically specific dynamic they focus on – white mentors and protégés of colour.

8.2.1 Cross-cultural mentoring at historically advantaged universities

The historically advantaged universities (HAUs) have only fairly recently emerged from a racially charged atmosphere where there was considerable tension between the white teaching staff and students and the small numbers of black students (Makgoba, 1997; Murray, 1997; Shear, 1996) and there is still a residue of institutional racism evident in discriminatory practices in some of the departments where the mentees work (Potgieter, 2002).

I propose a new transformatory model of mentoring which can enable mentoring partners to address cultural and racial issues in a transformation context.

Figure 8.1 Stage 2: New Composite Model of mentor functions and component roles

The transformation mentoring model

Mentor Functions and Component Roles

Transformation
- Change agent
- Manage diversity

Role model

Career Development
- Sponsor/advocate
- Coach
- Protect
- Prevent exploitation
- Provide challenging work assignments
- Exposure
- Give information
- Give political information
- Teach/explore facilitative
- dimension

Psychosocial
- Counsel
- Acceptance and confirmation
- Friendship
- Develop trust
- Encourage
- Guide
- Engage in constructive confrontation
- Manage transition

What is clear from the findings is that the model shown in Figure 6.2 is insufficient for cross-cultural mentoring relationships because I found evidence of additional roles and functions not mentioned in the literature. Mentors need to approach mentoring from a transformatory frame of reference before they begin to address the career development

and psychosocial aspects of the more traditional mentoring conceptual framework. The gaps in the model are highlighted in the sections which follow.

Mentors in particular need to be aware that both internal and external relationships should be managed in this regard (Blake-Beard, 2001). Blake-Beard (2001) focuses on the ways in which women should pay attention to the external aspects of mentoring relationships including the involvement of the direct supervisor, resentment of non-participating peers, perception of formal mentoring programmes as remedial, prevalence of negative stereotypes of women and damaging sexual innuendo and rumours. Her caveats are not directed exclusively to women in cross-gender mentoring relationships but may be especially pertinent to them. The findings of this study show that these issues are relevant for the women in the study particularly if they have male mentors. Her clear delineation of the issues and how to manage them is useful and helpful for women in formal mentoring. By way of extension of her framework, the findings in this study allow me to make some further contributions to the issues of cross-cultural mentoring. Mentees in equity development programmes in countries like South Africa where cross-cultural mentoring is often the norm, should pay attention to external aspects of the relationship including: resentment of non-participating peers who come from previously advantaged groups; perception of formal equity development mentoring programmes as remedial; prevalence of negative stereotypes of previously disadvantaged persons; and damaging racist innuendo and rumours.

The findings in this study show that mentors need to make special efforts to integrate new black academics into their departments as colleagues in order to overcome institutional barriers; to shield them from being exploited and overworked; to help mentees manage diversity and prejudice. The new mentoring functions and roles in academic cross-cultural mentoring contexts which I found are:

- Managing the transition from student to colleague
- Preventing exploitation
- Managing diversity and prejudice

These three additional functions and roles of academic mentors in cross-cultural contexts are discussed in detail in the following section.

8.2.2 Managing the transition from student to colleague

The findings show how important the mentor is in the transitional phase for mentees between being a doctoral student and being appointed as a member of staff at an associate lecturer level. Mentees report that generally they have good relationships with their mentors and this mentee's comment is typical of many in this sample: "We have a very good relationship, we are open to each other. My mentor is tactful in being a critical friend and that makes it easier for me to learn to learn." The transition is an important one to make because most of the mentees in this programme are well known in their departments as postgraduate students and other staff members may continue to treat them as students. Integrating newcomers into departments does not happen automatically and mentors have a necessary duty to find appropriate ways to assist in the boundary-crossing for mentees who belong to a different cultural and racial group from the majority of academics in the department.

Special efforts to manage the change may range from simple logistical arrangements to much more complex interventions. One mentor recounted how positioning the mentee physically in the department by giving the mentee an office near other members of staff was a strategy which he used by remarking:

> "He is involved in the department. We moved his office so he has got a full lecturer office upstairs (he's not in the Lab). I decided that (having a desk in the lab) was out because we need to make him a member of department. So I suppose that was part of my mentoring. We had some staff members leaving and we moved everyone around and I insisted that Simon [1] actually come onto the floor with the staff - that he comes to the staff meetings and is part of the department, you know, not some sort of little outsider. Simon didn't appreciate that very much. I still think he needs to become a member of the staff."

[1] not his real name

Another aspect of becoming a member of staff may involve a change in patterns of working and keeping hours more in keeping with those of the other members of staff. New members of staff may not realise that their student lifestyle may have to change quite considerably in order to adapt to the changed situation as a member of staff. A mentor was concerned about this when he said:

> "Well, I think he was always accepted - I don't think that's the trouble. Oswald just works funny hours like most students - so he comes in late and leaves in the early hours of the morning - which is something we've got to get out of him - I don't know how to. Most of our postgraduates seem to work these strange hours. But we do insist that he comes to the Monday morning meeting and the main staff meetings, and to workshops, because he is the part of the staff. He's not just a researcher on a special programme. He is a low workload part of the staff."

This incorporation of mentees into the staff is sometimes met with some resistance to the change on the part of the mentee who may be very comfortable as a postgraduate student and be a little reluctant to forgo that role in favour of taking on greater responsibilities as a member of staff. If the mentee has strong bonds with other postgraduate students in the department, it may be difficult to relinquish those 'buddies' and also for them to accept his change of status and position in the department. This may be especially so when mentees are part of a group of black postgraduate peers and have to move into a group of staff members where they are the only black academic or one of a very small number on the departmental teaching staff. In departments where there are significant numbers of black postgraduates and where there are already a number of black members of staff, the transition may be easier for mentees because there is less likelihood the mentee will be seen as a token black appointment or simply as filling an employment equity target.

In other instances, the mentee may have been doing administrative work in the department as a temporary member of staff and be well known in that capacity. The transition may have to be managed with skill by the mentor as the new black academic breaks away from a previous role into a new collegial role with fellow academics in the

department. The mentee's new role may not be clearly demarcated or visible and it may take quite a while for the mentees new status as an academic to become apparent and accepted by the department as a whole. This was aptly illustrated by a mentor who said:

> "I introduced her as a full member of staff and treated her as such but I don't think everybody did. And people had known her as filling in for the secretary or doing a bit of marking or teaching here and there, and they continued to think it. If she'd come from outside I don't think there would be the same problem. But result was that she tended to be given anything, even with the academic teaching situation, she was given whatever was left over."

Mentees who have been in their departments as undergraduates or postgraduates sometimes make the transition from student to colleagues fairly easily, as one mentee reports of his changed relationship: "It is a healthy, collegial relationship, it's good." His mentor felt that not only did the other members of the department need to become more sensitive and aware of the mentee's change in status, but mentors also need to change the perception of their respective roles. Mentees in this programme are also doctoral students and their mentors are their higher degree supervisors which may result in added complications for both parties in having to separate out the roles of colleague and student. Both mentor and mentee have to juggle the two roles simultaneously. The student role is a subordinate one in the higher education hierarchy whereas an associate or junior lecturer may feel the difference in the hierarchical structure less intensely because of the collegial nature of the roles. One mentor in a same-gender pair and the only black mentor in the cohorts in this study, reflecting on his relationship with his mentee, said this about his mentee's change of status:

> "He is more or less as a colleague in the partnership, more than just a student, so negotiating that issue, that delicate shift is very important, you know. How far do you go with him as a colleague and how far you go with him as a student? And this is a delicate balance that you really have to achieve. You must treat him with respect, to listen as a colleague but at the same time you also have to ensure that he can still listen and take something from you. Learning is a long life (sic) process."

When the transition is not smoothly negotiated, mentees feel caught between roles and find the transition more difficult. A woman mentee explained this when she said:

> "My relationship with my mentor is just confined to critical feedback. It has not developed beyond this. Her "I know better" attitude is not beneficial to me. I'm not an equal but I'm not a subordinate either."

Mentors and mentees may not wish to highlight racial differences on the staff but may need to be assertive about it during the transitional phase at the beginning of mentoring relationship especially where the mentee is the first black member of staff in an exclusively white department. It may be that new black academics in those situations may have to call attention to their race and colour as a way of emphasising the ongoing transformation taking place in the department and to break the prevailing mindset of traditionally white departmental culture and to foreground the emergence of a different set of values and opinions. One mentor explained the dilemma for his mentee when he said:

> "There was an occasion at a staff meeting after that where another member of staff talked about the fact that we had made a decision and that we were all white and Anna[2] had to say: "Sorry, we're not all white," and the other woman apologised to her. So she is in the position of not really being thought of as being black and yet thinking of herself as black. But not that that in any way limits her identity, but that's hard. And if you become invisible, in one sense that's great, but in another, you are not recognised as representing a different constituency."

Managing the transition from one status level to another, and assisting in such boundary-crossing, can go some way towards avoiding some of the implications that black newcomers to the department are only participating in formal equity development mentoring programmes because they are in need of remediation or that they are deficient in some way. Mentors may be able to negate some stereotypes of previously disadvantaged academics; and limit damaging racist innuendo and rumours.

---

[2] not her real name

8.2.3 Preventing exploitation

An additional finding shows that mentors may have to shield their mentees from being exploited and overworked at the beginning of their appointments in their departments. Not only is it necessary to prevent junior members of a department from carrying a disproportionally heavy workload, but mentors may also have to guard against the tendency to give black mentees less prestigious work. Mentees in equity development programmes are being developed as academics who teach and not exclusively as researchers. A mentor sketched the scenario in his department plainly:

> "In the past, junior lectures in the English department had been given full teaching loads. And sometimes heavier than the senior members of staff and that is wrong but it has been done in the past. As soon as I realised that there were very strict limits to junior lecturer's workloads and bearing in mind that she's got three years to do this Ph D and still be a member of staff, I decided that when I set up the teaching loads for the year, I did it in such a way that all her teaching was concentrated in one quarter of the year."

However, shielding the mentee from exploitation may in itself give rise to another set of difficulties which both mentor and mentee may have to contend with. The actions of the mentor may be misinterpreted to the disadvantage of the mentee. The visibility of the mentee may be decreased so that integration in the department is hampered and this may create a dilemma for the mentor who is concerned with the incremental learning and phased development of the mentee and with providing fairly unbroken blocks of time during which the mentee can carry out research. A mentor expressed his ambivalence about his predicament in shielding his mentee when he said:

> "And that meant she wasn't very visible as a full member of the teaching staff throughout and that wouldn't have been a problem if that had been the tradition in

> the past. In the past junior lecturers were so visible, that in some ways, although this was done for her benefit, it actually took away her acceptance. Some people resented her. I explained why I was doing it. Everyone knew but there was again a certain sense of favouritism being exercised and so maybe it would have done her acceptability more good to have given her larger teaching loads."

Some mentors have made serious efforts to offer their mentees opportunities in arranging their workloads so that they are given prestigious work. Mentors may use the programme as an opportunity to extend their mentee's skills safely with teaching experiences which would not be afforded to those who are not fortunate enough to have a mentor. One mentor who clearly understands the developmental nature of the mentoring relationship expressed his opinion like this:

> "We are reluctant to put our mentees straight into teaching in their very first year, because we believe it is a fairly large hurdle and it has to be overcome. And we also take care to try to select fairly 'good classes' for them. For example my own mentee teaches our Chemistry I Major. So this is perceived to a one of the better and easier classes to teach. Now without her being in this program, there is a very, very slim chance that she would have been put in front of a class to lecture... She would have been a tutoring, she would have been demonstrating as any PhD student does. And she is a very good tutor and demonstrator. We do surveys of our undergraduate students and the comments about her have been very, very positive. But I very much doubt we would have put her in front of a class."

Mentors need to be aware not only of the resentment of non-participating peers who come from previously advantaged groups but also of the resentment of more established colleagues who regard exploitation of juniors and black people as normal. The perception of formal equity development mentoring programmes as remedial can also be countered by sensitive and careful planning of the early career academic's incremental development so that less than perfect performance does not reinforce negative stereotypes of new black academics.

8.2.4 Managing diversity and prejudice

Mentors in this study state that they do not have any cross-cultural issues with mentees of different races on a personal level. A mentor in Chemistry expressed this best when he said:

> "The question of race and gender has not come in to it. What am I sensitive about is that she is a young, inexperienced person and whether it was a white male I'd treat him in exactly the same way as I treat her. I'd give him the support that I've given her. So I don't think gender or race issues come to it in any way."

Cultural and religious differences also require tolerance and acceptance in the department. A mentor showed her responsiveness to religious differences when she said:

> "She is a Muslim, one has to be sensitive about it, you know, if it's during the time of the fast and realise that it is not an easy for her to keep working, although she tended to reverse the night for the day then, - she tended to work during the night and try and sleep during the day."

But mentors may have to help mentees overcome racial prejudice in an institutionally racialised context. Mentees need to have their status confirmed by the actions of senior staff in the department. Their status as staff members may be acknowledged by senior members of the department but mentees may experience difficulty from former student peers who do not consider the mentee's status as having changed. Mentees may have difficulty in assuming the new level of authority that comes with a change in status in the department and may need a champion to reinforce that authority to begin with. A mentor who intervened on her mentee's behalf said this about her action:

> "My mentee had a problem when she was asked to run the first year practical exams in the Chemistry Department. She designed the exams and I reviewed the exams and marking memos. And then she had to assemble a group of post-grads who were going to do the marking, and what I had suggested was that she run sample marking of about five scripts, to get that standardised, because different people were going to mark a large bunch of scripts. And she got some resistance from the post-grads, because she wanted to call a meeting where they could

discuss the marking memo. I actually had to go to the Head of Department and he had to actually let these post-grads know that it was expected of them. If it looks as if she doesn't get co-operation, I can help to see that she gets that co-operation."

There are issues about employment equity positions where the appointment of black academics can give rise to difficulties within departments. Some white newcomers who are regarded as "previously advantaged" may find it difficult to be understanding of the position of black mentees who are appointed to the staff as part of the programme. A mentor voiced his awareness of the situation like this:

"My mentee is in her early thirties and there is only one other person in the department in that age category but he already has a PhD. He'd come in as a contract lecturer and he felt that because he was a white male, he was vulnerable and she was getting a leg up and she was in the pound seats and he was in the gods. They are much the same age and so there was some envy until he subsequently got a permanent position in the department"

He went on to describe other relationships in the department graphically when he said:

"There is another young woman of much the same age, just about to complete her PhD, who's done quite a lot of teaching in the department in the last two or three years and they are actually from the same Honours class and this other young woman has been brought in to fill in a gap here and there and I think she has felt aggrieved by that, and certainly got to the point where she's said: "I'm not taking anything more unless I get a proper job." Now I suppose one would have to say if that young woman and Anna had applied for the same job, the other one might have got it because she's got a better academic record. My mentee has got the prospects and it's a development position at the moment, but it will eventually become a permanent post in the department. Now they are really good friends and there is the least the possibility of a problem about that. I didn't notice any tension between them but you can see potential problems there. Individuals may feel threatened or a little bit peeved or aggrieved, but I don't think anybody has doubts or challenges the value or necessity of having a program like this, even if it does privilege a few individuals. So I didn't think there is any resentment or bad feeling generally but there might be in one or two cases."

The resentment of non-participating peers who come from previously advantaged groups can be a serious hindrance to the integration of black newcomers especially if they are inexperienced in teaching. Damaging racist innuendo, rumours, remarks should not be reinforced or condoned in any way and mentors need to appraise their mentees of how to cope with such occurrences. They need to deflect their mentees from 'playing the race card' themselves when their performance is less than optimal so that mentees avoid any hint of being accused of reverse racism. However, both overt and covert racism is a legacy of South Africa's history which mentors and their colleagues need to address in a systematic way. Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) offer specific guidance on how mentors can work within their departments to eradicate racism and prejudice. Although their guide was developed in the United States of America, it would be relevant to South African higher education contexts.

