

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The field of Education continues to change as new curriculum systems are implemented to meet objectives for which educational institutions exist. Many educational institutions today are being challenged to become more competitive and efficient (Day, 1997:194; Franklin, Hogkinson and Stewart, 1998:236; Leach, 1996:102; Page, Loots and duToit, 2005:5; Srikanthan and Dalrymple, 2002:215). Vocational Education and Training (VET) educational institutions in particular are experiencing a time of great change (Fibkins, 2002:5). These educational institutions are open systems (Cummings and Worley, 2005:86) which means that they are influenced by the external environment in which they operate. The institutions have little choice but to change in response to these external forces. In order to meet the challenges being brought in by the external environment, the educational institutions require transformational processes that will equip them to meet these changes.

As changes in curriculum systems and other educational initiatives occur, educational institutions turn to their educators for knowledge and skills to facilitate the implementation of these changes. Educators are expected by their institutions to acquire, continuously and independently, the requisite knowledge and skills to keep up with these changes in curriculum systems (Day, 1997:194; Garvey and Alred, 2000a:216; Harrison, Lawson and Wortley, 2005:419). Consequently, a way of supporting and guiding educators to develop themselves becomes a concern. The more experienced educators in these institutions may contribute positively to this issue. As educators are faced with challenges of professional development, mentoring is one approach that can be given strong consideration as a developmental intervention. How individual educators can utilise mentoring to learn and develop within this environment of change is explored in the context of a VET educational institution in Botswana.

1.1 Background

In today's educational institutions greater responsibility is placed on educators to manage their own careers, and thus their own learning and development (Franklin et al., 1998:229;

Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:447; Stuart, 2002:367). Within the context of this study, educators are defined as those in the educational institutions concerned with management and delivery of training. This group may include, but is not limited to, lecturers, assessors, demonstrators, and administrators.

Educators are expected by educational institutions continuously to acquire new knowledge and skills to keep up with the changes that are occurring within their educational institutions (Day, 1997:194; Garvey and Alred, 2000a:216; Harrison et al., 2005:419). The responsibility for professional development is viewed as an inherent part of the role of the educator. The onus is placed on educators to facilitate the implementation of strategies that ensure that the educational institution meets its objectives of training the workforce of the future. It is from this context that the learning and development of individual educators in an educational institution can be viewed as a fundamental factor in contributing to the objectives the educational institution aspires to achieve. In effect, and as advanced by Bush and Middlewood (2005:189), the learning and development of educators, and the objectives that the educational institutions as organisations aspire to achieve, are closely linked.

Educators are being challenged to change from what is viewed as traditional teaching techniques, and embrace new initiatives in curriculum systems (Hine, 2008:9). They are expected, for example, to be more of a facilitator and a guide in the classroom, rather than encourage one way communication through lecture methods. The ability of the educators to meet the organisational objectives of the educational institution depends on the professional knowledge and skills that each individual educator possesses.

Not all educators will readily have the knowledge and skills demanded by new curriculum systems implemented by the institution. There will be educators who lack the experience necessary to perform to the standard required. It becomes a challenge for many educators who have been in the system for several years to change the ways they do things in their practice. To survive within the education system, and meet the organisational objectives expected of them, educators must acquire the knowledge and skills required by their educational institutions. In addition, educators must continue to keep abreast of curriculum changes and ensure they continue to gather the requisite knowledge and skills as expected by their institutions. Meeting the challenges that face educators today means

utilising processes that encourage the educator's individual development and leads to improved practice.

Educators have the option to use the resources that are readily available to them, such as the more experienced colleagues who are already in the system. It is quite possible that these more experienced educators can share the knowledge they have with their less experienced colleagues. Mentoring can be utilised as an organisational development intervention to enhance the learning and development of these educators.

Mentoring is 'a powerful individual development intervention' (Cummings and Worley, 2005:407) that can be used as a means of assisting, supporting and guiding educators to acquire the professional development they need (Megginson, Clutterbuck, Garvey, Stokes, and Garret-Harrison, 2006:21). It has the ability to transfer knowledge and skills, and may result in outcomes that can enable educators to meet the challenges facing their institutions. In its most basic state, mentoring is about teaching and learning, about transferring skills and knowledge, and about encouraging others to stretch their boundaries of understanding and perspective. Mentoring brings together a less experienced educator and a more experienced one in a relationship that endeavours to achieve the developmental objectives of both parties (Fibkins, 2002:6; Nicholls, 2002:139). This concept can offer a positive solution for the changing face of education.

Mentoring is not a new concept to education in general, or to VET educational institutions in particular. It has been used extensively in education to support and guide novice educators during their first year of teaching (Austin, 2002:94; Geber, 2003b:108; Harrison et al., 2005:419). However, in VET institutions in Botswana, mentoring is an untried concept from the perspective of professional development. A search in literature databases did not reveal any evidence of mentoring initiatives in the VET educational institutions in Botswana. In addition, as an educator employed within the VET system in Botswana, I am aware that at the time of this study, this concept had not been implemented in any of the VET educational institutions. This study therefore initiates a means by which the mentoring process can be utilised in a VET educational institution to result in the individual learning and development of educators and bring about change in their practice.

1.2 Mentoring as a developmental intervention for educators

Educators gather a lot of experience in the classroom while teaching. The work of the teacher is lonely and often carried out directly with students and not with colleagues (Nicholls, 2002:139). It is no wonder that what the educators learn over years in the classroom and through other means such as workshops, private readings, and conferences, is tacit (Polanyi, 1958:373) and rarely made explicit to themselves or to their colleagues (McCann and Radford, 1993:25). Educators may need a route through which they can make this tacit knowledge more explicit. Teaching requires higher physical, emotional and intellectual energy than most educators expect when they enter the profession (Fibkins, 2002:5). Maintaining levels of professionalism and keeping abreast of change requires personal and professional discipline. It requires self awareness so that one can remain flexible and open to new directions and approaches when needed. It also requires taking advantage of ongoing opportunities for professional development.

In educational institutions today, educators have to contend not only with the demands of teaching, but also increasingly with the administration and management of new curriculum systems. With new structures and processes of governance and management such as quality assurance processes and outcomes based education (OBE), there is an increased burden that educators have to bear in respect to management and administrative responsibilities (Fourie and Alt, 2000:120). Since educators are expected to adapt to these realities, it implies that they will need to acquire additional knowledge and skills that will enable them to meet the expectations of the organisation in terms of efficiency and effectiveness.

Regardless of the length of time they have been in the teaching profession, educators need a mentor who can listen to their needs, concerns and fears, a mentor who can help keep them up to date with the knowledge and skills they need to keep up with changes occurring in their profession. Mentoring in one form or another is a means by which educators can break down their isolation and support professional development in ways that focus on their daily work in teaching and learning situations (Nicholls, 2002:139). Educators who enter into mentoring relationships may effectively enhance their learning and development. Mentoring is a relationship which can provide educators the opportunity to share their professional and personal skills and experiences, and to grow and develop

in the process. It is a relationship which necessitates a one-on-one collaboration between a mentor and a mentee. Mentoring has the capacity to afford educators the chance to work collaboratively with their colleagues and develop in their teaching profession.

In educational institutions, it is often the case that teaching is viewed as a routine function and is often not the focus of professional development (Fibkins, 2002:6). In educational institutions that embrace mentoring, it is common for experienced educators to work closely with new educators, guiding them through their first year in the profession (Austin, 2002:94; Geber, 2003b:108; Harrison et al., 2005:419). For educators new to the profession, the need for mentoring is clear. A successful and experienced educator acting as a mentor can help the novice educator avert the frustrations and stress that often come with entering the teaching profession. However, the responsibility of growing a nation's natural human resource rests with all educators. Educators have a great responsibility to be prepared for the many challenges that arise each day. The changes brought about by the external environment will impact on all the educators. Therefore, every educator in the system may need assistance to learn new things and change for the better.

Professional development about teaching is not simply a matter of knowing about a range of teaching strategies. Information about new approaches to teaching may come from several sources. In an increasingly diverse and ever changing educational setting, organisations look to see how change can be sustained from within. Casey (2005:131) contends that learning at all levels is essential for organisations to adapt to both internal and external changes. Nicholls, (2002:140) explains that mentoring is a practice that can facilitate professional development and create change. Because knowledge is personal and dynamic in an ever changing educational arena, it can never be complete. It cannot be said that there will ever be one best way of teaching. All educators with varied levels of experience can continue to learn and acquire new knowledge as they adapt to new curriculum systems. Therefore, there is a responsibility to continue the dialogue between colleagues throughout our professional lives as educators. It is therefore important that mentoring opportunities are made available to all educators within the system, whether new, mid-career or veteran.

1.3 Mentoring and organisational learning

Organisational learning is part of organisational behaviour. Huber (1991:89) asserts that an organisation can be said to be learning if 'the range of its potential behaviours is changed' by processing information through interpersonal or social interactions. Leroy and Ramanantsoa (1997:872) add that this learning needs to not only be behavioural but cognitive as well. This means that the knowledge and skills acquired through learning can either result in change that can be observed by others, or this new learning may simply be understood by the educator but not openly displayed.

The acquisition of new knowledge contributes to the professional development of educators (Stuart, 2002:367). The learning of educators in the institution has a direct influence on the learning of the people around them (Bush and Middlewood, 2005:196; Lyles, Dhanaraj and Steensma, 2005:78). This is because learning is a dynamic and participatory process. Research conducted by Carnell (2001) in Bush and Middlewood (2005:200) suggests that in educational institutions, the more people discovered about their own learning and the complex nature of learning itself, the more they needed to share this with others and move from the intuitive to the explicit in terms of normal practice. Because organisations operate within open and social systems (Casey, 2005:136; Cummings and Worley, 2005:86) and as interactions occur between members of the organisation, knowledge sharing is seen as part of the nature of organisational behaviour.

The integration of mentoring practice with organisational development is important in relation to organisational behaviour, specifically in terms of ensuring strategic alignment to organisational processes and practice. Mentoring practice by nature is a social and interpersonal process (Kram, 1988:24; Allen, Day and Lentz, 2005:156). This practice can be a conduit through which learning can take place within the organisation. Through mentoring, educators can be encouraged to share their knowledge and skills with their colleagues. The potential for mentoring to result in either cognitive or behavioural change in an individual makes it possible for this process to influence organisational behaviour. The deliberate utilisation of mentoring as a developmental intervention can encourage and enhance the sharing of knowledge and skills in the organisation.

An organisation that promotes continuous learning opportunities through encouraging enquiry, dialogue and collaboration attempts to create a learning organisation (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross and Smith, 1997:42). It is envisaged that as more educators in the educational institution learn, the institution also learns. This effort towards collective learning then moves the educational institution closer to the concept of the learning organisation. Senge et al., 1997:41 describe the learning organisation as a place 'where people continuously expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continuously learning how to learn together'. It is possible that the learning of one person in an educational institution can positively influence the attitudes and behaviour of those around them towards learning and encourage others to learn at the individual, group and the organisational level. This learning at the individual level contributes to the general knowledge bank of the organisation (Casey, 2005:131; Huber, 1991:89).

The discussion above alludes to the fact that the learning of one individual can result in the learning of a group of individuals and these groups can result in the learning of the organisation to which they belong (Casey, 2005:131; Huber, 1991:89; Kram and Hall, 1989:494; Leroy and Ramanantsoa, 1997:872; Schon, 1992:136). It follows that the learning of individual educators has the ability to result in changes in attitude and behaviour which can then pass to other educators in the educational institution. These processes are inherent aspects of organisational behaviour. The effect of individual learning can therefore assist the institution to adapt to changes being brought about by the external environment (Bush and Middlewood, 2005:5). It can be argued that mentoring may be an effective way of encouraging knowledge sharing between individual members of the organisation. It can also be argued that the organisation will learn as individuals within this organisation learn.

1.4 Context of the research

My study takes place in Gaborone Technical College (GTC), which is situated in the Republic of Botswana. Botswana is a centrally located Southern African country on the northern border of the Republic of South Africa. Formerly a British protectorate, Botswana

gained self governance and became independent in 1966. Botswana has been identified as one of the fastest growing economies in Africa (African Economic Outlook, 2008:154).

Gaborone Technical College is one of the eight educational institutions in Botswana providing vocational education and training. It is the largest, with 96 educators and 1100 students spread across eight departments (Ministry of Education, 2004:17). These eight departments deliver vocational training in the areas of Hospitality; Clothing, Design and Textiles; Business; Construction; Electrical and Mechanical Engineering; Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy; Multimedia; Information Communication and Technology; and Travel and Tourism. The responsibility of VET in Botswana lies with the Ministry of Education, with the Department of Vocational Education and Training being the main provider.

In the context of Botswana, VET is seen as a key contributor to the development of a competent national human resource. Botswana's vision is to increase the skills level of its workforce for effective participation in the global economy and knowledge society. As a result, Botswana created a vision for itself at its 50th year of independence, which stated that 'By the year 2016, the education system will empower citizens to become the best producers of goods and services' (Presidential task group for a long term vision for Botswana, 1997:2). The Vision 2016 document guides the policy direction and creates a vision of VET in terms of purpose and practice. The core responsibility of VET is outlined by the Ministry of Education as '...life-long education and training that is relevant and responsive to the rapid technological development and the changing socio-economic environment' (Ministry of Education, 2001:3).

In 2000, the Department of Vocational Education and Training introduced a new national qualification, the Botswana Technical Education Programme (BTEP) in response to the 'challenges of practical skills training for the needs of the national economy' (Ministry of Education, 2004:16). The BTEP is a student centred vocational training programme that follows the guidelines of outcomes based education (OBE). The purpose of the new qualification is to improve the provision of post-school pre-service and in-service vocational education and training to alleviate skills shortage in a diversifying economy. The BTEP is based on the British general vocational qualification. Efforts have been made to contextualise this curriculum to make it relevant to Botswana. In order to achieve the level of quality and currency required for the BTEP, the quality assurance and assessment unit

was established under the auspices of the Ministry of Education. The role of the quality assurance and assessment unit is to oversee the quality assurance systems and procedures developed to support the delivery of the BTEP.

The national policy on education regarding the teaching profession emphasises the importance of the role of teachers in curriculum implementation. This policy mentions that educators 'as agents of curriculum implementation are central to the education system and can make or break the system' (Ministry of Education, 2004:22). The educators have the challenge of producing 'an increased pool of flexible and adaptive workers with a body of knowledge and skills, assessed and quality assured to international standards...' (Ministry of Education, 2004:17). Guided by this policy and prior to the implementation of BTEP, the Ministry of Education carried out a recruitment drive that saw them employ expatriate educators from other countries in Africa such as Kenya. These educators were recruited on three year contract terms to assist with the implementation of the BTEP. I was one of those educators who were recruited to manage the implementation of Hospitality and Tourism BTEPs.

Gaborone Technical College was the first educational institution in Botswana to pilot the BTEP in 2000. This new curriculum was progressively implemented in the vocational areas delivered by GTC. The development and implementation of this new curriculum has been fraught with numerous challenges (Ministry of Education, 2004:9). A major concern is that the efforts being exerted by educators to implement the OBE are insufficient to meet industry needs (Mmegi Newspaper August 8, 2003:16-17). This experience is not unique to Botswana. Stuart (2002:373) acknowledges that many educational institutions in Africa are grappling with the challenges of adopting the paradigm shift from traditional modes of teaching to outcomes based education. OBE in Botswana is in itself still unclear, since a curriculum policy document has not been formulated by either the Ministry of Education or the Department of Vocational Education and Training. There are no guidelines available that indicate to the educator a clear direction of the approach to be taken in the implementation of the BTEP. This omission in effect means that the educators have no strategic map to which to refer during implementation. Educators in general perceive the quality assurance processes being implemented as additional tasks outside of their core duties, and are resistant to it. In practice, the implementation of BTEP has been a challenge for educators at GTC.

As the BTEPs were implemented at different times in the various departments, the experience gathered in running the programme varies from department to department. There are indications that a knowledge and skills gap exists in curriculum delivery and the administrative procedures that are attached to the running of BTEP. Although the policy mentions government support in terms of the general formal training of teachers, it falls short of highlighting how the professional development of educators in the VET system can be enhanced to support the implementation of the BTEP. Bennet (2005:10) in her study of curriculum alignment in BTEP established that the commitment of educators in VET educational institutions in Botswana in respect of educational accountability was questionable. She recommends that avenues be identified through which educators can gather knowledge and skills, thereby improving BTEP implementation (Bennet, 2005:18). Utilising mentoring at GTC could begin to address this gap in the requisite knowledge and skills required to implement the BTEP successfully.

1.5 The self study approach to the enquiry

My study adopts a self study research approach. This is a research approach that incorporates the learning of the researcher within the study (Dick, 1993:15). Self study has been acknowledged as an equally valuable form of research as traditional empirical investigation (McNiff, 2002:20; Northfield, 1996:3; Taylor and Settelmaier, 2003:233, Whitehead, 1988:43). In this study, I explore mentoring practice in collaboration with others by becoming a mentor to two of my colleagues at Gaborone Technical College (GTC).