The findings of the study indicate that in addition to the traditional mentor roles and functions discussed in the previous chapters, mentors in cross-cultural relationships have to initiate new and additional functions which specifically pertain to mentoring in cross-cultural contexts. Few mentors in the South African higher education context make special efforts to integrate the new black academic into the department, especially where there are few black academic members of staff or none at all.

8.3 Gaps in the traditional mentoring model

Mentors in this study locate themselves in the *apprenticeship model* of mentoring. Using the apprenticeship model may reinforce the marginality of black knowledge producers because the existing models of mentor functions and roles within the apprenticeship model are not sufficient for cross-cultural contexts. Yet in cross-cultural mentoring relationships, mentors play a crucial role in managing to overcome racial prejudice in departments where there are very few black academic members of staff. This is vitally

important in South Africa where black people are not a minority population but are under-represented in academia for historical reasons. Mentors may have to make special and often creative efforts to integrate their mentees into academic departments during the transitionary period at the beginning of the mentoring relationship. They need to be proactive in preventing the exploitation of mentees, to shield them from work overload and being given onerous work which carries little prestige. Mentors need to offer mentees the opportunity of doing high-status work even in a small way at first and develop challenging work incrementally so that mentees can gain as sense of achievement.

Mentors and mentees in this study have confirmed that mentors fulfill many of the roles and functions traditionally associated with mentoring. Mentors provide both career development functions and psychosocial functions such as those described by Kram (1988); Anderson and Shannon (1988); and Cohen (1999). Academic mentors also provide functions specifically associated with the academic enterprise and supervision of higher degrees (Blackwell and McLean, 1996b; Buhlungu and Metcalfe, 2001.)

The differences which emerged when testing the model shown in Figure 6.2 show that although there is a considerable overlap in career development and psychosocial roles and functions, mentors in this study perform new functions in relation to those which are commonly performed by mentors. South African mentors in the context cross-cultural mentoring relationships perform additional functions which specifically relate to transforming the profile of academic departments in universities. Mentors are *not trained* specifically to be aware that they will be required to perform these functions nor are they trained in how to deal with situations affecting their mentees in the transformation process. Therefore it is necessary to add those functions and roles which emerged from this study to the model shown in Figure 8.1. Mentors often operate intuitively and in an individual way relying on a culturally determined set of acceptable mentoring roles which are seldom articulated (Jones, 2001). Clutterbuck (2001) shows in Figure 8.2 how cross-cultural mentors consider functions like fostering self-reliance and 'stretching' learning to be their priorities while their mentees expect quite different functions from their mentors

like support and sponsorship. Mentors were amazed by the mismatch in expectations of their mentoring.

Dutch and English expatriate mentors in Brunei, shown in Figure 8.2a, regard making their mentees independent and providing them with learning experiences that are new, challenging and which will extend and stretch them as their most important functions. Mentees shown in Figure 8.2b, on the other hand regard support in their learning and sponsorship in their careers as most important.

Figure 8.2 Mentors' and mentees' perceptions of functions required in cross-cultural mentoring relationships

Fig 8.2a Mentors' perceptions

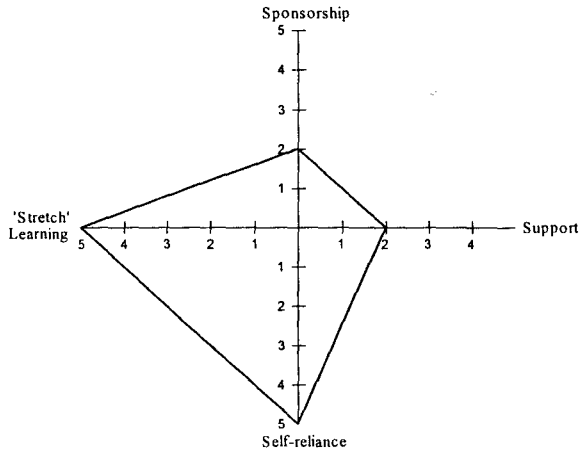
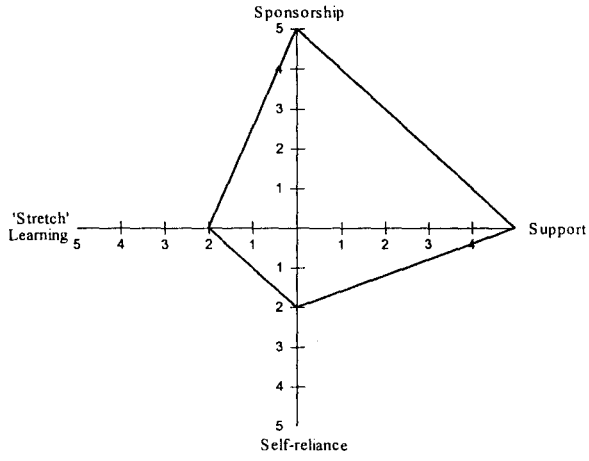


Fig 8.2b Mentees' perceptions



Source: Clutterbuck, 2001.

It may be that cultural factors in European mentors that incline them to carry out the same functions for Asian mentees as they would for European mentees without checking to find out what would be valued by Asian mentees. The Asian mentees may be expecting patronage as is usual in their culture without checking what their mentors are expecting to deliver in the mentoring process. There are no studies in South Africa which show the

gaps between the expectations of white mentors and black mentees and this is an aspect of cross-cultural mentoring which could be investigated in future research.

There is little in the literature concerning the transitionary phase at the beginning of mentoring relationships. Some of the mentors in this study express shock and dismay at the kinds of situations which their mentees have encountered and which they had not expected to arise. The smooth integration of mentees into their departments is often more of an obstacle than mentors anticipate. Feelings of antipathy to black academics is fairly common, both from colleagues and from students and mentors may have to use their positions of power and authority to overcome overt displays of prejudice and discrimination. Even in an environment which is becoming increasingly deracialised, it is often still difficult for black academics to break the barriers to acceptance in the university (Buhlungu and Metcalfe, 2001). Mentors have to act swiftly and potently at the beginning of the relationship to facilitate the transition phase of the mentee's passage from the status of student to member of staff particularly in the case of fairly young academics who have been students in the department.

More importantly, the *traditional* mentor function of *protection* is insufficient in cross-cultural contexts. Mentor protection guards mentees against "untimely or potentially damaging contact with other senior officials .... when visibility is not in the interest of the individual."(Kram, 1988, p 29.) The *prevention of exploitation* must be explicitly added to the model because when newcomers are exploited, visibility is exactly what is required by seniors – newcomers are overloaded with work which they no longer care to do as it is too time-consuming or difficult. In the academic context, this would be teaching numerous large classes of undergraduates. The prevention of exploitation requires the mentor to play a much more proactive role than in a reactively protective role. Historically in South Africa, black people have been exploited and disadvantaged by being required to perform onerous work while those in more powerful positions do prestigious work. Mentors need to be aware that in a transformative context, such onerous work should be allocated fairly and in such a way that the mentee cannot interpret the work load as a perpetuation of racism.

The implications of the findings in this study concern three broad areas in mentoring practice in cross-cultural contexts. Firstly, there is the issue of mentor selection and training. Where mentors belong to a historically dominant but minority white group, as in the case in South Africa, mentors can be exposed to the different models of mentoring and come to an awareness of their own natural style of mentoring and its implications for their mentoring actions and roles and for the ways in which they will impact on their mentees. As can be seen from the findings in this study, mentors tend towards adopting a *hierarchical, apprenticeship model* like that proposed by Maynard and Furlong (1993). Knowledge which the mentees have may not be considered valuable if the mentor expects to be emulated and there may not be sufficient emphasis on reciprocal learning in the mentoring relationship. Cook, Adonisi and Viedge (1994) maintain that mentorship in South African organisations needs to be redefined as 'learning partnerships' to equalise the power relations which usually reinforce the racial based inequality often present in cross-cultural mentoring.

It would also be useful to mentors to receive training about their functions and roles as described in the model shown in Figure 6.2. But as I have already shown, this is not sufficient for mentors in cross-cultural pairs. It is also desirable to train mentors about the specific functions which have come to light through this study. There is a need for mentors to be proactive in helping mentees to make the transition in status from student to staff member. Mentors need to have a heightened awareness of how they can prevent the exploitation of their mentees and how they can help mentees and other colleagues manage diversity in predominantly white departments and overcome prejudice.

Secondly, there is the issue of the organisational culture in the workplace, both at the macro and micro levels. There may be university policies which endorse diversity and employment equity but there are also departmental sub-cultures which may exploit and disadvantage newcomers. Early career academics who are white may see this exploitation as simply a difficult hurdle to overcome or avoid if they can, but black academics may well interpret the same hurdle as institutional racism and regard the exploitation as racist.

The disjuncture between policy and practice may need to be surfaced and raised by mentors if they are sufficiently aware of it.

Thirdly, the institution needs to mark the newcomer's status by a formal ceremony clearly indicating the transition from student to staff member and support it by marking the initiation with a symbolic boundary crossing gesture (Van Maanen, 1982.) Ideally this should happen as soon as mentees are appointed and should be followed up by structured programme workshops introducing the aims of the programme, stating the goals and desired outcomes and allowing different understandings of mentoring to surface. Expectations can be clarified and mentors and mentees should articulated these so that mismatched expectations can be addressed (Clutterbuck, 2001) and roles defined (Jones, 2001). Clarification of expectations enables mentors to match their behaviours appropriately to mentees expectations early in the relationship and place more emphasis on other roles later in the mentoring or when they are necessary. Optimal integration of newcomers may result when care is taken to address issues in the cross-cultural context for both mentors and the working environment. Mentors need to become aware and reflective of the reciprocal learning which ideally takes place in cross-cultural mentoring relationships. In so doing, mentors who fulfill all the functions which facilitate transformative relationships will have a long-term impact on the structure of academic staff, particularly in historically advantaged universities in South Africa where the staff is still predominantly white.

8.4 Socio-historical, cultural and environmental forces

In her study of black academics who exit South African universities for other positions, Potgieter (2002) echoes the unpublished internal findings of attrition rates of black staff at Wits commissioned by Vice-Chancellor Bundy in 1999. Potgieter revealed that institutional racism, racism couched as liberalism, racism in evaluations and expectations, black essentialism, poor management and leadership, responses to the new academic

environment, and the political and private spheres were the leading causes of such black academic attrition rates.

Potgieter (2002) sees lack of commitment to transformation as essentially racist. She advocates top-down interventions at a societal level from national government, higher education institutions, the private corporate sector and the donor sector to effect transformation. While the national interventions are being put into place, smaller programmes can begin to make a difference at local level. If mentors and their mentees are to cope with these pervasive socio-historical and cultural forces they need to be aware of them at a conscious level. I agree with her premise that the few key black appointees at senior management level are unlikely to be able to deal with racism at the level of departmental experience.

I argue that mentoring for professional socialisation and the professionalisation of academic work can become a strategic means for transformation in South African higher education institutions. Firstly, it is clear from this study that South African universities are not doing enough to support and develop early career academics and that the transformation of higher education is being retarded by institutional lack of support. Secondly, transformation has been constrained by social and political factors and South African universities have been slow to put sufficiently powerful programmes in place that will facilitate transformation of the organizations or ensure the professionalisation of the teaching staff. Prior to the legislation enabling the payment of the Skills Development Levy, a lack of funds was used to justify the slow establishment of widespread development programmes for early career academics.

Thirdly, this study shows that mentoring as a professional development strategy has a positive impact in careers at entry-level but that the professional development of early career academics in all South Africa universities is poorly operationalised. The pervasive neglect of entry-level academics can not be effectively reduced or excused by developing small numbers of Employment Equity and Affirmative Action appointees who are often stigmatised for belonging to special programmes. The implementation of the Skills

Development legislation provides all higher education institutions with the opportunity to remedy this situation. Systematic transformation of the professional socialisation and development of early academic careers in South Africa through mentoring could ensure more widespread and thorough professional training for academics instead of the uneven and limited practices in place at present.

If mentors and their mentees are to become *collaborative agents for change and transformation* within South African higher education institutions, they need to surface and deal with racist issues in ways that promote transformation and change and set up a counter-discourse of non-racism. There are not enough black senior managers or black academics at any level in HAUs at present to form enough of a critical mass to effect radical and dramatic change. Although they may be role models for newcomers and aspiring academics their scarcity smacks of tokenism although this is a moot point as the educational exclusion of the past has severely limited the pool of appropriately qualified black South African academics to fill senior posts in South Africa. Slow percolation of transformation from the bottom up may be effective but it not necessarily as rapid as may be desirable. Thomas (2001) shows that those who reach the top in pro-diversity organisations in the United States of America do so by slow and steady commitment over a period of about 15 years. Rapid transformation may not enhance the individual credibility rating of black academics in a society which is wrestling with a legacy of legislated Apartheid and institutionalised discrimination. It is debatable whether overt racism against the majority of the population is easier for South Africans to deal with than for those in many other societies who have to deal with more insidious and covert racism where black people have minority status.

In specific instances where senior black academics come to HAUs from long academic careers in historically disadvantaged universities (HDUs) they often find that joining the university is a difficult process. The selection procedures are such that senior employment equity or affirmative action transformation candidates are recruited and selected without much input from the dean of the faculty, the head of the department or any other departmental members. Newly appointed senior academics may have a

somewhat idealised view of what an HAU can deliver for research activities in their fields but the faculty or department may not have been party to the promises made during the appointment process. Perhaps the expectations of the new appointee have not been communicated to the department by Human Resources. The initial relationship with the newly appointed academic and the department can thus become very strained and conflictual if expectations are not met. Orientation programmes may generate enthusiasm about the university, its structure and functioning which result in a serious dissonance for newly appointed academics when faculties and departments fail to act congruently with central university thinking.

Transformation cannot simply be left to happen nor should newly appointed black academics be expected to bring about change in an unsupported and unsupportive structure. Friction and confrontation can be avoided if communication between central functions and faculties is aligned and transparent selection and recruitment procedures are put in place. It is often difficult for black academics who are used to HDU administrative systems and work styles to adapt to HAU structures and work procedures. Once newly appointed academics take up their positions they are simply left to sink or swim. Senior black academics recommend that the selection and recruitment procedures should include members of the relevant faculty and department from the outset so as to avoid miscommunication from the beginning of the appointment. Not only that, there should be some systematic follow up for at least six months during the adjustment period where the newly appointed academic can sort out any misapprehensions or communication problems. Peer mentoring of senior black academics through regular meetings with established colleagues during the first year could lessen their feeling of isolation and strangeness in the new environment and help to ensure rapid and harmonious integration in the new department and prevent a feeling of marginalisation and exclusion.

It is not a simple matter for new black lecturers to integrate into predominantly white academic departments. The transition from posts in predominantly black institutions of further and higher education to staff member at an HAU is often not easy. Junior black

staff appointed at HAUs are often considerably older than their white colleagues newly appointed to the same ranks in the department. One black woman at Afrikaans HAU indicated her feeling of not fitting in when she said:

> "I was the first black person in the department but I was not formally introduced to my colleagues at a staff meeting. I was just casually introduced to about twenty of them when we met them in the corridors. This is a big department and there should be a formal introduction to all members of the Department."

Inconsiderate examples like this are not confined to Afrikaans HAUs. Newly appointed black academics at HAUs may feel awkward about introducing themselves to new colleagues even if they do so informally. This can be a prolonged period of feeling strange and uncomfortable if the department is a large one. There is often a feeling that some of the white members of the department are prejudiced against them and are less than willing to assimilate them and this makes cooperation difficult and relationships tense.

There is a sense that by joining the staff the aura of the hallowed nature of the academic career is demystified for black academics and this is resented by established white colleagues. It takes a great deal of effort for new black members of staff to establish their credibility as sound scholars and hard-working departmental members. They feel that they have to be restrained and not let their feelings of frustration show. Black academics feel that their white colleagues have an attitude that if black academics are intellectually capable of working in an academic position, they should be able to assimilate all the activities of an academic working life and environment without any training or guidance. and that this places them at an unfair disadvantage. The 'sink or swim' attitude of some colleagues, whether intentional or not, is unpleasant. Although this is fairly characteristic of the fate of many new academics in institutions throughout the world and not particular to black academics, guidance and assistance with faculty and departmental duties appears to be necessary and needs to be collegial and not patronising.

In addition to the issues raised by Potgieter (2002) in her analysis of difficulties experienced by black academics in HAUs, is the issue of language. The white population in South Africa is not heterogeneous and language is one of the most obvious historical and cultural divides in the society. Black academics who join Afrikaans HAUs feel at a loss and sometimes feel deliberately excluded by the use of Afrikaans in staff meetings especially if they are not as fluent in the Afrikaans as they are in English. Many Afrikaans speakers are not any more comfortable speaking English than their new black colleagues are in speaking Afrikaans. One black lecturer expressed admiration for her Head of Department who has found creative and supportive ways around the language used in staff meetings. She described the situation like this:

> "Staff meetings and other administrative meetings are in Afrikaans. My supervisor gives me an English translation of the agenda before the meeting. I greatly appreciate those who are considerate enough to speak English. I went for a three-month crash course in Afrikaans in the first semester for official vocabulary and terminology. It was very helpful. My supervisor encourages me by making every Wednesday an 'Afrikaans' day."

Increased fluency in Afrikaans may ease difficulties with colleagues for black academics moving across the white political and language divide. But is does highlight an anomaly for HAUs who are anxious to address equity issues. Getting equity targets filled at any cost is not an optimal staffing strategy; it discounts the well being and emotional needs of employees and may reinforce covert prejudice against them. Black academics who have difficulty speaking Afrikaans are not accorded the same concessions as black or white foreign nationals speaking English as a foreign language. A black lecturer expressed his bewilderment in the Afrikaans HAU environment like this:

> "The University and the department doesn't look at needs of young black academics. They should be specific about what we have to do. They must clarify their expectations of us, and find out what our financial and emotional needs are. In South Africa there are changing attitudes to life and changes in education but I don't see that here."

Language usage in Afrikaans HAUs may also contribute to difficulties with other constituencies at universities. Some newly appointed black lecturers feel that some of their students are prejudiced against them and that this is racial. They feel that they have to make extra efforts to assert themselves calmly and firmly and gain the confidence of their students and the parents of those students who lodge complaints. Lack of support in transforming HAUs and in society at large in transition leaves solitary black academics feeling very isolated, uneasy and discriminated against as one black lecturer ventured:

> "Nothing is done about the integration of the few black lecturers into the classes with mostly white students. Somebody in the department needs to explain the pitfalls for lecturers and the kind of disciplinary problems they encounter."

Mentoring can provide a supportive and affirming context in which mentees and their mentors can tackle the institutional barriers to integration of black academics. The risks of not providing adequate mentoring and support early in the black academic's career may result in individual emotional and career damage, increased prejudice against newcomers and established staff, steady rates of attrition and barely perceptible transformation.

Black academics in HAUs are required to perform certain duties simply because they are black (Geber 1999a; Potgieter, 2002). Black academics are seen as qualified to counsel black students simply because they are black. A black lecturer in the Zoology department was given the task of doing academic support in the form of extra (remedial) tutorials for the black students in the first year cohort in the department. She has no training in the educational or psychological theories of academic support and was allocated to help black students simply because she was black. She was not told that this would be one of her duties when she was interviewed for the junior lecturer position. She continued to provide academic support to students for the whole semester as her group increased to include some white students who were also in need of additional academic support. She acknowledges that this was difficult for her when she says:

> "The first two years here were very stressful helping students in academic support while I was trying to concentrate on research. I did very little in research in the first two years. I can now balance teaching and research better because I don't have to do the academic support for students any more. I do much more preparation of slides for my lectures because I am aware that students may not understand my accent."

For a few newly appointed black academics there is a strong feeling that theoretical work and research is not as important as teaching and practical application of knowledge. This is quite different from the attitude of most of their white counterparts who emphasise research above teaching. Four black lecturers in this sample come from extensive working careers in high school teaching and feel competent as teachers but both of them said that the demands of teaching in tertiary institutions are very different from their previous experience and that university teachers should be trained in skills necessary to perform well at this level. A black academic with experience at a black high school described his dilemma this way:

> "I had to rethink my identity as a secondary school teacher and about appropriate ways of disciplining students especially with regard to their inattentiveness. I had to come to terms with the notion of lecturing as opposed to the notion of teaching. This (the university) is not a school set-up. I had to combine the two."

No means of modelling good practice is offered to these new teachers other than by the methods offered through generic teaching courses. New teachers use models of good teaching which they remember from their student days or from their own experience as high school teachers and copy those. For them it is a case of learning on the job by trial and error and engaging in continuous self-evaluation to improve. There is little or no feedback from peers or senior colleagues on their teaching performance. Team teaching or co-teaching a course at the beginning of an academic career is not generally used a method of gaining experience in good practice and building teaching confidence. There seems to be little practical implementation of co-teaching to fast track new teachers in this core activity of their academic careers in the university.

8.5 Black academics as agents of change

Predominantly white Afrikaans HAUs have a very short history of employing black academics because of racial segregation in education which ended very recently. Black academics in these institutions are very aware of their position as Employment Equity appointments. They are positive about their role as agents of change and transformation in the university and in some cases are very pleased with the opportunities for their own career development. Many acknowledge that HAIs have more facilities, better equipment, better quality supervision to offer than the HDUs from which they have come. They welcome the opportunity to be seen as role models for the young black students on campus and to be part of the sweeping changes in South African society which is moving towards full non-racial integration.

Some, but not all of them, are still somewhat in awe of the prestigious status of what it means to be a black lecturer at a HAI. For some, it was a career opportunity they could scarcely ever have envisaged and it is an achievement beyond their wildest dreams. Nevertheless, the dreamlike, miraculous quality of their positions is often accompanied by feelings of great discomfort. They feel a great responsibility for being 'good' representatives of their cultural groups, for being 'good' examples of academic excellence and hardworking teachers and colleagues. But they feel vulnerable because they are given very little institutional support in the change process. Many feel like outsiders because of the language issue much more than the race or educational disadvantage issues. They do not perceive the institution as having any clear policy or action plan for integrating black lecturers academically or socially and they regard their orientation day and induction process as far too brief and superficial. New black lecturers lack a support structure where they can meet to discuss common experiences and share these with the wider community of all new young academics. They feel isolated, as indeed they are, because they are the sole representatives of the black community in their departments.

Within the context of formal mentoring programmes investigated in this study, it is clear that most of the participant's see the transformation in the mentoring as personal and internal. One mentee expressed a typical personal view when he said:

> "I never thought I would be a teacher at a HAU. An 'Affirmative Action' person is often said to be a token and not good enough."

Another mentee explained how frightening the change and transformation process could be for black early career academics staring to work at an HAU when she said:

> "I am the only black lecturer in this department. I only survived because of my mentor. Other colleagues in the department would not have made it possible to stay, they are not as involved as a mentor. I am growing, I am making quite a lot of progress. I didn't think I would have survived. I came from a historically disadvantaged university so the cultural diversity in class was frightening for me. I got over it with help from my mentor."

Very few mentees see the mentoring as in a wider perspective. One man made a point of making the connection between mentoring and external transformation in higher education when he said:

> "There must be a commitment to transformation in the University and no compromise in standards but all staff must acknowledge social concerns."

One woman who was aware that her appointment was a 'first' for her department was concerned that transformation might be difficult to achieve without employment equity targets and yet on a personal level she was not finding things easy even though her mentor supported her appointment. She said:

> "I wouldn't get a post otherwise. There are major problems about my post being an Affirmative Action post. But redress in essential in this department and at this University."

Whether it is personal or organisational, transformation can be achieved by using mentoring as a strategy. Higher education institutions in South Africa have a long way to

go before they can say that they are using the strategy optimally for pervasive transformation.

The assertion made by Kulati, 2001 that those employed in institutions with a transformative leadership style are more likely to find support for their development in the changed higher education environment seems to be borne out in this study by mentees at University of Port Elizabeth; the University of Natal; and University of the Witwatersrand. For early career academics entering the system in managerialist institutions or HDIs there is less support and they may be left to their own devices.

8.6 Conclusion

The transformatory role of the mentor cannot be ignored or underestimated in mentoring relationships in South Africa at present where 'growing our own timber' is strongly on the national agenda. The *traditional apprenticeship* and *developmental models* of mentoring (for example Figure 6.2) do not sufficiently articulate the crucial role as *agent of change and transformation* for mentors. For that reason, based on the data emerging from this study, a new transformatory model of mentoring is proposed in Figure 8.1 which clearly indicates the mentors who approach relationships with transformation as their articulating conceptual framework, will offer their career development, psychosocial and role model functions in ways which specifically address the individual and organisational contextual needs of South African higher education. It cannot be assumed that the desired transformation will happen of its own accord nor should newly appointed black academics be expected to bring about the desired change in an unsupported and unsupportive structure.

Mentoring for professional socialisation and the professionalisation of academic work can become a strategic means for transformation in South African higher education institutions. South African universities are doing too little to support and develop early career academics and that the transformation of higher education is being retarded by

institutional lack of support. Transformation has been constrained by social and political factors and South African universities have used a lack of funds to excuse the tardy implementation of sufficiently powerful programmes in place to facilitate transformation of the organizations or ensure the professionalisation of the teaching staff. Clearly, the notion of 'growing our own timber' is viewed as an optional addition to staff development and not as a crucial national and institutional imperative.

The findings in this study confirm that mentoring as a professional development strategy has a positive impact in careers at entry-level, but that the professional development of early career academics in all South Africa universities is poorly operationalised and unevenly implemented. This amounts to a widespread, almost pervasive neglect of entry-level academics which cannot be effectively reduced or excused by developing small numbers of Employment Equity and Affirmative Action appointees who are often stigmatised for belonging to special programmes. The implementation of the Skills Development legislation provides all higher education institutions with the opportunity to remedy this situation. Systematic transformation of the professional socialisation and development of early academic careers in South Africa through mentoring could ensure more widespread and thorough professional training for academics instead of the ad hoc and limited practices in place at present, thus really providing 'saplings' with optimal opportunities to grow and develop.

Specific gaps in the literature have been identified and those gaps require the addressing of the issues in cross-cultural relationships of managing the transition from student to colleague; preventing the exploitation of black academics at HAUs; and managing diversity and prejudice against black women and men. Further issues which hinder transformation in higher education include institutional racism, racism couched as liberalism, racism in evaluations and expectations, black essentialism, poor management and leadership. Language as a societal barrier to transformation can also be perceived as a barrier to transformation. Mentoring can be a potent strategy in the collaborative efforts to effect change in individuals, and in institutional and societal arenas.

How South Africa can integrate all these issues to root a transformed tree of knowledge, robustly indigenous, into the higher education landscape is the focus of the following chapter. It deals with how these issues can be operationalised in mentoring programmes so that professional socialisation and professionalisation of academic careers can be effected in higher education in South Africa higher education institutions.

Chapter Nine

The transformed tree of knowledge

9.1 Introduction

In the chapters dealing with the data analysis and findings of the research, many issues have been highlighted. The career development functions and roles of mentors, their psychosocial functions and roles and the impact of the mentor's behaviour on the career development of the mentee have been discussed. The crucial functions of mentors are the *role model* and *change agent* in the transforming higher education landscape in South African society. If transformation as defined by Thomas (1999) is to be realised, there needs to be a process of negotiated organisational change that breaks decisively with past discriminatory practices in order to create an environment where the full potential of everyone is realised and where diversity – both social and intellectual is respected and valued and where it is central to the achievements of the goals of the University. Mentoring within the context of holistic staff development of early career academics is a means of achieving internal transformation within all higher education institutions in the system.

The study investigates mentoring as a transformation strategy for the professional development and socialisation in the career development and management of the early careers of entry-level academics to higher education in South Africa where transformation of higher education is a critical issue on the national agenda. Based on the research proposition in this study, the findings show that the present professional socialisation and professional development of early career academics in the South African higher education system is inadequate and therefore the Council on Higher education needs to formulate policy to guide South African higher education institutions in the design of training and development initiative for early career academics in keeping with changes in higher education legislation and its transformation agenda. The argument

is that carefully mentored professional development programmes for early career academics would address the inadequacies of their present development and that the literature provides sound evidence for using such development programmes.

The research investigates mentoring as a transformation and professional development strategy by addressing questions relating to staff development and mentoring in higher education institutions in South Africa and what outcomes mentor functions result in for mentees in a transforming higher education context. Conclusions from each of these questions are offered within the broad framework of the findings discussed in the three previous chapters.

9.2 Conclusions about staff development as 'sapling nurseries' in higher education

This study was concerned with investigating the kinds of the staff and career development models currently in use for the transformation, professional development and socialisation of the careers of academics in a changing work environment in higher education. Vorbrecht (2002) in his study of higher education institutions in South Africa shows that academic development in South Africa has not been as closely identified with staff development as is the usual international tendency and that both academic and staff development are weakly conceptualised and implemented. The primary focus internationally in staff development is on quality rather than on liberation. South African academic development seeks to provide a total framework for institutional transformation in higher education that does not have a parallel in other countries. In struggling to construct its post-Apartheid identity South African academic development for staff and students is making a shift in keeping with international trends to professionalise university teaching by generating standards for educators in higher education for unit standards and qualifications for higher education practice. The ETDP SETA, in line with all the others SETAs in labour and education arenas, is attempting to establish an *academic learnership* or internship for early career academics for their professional

development and socialisation according to the social and educational transformation agenda in South Africa.

The ETDP SETA proposal is that the learnership is a type of internship or apprenticeship for early career academics which provides holistic professional development and a higher education teaching qualification with a mandatory mentoring component. The ETDP SETA has been slow in developing the learnership and its tardiness has resulted in a general lack of interest and apathy at higher education institutions about developing early career academics in this potentially comprehensive way. The urgency of the need to produce 'research active' and well developed academics identified by the CHE appears to have fallen on deaf ears and to have been disregarded in most cases. The only exception at present appears to be Rhodes University.

Instead, most of the staff development centres in South Africa higher education institutions continue to use an eclectic model which provides specialist expertise for solving particular organisational and technical problems; counselling assistance for teachers and students in teaching and learning problems; and collaborative work involving staff developers and lecturers in finding innovative interventions for particular academic issues (Boud and McDonald, 1981). At its best, such an eclectic professional staff development model incorporates a critical attitude, reflective practise, accountablility, self-evaluation and participative problem-solving in continuing and sometimes cyclical interventions in academic work within staff development framework. Most often the staff development model favoured in South Africa uses a 'one-shot' intensive programme as an initial development thrust and sometimes supplemented by stand-alone follow up courses or continuing development activities which are voluntarily selected by individuals or occasionally delivered on request to all early career academics within departments.

Johnston (1996) points out that voluntary participation in professional development activities related to teaching is poor under such a model of staff development because academics do not perceive sufficient encouragement from senior colleagues to make time

for this aspect of professional development – everything else is more important. Early career academics are pressurised to pay attention to their professional development within their discipline through the showcasing of their research. Teaching commitments are juggled to make time for those activities but far less frequently for professional teaching development activities. If teaching development activities are offered at times which academics make available for their professional development, the criteria they apply to their selection are based on their interest and on immediate applicability. Given that academic work has changed and new demands continually increase the workload, Menzies and Newson (2001) say that academics are over-extended and run off their feet.