At the time of this study, I was employed in GTC as an educational administrator in charge of the Hospitality and Tourism Department. In this position, I experienced firsthand the challenges facing educators in my institution. When the BTEP was introduced, the educators grappled with coming to terms with the new curriculum changes. The expectations from the institution for the educators to shift from traditional modes of teaching to OBE and student centred learning was unprecedented. It was left to the educators to embrace these changes and to continue teaching and going about their daily duties without breaking a stride. As Head of Hospitality and Tourism, it was my responsibility to manage the implementation of BTEP in my department. The Hospitality

Programme was one of the first to be implemented. I therefore began to gather knowledge, skills and experience in this area. I had the opportunity to work with the educators in my department to acquire knowledge and skills that assisted us to meet the challenges brought about by the implementation of BTEP. It was clear to me that educators implementing other BTEPs needed guidance and support in assimilating and internalising the new knowledge and skills required of them.

My experience of the challenges that the educators were going through as a result of the implementation of BTEP motivated me to ask myself how support could be provided to these educators. I specifically asked myself how at my individual level, I could contribute in providing the assistance the educators needed. A professional developmental intervention could result in change in behaviour and equip the educators with the necessary knowledge and skills to face the challenges from the external environment. If the educators could cope with these challenges effectively, this would be of benefit to the organisation. I identified that mentoring could be a viable option for educators in my institution to learn and develop professionally.

As a result of my assessment, I presented a proposal to GTC management of an institution wide formal mentoring programme. This proposal was rejected as GTC was not ready to commit to such an endeavour. The management was, however, agreeable to a smaller scale intervention that could possibly show them the benefits of mentoring. After due consideration, I decided that a mentoring project involving three educators could fulfil the desired learning and development objectives. The three people would be myself as mentor, and two of my colleagues as mentees. I approached two of my colleagues from two different departments, and they agreed to participate in the mentoring project as mentees.

Having decided on the developmental intervention, I wondered whether I possessed the necessary mentoring capacities to adequately support the educators. As an educator mentoring my colleagues, would I have the requisite mentoring skills to result in outcomes that could contribute effectively to their learning and development? My learning and development as a mentor became my focus. I desired to recognise my abilities as a mentor, and build my mentoring capacity for my benefit and the benefit of my mentees. Learning for me became a matter of attempting to close the gap between what I perceived

as my shortcoming in mentoring skills and the kind of mentor I desired to be. In order to improve in my practice I needed to grow to close this gap. After reflecting on my capacities, I realised that my many years of experience gave me the pedagogic and administrative knowledge that could be adequate to support an educator, and urge them in the right direction to explore their own learning. In my assessment, what I needed to strengthen to make me an effective mentor was the necessary behavioural attributes (Cohen, 1995: 3; Daloz, 1999:22; Galbraith, 2003:12). I realised that as a mentor I would not be telling educators what to do. Rather, I would be supporting, guiding and encouraging them in accomplishing what *they* wanted to achieve. My research and reading in this area led me to identify the attributes of listening, questioning and providing feedback (Cohen, 1995:28; Fibkins, 2002:48; Galbraith, 2003:12; Harrison et al., 2005:437; Scwiebert, 2000:103; Ramaswani and Dreher, 2007:225) as skills within me that needed to be enhanced to facilitate an environment where learning and development could take place within a mentoring relationship.

The aim of this self study is to initiate an individual mentoring intervention that will support and guide educators and equip them with capacities to cope with the challenges facing them from the external environment. In the process, I will utilise this intervention to improve my mentoring practice. Because this intervention will be targeted towards solving an organisational concern, it is expected that our learning and development will result in benefits for the organisation.

1.6 Motivation for the study

My study focuses on the question of how to support and guide educators in the VET educational institution in their learning and development at an individual level. It is about creating mentoring opportunities for educators at every career stage, regardless of how long they have been in the teaching profession. Ongoing mentoring of educators at all career stages is the best way to help them to learn and develop individually in their practice and effectively meet the challenges facing educational institutions today.

As educational institutions face the challenges that are brought about by the changes taking place in their environments, it is possible that these organisations may not move to

confront the implications of these changes at the pace expected by the educators in the institution. The educational institution often has no control over the changes from the external environment impacting on their internal processes (Cummings and Worley, 2005:85). The organisation may not readily intervene to provide the necessary support for the educators to meet the challenges facing them in a timely manner. My argument is that there will be educators with more experience and seniority in the VET educational institution who will find solutions to the organisation's demand for change rather than wait for a system wide initiative from the organisation. Those educators will take up the professional challenge to initiate mentoring relationships and provide an opportunity for growth and development for all involved. Such an intervention will assist other educators acquire the requisite capacities to meet the challenges brought by the external environment. As one such educator, I identified that mentoring could be a viable option for educators in my institution to learn and develop professionally.

The above argument is consistent with the issue already highlighted where educators often take charge of their own development to keep themselves abreast of the changes occurring in their environments. Initiating mentoring as a developmental intervention may accrue benefits for the educators participating in the relationship, as well as the organisation. Educators within the institutions can take advantage of this available opportunity for knowledge sharing. Mentoring can be utilised as an individual organisational development approach with learning and development outcomes. There are three pertinent issues that arise from this argument.

Firstly, the learning and development of an individual educator may result in benefits for the organisation. Cummings and Worley (2005:407) suggest that by developing one member of the organisation, the whole organisation stands to benefit. Mentoring is an individual organisational development approach that attempts to improve the performance of those who participate in it. This approach can be used for moving knowledge through the organisation from the people who have the most experience to those who require the knowledge. Once acquired, this knowledge and skills can assist educators meet the challenges facing them from external forces. At their individual level, without the direct involvement of the management, the educator may initiate interventions that may provide the transformational changes required by the educators to meet the challenges they face.

Secondly, through mentoring, educators can be assisted to acquire knowledge and skills at their individual level. The acquisition of such capacities would result in change in the behaviour of the educators. The learning and development of the educators can provide them with the capacity to handle the challenges they face in their practice. The change in behaviour brought about by mentoring could result in the educators improving their practice.

Thirdly, the mentoring relationship can be a vehicle through which the mentor builds their mentoring capacities. Mentors need to be capable and confident of their abilities to share and transfer knowledge to their mentees (Barnett, 1995:55). Taking advantage of the mentoring relationship to improve mentoring capacities can ensure the learning and development of the mentor from this perspective.

The discussion above highlights the three major research objectives in this study. Firstly, I used mentoring practice as an organisational development intervention to initiate change to the organisation and enhance its ability to cope with the changes taking place in its environment. Secondly, I used mentoring practice as the vehicle through which individual educators could acquire knowledge and skills and improve their practice. Thirdly, I endeavoured to improve my mentoring capacity and become more effective in my role to assist educators in their learning and development. The holistic view of this study is that mentoring did not only have a positive impact on us as a group of educators, but also had a positive impact on GTC as the organisation we worked in.

The following three research questions guide this research:

- 1.How can the principles and practices of mentoring be explored to assist in individual learning in a VET educational institution as a 'learning organisation'?
- 2.How can mentees use their learning and development to contribute to the principles and practices of mentoring in a VET educational institution?
- 3.How can mentors use their learning and development to contribute to the principles and practices of mentoring in a VET educational institution?

1.7 Relevance of mentoring

From the proceeding discussion, mentoring appears to be a viable option as an organisational development intervention for the learning and development of educators. This assertion is underscored by researchers in mentoring literature. Researchers have begun paying increasing attention to mentoring in organisations and have acclaimed mentoring as a conduit to human resource development (Allen and Eby, 2003:469; Cummings and Worley, 2005:408; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:447; Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge, 2008:277; McCauley, 2005:443). Special attention has been afforded to mentoring as it relates to professional development of educators (Bennetts, 1995:38; Cunningham, 1999:441; Healy and Welchert, 1990:17; Page et al., 2005:5; Palepu, 2001:776; Sands, Parson and Duane, 1991:174; Semeniuk and Worrall, 2003:408). There are several assertions in literature that mentoring results in individual development (Allen and Poteet, 1999:59; Blunt, 1995:38; Cunningham, 1999:441; Eby, 1997:126; Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng and DuBois, 2008:254; Farmer, 2005:138; Healy and Welchert, 1990:19; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:446; Kram, 1988:66; Lankau and Scandura, 2002:779; Singh, Bains and Vinnicombe, 2002:398) and is an intervention that is used by educational institutions to improve knowledge sharing (Baker, 2002:35; Bernier, Larose and Soucy, 2005:40; Ferman, 2002:147; Jacobi, 1991:506).

Mentoring has been used successfully in educational institutions and resulted in improved accomplishments, enhanced teaching effectiveness, increased job satisfaction, heightened productivity and retention of educators (Cunningham, 1999:442; Goodwin, Stevens and Bellamy, 1998:334). These are critical reasons why mentoring should be considered a viable organisational development intervention for the personal and professional development of educators. Mentoring may provide educators with the confidence and capacity that they require to handle challenges at their individual levels. As a result of individual learning, the mentoring relationship the educators engage in may result in group dynamics that impact positively on the organisation. Consequently, this study resonates with the field of Organisational Behaviour, and therefore it is important that the link between mentoring and this field of study is articulated.

Wood, Chapman, Fromholtz, Morison, Wallace and Zeffane (2004:4) define organisational behaviour as the 'systematic study of individuals and groups in organisations'.

Appelbaum, Ritchie and Shapiro (1994:3) assert that the practice of mentoring fits within the domain of organisational behaviour. This is because mentoring is observable behaviour between two people within the organisation which results in learning and development (Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:446; Kram, 1988:66; Lankau and Scandura, 2002:779). The learning that is an outcome of mentoring can result in positive change in individual and organisational behaviour (Huber, 1991:89; Leroy and Ramanantsoa, 1997:873). Mentoring influences individual, group and organisational processes in different ways as the practice introduces change in attitude and behaviour of those involved (Kram, 1988:6). Because mentoring is an interpersonal relationship between two people, it is social in nature. The learning that takes place within a social context achieves its aims through the reciprocal interactions among people, behaviour and environment (Wood et al., 2004:181). Thus, the social, dynamic and evolving nature of mentoring makes it a relationship that impacts on the entire organisation (Garvey and Alred, 2000b:124). Therefore, mentoring as an individual development approach resonates directly with the field of Organisational Behaviour.

1.8 Purpose of the study

Mentoring is a popular and effective means of transferring knowledge and skills from an experienced educator to a less experienced one (Fibkins, 2002:6; Nicholls, 2002:139). Despite the growing body of knowledge on mentoring, literature on this subject is still fairly young and many questions remain poorly answered or have yet to be investigated (Allen, Eby, O'Brien and Lentz, 2008:348; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:447). Much of what we know is based on limited definitions of mentoring and questionable assumptions about causal links (Willcoxson, 2006:13). Relatively little research has focused on mentoring as it relates to learning within the workplace (Allen and Eby, 2003:469; Hale, 2000:227; Hezlett, 2005:524; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:458; Lankau and Scandura, 2002:779). Little attention has been given to the process of how educators at all levels in the educational institution can develop in order to keep abreast with new developments in curriculum systems and processes.

The purpose of this study is therefore to explore how the principles and practices of mentoring can be utilised to assist in enhancing the individual learning and development

of educators in one VET educational institution. This study explores the experiences of three educators undergoing mentoring, with an attempt to explore how their learning, through experiencing mentoring relationships, contributes to their personal and professional development. The three individuals in this study are myself and my two mentees. To enhance our exploration and understanding of mentoring and provide a holistic view of the mentoring relationship, I have approached this investigation from the perspective of the mentor and that of the mentees.

The intent and focus of this enquiry is to add to the organisational behaviour knowledge base through an exploratory study by investigating how mentoring can be utilised as an organisational development intervention to facilitate individual learning by educators in one VET educational institution. This research study contributes to the understanding of how mentoring capacities and the principles and practices that inform the mentoring process present themselves in a VET educational institution.

1.9 Research methodology

This study occurs within a qualitative research paradigm. In qualitative research numerous forms of data are collected and examined from various angles to construct a meaningful picture of a multifaceted situation. Qualitative research is 'subjective in nature and involves examining and reflecting on perceptions in order to gain an understanding of social and human activities' (Collins and Hussey, 2003:13). This research methodology seeks to answer research questions through the exploration of meaning of a social phenomenon. It is a subjective method that explores abstract situations in social settings where deductions are made through observed behaviour.

Action research is the methodological procedure that is applied in this enquiry. This is a research approach that has a cyclical analytical process, alternating between action and reflection (Dick, 1993:12; Dickens and Watkins, 1999:127; Kemmis and McTaggart, 1981:8). Action research is commonly used in the field of Organisational Development (Huber, 1991:92) and in education research by both educators and managers (Feldman, 2003:26; McNiff, 2002:5) in attempts to bring about change in the organisation. In this study, action research cycles are effectively utilised in the various data collection techniques to enhance rich and informative data. Face-to-face mentoring conversations,

personal reflective journals, and focus group interviews are used as the data sources. These sources provide the insights which inform the conclusions that are drawn at the end of the study.

Within the action research method, a self study research approach (McNiff, 2002:20; Northfield, 1996:3; Taylor and Settelmaier, 2003:233; Whitehead, 1988:43) is utilised to investigate the issues being explored. Effective self study is enhanced by collaboration with participants, as the problems under investigation are also viewed through the eyes of these participants (Freebody, 2003:87; McNiff, 2002:6; Northfield, 1996:5). Self study, therefore, is a collaborative activity. The personal development of the individual researcher is highlighted as an important outcome of self study and through this learning comes the generation of new knowledge (McNiff, 2002:22; Northfield, 1996:9; Taylor and Settelmaier, 2003:233; Whitehead, 1988:43).

This study presents an innovative action research design incorporating the principles of self study (McNiff, 2002:20; Northfield, 1996:3; Taylor and Settelmaier, 2003:233; Whitehead, 1988:43). The research targets the learning experiences of three individuals, in an attempt to explore how their learning, through experiencing mentoring relationships, could influence the eventual learning and change of the organisation. Through the formation of mentoring relationships our mentoring 'journey of awareness' (Jousse, 2000:25) takes us through an exploration of mentoring practice that results in reflective insights from all participants about the mentoring process. Through reflective practice, interaction and dialogue with my mentees, I evaluate the outcomes of these mentoring relationships and contribute to a deeper understanding of the mentoring process.

1.10 Structure of the thesis

This chapter introduces the problem under investigation, the context in which the problem exists, and the significance of my research study to mentoring and its relevance to the field of Organisational Behaviour. The issue of how mentoring can be utilised as an individual organisational development intervention to assist in the learning and development of educators in a VET educational institution in Botswana, and equipping these educators with the necessary capacity to cope with challenges brought about by the external

environment is explained. The notion that educators in the institution can initiate the intervention that results in this professional development is introduced.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature on principles and practices of mentoring. Pertinent issues underlying the definition of mentoring are explored, and a working definition for the study advanced. Developmental models of mentoring are reviewed, with a view to establishing their suitability in mentoring practice with professional development objectives. The subject of mentor development is reviewed as a pertinent aspect of building mentoring capacities. The chapter also reviews the impacts of mentoring on the mentee, the mentor and the organisation.

Chapter 3 reviews the literature on the concept of learning with the view of contextualising learning within mentoring practice. An exploration is made of how individual learning can contribute to the learning of the organisation. Approaches to individual learning that encourage learning in a mentoring relationship are presented. The link between learning and the mentoring process is also established. How individual learning in mentoring practice relates to the field of Organisational Behaviour is articulated.

Chapter 4 presents the research methods used in this study. The use of qualitative research is discussed and the rationale for adopting an action research approach is presented. A justification of the adoption of a self study approach is also presented. The chapter outlines a comprehensive design in line with the action research approach. Action research cycles that clarify how data will be gathered to evidence the learning and development of the participants are presented. The chapter outlines the background of the participants in the study, data collection methods used and the data analysis procedures applied.

Chapter 5 provides the findings drawn from the perspective of the mentees. Evidence of the learning and development of the mentees through the mentoring process is presented. How the mentees have grown and changed on this mentoring journey is exemplified. Detailed illustrative descriptions are included to portray the voices of the mentees in significant detail as an attempt to share the 'lived experiences' (Whitehead, 1988:43) of the educators with others.

Chapter 6 provides the findings presented from my perspective as the mentor. Evidence of my learning and development in the mentoring process is presented. I include detailed illustrative descriptions of my 'lived experiences' (Whitehead, 1988:43) to clarify how I improved my mentoring capacity.

Chapter 7 presents the discussion on the findings and concludes the study. In this final chapter, I present my personal reflections on my experience as a mentor. The outcomes of the mentoring project intervention from the perspectives of the educators, and the organisation are discussed. An analysis of how individual learning and development, through mentoring, impacted on the ability of the educators to face the challenges in their environment is offered. Implications for practice and recommendations related to the findings are suggested, reflections on the research method presented, and suggestions for future research made. Conclusions are also drawn from the study.

1.11 Conclusion

This study took place in GTC, a VET educational institution in Botswana, and explores mentoring practice within this context. An action research approach, incorporating self study principles was utilised. The study presents an exploration of the principles and practices of mentoring through the 'lived experiences' (Whitehead, 1988:43) of three educators involved in mentoring relationships. This exploration was designed to investigate the learning and development of these educators through mentoring and how their learning and development contributed to the learning of their organisation. This mentoring journey presents the unique learning experiences of educators in a VET educational institution, through the mentoring process, from the perspectives of both the mentees and the mentor. Overall, this study results in an increased understanding of mentoring practice and adds to the organisational behaviour knowledge base.