The sporadic approach to implementing staff development in a professional and holistic way is too haphazard and unpredictable to ensure that academics have a common knowledge of the basic competencies of professional teaching. Staff development, with needs individually and incrementally assessed, should be factored into academic work so that staff development is ongoing and integrated into the work life of academics especially early career academics.

The conclusion I draw from this investigation is that staff development is given insufficient weight at South African higher education institutions and that the design of the programmes does not encourage early career academics to make a long-term commitment to ongoing and regular attendance at professional development activities including those concerning their teaching. Pressure from the CHE and HEQC could result in changes in the future so that more rigorous, incrementally paced, regularly spaced staff development becomes the norm. It is possible that the continuing professional development of academics may follow the trend in other professions like health care and engineering by establishing a policy for professional development training annually in order to maintain professional registration with the professional board although that is unlikely to become the norm for academics who practice in non-professional fields within the humanities and basic sciences. Following the international trend towards accreditation of higher education teachers would facilitate the move to make academic teaching a profession in its own right.

Within a holistic staff development model mentoring is included as a personalised and effective way of achieving professional development of newcomers. Luna and Cullen (1995) maintain that academics are educated, and trained, but are not nurtured and that quality improvement in academics should also result in their empowerment as fully developed professionals. They say that by *not* mentoring early career academics higher education institutions are wasting talent. Lack of mentoring and nurturing has been the experience of early career academics at Wits and at other South African higher education institutions (Geber, 1999a; Potgieter, 2002). Staff development is limited and poorly integrated with other human resources policies, continuing professional development and trends towards the accreditation of teaching on the increase in higher education systems like those reviewed in Europe, Britain and parts of the USA. Mentoring as a staff development and professional development strategy is scarcely used or is under utilised and even in formal mentoring programmes like those examined in this study there is little systematic implementation of good practice.

Unless staff development is adequately and comprehensively conceptualised and implemented, mentoring is unlikely to be more than a small-scale intervention. Unless mentoring is made integral to staff development and its development agenda, the strategic transformation that mentoring can effect will not be achieved. Mentoring will be minimal, isolated and undirected as a force for change.

9.3 Conclusions about academic 'seed beds' for mentoring in South African universities

In the present investigation of the kinds of mentoring prevalent in higher education institutions in South Africa, it is evident that the *traditional hierarchical* mentoring model is found in higher education institutions like University of Natal, University of the Witwatersrand, University of Port Elizabeth where formalised programmes exist and in

higher education institutions like University of Durban Westville, Rand Afrikaans University where there is informal mentoring. This is the oldest model where there is a one-to-one relationship between an older mentor and a younger protégé. The *traditional hierarchical* mentoring model requires mentors to have a good knowledge of the higher education institution and to advise protégés about what is expected by the institution and in the academic workplace in general. The *expert/novice* model variation of the *traditional hierarchical* model is usually found in higher education institutions in academic master/apprentice relationships where the expert passes on the skills and values of profession. Graduates, early career academics and teachers in all educational contexts usually receive mentoring according to this model.

Often *traditional hierarchical* mentoring is combined with the *developmental learning* models which are frequently found in educational contexts where beginning teachers and novice academics are trained in their early years in the profession to become professional teachers. The *developmental learning* model may be subordinate in the mentoring of early career academics because the acquisition of specialised and advanced subject expertise and knowledge is more highly valued than the ability to teach specialised knowledge in innovative ways to facilitate student learning. There is also a much narrower variation of the *developmental learning* model that Hay (1995) terms the *training and development* model which usually uses trainers or tutors as mentors whose functions may be restricted to coaching and helping the mentee to apply course content in the workplace. Rhodes University uses this model although it does not have a formal mentoring programme in place at present. Rhodes University is the only university in South Africa which has a mandatory requirement that all early career academics must register for the Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE) which includes a mentoring component.

The mentors in the PGCHE at Rhodes are the staff development practitioners who offer the PGCHE in the Academic Development Centre and are not more senior academic colleagues located in the newly appointed academics' Schools or Faculties. This means that early career academics do not have specialist discipline-based mentors. This is the

only variant of this kind of mentoring in South African higher education institutions at present (Quinn and Vorster, 2004). The PGCHE programme began in 2001 and works well at Rhodes where the number of newly appointed early career academics is small, fewer than ten new hires per year. However, my critique of the model is that staff development practitioners lack the subject pedagogy expertise and that lack is not being filled by senior academics in the subject disciplines. Rhodes would have been in an ideal position to offer both pedagogical mentors and subject specific mentors but it has opted for a less complex model. Quinn (in press) reports on the difficulties which arise from such a model when early career academics start working with new a teaching paradigm and reflective practice in departments which are resistant to change and transformation.

In the South African context, *transformational mentoring* may be the model most appropriate for the overt transformation agenda articulated by the Ministry of Education and the Council on Higher Education (CHE) but in the findings of the present study this model is hardly evident at all. Mentors seem to be fixated in the traditional, hierarchical, master/apprentice mode of mentoring and hardly aware at all of the transformational possibilities of their role.

Mentoring as a *transformation* process is considered by Hay (1995) as those where developmental alliances are forged between mentors and protégés in relationships between equals in which one or more of those involved is unable to increase awareness, identify alternative and initiate action to develop themselves. Hay's *transformational mentoring* is different from the models mentioned before because traditional mentoring is designed mainly with organisational self-interest uppermost and mentors groom the mentees primarily to suit organisational needs. There are few reported cases to use as examples. There is little evidence in higher education institutions in South Africa of *transformational mentoring* programmes designed to suit societal needs and for individual capacity building for those who may have been disadvantaged by a past political era even though the higher education policy emphasises transformation so heavily.

In the higher education context Lyons, Scroggins, and Rule (1990) found that mentors play a transformative role for mentees, not only by transmitting formal academic knowledge and providing socialization experiences into their chosen discipline, but also by supplying encouragement and support that bolsters the individual's confidence, professional identity, and efficacy, giving them a vision of the identity they might one day achieve. Mentors may provide a special advantage to individuals entering cultures other than their own (Mott, 2002).

The conclusion I draw is that because formal mentoring is a new and relatively untried process in higher education in South Africa, programmes have favoured the *traditional hierarchical* and *developmental learning* models as a relatively safe, tired and tested option. *Transformational mentoring* which has an overt change agenda has not been embraced by higher education institutions for their internal transformation of the institutions and professional development of early career academics.

9.4 Conclusions about mentor and mentee behaviours affecting transformation: academic 'topiary', optimal nurturing and growing our own timber

Kram (1988), Alleman (1986), Anderson and Shannon (1988), Blackwell and McLean (1996a), and Cohen (1999) describe an extensive array of *career development* mentor functions and roles. Mentees were asked to identify those *career development* roles actually performed by their mentors in this study. In respect of career development functions, firstly, the role of *coach* is the most frequently found mentor role. Secondly, both men and women report finding the same frequency of the mentor roles of *assessor* and *standard setter.* Thirdly the role of *collaborative teacher* and *educator* appears frequently although mentors perform the *educator* role for men slightly more often for them than for women. The roles of *co-enquirer, collaborative publisher, consultant* and *sponsor/ advocate* appear least frequently Men report receiving sponsorships much more frequently than women.

Newly established findings about career development functions of mentors which emerge from the data show that mentees report that some of these are more beneficial than others. The most beneficial functions are those where mentors give help and guidance in research and teaching; where they offer protection to their mentees; where they give professional information or political information; and where they demonstrate how to be a well organised administrator. These would appear to be the ones which need particular attention in the higher education context. The role of protection seems to be too narrowly described by the model to be sufficient in the higher education context in South Africa and mentors need to be aware that they may have to be very sensitive in performing this function for mentees needing protection by their mentors in their careers in the transforming academic workplace. They highlight this need especially where there is general exploitation of early career academics in their departments. This may be a finding particularly pertinent to South Africa where Black early career academics have not been valued, nurtured or developed in any systematic way. The case study of Wits has confirmed this as a lack in all previously established affirmative action and equal opportunity schemes both during and after the Apartheid era.

Other less frequently demonstrated career development functions, particularly sponsorship, may apply more readily in corporate contexts than in higher education.

Where mentors neglect or omit certain of the career development roles and functions, this study supports the findings of Eby et al., (2000) that such neglect can have a negative impact on mentoring relationships. Mentees report that neglect or omission of these career development roles and functions is not beneficial for them and in some instances is so marked as to create negative experiences for them in the mentoring relationship but none reported the negative impact to be so great that the relationship had disintegrated. The neglect or omission of career development roles and functions seems to be reflected in slow career progress.

Most mentees confirm the findings in the literature that mentoring has a positive effect on career progress. Career progress during the mentoring process also appears to be a function of length and duration of the relationship. The participants in this study had not been in the higher education system as members of their faculty staff long enough for them to have expected promotion and so career progress in this respect does not include promotion.

In respect of *psychosocial functions* performed by mentors, mentees report that the roles of *giver of encouragement* and *helper / guide during transition* are the most frequently found psychosocial mentor roles; secondly most frequent is the role of *counsellor*. The role of *critical friend* is the least frequently found role.

The findings in this study show the complexity of mentoring relationships where effective mentor and mentee behaviour hinge largely on the ability of the mentor to develop trust as a pre-requisite to any effective long-term functioning. Mentors with insight into their own internal dynamics and who are aware of the delicacy of developing others with sensitivity and respect are those who are the most effective in stretching early career academics in their personal and career development. The role model and psychosocial functions are linked to the model but the innovative findings in this study concern those behaviours which are viewed as positive which are more neutral and which are negative in the developmental relationships which currently occur in higher education contexts in South Africa.

An unexpected finding is that mentees do not articulate clearly their need to elicit psychosocial support from their mentors. The findings in this study indicate that mentees can be assured of psychosocial support from their mentors if they are able to behave in appropriate career development and professional ways and as a result can then receive psychosocial support. It is a matter of speculation about whether this is because the mentees in this study are in formal relationships with their mentors who are also higher degree supervisors and because of the systematic power differentials which operate within the higher education context. It appears that professional, career-directed

behaviour is a necessary pre-requisite for gaining psychosocial support from their mentors. The repertoire of other behaviours which could elicit support from mentors includes a proactive and independent approach to learning; an ability to develop their own philosophical approach to teaching and research; and the ability to integrate critical feedback into their work. It may be that this is an area in which further investigation could result in interesting and useful data for mentoring.

Although the literature emphasises the importance of the mentor as *role model,* the mentors in this study seem to be indifferent to it or to ignore it appears in far about two thirds of the mentees in the study. The role is performed consciously by a relatively small number of mentors and many mentees do not benefit from having a suitable role model.

9.5 Conclusions about the gaps between South African current practice and international mentoring best practice in higher education

Early career academics at Wits report that even after three years in the programme that formal provision of mentoring functions beyond the supervision of the higher degree was minimal in most cases. In a follow-up interview with mentees at Wits who had completed three years in a formal mentoring programme, mentees reported that they had received very little *mentoring in teaching* during the three years. Some of them reported that they has received some guidance from their mentors at the beginning of their teaching and then had been left on their own. They had not asked for help but some assistance had been forthcoming from other senior academics and course co-ordinators who had helped them. The mentors themselves seem to play very small part in their role as mentors for teaching and generally do not pursue this role to any marked effect.

Mentees report that they received varied levels of *mentoring for research*, some received nothing at all and others felt that there was almost too much at the beginning of the programme. Mentoring did not extend beyond very basic supervision of chapters for their

dissertations which mentors read and commented on. However, they did receive mentoring when they were about to present their research papers at academic conferences. Most mentees report that they were required to do a 'dry-run' for mentors, other departmental colleagues and postgraduates. They received feedback on the content of their papers and on their presentation style although some reported that it was an unnerving experience and made them fearful of presenting their work in a public forum. Some mentors introduced their mentees to a panel of international experts to help them feel more at ease and less scared and alienated at very large conferences where many delegates who know the ropes arrive with groups of colleagues where lone South Africans feel less than welcome.

Few of the mentees received much help with *writing for publication* of their work and many are left on their own but some have a rigorous series of mentoring meetings where their written work is discussed and edited. Some mentees received guidance about the nature of the editorial board, the target audience and the kind of academic writing that is acceptable in the target journal.

A few mentees were encouraged to take part in departmental administrative work and committee work and those who did said they enjoyed it. It helped them to function quickly as members of the department and become accepted as part of it.

On the whole it would appear that the richness of a *comprehensive mentoring programme* is seldom experienced by mentees at Wits. Most mentees are grateful for what they have got especially if they perceive it to be more than other postgraduates in the department. But more than 75% of this group did not get much more than fairly intense postgraduate supervision and could have had a much richer experience.

Specific gaps in the literature have been identified and those gaps require the addressing of the issues in cross-cultural relationships of managing the transition from student to colleague; preventing the exploitation of black academics at historically advantaged universities; and managing diversity and prejudice against black women and men. Further

issues which hinder transformation in higher education include institutional racism, racism couched as liberalism, racism in evaluations and expectations, black essentialism, poor management and leadership. Language as a societal barrier can also be perceived as a barrier to transformation. Mentoring can be a potent strategy in the collaborative efforts to effect change in individuals, and in institutional and societal arenas.

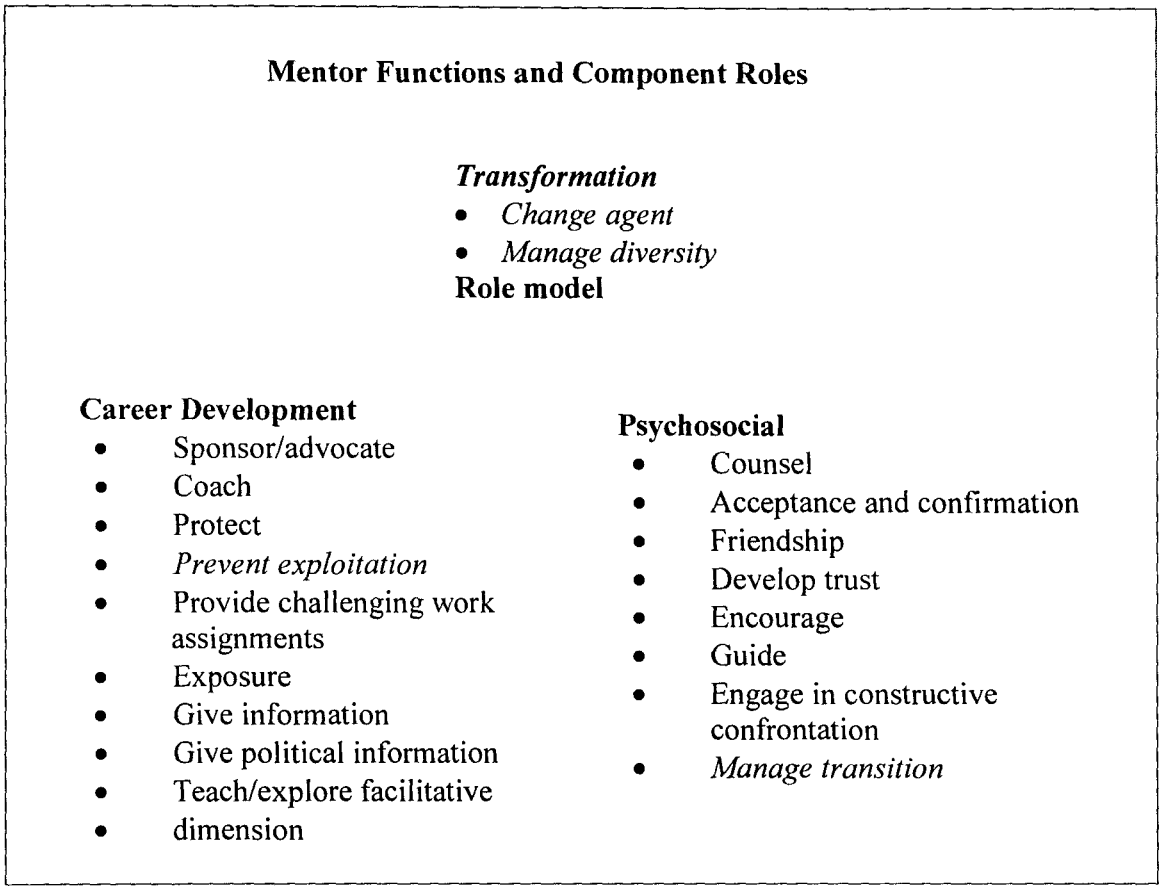
9.6 Conclusions about the impact of mentoring on transformation in South African higher education

The model which has emerged from the findings, Figure 9.1, is used as a basis for a range of recommendations for mentoring practice which can be used as strategic enhancement of mentoring in higher education in South Africa.