In the next chapter, a literature review pertaining to mentoring practice is presented.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW: MENTORING

The objective of this chapter is to review literature on the concept of mentoring. The chapter is divided into seven main sections. The first section provides a historic perspective of the mentoring process. The second section reviews pertinent issues on the definition of mentoring. The third section presents the types of mentoring. Informal mentoring and formal mentoring are discussed. The fourth section looks at developmental models of mentoring, and reviews role modelling, career and psychosocial functions. The fifth section examines the stages of the mentoring process. The sixth section discusses the theory surrounding the development of the mentor. Finally, the impact of mentoring on mentees, mentors and the organisation is explored in the seventh section.

2.1 The mentoring process

In general terms, mentoring has rich historical roots. Daloz (1999:17) observes that mentors have been around for a long time, acting as guides, leading us through the journey of life. In this light, mentors are seen as people willing to give their time to teach and nurture others. To gain an understanding of mentoring, it is important to look at its origins and evolution. A historical perspective of mentoring is thus offered.

The historical roots of the term mentoring can be traced back to Homer's mythological tale, *The Odyssey* (Baker, 2002:35; Carruthers, 1993:9; Chao, Walz and Gardner, 1992:619; Healy and Welchert, 1990:17; Russell and Adams, 1997:1). In this story, when Odysseus, the leader of Ithaca, went off to fight the Trojan War, he entrusted his friend, Mentor, with the care, guidance and education of his son, Telemachus. The story describes how Athena, a spiritual goddess, often impersonated Mentor and offered direction, guidance and inspiration to the young man. The role given to Mentor meant that he, or in actual fact the goddess Athena, had to be a teacher, a role model, a trusted advisor, among other things to the young Telemachus, in order to bring him up to become a good and wise leader. As time passed, the concept embodied in this mythology evolved into the term 'Mentor' that is used today.

The generic meaning of a mentor, as presented in this Greek story, is an older, wiser and experienced person (mentor) who protects, sponsors, guides and instructs a younger individual (mentee) in many aspects of life (Ehrich and Hansford, 1999:92; Healy and Welchert, 1990:18; Woodd, 1997:334). Mentoring is seen as one of the oldest forms of human development where one person invests time, energy and personal knowhow in assisting in the growth and skill of another person (Shea, 1992:5). Although the Greek mythical tale is one of the most referenced as the origin of mentoring, it is important to note that its reference is generally to the term 'mentor' rather than the mentoring process. It has been established that the actual relationship of mentoring goes back much further than this tale. Carruthers (1993:10) mentions that the mentoring relationship has been traced as far back as biblical times, where it is recorded in the book of Exodus that Moses and Joshua were in a mentoring relationship. Such observation asserts the presence of mentoring in our midst from time immemorial.

Clutterbuck (2004:171) explores the origin of mentoring from the apprenticeship viewpoint. Mentoring has played a significant role in the transference of knowledge and skill from generation to generation. He considers mentoring as having its roots in the apprenticeship system and describes how the old master passed down knowledge of how a task was done. Apprenticeship is defined as learning a trade under the guidance of an expert (Monaghan and Lunt, 1992:249). The experienced master works to mould his apprentice and watches with pride as the apprentice picks up the master's knowledge and skills. This apprenticeship notion places mentoring firmly within an organisational development framework and changes the perception on the developmental objectives of mentoring. This view establishes that the foundations of mentoring take into account not only the personal development of individuals, but their professional development as well. This view also takes us away from the views of mentoring that focus on the mentee as the main beneficiary of such a relationship, to one that is more of a mutual relationship where both the mentee and the mentor stand to gain from the relationship.

Though we may acknowledge the diversity of mentoring as a developmental intervention, and the possibilities open to its use, many papers presented by authors and researchers alike make reference to the Greek mythological tale. The mythological origin of the term 'mentoring' has continued to influence and dominate the perception of researchers in the

field of mentoring in their attempts towards deriving a definition of mentoring that can advance mentoring research on a common ground effectively.

2.2 Defining mentoring

Mentoring has attracted a lot of academic interest in the past two decades. However, though the subject of mentoring has been widely researched, and despite the wealth of published material on the subject, there is minimal agreement on many aspects of mentoring (Bozeman and Feeney, 2007:721; Galbraith, 2003:10; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:447; Jacobi, 1991:505). There is an absence of a single widely accepted operational definition of mentoring. In different contexts, doubts have been raised whether what is being practiced as mentoring is actually mentoring at all (Chao, 1998:333; Goodwin et al., 1998:334). This brings to the fore the importance of examining the issues surrounding the lack of a universally accepted definition of mentoring.

The theoretical definitions of mentoring generally converge in describing mentoring as an intense, professional relationship between a mentor and a mentee that is mainly used to develop the mentee (Chao, 1998:333; Raabe and Beehr, 2003:271). Empirical studies that have examined mentoring often fall short of going further than this general view (Chao, 1998:333). The reason for this is that researchers approach mentoring from different perspectives and schools of thought. Arising from this diversity, researchers are in agreement that there is a lack of consensus on the definition of mentoring (Baker, 2002:35; Chao, 1998:333; Clutterbuck, 2004:11; Ehrich and Hansford, 1999:92; Healy and Welchert 1990:17; Jacobi, 1991:505; Kartje, 1996:115; Sands et al., 1991:176; Woodd, 1997:336). Highlighting an African perspective, Mohamed (1996:58) advances the notion that mentoring is a shared experience among individuals bound by community to one another. Mohamed alludes that mentoring is akin to the experience of being part of a community, part of a village. This becomes more relevant in an educational institution situated in Africa where cultural values are apparent even in organisational circles. This view focuses on mentoring as a relationship where learning takes place within a social context.

Another contentious issue involves reference to one's line manager as a mentor. Researchers have questioned whether or not a supervisor can be a mentor (Bozeman and Feeney, 2007:725; Burke, McKenna and McKeen, 1991:459; Eby, 1997:126; Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994:1588). Bozeman and Feeney (2007:725), in their critique of the mentoring concept, contend that a line manager can also act as an effective mentor. The authors reiterate that 'saying that one's boss cannot be a mentor results in an unrealistic delimitation' (Bozeman and Feeney, 2007:726). However, even with this assertion, the authors do recognise that there is a grey area in distinguishing between good supervisors and supervisors who mentor their subordinates.

It is intriguing that a subject so widely researched and published still lacks a universally accepted definition. There continue to be research contributions that offer differing views, based on arguments advanced on the perspective of mentoring most apparent to the researcher. Healy and Welchert (1990:17) observe that a number of definitions of mentoring presented in literature are contradictory, because many of these definitions 'frequently lack grounding in theory'. Sands et al. (1991:176) and Darwin (2000:199) place the lack of a definitive definition on the fact that researchers will have different definitions of the term depending on the context of their study. Clutterbuck (2004:11) concurs with this view and suggests that each mentoring definition seems to depend on the purpose, context or expectations of the specific mentoring relationship. Baker (2002:35) attributes the lack of a universal definition to the fact that the concept and practice of mentoring is dynamic and not static. This assertion shifts the argument back to the contextual factors surrounding the mentoring process. Kartje (1996:115) suggests the differences become apparent because of the subjective way we each draw meaning from our different mentoring experiences. Higgins and Kram (2001:266) add to this debate by stating that the confusion currently surrounding the lack of a common definition of mentoring arises because researchers are studying different types of mentoring.

It is apparent from the views outlined above that mentoring is not a neat and precise activity. It means different things to different people. It is also apparent that different definitions of mentoring will reflect the context in which the research is being conducted. It can be inferred that a mentoring relationship will present itself in many different ways, and be influenced by differing perspectives, depending on the aim of the mentoring relationship. For example, the mentoring relationship may be influenced by the context of

the study, the personalities of the participants, and the histories of these participants. Mentoring may also be influenced by the point of view the organisation holds about the process. The challenge in articulating a definition that is universally acceptable is constructing one that goes beyond the contextual or social nature of the mentoring relationship.

As previously mentioned, research conducted in mentoring has been evident in several fields of study. These fields include areas such as psychology, business and education. These disciplines all have different objectives they would like to attain through mentoring. As articulated above, the view the discipline holds of mentoring, and the environment in which the mentoring is practiced, will influence the definition of the mentoring relationship. It is therefore considered prudent to review some of these definitions from different disciplines with the aim of gaining further understanding and clarity of the mentoring practice. This review is also carried out with the aim of establishing a working definition to guide my study.