The findings in this study confirm the stance taken by Boice, by Sorcinelli and Austin, and by Boyle and Boice that for effective professional development of early career academics, the earlier such development begins, the better for individuals and for institutions alike. This is clearly endorsed by the Norwegian higher education system, SEDA, and ILTHE in the UK. It is being considered by Australia, South Africa and some higher education systems in USA.

However, beginning early, laudable and necessary as it is, is not sufficient. The whole professional development process in higher education must be carried out systematically. This is important because only systematic development will address all the aspects of academic work necessary for early career academics to succeed and to do so rapidly. Systematic professional development, especially in South Africa, needs to include properly structured mentoring. The system would cover the context of higher education and the South Africa environment, with its emphasis on transformation and equity; the core teaching and research aspects of academic work; the whole gamut of interactions with students; ethics; the impact and use of new technology.

Figure 9.1 The transformation mentoring model



This study has shown in the review of Wits since 1988 that ad hoc schemes fail and thus impede and hinder the transformation process because stand alone interventions and staff development initiatives which are not systematic or integrated into a holistic development strategy are too fragmentary to have any pervasive effects.

The study has allowed me to evolve a new mentoring model for transformation which places all the mentor functions and roles within the overarching context of transformation within society. The model is illustrated below in Figure 9.1

Within the framework of this model, it is a *pre-requisite that mentors are committed to the notion of social change* within higher education and wider society and that they act as

collaborative agents and role models for early career academics. If they are consistent in the performance of their function as change agent and role model in higher education, then the career development functions that they carry out will reach systematically into all aspects of academic work of their mentees. They will become co-enquirers, collaborative teachers, researchers and publishers so that better teaching, research and publications will be produced earlier in the careers of newcomers. They will provide a reflective space for mentees to think and talk about these aspects of academic work. They will refrain from being too harshly and negatively critical too early in the mentoring relationship thus undermining the confidence of early career academics who are struggling to come to grips with the complexities of academic work in a rapidly changing environment. They will not only protect their mentees from career destruction but they will prevent others from perpetuating the old discriminatory work allocation which give particularly black early career academics less prestigious work They will prevent others from exploiting them by overloading them with more mundane kinds of work. They will provide expert subject specific information and provide political information so that early career academics will be able to negotiate their way through the myriad of unwritten rules, and transcend the covertly discriminating barriers to acceptance as equals in their schools and faculties.

Within the transformation framework of the new style of mentoring in higher education, mentors will also be clear about the focus of their need to provide support and nurturing during the transitionary phase of the early career in higher education. Mentors will guide and counsel their mentees and help them to exchange their postgraduate student role for their new role as junior colleague with all the losses and challenges that it entails. They will be a source of encouragement and a willing listener who does not act as a problem solver but who acts as a catalyst for reframing problems and working out novel solutions oneself. The mentor will share experiences with the mentee when this is appropriate and will be committed to making the relationship one of mutual and reciprocal learning where the mentor learns at least as much as the mentee.

Within this context the mentor will be committed to the holistic professional development of the mentee and acknowledge that there are aspects of being and transformation and change agent and role model that nevertheless cannot change the entire higher education system by magic. I acknowledge that there are constraints on mentors and mentees alike which fall outside the model and which are unlikely to change.

One of these is the whole issue of remuneration of academics in publicly funded institutions. In South Africa, and in many other countries, the higher education system forms part of a much wider national education system where teachers generally are not as well paid as employees in the private sector. The South African Government has an enormous responsibility to education millions of children under the age of fifteen and the bulk of the Department of Education budget is spent on general and further education for the largest section of the population. It is unlikely to spend significantly larger amounts on the salaries of academics in higher education or even attempt to match higher education salaries with those of other civil servants as suggested by Potgieter (2002). The comparative disregard with which society treats its teachers will not be changed in the short-term by professional development strategies, the transformational mentoring model or any other mentoring model. Mentors are aware of the constraints but may not necessarily articulate them and early career academics will constantly be pulled by the bigger draw of earning more money elsewhere outside of higher education although there are opportunities to do certain kinds of work in higher education which are usually available in other sectors.

The opportunities afforded by higher education that academics can use to their advantage include the global networking with other knowledge workers in higher education throughout the world, to stimulate their research and to apply that knowledge to local conditions. The network can be very effective in enlarging one's reputation in a specialist field and thus increasing opportunities for international and local research collaboration. Mentoring can be especially effective in establishing these networks for early career academics as mentor can act as advocates for mentees' innovative contributions to the body of knowledge.

The transformational mentoring model may also not be able to change the internal constraints which higher education institutions face. Early career academics are met with demanding standards for research, promotion, and teaching quality and larger classes whilst being urged to be entrepreneurial and generate more income for the university because of the decreasing funding from government. The managerialist agenda of the university administration may also exacerbate the situation. At best, managerialist interventions could streamline the holistic professional development process for early career academics and facilitate transformation if senior academics see them as beneficial. In addition, the consultancy and entrepreneurial aspect of knowledge work has not been very highly rated until very recently. However, the greater emphasis which higher education institutions are placing on consultancy and the managerial control of it may be a very real draw card for keeping early career academics in higher education. With the restructuring of the higher education landscape in South Africa being effected by the Minister of Education, all the higher education institutions in the system are likely to be economically viable, offer relative job security and some status in the country to academics at the tertiary level end of the teaching spectrum.

Mentoring of early career academics offers higher education institutions a unique opportunity to fast track young intellectuals in the system. As early career academics progress in their higher degree studies, they should be encouraged to complete chapters in their dissertations in a manner which makes it simple to produce these chapters as publishable articles. Higher education institutions would be able to benefit from a larger throughput of higher degree candidates and benefit from the income and prestige resulting from the publication of the articles. Commissioned work and consultancy work may also result and the higher education institutions will benefit through harnessing part of their entrepreneurial income.

Higher education institutions employing larger numbers of early career academics with PhD who establish a second stream of consultancy income will have the advantage over those who do not encourage this activity. The employing higher education institutions

will will have a profile with many Black PhDs, a better retention rate for black early career academics and DoE funding from articles published by such early career academics from their PhDs.

Early career academics who go this route may be subject to less pressure to find more remunerative employment outside of higher education; their academic profile is enhanced by the acquisition of the PhD and publication record; and thus they are more likely to obtain promotion in higher education which would result in a higher salary and pension benefits. In addition they would enjoy increased status through their consultancy income and be able to earn greater consultancy income once they have obtained their PhD.

With higher education institutional support for comprehensive mentoring and fast tracking both the individuals and the institutions engage in win-win developmental strategies and all stakeholders benefit. But at present transitional arrangements are likely because most higher education institutions have not committed themselves to such systematic and thorough development.

9.7 Implications for national higher education policy

The New Academic Plan (for Higher Education) in its draft form was published by the Ministry of Education late in 2002. The plan covers many vital issues in education such as student access to higher education, assessment policies. While the plan attempts to mainstream the policies articulated in the Higher Education Act of 1997, it is mostly devoid of any strong policy or plan for *the development of academic staff*. Academic staff are an integral part of the higher education system and failure to addresses issues of transformation of the teaching staff means that a core factor in higher education transformation is ignored. As it is the plan has not yet been confirmed and promulgated as legislation.

Even more telling is that higher education staff development policy has fallen to the CHE and its quality assurance body, the HEQC. The CHE has identified a critical issue for higher education institution. It reports that there are 15 000 academic and professional staff in higher education but only 2000 are research 'active' (13.5%) and produce publications. In addition, as is shown in Figure 1.1, the publication rate for academics aged between 35 and 49 decreased markedly between 1990 and 1998. The 'research active' group of academics is ageing; 45% are over 50 years old and half of all A –Rated scientists are aged over 60, so the situation is likely to deteriorate in the next decade.

There is a very narrow window of opportunity for *the rapid development* of early career academics. Within the next *five to seven years* the higher education community needs to intensify its efforts at mentoring while the small pool of experienced 'research active' academics is still in the system. By 2010, almost half of those identified by the CHE will have retired and will probably not be available as mentors for early career academics. In the 35 - 49 age group of 'research active' academics, where there is a higher proportion of black academics than in the 50+ age group, the publication rate is alarmingly low and as these academics are promoted into the places vacated by older retiring colleagues, there will be an extreme shortage of published academics to act as role models for early career academics. Workplace demands will make it difficult for those not already 'research active' to act as resourceful mentors and role models for early career academics coming into the system.

South African higher education is at risk of jeopardizing its place in the international academic community and compromising its global competitiveness in its research if it does not make an exceptional stand about the mentored development of early career academics in the next two years. If staff development of early career academics remains as haphazard as it is at present, the opportunity to transform academic staff will be lost and higher education institutions throughout the country will be poorer for it and the whole higher education system will suffer. South Africa does not have time to implement change at a leisurely pace. It is crucial that mentoring innovations be initiated immediately to prevent the loss of critical academic skills for early career academics.

They need to be 'fast tracked' as a matter of urgency and made a national priority in higher education.

In addition, the CHE through the HEQC's Improving of Teaching and Learning project, needs to mainstream the project recommendations for staff development and mentoring as a national policy as soon as possible. Although the suggestions for quality assurance in staff development and mentoring are sound, it is disconcerting that the suggestions have been so poorly publicised. It may take a long time to implement them if they are not more forcefully disseminated because it is only during the institutional audits that individual higher education institutions will be assessed or audited for performance in staff development. Tellingly, there is no national policy for teaching academics about obtaining professional qualifications as there is internationally. Rhodes is the only higher education institution to follow the international trends in the professionalisation of academic staff. All newly appointed academics at Rhodes are required to obtain the PGCHET qualification in the first few years of their employment.

Mentoring in higher education must become *standard policy* in South Africa if widespread transformation within the next decade is to happen. Mentoring of early career academics is not a soft option. Too much talent is squandered or wasted because policy is not formulated around this issue and mentoring is regarded as a 'nice to have' for those new to the academic workplace. In view of the pervasive changes happening in higher education, mentoring should become *a pre-requisite for all early career academics. Policy for systematic mentoring of early career academics* should be formulated as a matter of urgency and there should be a very rapid roll-out in the implementation of holistic development of early career academics.

Although the macro-interventions suggestions for higher education change made by Harleston and Ngara (2000) and Potgieter (2002) are sound, they are somewhat naïve in assuming that funding and new support programmes will address development and

retention needs in higher education. I propose additional opportunistic strategies grounded in the experiences reported in the findings of this study:

- Mentoring of academics at all levels in the institutional hierarchy for a period after appointment to any new promotion post level.
- Training of mentors in formal mentoring programmes so that an optimal experience is provided for both parties in the relationships. It is desirable to build a core group of competent, committed mentors in higher education institutions. An important facet of the training would be to distinguish the differences between higher degree supervision and mentoring.

The mentorship training based on the latest mentoring theory and practice in higher education should be interactive and experiential in the training sessions. Using a mix of peer and self reviews, role-plays, 'fish bowl' discussions and reflective practice, participants develop an increasing competence in this critical academic skill and confidence as mentors. It is also desirable to build participants' awareness of their personal styles as mentors.

Training programmes to achieve these outcomes would include:

- Demarcating the differences between a mentor, coach, trainer, higher degree supervisor
- Establishing a mentoring relationship
    - clarifying the terms of the relationship
    - describing the context and establishing ground rules for a mentoring relationship,
    - creating mutual respect and trust,
    - preparing for the initial mentoring meeting,
    - coming to terms with the need to ask for help, and
    - becoming sensitive to cross-cultural issues in the relationship,
- The characteristics and competencies of a good mentor
- Mentoring skills and techniques
    - non-judgemental acceptance through active listening,

- questioning techniques,
- timing and giving of constructive feedback,
- understanding a junior colleague's position as a mentee,
- introducing a 'GROW' model of mentoring meeting structure (Landsberg, 1996) or some other suitable model,
- maintaining the mentoring relationship, and
- ending the mentoring relationship

- Providing ongoing training to unpack the notion that mentoring in higher education and higher degree supervision are synonymous.
- Adjust research loads to fit in comprehensive teaching experiences
- Elevate the profile of mentoring for senior academics and have them championed by the senior executive
- Provide some tangible recognition of mentors and some reward

9.8 Holistic recommendations proposed by this study

The recommendations from Potgieter (2002), Harleston and Ngara, (2000) and Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) form a sound basis for the even more far-reaching and holistic recommendations which I have made arise directly from the findings of this study.

9.8.1 Higher education institutions

Higher education institutions should become increasingly aware of how transformation in the academic staff can be encouraged and facilitated by implementing the widest possible range of strategies for equity development and capacity building in early career academics.

- With the help of the Council for Higher Education, establish Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education and Training (PGCHET) or an equivalent qualification as a minimum requirement for all new teaching staff. The qualification has a strong mentoring component for those undertaking the certificate and also has a module on

how to mentor students. Qualifications like this can be phased in incrementally and linked to probation and promotion requirements, as is the norm in Norway and in several other universities in Europe. Credit-bearing modules in the certificate are favoured by academics who will have a qualification to show as a result of their efforts. This will contribute directly to their professional socialisation and professional development.

- Promote the establishment and implementation of academic internships or learnerships for young early career academics so that all aspects of academic work can be addressed by newcomers to higher education institutions. Mentoring is an integral part of learnerships and is likely to result in more rapid integration of early career academics into the higher education institutions system and the culture and ethos of particular institutions. As learnerships must be linked to the obtaining of a qualification, this becomes an additional route by which young early career academics with little work experience can be mentored in their professional socialisation and professional development.
- Promote the development of early career academics through establishing national and regional partnerships like the Preparing Future Faculty (PFF) program in the USA. PFF is both a configuration of ideas and a national initiative involving 43 doctoral degree-granting institutions and more than 295 partner institutions. Working in the spirit of partnership and cooperation, the PFF program transforms the way aspiring faculty members are prepared for their careers, moving toward an education that is informed by the kinds of responsibilities faculty members actually have in a variety of institutional types (Adams, 2002; Applegate, 2002; Gaff et al., 2000). The programme focus is on preparing early career academics for the full range of roles and responsibilities required by research, teaching, and service. De Neef (2002) reports that a PFF program typically provides aspiring academics with:
    - experience of faculty life on-site at diverse academic institutions by pairing them with faculty mentors at neighbouring colleges and universities and by creating specific opportunities for visits to the cluster campuses;

• forums, both on and off the research campus, at which they can speak candidly to academics from diverse institutions about professional expectations and the relationships between, research, teaching, and service;

• the integration of professional development including appropriately structured pedagogical training and teaching experiences into postgraduate education in a much more direct way than is the norm at most tertiary institutions in the USA.

• opportunities to observe and experience academic staff responsibilities at a variety of academic institutions with varying missions, diverse student bodies, and different expectations for academic staff.

In the South Africa context programmes like PFF could promote exchanges of early career academics and established staff in regional clusters and facilitate collaboration across higher education institution in the core areas of academic work which could broaden the experiences of aspiring academics. Alumni of PFF programmes testify to the value of such programmes in accelerating their professional socialisation and professional development in the academic workplace and enhancing their chances of permanent employment at prestigious universities (Adams, 2002; De Neef, 2002).

- Engage with the ETDP SETA in looking at ways of establishing administrative learnerships being developed by HESDI so that those early career academics who wish to pursue administrative and leadership roles in university management have the mentored opportunities for doing so.
- Actively engage with professional bodies, associations and academic disciplinary societies to place the transformation of higher education institutions on their agendas. The signals they send via their journals, programmes at their conferences and their sponsorship of special activities will highlight the importance they place on the enhanced quality of teaching, innovations in teaching, as well as scholarly research into the pedagogy of the discipline (Applegate, 2002). Commitment to changing campus and disciplinary cultures endorsed by professional bodies can speed up transformation and help to produce new professionals who are better equipped to deal with changing workplace realities and enable early career academics to envisage how

their changed approach to professionalisation of work will impact on the way they educate their students.

- Institute departmental mentoring collaborations like the 'Partnerships with Professors' program (Adams, 2001; Adams and Townsend, 2002). These provide opportunities for early career academics from the education faculty to partner colleagues in other faculties in their professional development as teachers and also to use retired senior academics as mentors for younger colleagues in more general professional development.
- Expand mentoring networks for all early career academics by linking them via the Internet and in an online relationship with suitable mentors, especially if mentors at their own higher education institutions are scarce (for example the American Speech Language Hearing Association's Research in Higher Education Mentoring programme) or reluctant to act in that capacity for newcomers. There are many types of long-distance relationships reported for higher education such as the combination online/face-to-face mentoring programme run by Mihkelson, (1997); e-mail-based distance mentoring programmes like the one designed by Joffrey (2003) for 200 female postgraduates for career guidance in the graduate's field of interest; and peer mentoring programmes using threaded discussion, like the one offered to postgraduates in American Speech Language Hearing Association where there are few senior mentors (ASHA, 1999). Although there are no programmes like this in South Africa at present, Wits University is pioneering an online mentoring scheme for academics at the University which is due to come online within the year.
- Devise action research based investigations with a strong mentoring component in teaching and a focus on student learning so that ongoing reflection on teaching becomes a normative practice in higher education institution in South Africa. Early career academics who can harness this resource within their faculty and departments are likely to enhance their professional socialisation and professional development and can contribute to the growing body of scholarly knowledge about teaching experiences specific to South Africa situations through publications on research on discipline-specific teaching. There are plenty of opportunities to become scholars of teaching in the expanding fields of discipline-specific education.

- Engage in mentored exploration of the newly developing fields in higher education of information and communication technology-based e-learning to keep abreast of changing realities in virtual classrooms, distance learning and curricula which combine new types of course delivery and interactive tasks for students. Early career academics will encounter increasingly technologically literate students and colleagues who will expect them to contribute to the expanding body of knowledge in new types of teaching and interaction with students.
- Become centres of excellence for academic mentoring so that all newcomers enter a supportive and developmental workplace. This will mean expanding the meagre theory about the mentoring of academics and changing the "sink or swim' mindset of the establishment which does not nurture newcomers or value diversity. Constructing and producing a new body of knowledge around cross-cultural mentoring in South Africa, with the articulation of real-life examples of what does and doesn't work in the South Africa higher education institutions context is vital to the success of the equity development and capacity building initiatives for the professional socialisation and professional development of early career academics.

9.9 Implications for further research

This study has shown the conditions for effective mentoring of those who are in formal mentoring in higher education and the findings have brought several areas to light which could merit investigation in further research in the field of mentoring.

- Much more research is necessary into the expectations of partners in cross-cultural mentoring. Researchers need to ascertain whether Clutterbuck's (2001) findings in South-East Asia are confirmed in higher education in South Africa. There is some anecdotal evidence in this country to confirm his findings that mismatched expectations can lead to difficulties during the mentoring relationships.
- There are no longitudinal studies of mentee career progress in the medium term, between three and five years after the formal mentoring has ended. It would be useful for staff developers in higher education to compare the research outputs of

those who were mentored early in their careers and those who were left to fend for themselves.

- It is also necessary to track the progress of those who complete mentored PGCHET qualifications in terms of improved quality of teaching, student evaluations and publications. Their progress could be compared with those who did not attempt a PGCHET. Innovative curriculum design changes may also be a way to measure the effects of completing the professional teaching qualification.
- It may be useful to track early career academics in formal mentoring programmes which are internally funded and compare those in donor-funded programmes in terms of sustainability, mentor input, retention of mentees in higher education institutions and their career progress.

9.10 Conclusion

Early career academics in South Africa enter a higher education institutions system with a historical legacy of division along lines of past discrimination and apartheid. The higher education institutions system has been undergoing profound transformation in the last decade. Prior to 1994 most black students were enrolled at historically disadvantaged institutions and white students at historically advantaged institutions. Most academics at historically disadvantaged institutions were black and they were predominantly white at historically advantaged institutions. Although numbers of black students at historically advantaged institutions have increased dramatically in the past decade to over 50% in some cases, the change in the academic staff at historically advantaged institutions has not been nearly as rapid; less than 30% are black (Cooper, 1998). Newly appointed black members of staff at historically advantaged institutions enter departments and faculties where the senior academics, governing and administrative members are usually white males.

This study has shown that the strategies used in their career development/ career management are too unevenly implemented and too piecemeal to be really effective in the development. The formalising of career management strategies in the field of academic work across the higher education sector world –wide and professionalisation of teaching is a trend which is not being taken up on any large scale at South Africa higher education institutions at present. There is likely to be increasing pressure from SAQA and CHE to do so. The conceptual design of the possible professional and career development strategies in the form of formal mentoring may optimise the professional development of early career academics within the framework of international trends to accredit the core functions of teaching.

Government has stressed its determination to transform higher education through the promulgation of the SAQA Act (No 58 of 1995) and the Higher Education Act No 101 of 1997. There is a clear transformation agenda in both pieces of legislation. Transformation in education as defined in the legislation, involves the amalgamation of the disparate components and structures into a single, cohesive, integrated and co-operative system offering wider access to the entire population, ensuring greater accountability and delivering a better product at all levels of education.

In the process of transition to more equitable and balanced academic staff, many higher education institutions appoint early career academics into Employment Equity or Affirmative Action posts. There are few senior black academics to act as role models or guides and this may make for difficulties in adjusting to working in an historically advantaged institution, especially when the young academic comes from a historically disadvantaged institution. Throughout the sector, as the number of appointments of black academics at entry-level increases, so the numbers of appointments of white academics decreases. The study has shown how few early career academics have established mentoring relationships with more established academics. Early career academics in this study are in formal mentoring relationships as a result of specially designed mentoring programmes or academic internships which have been established since 1999. Most

mentors and higher degree supervisors at historically advantaged institutions are white and increasingly their postgraduate students belong to different cultural groups.

The study has shown how necessary it is for early career academics to be paired with mentors who are aware of the roles and functions of mentors in higher education and who are seriously committed to the fulfilling of those roles themselves or in conjunction with others in their networks. Mentors in higher education in general are not well prepared or trained as formal mentors and consequently, early career academics in formal programmes receive less than optimal career development using the strategy of mentoring. Mentoring may be lauded as the panacea for transformation in higher education but unless mentors are adequately trained, supported and monitored, the strategy is not likely to meet with success. Mentoring in cross-cultural contexts in higher education in South Africa is also likely to be only partially successful because too little is being done to address the effects of institutional and covert racism which lingers on.

The recommendations for making mentoring work in higher education institutions range from broadly based macro interventions to quite detailed micro interventions at the individual level. Without some systematic and committed thrust throughout the sector to accelerate transformation in the careers of early career academics the whole sector is likely to languish and busy itself with meeting legislative demands for equity compliance and quality assurance drives without addressing the grass-roots issues of developing those young academics who are instrumental in transforming the system.

APPENDIX A

MENTORING QUESTIONNAIRE

Date: _____

1. Participant number: _____ Gender:

M	F

2. Rank: (Tick 3applicable)

Tutor	Junior lecturer	Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Associate Professor	Professor

3. Number of years employed in this position _____

4. Previous employment (if any): _____

_____

_____

5. Highest qualification: _____

6. Are you registered for a higher degree at present? _____

7. When did you first register? _____

8. When are you likely to complete this degree? _____

9. Is your higher degree supervisor in your department? _____

10. Are you in a special mentoring or bursary programme like GOOT? _____

11. Do you have a mentor at your university? _____

12. Do you have more than one mentor? _____

13. If so, is this a formal or informal relationship? _____

14. Is your mentor also your higher degree supervisor? _____

15. What academic ranking does your mentor occupy? (Tick 3applicable)

Lecturer	Snr Lecturer	Asso Prof	Prof	HoD	HoS	Other:

16. How was the relationship initiated and when did it begin? _____

_____

_____

17. Could you say which of the following roles your mentor fulfils? (Tick 3applicable)

☐	Assessor	☐	Consultant	☐	Role model
☐	Coach	☐	Counsellor	☐	Sponsor
☐	Co-enquirer	☐	Critical friend	☐	Standard setter
☐	Collaborative publisher	☐	Educator	☐	Helper/Guide during Transition
☐	Collaborative teacher	☐	Giver of Encouragement		

18. Did you and your supervisor sign a formal Personal Development Plan or Contract?

19. What proportion of the mentoring does your mentor give to each role?

20. How is your formal mentoring programme structured?

(Tick 3applicable)

	Yes	No	How many of each?	Rating
▪ Training session for mentors				
▪ Training sessions for mentees				
▪ Joint mentor & mentee training sessions				
▪ Meetings of all mentors in the programme				
▪ Meetings of all mentees in the programme				
▪ Meetings of other mentors in the programme				
▪ Joint meetings with mentors and mentees				
▪ Meetings with mentoring programme co-ordinator				
▪ One to one meetings with mentor				
▪ Feedback sessions with mentor				
▪ Evaluation sessions with mentor				
▪ Evaluation sessions with co-ordinator				
▪ Evaluation sessions with other mentees				
▪ Written report on your progress, by mentor				
▪ Meetings with anyone else associated with mentoring programme				
▪ Conflict resolutions sessions				

- Telementoring sessions managed by (Tick 3applicable)

	Yes	No	How many of each?	Rating
– Telephone				
– Fax				
– Email				
– Video conferencing				
▪ Co-teaching of course				

- Formal attendance at professional gatherings by oneself:

– Conferences:					
Local	Yes	No	International	Yes	No
– Seminars:					
Local	Yes	No	International	Yes	No

- Formal attendance at professional gatherings with mentor

– Conferences:					
Local	Yes	No	International	Yes	No
– Seminars:					
Local	Yes	No	International	Yes	No

	Yes	No	How many of each?	Rating
▪ Formal introductions to mentor's associates				
▪ Publication of work under mentor's guidance				
▪ Public delivery at meeting under mentor's guidance				

- Could you rank these in order of importance to you: _____

21. How would you describe your relationship with your mentor?

_____

_____

_____

_____

22. What aspects of the relationship are most beneficial for you?

23. What aspects of the relationship are not beneficial for you?

24. Have you had any negative experiences in your mentoring relationship? | YES | NO |

Give specific examples:

25. Is your mentoring relationship a cross-gender relationship?

26. Is your mentoring relationship a cross-cultural relationship?

27. If you have more than one mentoring relationship, indicate whether these are cross-gender and/or cross-cultural.

28. How successful do you think the formal mentoring programme is?

29. How much of it would you include in a formal academic learnership programme for new lecturers?

30. What additional structures would you include in an academic learnership programme and why?

31. How would you describe your career progress since the beginning of the mentoring programme?

32. Is formal mentoring likely to be a factor in whether or not you continue your academic career?

33. Have you been formally inducted into the university?

34. What other training have you received:

    Prior to the mentoring programme

    In addition to the mentoring programme

35. In what way was this training important to your career as an academic?

36. If you have more than one mentor, what function does each one fulfil for you?

☐	Assessor	☐	Consultant	☐	Role model
☐	Coach	☐	Counsellor	☐	Sponsor
☐	Co-enquirer	☐	Critical friend	☐	Standard setter
☐	Collaborative publisher	☐	Educator	☐	Helper/Guide during Transition
☐	Collaborative teacher	☐	Giver of Encouragement		

37. How does your relationship with each of them differ?

38. What do you as a mentee regard as effective behaviour in a mentor?

39. What do you regard as effective behaviour in a mentee?

Specific examples discussed in 24:

References

Adams, K. A. (2002). *What colleges and universities want in new faculty* Washington, D.C: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Adams, P. (2001). Transforming tertiary teaching: The Partnerships with Professors Program. Paper presented at the 26th Conference on Improving University Teaching. 9-12 July. Johannesburg , South Africa.

Adams, P. and Townsend, D. (2002). Transforming tertiary teaching: Developing partnerships and mentorship. Paper presented at the 27th Conference on Improving University Teaching. 1-4 July. Vilnius, Lithuania.

Alleman, E. (1986). Measuring mentoring -frequency quality impact. In W.A Gray and M .M Gray (Eds.), *Mentoring: Aid to excellence in career development, business and the professions.* British Columbia: The Xerox Reproduction Centre.

Alleman, E. and Clarke, D. (2000). Accountability: Measuring Mentoring and Its Bottom Line Impact. *Review of Business.*

American Council on Education (2000). *Administrative Fellowship Program.* http://www.acenet.edu/programs/fellows/faq.cfm#long-term

American Speech Language Hearing Association (1999). *Research In Higher Education Mentoring Program.* Available at: http://professional.asha.org/academic/rhemp.cfm.

Anderson, E. M. and Shannon, A. L. (1988). Toward a conceptualization of mentoring. *Journal of Teacher Education,* 38-42.

Applegate, J. L. (2002). *Engaged graduate education: Seeing with new eyes.* Washington, D.C: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Asmal, K. (1999). *Call to action: Mobilising citizens to build a South African education and training system for the 21st century.* http://www.gov.za/profiles/asmal.htm

Association of American Colleges and Universities (1998). *Preparing Future Faculty.* http://www.preparing-faculty.org/default.htm

Badat, S. (2003). The role of the professional development of academic staff in quality asurance at higher education institutions. Keynote Address at HESDI Conference 2003: Johannesburg, South Africa, 6-7 August.

Banister, P., Burman, E., Parker, I., Taylor, M., and Tindall, C. (1994). *Qualitative methods in psychology: A research guide.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Baugh, S. G., Lankau, M. J., and Scandura, T. A. (1996). An investigation of the effects of protégé gender on responses to mentoring. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 49,* 309-323.

Baume, C. and Baume, D. (1996). A national scheme to develop and accredit university teachers. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 1,* 51-58.

Bell, C. R. (1996). *Managers as mentors: building partnerships for learning.* San Francisco: Berrett- Koehler.

Benmore, G. (2002). Perceptions of the Contemporary Academic Employment Relationship. *International Studies in Sociology of Education, 12,* 43-58.

Berquist, W. H. and Phillips, S. R. (1975). Components of an effective faculty development program. *The Journal of Higher Education, 46,* 177-211.

Bertelsen, E. (1998). The real transformation: The marketisation of higher education. *Social Dynamics, 24,* 130-158.