2.2.1 A definition from psychology

From the perspective of psychology, the pioneering work of Levinson, Carrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978) is considered the basis upon which the foundations of mentoring research lie (Healy and Welchert, 1990:17; Jacobi, 1991:506).

Levinson et al. (1978:23) who carried out an all male study, define a mentor as ‘a transitional figure who invites and welcomes a young man into the adult world. He serves as a teacher, guide, or sponsor. He represents skill, knowledge, virtue and accomplishment – the superior qualities a young man hopes to someday acquire. The mentor relationship is one of the most complex, and developmentally important a man can have in early adulthood.’

The above definition draws its essence from the original Greek mythology. The emphasis appears to be on the personal development of the mentee, rather than on professional development. The mentor is viewed as an older, well rounded and experienced individual, nurturing a much younger individual who has just commenced their chosen career. It is

apparent that the fundamental objective of the mentee is aspiring to be like the mentor. Although the significant contribution of Levinson et al.'s (1978) study to mentoring research cannot be understated, the methodology used to arrive at their definition of mentoring can be challenged. Their definition of mentoring and the all male sample used for the study does not appear to support the multi-faceted conceptualisation of mentoring apparent in today's contemporary organisations.

2.2.2 A definition from management

Researchers regard Kram's (1988) work as the first systematic exploration of mentoring. This work has been influential in directing early mentoring research and practice, providing a solid foundation on which mentoring research has been advanced (Fowler and O'Gorman, 2005:51; Raabe and Beehr, 2003:272). My study reviews Kram's (1988) work as a means of exploring mentoring from an organisational development perspective.

Kram (1988:2) defines mentoring as 'a relationship between a young adult and an older, more experienced adult that helps the younger individual learn to navigate in the adult world and the world of work. A mentor supports guides and counsels the young adult as he or she accomplishes this important task.'

Similar to Levinson's et al.'s (1978:23) definition, Kram's (1988) definition is also influenced by the original definition of 'mentor' as presented in the Greek mythology described above. The perspective of the mentor being an older more powerful individual is apparent. The definition does, however, introduce the important aspect of the developmental nature of mentoring in work situations. It highlights the personal and professional development that is critical in a mentoring relationship.

2.2.3 A definition from higher education

Anderson (1987) presents a definition in an academic setting, stating 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 in the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and the protégé'. (Anderson, 1987 in Anderson and Shannon, 1995:29).

The definition from higher education seems to have more inferences than those from the field of Psychology and the field of Management. Anderson's (1987) definition accentuates both the personal and professional developmental functions. The mentoring relationship has the objective of helping the mentee to achieve their developmental goals. This definition suggests the important aspect of mentees achieving self direction in their learning within the mentoring relationship. Anderson's (1987) definition also posits the skill and experience level of the mentor as being an essential ingredient in a mentoring relationship, and diminishes the emphasis of the age differences inherent in the definitions from the other disciplines.

2.2.4 Synthesis of the definitions presented

Empirical studies claiming to examine the mentoring construct have often not offered a definition of mentoring. The definitions highlighted above indicate a general agreement that mentoring is a caring relationship where individual growth and advancement occurs. Other than this agreement it is apparent that no uniform definition of mentor or mentoring exists. The review of literature points to the fact that defining mentoring is problematic because the nature and number of activities linked to the concept and practice of mentoring seem to be growing every day. It is clear that researchers have diverse definitions of mentoring alluding to different forms of mentoring practice. The fragmentation of the literature on mentoring however, continue to direct researchers back to the pioneering work of Levinson et al. (1978) and Kram (1988). Although it can be argued that the core meaning of mentoring remains the same, the lack of conceptual clarity brought about by multiple meanings add complexity and probably ambiguity to the concept of mentoring.

The spectrum of definitions available in the literature supports Merriam's (1983:169) observation that 'the phenomenon of mentoring is not clearly conceptualised, leading to confusion as to just what is being measured or offered as an ingredient in success.

Mentoring appears to mean one thing to a developmental psychologist, another thing to business people, and a third thing to those in academic settings'. These different definitions, however, do not imply that any one of them is incorrect, but rather, that the researchers do not share the same perception of mentoring.

It may be noted that opinions are varied around references to the positional relationship of the mentor to the mentee and age differences, which suggest that the mentor is somewhat older than the mentee. However, with the dramatic changes that have occurred in organisations in recent years with respect to who holds the knowledge and expertise, these characterisations no longer fit the modern mentor/mentee profile. It is not impossible that a younger more experienced educator would mentor an older less experienced educator in specific teaching methodologies. Such shifts in organisational demographics, and the turbulent changes that today's organisations experience will influence the way that mentoring is perceived.

The foregoing review clarify that there is a lack of consensus of a definitive definition of mentoring. These definitions do not recognise the essence of a mutual mentoring relationship, such as the necessity of a reciprocal and developmental process for both the mentor and the mentee. Despite this position, this study should have a working definition to guide the research. Anderson's (1987) definition appears to encompass the necessary attributes of this study. However, in my opinion, the definition could be strengthened in three ways. Firstly, the definition of mentoring requires accentuation of the fact that as the mentoring progresses, *learning* takes place simultaneously to development. Indeed, learning and development are synonymous. As one learns, development takes place, and vice versa. Secondly, the addition of a reference to the learning of the mentor would augment the definition. Through the mentor adopting a critical reflective position in the mentoring relationship, the mentor becomes a learner too. This addition would highlight my view of mentoring as a relationship that results in the learning and development of *both the mentee and the mentor*. Thirdly, the definition would be strengthened by a clear indication of the players who benefit from such a relationship. In a learning and developmental process in the workplace benefits from mentoring would not only accrue to the mentee, but also to the mentor and to the organisation where the mentoring relationship is situated.

Therefore, for the purpose of my study, I have adapted the definition that is advanced by Anderson (1987) to describe mentoring as:

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 professional and/or personal *learning and development of both the participants, to the benefit of the mentee, the mentor and the organisation*. Mentoring functions are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and the mentee.

This definition is used in my study as a means to explore the components that make up the principles and practices of mentoring as presented in literature. This definition is also appropriate for an exploration of mentoring in the context of an educational institution, which forms my study environment. It is a definition that suggests that educators both as mentors and mentees can learn and develop through the mentoring process. Mentoring as a developmental intervention can be presented in different ways to achieve developmental objectives in the educational institution. The following section will present the types of mentoring that may exist to achieve developmental aims.

2.3 Types of mentoring

There are basically two types of mentoring, informal mentoring and formal mentoring. There are differences between formal and informal mentoring relationships that may impact the mentor's roles in educational institutions. These differences involve the way the relationship is initiated, the structure of the relationship, and the processes involved in the relationship (Chao, Walz, and Gardner, 1992:620; Healy and Welchert, 1990:18). This section reviews literature on informal and formal mentoring.

2.3.1 Informal mentoring

Informal mentoring is usually a simple arrangement where a more experienced member of an organisation takes a less experienced member under their wing and provides guidance, advice and support with no intervention or formal recognition by the organisation (Chao et al., 1992: 620; Mathews, 2003:317; Russell and Adams, 1997:4). This type of mentoring

relies on relationships arising spontaneously and naturally (Baker, 2002:36; Chao et al., 1992:620).

By nature informal relationships evolve unconsciously and progressively over a period of time as the result of a series of interactions. During this period the mentor and mentee establish trust, mutual respect, honesty, and openness. The strength of informal mentoring is that it addresses people's needs and thoughts as they evolve, in a free flowing manner with no set agenda or plan (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996:46). In educational institutions, informal mentoring appears to develop on the basis of shared interests and admiration, or mutual identification. Noe (1988:458) observes that such mentoring relationships involve discussions beyond career-related issues to more personal sharing of interests, needs and values. This means that the social aspects in such relationships are more noticeable.

There is no doubt that informal mentoring would exist in any VET educational institution. Mentoring is a human activity that is bound to be present in a community that works together towards common goals. In such a case, the natural and spontaneous characteristic of informal mentoring becomes its strength. However, in a relationship where specific developmental objectives are desired within a specific timeframe, this strength may well be a liability. Informal mentoring has been viewed as a relationship that leaves too much to chance, having no timeframes, with the mentoring participants being unaware of the developmental impact of the relationship (Singh et al., 2002:390; Raabe and Beehr, 2003:271). Informal mentoring has been accused of not having a framework in which to operate effectively (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:189; Hale, 2000:224). This is one of the major reasons why formal mentoring has been embraced by organisations in practically every field of work.

Researchers generally agree that adding a certain degree of formality to informal mentoring relationships may result in positive dynamics and outcomes emanating from the relationship (Darwin, 2000:207; Goodwin et al., 1998:334; Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:253; Singh et al., 2002:391; Woodd, 1997:336). Learning objectives that are clearly articulated and monitored can bring focus and structure to a mentoring relationship, and increase the chances of attaining desired developmental goals (Hale, 2000:224; Singh et al., 2002:402). Rather than focusing on informal mentoring in organisational settings, many organisations have taken the option of introducing formal mentoring programmes.

2.3.2 Formal mentoring

Formal mentoring, as opposed to informal mentoring, is usually carefully planned, structured and monitored by the organisation (Baker, 2002:36; Chao et al., 1992:620; 4; Raabe and Beehr, 2003:271; Russell and Adams, 1997; Singh et al., 2002:390). The mentoring process is initiated through mentoring programmes, which are planned interventions or programmes designed to construct mentor relationships. Formal mentoring arrangements are created as a developmental intervention by the organisation. The mentoring relationships involve a clear goal and stated objectives, a timeframe for learning, and an exit strategy. This means that a clear map is drawn of where the relationship is expected to go, and both the mentor and the mentee are made aware of this roadmap. The benefits of formal mentoring programmes have led to many educational institutions implementing such programmes, hoping to reap maximum organisational benefits.

There are formal mentoring programmes in educational institutions in South Africa that have resulted in positive outcomes (Geber, 2006:100). Speedy (2003:8) recounts a successful action research mentoring experience in a South African educational institution where formal mentoring resulted in the learning and development of young African educators. In this action research project, mentors were gratified with the transformational change in the behaviour of their mentees that resulted in highly satisfactory developmental outcomes. Although I was not able to access much literature on mentoring in Africa, such evidence indicates that educational institutions in Africa are attempting to utilise mentoring as a developmental intervention for educators, to achieve specific developmental goals such as improved teaching and retention of educators. Such evidence also highlights the need to have mentors who possess adequate mentoring capacities and understand better the contextual factors inherent in African educational institutions.

There are few models of mentoring which focus specifically on transformation within the African context. Geber (2004) presents an indigenous transformational mentoring model that may easily be integrated into the mentoring agenda of educational institutions in Africa. Using a model originating from Africa increases the chances of educational institutions in Africa internalising the changes resulting from mentoring, and ensuring the

long term impact of organisational change. Transformational mentoring acknowledges that both mentee and mentor can gain from the mentoring relationship (Gehrkes, 1998:192). Geber (2004) contends that the transformational process within the mentoring relationship can result in effective change and contribute positively to organisational learning. The mentor can support and guide the mentee to create a vision for their future, internalise their learning and participate in collaboration in the educational institution. Ricks and van Gyn's (1997:42) research on factors that contribute to a successful mentoring relationship demonstrated that all mentees need to be developed as individuals having unique needs and backgrounds. Ricks and van Gyn (1997:42) assert that a mentor who facilitates in a manner which allows the mentee to explore choices and make decisions encourages transformation. Achieving this level of development means the mentee's ability to engage in personal and social change is enhanced.

Unlike the behavioural or psychosocial aspect, which forms the basis for initiation of informal relationships, formal arrangements are based on the assumption that 'learning the ropes' (Kram, 1988:25) facilitates the professional development of the mentee. From this perspective, a mentor would be viewed as the equivalent of a coach or advisor and typically 'would not exert the more intense, persuasive influence characteristics of classic mentoring' (Merriam, 1983:167). The mentors and the mentees are matched, often without consultation of either party (Allen and Eby, 2003:471) and it is expected by the organisation that the relationship will work to the benefit of the participants. The matching of mentoring pairs in formal mentoring programmes may result in mismatches, where the pair find difficulty in working together, thus putting the mentoring relationship at risk (Singh et al., 2002:390). Formal mentoring programmes come at a cost, and the organisation expects to accrue benefits from the relationship to justify the investment outlay. This means that the organisation that implements a formal mentoring programme has to install the relevant reporting systems that would provide adequate feedback on the impact of mentoring. The stringent framework in which formal mentoring operates has been cited as one of its weaknesses (Alred and Garvey, 2000:270; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:450; Singh et al., 2002:390). The formality inherent in formal programmes can stifle the evolution of a creative, safe and personal relationship which might otherwise provide desired benefits. Even those educators who volunteer to be mentors in formal programmes may feel as though they are just doing their job. Such an attitude may result in less enjoyment from the relationship.

There are those researchers who maintain that informal mentoring will result in more benefits than formal mentoring (Chao, 1998:337; Chao et al., 1992:633; Ferman, 2002:153; Healy and Welchert, 1990:18; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:450; Singh et al., 2002:391;), while others advance that formal mentoring also has much to offer (Baker, 2002:36; Egan and Song, 2008:359; Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:189; Orpen, 1997:53; Raabe and Beehr, 2003:271). Researchers advocating formal mentoring highlight the fact that this type of mentoring is more structured and therefore can be directed towards desired outcomes. It is said that when occurring in a structured environment, there is a higher chance of the desired outcomes being achieved by the mentees, the mentor and the organisation. Informal mentoring on the other hand is difficult to control (Hale, 2000:224). Those researchers advocating for informal mentoring highlight its benefits as the freedom of choice to be in the mentoring relationship. When the mentee and the mentor choose one another, they build deeper trust in the relationship. Such trust enhances communication between the parties. The other benefit is the lack of stringent organisational controls. There is no administrative structure in the relationship and it falls on the two people to drive the relationship in the direction they desire. As communication is the essence of an effective mentoring relationship, chances of achieving desired goals become quite high. In informal mentoring relationships, there are long term benefits that accrue to those involved in the mentoring process as well as society as a whole (Kram, 1988:2; Levinson et al., 1978:23).

Educational institutions that implement formal mentoring programmes obviously have identified and embraced the benefits that such a programme can bring to the organisation and the parties involved in it. However, due to the challenges that are faced by those who participate in formal mentoring programmes, the desire of many institutions has been to capture the potential benefits of mentoring that is apparent in informal mentoring, while retaining the benefits offered by formal programmes. Attempts have been made to carry out the mentoring process along a continuum ranging from informal mentoring to full fledged formal mentoring programmes. Flett (2002:12) refers to a hybrid type of mentoring that has some aspects of informality as well as some structural aspects as facilitated partnerships, and positions this type of mentoring at the centre of the continuum. Regardless of the type of mentoring that is adopted, the most important issue is the quality of

the mentoring relationship (Kram, 1988:32; Clutterbuck, 2005:2; Eby et al., 2006:437). Ensuring high quality in a mentoring relationship is part of the role of mentor.

2.4 Developmental models of mentoring

Within the mentoring process a mentor often assumes multiple roles to bring about the enhancement of the mentee's professional and personal development (Cohen, 1995:33; Galbraith, 2003:12). Megginson et al. (2006:17) clarify that there are basically two contrasting models of mentoring: the sponsorship model and the developmental model. The sponsorship model emphasises the growth of the mentee. In this model, 'the mentor gives, the protégé receives and the organisation benefits' (Scandura et al., 1996 cited in Megginson et al., 2006:17). The developmental model promotes a process of mutual growth, where the objective is the learning and development of all parties involved in the mentoring process. In the developmental models of mentoring, mentors are generally facilitators, assisting the mentees to achieve their learning goals (Megginson et al., 2006:17). The primary objective is personal development, from which career outcomes may also be achieved. Clutterbuck (2004:20) cautions that in practice sponsorship and developmental models of mentoring tend to blend, and have no clear boundaries. The two contrasting models of mentoring can be found in the works of Kram (1988) who supports the sponsorship model, and Cohen (1995) supporting the developmental model.

Kram's (1988) mentoring functions have been a prominent platform used by many researchers to define and assess mentoring (Allen and Eby, 2003:470; Chao, 1997:15; Fowler and O'Gorman, 2005:51; Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:44). Kram (1988:22) defines mentoring functions as 'those aspects of a developmental relationship that enhance both individuals' growth and advancement'. In her highly acclaimed ground breaking research conducted on informal mentoring, Kram (1988:23) studied the evolution and progression of workplace mentor/mentee relationships over time and classified the functions that emerged from mentoring relationships into two broad categories: Career development functions and psychosocial functions. Current research supports the idea that role modelling, initially conceptualised as a function under psychosocial mentoring, should be viewed as a third major mentoring function and not as a component of psychosocial functions (Geber, 2003a:5; Jacobi, 1991:510; Raabe and Beehr, 2003:272; Scandura and

Pellegrini, 2007:72). Given the prominence that role modelling can play in a mentoring relationship, this study will reflect a similar view.

Cohen (1995) presents a developmental model that provides guidance to educators who wish to improve their mentoring capacities. Cohen's (1995:189) model is placed particularly within the context of education and highlights six behavioural functions that, if keenly observed, can result in mentor effectiveness. Each of these functions is a role that the mentor can play at various points in the mentoring relationship. These six behavioural functions are relationship emphasis - to establish trust; information emphasis - to offer specific advice; facilitative focus - to introduce alternatives; confrontation focus - to challenge; mentor model - to motivate; and mentee vision - to encourage initiative (Cohen, 1995:3). This model can assist the mentor to identify the desirable behavioural characteristics that may be required in a developmental mentoring relationship.