Bitzer, E. (1999). Reflection and evaluation: LINKS project evaluation. In J Wier (Ed.), *Collaborative staff development for quality teaching and learning in South*

African further and higher education. Project No 113. Curtin University of Technology.

Blackwell, J. E. (1989). Mentoring: An action strategy for increasing minority faculty. *Academe, 75,* 8-14.

Blackwell, R. and McLean, M. (1996a). Mentoring new university teachers. *International Journal for Academic Development, 1,* 80-85.

Blackwell, R. and McLean, M. (1996b). Former pupil or informal peer? In H.Fullerton (Ed.), *Facets of mentoring in higher education.* pp. 23-31. Birmingham: SEDA Paper 94.

Blake-Beard, S. D. (2001). Taking a hard look at formal mentoring programs: A consideration of potential challenges facing women. *Journal of Management Development, 20,* 331-345.

Blunt, R. J. S. (1999). Contrasting discourses of transformation. *Academic Development, 4,* 41-61.

Bogdan, J. C. and Biklen, S. K. (1992). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods (2nd ed).* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Boice, R. (1992). *The new faculty member: supporting and fostering professional development.* San Fransisco, California: Jossey Bass.

Boud, D. and McDonald, R. (1981). *Educational development through consultancy.* Guilford: Society for Research into Higher Education.

Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate.* Princeton, N J: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

Boyle, P. and Boice, R. (1998). Systematic Mentoring for New Faculty Teachers and Graduate Teaching Assistants . *Innovative Higher Education, 22,* 157-182.

Brew, A. (Ed.)(1995). *Directions in Staff Development*. Buckingham: Society for Research in Higher Education and the Open University Press.

Broadbent, C. (1997). Changes in higher education: perceptions of academics. Paper presented at 'Researching Education in New Times' Australian Association of Research in Education Conference, Brisbane, 30 November - 4 December. In:

Buhlungu, S. and Metcalfe, A. (2001). Breaking the Racial Division of Labour in Knowledge Production: Reflections on Internship Programmes. *Perspectives in Education, 19,* 67-84.

Burke, R. J., Bristor, J. M., and Rothstein, M. G. (1995). The role of interpersonal networks in women's and men's career development. *International Journal of Career Management, 7,* 25-53.

Burke, R. J., Rothstein, M. G., and Bristor, J. M. (1995). Interpersonal networks of managerial and professional women and men: descriptive characteristics. *Women in Management Review, 10,* 21-27.

Candy, P. (1996). *Major themes and future directions: conference summary and implications*. University of South Australia: Library Publications.

Cannon, R. and Hore, T. (1997). The long-term effects of 'one-shot' professional development courses: An Indonesian case study. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 2,* 35-42.

Chandler, C. (1996). Mentoring and Women in Academia: Reevaluating the Traditional Model. *NWSA Journal, 8,* 79-100.

Chao, G. T., Walz, P. M., and Gardner, P. D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology, 45,* 619-636.

Chesterman, C. (2003). Creating mentoring networks to foster women's roles in higher education across continents and contexts. In F. Kochan and J. Pascarelli (Eds.),

Global Perspectives of Reconstructing Context, Learning Communities, and Cultures through Mentoring. Information Age Publishing.

Clawson, J. G. and Kram, K. E. (1984). Managing cross-gender mentoring. *Business Horizons, 27,* 22-32.

Cloete, N. and Bunting, I. (2000). *Higher Education Transformation: Assessing performance in South Africa.* Centre for Higher Education Transformation, Parow: CTP Book Printers.

Clutterbuck, D. (2001). *Everyone needs a mentor. 3rd ed.* London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Clutterbuck, D. and Megginson, D. (1999). *Mentoring Executives & Directors.* Butterworth-Heinemann.

Cohen, N. (1999). *Mentoring adult learners: A guide for educators and trainers.* Florida: Krieger Publishing Company.

Cook, J., Adonisi, M., and Viedge, C. (1994). Partners in learning: redefining mentorship for a learning organization. *South African Journal of Business Management, 25,* 110-117.

Cooper, D. (1998). *Massive transformation at the level of students at South African universities and technikons; minimal transformation at the level of staff* University of the Western Cape.

Cooper, D. and Subotsky, G. (2001). *The skewed revolution. Trends in South African higher education: 1988-1998.* Educational Policy Unit, University of the Western Cape.

Cotton, B. R. and Ragins, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: A comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84,* 529-560.

Council on Higher Education (2000). Founding Document of the HEQC. CHE: Pretoria.

Cox, M. D. (1995). The development of new and junior faculty. In W.A.Wright and Associates (Ed.), *Teaching Improvement Practices: Successful Strategies for Higher Education.* Boston: Anker.

Cresswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design*. California: Sage.

Cronan-Hillix T., Gensheimer, L. K., Cronan-Hillix, W. A., and Davidson, W. S. (1996). Students' views of mentors in psychology graduate training. *Teaching of Psychology, 13,* 123-127.

Crotty, M. (1998). *Foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Currie, J. (2001a). Keynote address at SAARDHE 12th Biennial conference, 21-23 March. Globalisation and internationalisation in Australian, European and United States Universities. Bloemfontein, South Africa.

Currie, J. (2001b). Keynote address at SHRE Conference on Globalisation and Higher Education: Views from the South. Cape Town 27-29 March 2001.

Daloz, L. A. (1999). *Mentor: Guiding the Journey of Adult Learners*. (Rev. ed.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dalton, G. W. (1989). Developmental views of careers in organizations. In M.B. Arthur, B.S. Lawrence, and D .T. Hall (Eds.), *Handbook of career theory.* pp. 89-109. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dalton, G. W., Thompson, P., and Price, R. (1977). The four stages of professional careers. *Organizational Dynamics, 6,* 19-42.

Davidson, M. N. and Foster-Johnson, L. (2001). Mentoring in the preparation of graduate researchers of color. *Review of Educational Research, 71,* 549-574.

De Neef, A. L. (2002). *The Preparing Future Faculty program: What difference does it make?* Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Dearing, R. (1997). *Report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education.* Middlesex: NCHE Publications.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1998). *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Dixon J., Kouzmin, A., and Korac-Kakabadse, N. (1998). Managerialism - something old, something borrowed, little new: Economic prescription versus effective organizational change in public agencies. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 11,* 164-187.

Dladla, Y. (1994). *Feasibility study. Black Academic Development: New Blood Lectureship* Unpublished report University of the Witwatersrand.

Douglas, C. A. (1997). *Formal mentoring programs in organisations: An annotated bibliography* Greenboro, NC: Center for creative leadership.

Dreher, G. F. and Ash, R. A. (1990). A comparative study of mentoring among men and women in managerial, professional and technical positions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75,* 539-546.

Du Toit, C. M. (1996). Transforming and managing the organisational culture of a university to meet the challenges of a changing environment. *South African Journal of Higher Education, 10,* 96-104.

Duff, C. S. (1999). *Learning from other women: how to benefit from the knowledge, wisdom and experience of female mentors*. AMACOM, New York, NY.

Eby, L. T., McManus, S., Simon, S. A., and Russell, J. E. A. (2000). The protégé's perspective regarding negative mentoring experiences: The development of a taxonomy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 57,* 21.

ETDP (Education, Training and Development Practices) SETA. (1997). *Analysis of ETD sub-field: Higher education and training. Provisional report based on a research paper by Stones, A., with edits, comments and editions by Luckett, K. and Morell, P.* Pretoria.

ETDP (Education, Training and Development Practices) SETA. (1998). *Education, Training and Development Practices Project: An indigenous model for progression paths, qualifications and standards within the National Qualifications Framework. Final Report. October.* Pretoria: National Training Board, assisted by German Technical Co-operation (GTZ).

ETDP (Education, Training and Development Practices) SETA. (2001). *Post Graduate Certificate in Higher Education and Training (PGCHET) Standards.* Pretoria: SAQA.

Egan, K. S. (1994). Flexibility makes the difference in mentoring women for academic success. *Journal of the Association for Communication Administration, 2,* 87-94.

Ellinger, A. D. (2002). Mentoring in Contexts: The Workplace and Educational Institutions. In C. A. Hansman (Ed.), *Critical Perspectives on Mentoring: Trends and Issues*. ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

Engell, J., and Dangerfield, A. (1989). The market-model University: Humanities in the age of money. *Harvard Magazine.* Available at: http://www.harvard-magazine.com/issues/mj98/forum.html

Fagenson, E. A. (1989). The mentor advantage: Perceived career / job experiences of protégés versus non- protégés. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 10,* 309-320.

Feldman, D. C. (1999). Toxic mentors or toxic protégés? A critical re-examination of dysfunctional mentoring. *Human Resource Management Review, 9.*

Felten, P. and Eynon, B. (2000). We got the grant, now what? Institutionalizing grants-funded programs. Paper presented at the POD Conference: Brave New Millennium. Vancouver, 8-12 November.

Firestone, W. (1993). Alternative arguments for generalizing from data as applied to qualitative research. *Educational Researcher, 22,* 16-23.

Francis, J. B. (1975). How do we get there from here? Program design for faculty development. *Journal of Higher Education, 46,* 719-732.

Fransman, H. (2001). The professionalisation of higher education practitioners. *South African Journal on Higher Education, 15,* 5-7.

Gaff, J. G. (1975). *Towards faculty renewal.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gaff, J. G., Pruitt-Logan, A. S., Weibl, R. A., and Participants in the Preparing Future Faculty Program (2000). *Building the Faculty We Need: Colleges and Universities Working Together.* Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Gardiner, L. F. (1994). *Redesigning higher education: Producing dramatic gains in student learning. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No.7.* Washington, D.C.

Geber, H. M. (1999a). *Preliminary report on Young Academics.* Unpublished Report University of Witwatersrand.

Geber, H. M. (1999b). Lifelong Learning of South African Professional Women with Children. *South African Journal of Business Management, 26.*

Geber, H. M. (2000). *Telephone survey of all staff development units at South African Universities.* Unpublished Report University of Witwatersrand.

Geber, H. M. (2003a). *Setting up a mentoring system.* Johannesburg: Knowledge Resources

Geber, H. M. (2003b). Fostering career development for Black academics in the new South Africa. In F. Kochan and J. Pascarelli (Eds.), *Global Perspectives of Reconstructing Context, Learning Communities, and Cultures through Mentoring.* Information Age Publishing.

Geber, H. M. and Munro, K. A. (1999). Implementing the NQF in universities: can we afford the NQF? *South African Journal of Higher Education, 13,* 29-37.

Gevisser, M. (1996). *Portraits of power.* Claremont: David Philip.

Gibbs, G. (1998). The preparation of university teachers in Europe and Australasia. In J.Forrest-Campion (Ed.), *University Teaching: International Perspectives.* Boston: Brock.

Gibbs, G. and Baume, D. (1996). Preparing university teachers. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 1,* 4-7.

Gilbert, A. and Gibbs, G. (1998). A proposal for a collaborative international research programme to identify the impact of initial training on university teaching. Paper presented at HERDSA Conference on Transformation in Higher Education. In: Auckland, New Zealand.

Guba, E. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation.* Newbury Park CA: Sage.

Gumport, P. J. and Pusser, B. (1995). A case of bureaucratic accretion: context and consequences. *Journal of Higher Education, 66,* 493.

Haigh, N. (2000). Everyday academic life as an experience of scholarship: A staff development perspective on Ernest Boyer's views. Paper presented at ICED Conference Scholarship and Professional Practice in Academic Development, 22-26 July. Bielefeld, Germany.

Hammersley, M. (1987). Some notes on the terms 'validity' and 'reliability. *British Educational Research Journal, 13,1,* 73-81.

Hammersley, M. and Atkinson, P. (1995). *Ethnography: Principles in practice.* London: Routledge.

Handal, G. (1997). *Compulsory initial educational training of university teachers in Norway*. Paper to CVCP/SRHE Seminar: Training teachers in Higher Education.

Handal, G. (2001). *Requirements of pedagogical qualifications for teachers in higher education in Norway*. Unpublished report, University of Oslo.

Hansman, C. A. (1998). Mentoring and Women's Career Development. In L.L. Bierema (Ed.), *Women's Career Development across the Lifespan: Insights and Strategies for Women, Organizations, and Adult Educators. New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education No. 80.* pp. 63-71. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hansman, C. A. (2002). *Critical Perspectives on Mentoring: Trends and Issues*. Washington. DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

Hansman, C. A. and Garafolo, P. (1995). Toward a Level Playing Field: The Roles of Mentors and Critical Friendships in the Lives of Women Doctoral Students. In Proceedings of the 36th Annual Adult Education Research Conference. University of Alberta: Alberta.

Harleston, W. and Ngara, E. (2000). *The Employment of Black Professionals in South African Higher Education Institutions*. Unpublished Report produced for the Centre for Higher Education and Transformation (CHET).

Hay, J. (1995). *Transformational mentoring*. London: McGraw Hill.

Heyl, A. R. (1999). *The mentoring guide*. Norfolk, Virginia: Eastern Virginia Medical School.

Higgins, M. C. (2000). The more, the merrier? Multiple developmental relationships and work satisfaction. *Journal of Management Development, 19,* 277-296.

Higgins, M. C. and Kram, K. E. (2001). Reconceptualizing mentoring at work: A developmental network perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 26,* 264-288.

Higher Education Staff Development Initiative (HESDI) (2003). *Case Studies.* HESDI Conference 2003: Johannesburg, South Africa, 6-7 August.

Higher Education Staff Development Initiative (HESDI). (2003).

Hite, L. (1998). Race, Gender, and Mentoring Patterns. In Academy of Human Resource Development: Austin, Texas.

Holland, G. (1995). *The effect of mentoring experiences on the retention of African-American faculty at four-year colleges and universities* Bloomington-Normal, Illinois: Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Illinois State University.

Hudson, H. and Weir J (1999). Meeting need sand getting things done. Project No 113. In J. Wier (Ed.), *Collaborative staff development for quality teaching and learning in South African further and higher education.* Curtin University of Technology.

ILTHE (2001). *The AUT's accreditation proposals: A response. In ILT News: 4 April 2001* http://www.ilt.ac.uk.

Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILTHE), (2003). http://www.ilt.ac.uk.

International Consortium for Educational Development (ICED), (2001). http://www.edu.yorku.ca/~progers/iced.

Isaacs, G. and Parker, R. (1997). Short courses, beyond and beside: What do newly appointed university teachers want? *The International Journal for Academic Development, 2,* 43-51.

Jacobi, M. (1991). Mentoring and undergraduate academic success: A literature review. *Review of Education Research, 61,* 505-532.

Joffrey, R. (2003). *Post-College Mentoring Program for women* http://www.thelookout.net/pro_main.htm.

Johnston, S. (1996). Finding time for professional development: A study of academic perceptions. Different Approaches: Theory and Practice in Higher Education. In Proceedings HERDSA Conference 1996. Perth, Western Australia, 8-12 July.

Jones, M. (2001). Mentors' perceptions of their roles in school-based teacher training in England and Germany. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy, 27,* 75-94.

Kalbfleisch, P. J. (2000). Similarity and Attraction in Business and Academic Environments: Same and Cross-Sex Mentoring Relationships. *Review of Business, 21,* 58-61.

Kanter, R. M. (1989a). Careers and the wealth of nations: a macro-perspective on the structure and implications of career forms. In M.B. Arthur, D.T. Hall, and B.S. Lawrence (Eds.), *Handbook of career theory.* pp. 506-521. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kanter, R. M. (1989b). From climbing to hopping: the contingent job and the post-entrepreneurial career. *Management Review, 78,* 22-28.

Kayrooz, C., Pearson, M., and Quinlan, K. (1997). Development from within academe: Eschewing imperialism,managerialism, and missionary zeal? *International Journal for Academic Development, 2,* 64-71.

Keesen, F., Wubbels, T., Van Tartwijk, J., and Bouhuijs, P. (1996). Preparing university teachers in the Netherlands: Issues and trends. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 1,* 8-16.

Keller, G. (1983). *Academic Strategy: The management revolution in American higher education.* Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Kraak, A. and Young, M. (2001). *Education in Retrospect: Policy & Implementation since 1990.* Pretoria: HSRC.

Kram, K. E. (1988). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Boston: University Press of America, Inc.

Kram, K. E. and Bragar M.C. (1992). Development through Mentoring: A Strategic Approach. In D. Montross and C. Shinkman (Eds.), *Career Development: Theory and Practice.* pp. 221-254. Charles C. Thomas Press.

Kulati, T. (2001). From protest to challenge: Leadership and Higher Education change in South Africa. Paper presented at the EAIR Forum on Diversity and Harmonisation in Higher Education. Porto, Portugal. 10-12 September.

Kvale, S. (1996). *InterViews. An introduction to qualitative research interviewing.* Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Landsburg, M. (1996). *The Tao of Coaching.* Harper Collins.

Learning and Teaching Support Network (LTSN), (2003). http://www.ltsn.ac.uk.

LeCompte, M. D. and Preissle, J., with Tesch, R. (1993). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research.* (2nd ed.) Orlando, Florida: Academic Press.

Leslie, L. L. and Rhoades, G. (1995). Rising administrative costs: seeking explanations. *Journal of Higher Education, 66,* 187.

Levinson, D., Darrow, C., Klein, E., and Levinson, M. (1978). *The Seasons of a Man's Life.* New York.

Lewis, K. G. (1997). Faculty development in the United States: A brief history. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 1,* 26-33.

Lublin, J. (1996). The accreditation of teachers - who needs it? Different Approaches: Theory and Practice in Higher Education. Proceedings HERDSA Conference 1996. Perth, Western Australia, 8-12 July. In:

Luna, G. and Cullen, D. L. (1995). *Empowering the Faculty: Mentoring Redirected and Renewed.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lycke, K. (1998). Faculty development: activities in Norwegian universities. *Uniped, University of Oslo, 3.*

Lycke, K. (1999). Faculty Development: Experiences and Issues in a Norwegian Perspective. *International Journal for Academic Development, 4,* 124-133.

Lyons, W., Scroggins, D., and Rule, P. B. (1990). The mentor in graduate education. *Studies in Higher Education, 15,* 277-285.

Makgoba, M. W. (1997). *Mokoko: The Makgoba affair: a reflection on transformation.* Florida Hills.

Mathison, S. (1988). Why triangulation? *Educational Researcher, 17,* 13-17.

Maykut, P. and Morehouse, R. (1994). *Beginning qualitative research: A philosophical and practical guide.* London: The Falmer Press.

Maynard, T. and Furlong, J. (1993). Learning to teach and models of mentoring. In D.McIntyre, H.Hagger, and M.Wilkin (Eds.), *Mentoring: perspectives in school-based teacher education.* London: Kogan Page.

McKeachie, W. J. (1999). *Teaching tips: Strategies, research and theory for college and university teachers. 10th edition.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

McNally, P. and Martin, S. (1998). *Support and challenge in learning to teach: The role of the mentor.*

Megginson, D. and Clutterbuck, D. (1995). *Mentoring in action.* London: Kogan Page.

Meijer, P. C., Zanting, A., and Verloop, N. (2002). How can student teachers elicit experienced teachers' practical knowledge?: Tools, suggestions and significance. *Journal of Teacher Education.*

Menzies, H. and Newson, J. (2001). The over-extended academic in the global corporate economy. CAUT Bulletin 48, 1: A3/A6.

Merriam, S. (1983). Mentors and protégés: A critical review of the literature. *Adult Education Quaterly, 33,* 161-173.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Meznek, J., McGrath, P., and Galaviz, F. (1989). *The Puente Project.* Sacramento: California Community Colleges, Office of the Chancellor.

Mihkelson, A. (1997). *Mentoring to enhance research and scholarly capabilities of academic staff.* Launceston: University of Tasmania.

Mishler, E. G. (1991). *Research Interviewing. Context and Narrative.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Moody, J. (1997). *Demystifying the Profession: Helping Junior Faculty Succeed.* West Haven, CT: University of New Haven Press.

Moore, K. M. and Amey, M. J. (1988). Some Faculty Leaders Are Born Women. In M.A.D. Sagaria (Ed.), *Empowering Women: Leadership Development Strategies On Campus.* pp. 39-50. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Moses, Y. T. (1989). *Black Women In Academe: Issues And Strategies* Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges.

Mott, V. (2002). Emerging Perspectives on Mentoring: Fostering Adult Learning and Development. In C.A. Hansman (Ed.), *Critical Perspectives on Mentoring: Trends and Issues.* ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

Murray, B. K. (1997). *Wits The Open Years.* Johannesburg: Witwatersrand University Press.

Murray, M. (1991). *Beyond the myths and magic of mentoring: how to facilitate an effective mentoring program.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

National Research Foundation. (2003). Thuthuka Programme Mentoring Framework. Unpublished report.

Naude B. (1985). Address to the University of Cape Town.

NCIHE (1997). *Higher Education in the Learning Society, HMSO, London, Dearing Report.*

Neuman, W. L. (1997). *Social Research Methods. Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Nightingale, P. (1996). Learning from experience - the teachers as well as the students. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 1,* 43-50.

Nyquist, J. (2002). *The Ph.D: A Tapestry of Change for the 21st Century.* http://www.grad.washington.edu/envision/resources/tapestry_index.html

Olian, J. D., Carrol, S. J., Giannantonio, C. M., and Feren, D. B. (1988). What do proteges look for in a mentor? Results of three experimental studies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 33,* 15-37.

Ostroff , C. and Kozlowski, S. W. (1993). The role of mentoring in the information gathering processes of newcomers during early organizational socialization. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 42,* 170-183.

Parsloe, E. (1995). *The manger as coach and mentor*. London: IPD.

Parsons, P. (1998). An internet-based higher education staff development and training programme. Paper presented at the Links /SAAAD/ SAARDHE Conference, Bloemfontein. In:

Pascarelli, J. (1998). A four-stage mentoring model that works. In S. Goodlad (Ed.), *Mentoring and Tutoring by Students.* pp. 231-243. London: Kogan Page.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation methods.* (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pazy, A. (1988). Joint responsibility: the relationship between organizational and individual career management and the effectiveness of careers. *Group and Organizational Studies, 13,* 311-332.

Penn State University (2003). *Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching (CELT),* http://www.psu.edu/celt/celt.shtm.

Phillips-Jones, L. (1982). *Mentors and protégés*. New York: Arbor House.

Pickert, S. M. (1992). *Preparing for a global community: Achieving an international perspective in higher education. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No.2.* Washington, D.C.

Pollitt, C. (1990). *Managerialism and the Public Services: the Anglo-American experience* . Oxford: Blackwell.

Popkewitz, T. S. (1996). Rethinking decentralization and state/civil society: the state as a problematic of governing. *Journal of Education Policy, 11,* 27-51.

Potgieter, C. A. (2002). *Black Academics on the Move*. Pretoria: Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET).

Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: Sage.

Quinn, L. (in press). Reflections on a theoretical framework for a professional development course for lecturers at a South African university.

Quinn, L. and Vorster, J. (2004). Transforming teachers' perceptions of teaching and learning in a PGCHET course . *South African Journal of Higher Education, 18.*

Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified Mentoring Relationships in Organizations: A Power Perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 22,* 482-521.

Ragins, B. R. and Cotton, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: a comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84,* 529-550.

Ragins, B. R., Cotton, J. L., and Miller, J. S. (2000). Marginal Mentoring: The Effects of Type of Mentor, Quality of Relationship, and Program Design on Work and Career Attitudes. *Academy of Management Journal, 43,* 1177-1194.

Ragins, B. R. and Scandura, T. A. (1994). Gender differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Review, 37,* 957-971.

Republic of South Africa (1997). *Higher Education Act No. 101.* Pretoria.

Rice, R.E., Sorcinelli, M.D. and Austin A.E. (Eds.) (2002). *Heeding new voices: Academic careers for a new generation.* New Pathways Working Paper Series, inquiry #7. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.

Riessman, C. K. (1993). *Narrative analysis*. Newbury Park, California: Sage.

Roche, V. (1996). The academic's progress:Changes and stages in the journey. Different approaches:Theory and practice in higher education. In Proceedings HERDSA conference 1996. Perth, Western Australia, 8-12 July.

Rosnow, R. L. and Rosenthal, R. (1996). *Beginning behavioral research.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Rudd, E. (1985). *A new look at postgraduate failure*. Guilford: Society for Research in Higher Education and NFER-Nelson.

Russell, J. E. A. and Adams, D. M. (1997). The Changing Nature of Mentoring in Organizations: An Introduction to the Special Issue on Mentoring in Organizations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51,* 1-14.

Ruth, D. (2000). *South African academics on academic work: differences between what should be and what is.* www.aau.org/studyprogram/pdfiles/ruthd.pdf

SAQA (South African Qualifications Authority) (2000). *The National Qualifications Framework: An overview.* Pretoria.

Scandura, T. (1998). Dysfunctional mentoring relationship outcomes. *Journal of Management, 24,* 467.

Scandura, T. A. (1992). Mentorship and career mobility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13,* 169-174.

Seldin, P. (1997). *The teaching Portfolio 2nd ed.* Boston: Anker.

Shear, M. (1996). *Wits: A university in the Apartheid Era.* Johannesburg: Witwatersrand University Press.

Sorcinelli, M. D. (1992). New and junior faculty stress: Research and responses. In M.D.Sorcinelli and A.E.Austin (Eds.), *New directions for teaching and learning: Developing new and junior faculty.* San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.

Sorcinelli, M. D. and Austin, A. E., (Eds.) (1992). *Developing new and junior faculty. New Directions for Teaching and Learning no.48.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sorcinelli, M. D. (2000). *Principles of Good Practice: Supporting Early-Career Faculty.* American Association for Higher Education.

Sosik, J. J. and Godshalk, V. M. (2000). The role of gender in mentoring: Implications for diversified and homogenous mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 57,* 102-122.

South Africa (2001). *The National Plan for Higher Education.* Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa: Department of Education (1997). *Education White Paper 3 - A programme for the transformation of higher education.* Pretoria: Government Gazette No 18207.

South Africa: Department of Education (1999). *A New Higher Education Statistical Reporting System for Students and Staff - Concept paper.* http://education.pwv.gov.za/EMIS/emisweb/hemis/heconcept.htm.

Spies, P. H. (1988). *Business Futures*. Stellenbosch: Institute for Futures Research.

Staff and Educational Development Asssociation (SEDA). (2002). http://www.seda.demon.co.uk

Stalker, J. (1996). Women Mentoring Women: Contradictions,Complexities and Tensions. In Proceedings of the 37th Annual Adult Education Research Conference, University of South Florida, Tampa.

Swap, W., Leonard, D., Shields, M., and Abrams, L. (2001). Using mentoring and storytelling to transfer knowledge in the workplace. *Journal of Management Information Systems, 18,* 95-114.

Thomas, A. (1999). *Transforming Wits: Reasons for resignation: Possible challenges for WITS.* Unpublished Report, University of the Witwatersrand.

Thomas, D. A. (2001). The Truth about Mentoring Minorities: Race Matters. *Harvard Business Review, 79,* 99-107.

Treleaven. L (1994). Making a space: a collaborative inquiry with women as staff development. In P. Reason (Ed.), *Participation in Human Inquiry.* London: Sage.

Trow, M. (1994). Managerialism and the Academic Profession: the case of England. *Higher Education Policy, 7,* 11-18.

Trower, C. A., Austin, A. E., and Sorcinelli, M. D. (2001). Paradise Lost: How the academy converts enthusiastic recruits into early-career doubters. *American Association for Higher Education Bulletin.*

Trowler, P. (1998). *Academics Responding to Change: new higher education frameworks and academic cultures.* Buckingham: Open University Press SRHE.

Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental sequences in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin, 63,* 384-399.

Tuckman, B. W. and Jensen, M. A. C. (1977). Stages of small group development revisted. *Group and Organizational Studies, 2,* 419-427.

University of Natal (2000). *The Academic Internship Programme 2000-2003. Unpublished document.*

University of Oregon (2003). *Teaching Effectiveness Program (TEP).* Available at: http://tep.uoregon.edu/resources/index.html

University of Port Elizabeth (1999). *The systems and development unit: The coaching and mentoring process.*

University of Pretoria (2003). *Telematics Centre.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1980). *The Academic Plan.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1986). *The role of the university in a changing South Africa. Perceptions of Wits.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1986). *Calendar of the University.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1987). *Wits unites against violation of autonomy.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1992). *Policy Document S92/901.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1994). *Policy document S94/174.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1999). *Report on the Equal Opportunity Supernumerary Programme by Human Resources.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1999). *Human Resources Report on Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action schemes.*

University of the Witwatersrand (1999). *Growing our own timber.*

University of the Witwatersrand (2000). *Policy document HRA/24.*

University of the Witwatersrand (2001). *EIS Database.*

University of the Witwatersrand (2002). *Management Information Unit statistics.*

University of the Witwatersrand. (2002). *Employment Equity Report.*

University of Wisconsin (1998). *Mentoring Programme.*

Van Collie, S. (1998). Moving up through mentoring. *Workforce, 77,* 36-42.

Van Maanen, J. (1982). Boundary crossing: Major strategies of organizational socialization and their consequences. In R.Katz (Ed.), *Career issues in human resource management.* Engelwood Cliff: Prentice Hall.

Van Maanen, J. (1993). *Qualitative methodology.* London: Sage.

Vorbrecht, T. (2002). *Plot and Practice. A Narrative Inquiry into Academic Development, Language Policy and Lifelong Learning as Frameworks for Literacy Development at the University of the Western Cape. Unpublished D.Litt thesis.* University of the Western Cape.

Webb, G. (1996a). Theories of staff development: Progress and power. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 1,* 59-66.

Webb, G. (1996b). *Understanding Staff development.* Buckingham: Society for Research in Higher Education and the Open University Press.

Webster, E. (1998). Wit's going on? Revisiting the Makgoba affair. *Southern Africa Report, 13,* 30-34.

Webster, E. and Mosoetsa, S. (2001). At the chalk face: Managerialism and the changing academic workplace. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the South African Sociological Society. UNISA, South Africa.

Weimer, M. (1997). Assumptions that devalue university teaching. *The International Journal for Academic Development, 2,* 52-59.

Whitely, W., Dougherty, T. W., and Dreher, G. F. (1991). Relationship of career mentoring and socioeconomic origin to managers' and professionals' early career progress. *Academy of Management Journal, 34.*

Winter, G. (2000). A comparative discussion of the notion of 'validity' in qualitative and quantitative research. *The Qualitative Report, 4,* 3 & 4.

Wolcott, H. F. (1990). On seeking - and rejecting - validity in qualitative research. In E. W. Eisner & A. Peshkin (Eds.), *Qualitative inquiry in education: The continuing debate.* pp. 121-152. New York: Teachers College Press.

Zanting, A., Verloop, N., and Vermunt, J. D. (2001). Student teachers eliciting mentors' practical knowledge and comparing it to their own beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17,* 740.

Zemsky, R. and Massy, W. F. (1995). Toward an understanding of our current predicaments. *Change, 27,* 40-50.

Zey, M. G. (1984). *The Mentor Connection.* Homewood, IL: Dow-Jones Irwin.

Zuber-Skerritt, O. (1991). *Professional development in higher education - A theoretical framework for action research.* Brisbane: Griffiths University.