While Kram's (1988) model is sponsorship-oriented, Cohen's (1995) model is development-oriented. Geber's (2003a:5) model presents a fusion of these two models, emphasising the developmental nature of mentoring desired by my study, while taking into account the sponsorship assumptions as articulated by Kram's (1988) study. Although there are authors who advocate that developmental mentoring is quite distinct from sponsorship mentoring (Clutterbuck, 2005:8), it is often the case that mentoring practice transcends functions in the two approaches. In this exploratory study of the principles and practices of mentoring, it is evident that a blend of these two models would be ideal. For this reason, Geber's (2003a:5) model is found to be suitable for this purpose. The mentoring roles depicted by Geber's (2003a:5) model are presented in Table 2.1. Guided by Geber's (2003a:5) model, this section goes on to elaborate on role modelling, career and psychosocial functions to gain a better understanding of mentoring roles that guide mentoring practice.

Table 2.1: Mentoring roles and functions

<p>Career development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sponsor/advocate • Coach • Protect • Provide challenging work assignments • Expose to opportunities • Give information • Give political information • Teach/explore facilitative dimension 	<p>Psychosocial</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Counsel • Acceptance and confirmation • Develop trust • Encourage • Guide • Engage in constructive confrontation • Provide friendship
<p>Role model</p>	

Geber, H. 2003a. *Setting up a Mentoring Programme*. Randburg, South Africa: Knowres publishing. p 5

2.4.1 Role modelling

Role modelling occurs when a mentor's attitudes, values and behaviour provide a model for the mentee to learn from and emulate (Kram, 1988:33). The mentee identifies with the example set by the mentor as the mentee aspires to achieve in the organisation. Role modelling succeeds because of the successful emotional attachment that is formed between the mentor and the mentee (Kram, 1988:34).

Hezlett and Gibson (2005:459) contend that role modelling is one of the main mentoring functions through which learning takes place in a mentoring relationship. They suggest that learning through observation may be a key part of mentoring relationships. This view has been supported by Lankau and Scandura (2002:787) who contend that observing and imitating a mentor's behaviour enhances the personal learning of the mentee. A mentee, observing the mentor's behaviour, learns faster without having to experience the challenges that come with the accumulation of experience. The mentee is also encouraged to ask questions and seek information about issues that they observe.

Role modelling may be a more effective and influential function if the mentor is instrumental in displaying it at a more conscious level. Cohen (1995:93) concurs with this view and asserts that role modelling should be a functional and active role. The mentee needs to observe and relate to the mentor consciously as a role model. On the part of the mentor, there should be clear actions that portray the mentor as a role model. Displaying approaches that show the mentor as a role model will assist in ensuring that the mentee has a realistic perception of the mentor. To portray the role modelling function, the mentor shares real life experiences and offers personal and positive thoughts about their success and failures.

The role modelling function is one that can effectively be utilised in an educational setting. Mentees can benefit immensely from collaboration with mentors in the educational institution. Mentors have the opportunity to share their experiences with the mentees, and allow the mentees to observe them in action, either teaching, or carrying out other administrative duties that are part of the teaching profession. These experienced educators can act as role models to others in the organisation observing their actions. Such observation can contribute significantly to the learning and development of educators who are less skilled in certain areas in their profession.

2.4.2 Career development functions

Career development functions enhance advancement in the organisation (Kram, 1988:24). These career development functions are usually possible due to the mentor's 'position, experience and organisational influence' (Kram, 1988:25). These functions also aid the mentee to 'learn the ropes of organisational life, gain exposure, and obtain promotions' (Kram, 1988:25). The career development functions play a critical role in the achievement of the professional development objectives desired in the mentoring relationship. To serve the developmental function, a mentor promotes professional growth by coaching, providing needed information and exercising organisational leverage. I expand on the mentoring roles that make up the career development function as presented in Table 2.1.

2.4.2.1 Sponsorship/Advocacy

According to Kram (1988:25), advocacy is the most frequently observed career development function. It involves 'actively nominating an individual for desirable lateral moves and promotions' (Kram, 1988:25). Through the advocacy role, the mentor helps the mentee to build a reputation, become known and obtain certain job opportunities that would prepare him or her for higher level positions (Kram, 1988:25). Through this function, the mentor recommends the mentee wherever possible for opportunities that will assist the mentee to achieve their desired developmental goals. The mentor is able to communicate with others about the mentee's abilities to take up challenges, and move into different positions.

2.4.2.2 Coaching

Coaching enhances the mentee's knowledge and understanding. Through this function, the mentor inspires self confidence and encouragement, providing frank but confidential feedback, sharing ideas and suggesting strategies for accomplishing work objectives (Kram, 1988:28). The mentor can enhance the coaching process by challenging the mentee's assumptions, being a critical friend, and demonstrating difficult or complicated tasks (Clutterbuck, 2004:17). The mentor provides vital information to the mentee that can assist in handling assignments effectively. The coaching function is enhanced when the mentor has valuable experience and knowledge of what the mentee aspires to achieve.

Hale (2000:227), in his study of the dynamics of mentoring as a route to personal and organisational learning, highlights the importance of coaching as a significant factor in the learning of mentees in a mentoring relationship. He presents a model that indicates that the knowledge and experiences of both the mentor and the mentee, when exhibited in an effective mentoring relationship, will yield insights that result in skill development on the part of the mentee. Hale (2000:228) defines insight as the capacity of the mentors and the mentees to reflect upon their abilities, and learn from these reflections. Cox (2003:20) concurs with Hale (2000:227) that coaching will be enhanced depending on the existing knowledge and experiences the mentor and the mentees bring into the relationship. Therefore, through coaching, a mentor can guide a mentee to acquire new skills or enhance skills they already possess, and at the same time, instil insight that can take the

mentee beyond the task at hand. Using coaching from the mentoring perspective creates a more rounded and richer acquisition of skill which serves to draw out the mentees' inner potential and shows mentees the capacity they have to learn and develop in their own wisdom. Once the mentees have a belief in what they can achieve, coaching becomes a role through which educators are guided to become self confident and self directed in their ability to realise their goals.

2.4.2.3 Protection

Protection occurs when the mentor shields the mentee from untimely or potentially damaging contact with senior members of the organisation (Kram, 1988:29). This occurs when the mentor believes that visibility is not in the best interest of the mentee. The mentor can shield the mentee from being included in time consuming or demanding committees in the organisation so that the mentee's time is better spent on activities that will enhance their professional goals.

Protection may also involve taking credit or blame in situations where the mentor feels the mentee is not ready to handle this. Fowler and O'Gorman (2005:55), in a study investigating the functions of mentoring, noticed an absence of the protection function. They attribute this absence to today's contemporary organisational context where protection is no longer beneficial for mentees. In today's organisations, being protected as described by Kram (1988) could be negatively related to salary, promotion and generally perceived career success (Fowler and O'Gorman, 2005:55). However, protection of mentees in today's educational institutions may still be relevant. This is especially so where the mentor is more senior in the echelons of the organisation than the mentee. The mentor may influence decisions in situations where the mentor assessed that the mentee was not ready for certain academic assignments, guiding mentees to take up assignments that they could execute successfully. The mentor can also be protective towards the mentee by guiding them on activities that would enhance their chosen personal and professional objectives.

2.4.2.4 Providing challenging work assignments

Setting challenging assignments relates to the immediate work of the department and imitates boss-subordinate relationships (Kram, 1988:31). These assignments enable the mentee to develop specific competencies and skills and experience a sense of accomplishment in a professional role. This function may be limited in its direct impact on career advancement but it is essential in enabling mentees to perform well on difficult tasks so that they can advance in the organisation. The mentor places the mentee in challenging situations to develop the mentee's mind and instincts, shares and provides experiences that challenge the mentee's knowledge and skills. The mentee learns essential technical and managerial skills through work that encourages learning. It is critical however that the mentor provides ongoing feedback and support otherwise the mentee might feel overwhelmed by the complexity of the tasks (Kram, 1988:13). Through this function, the mentor provides learning opportunities that direct the mentee towards achieving their desired developmental goals.

2.4.2.5 Exposure to opportunities

Exposure to opportunity involves the mentor assigning responsibilities that allow the mentee to develop relationships with other key figures in the organisation who may judge his or her potential for future advancement. This allows the mentee to learn more about parts of the organisation that are of interest. This function not only 'makes an individual *visible* to others who may influence his organisational fate, but it also *exposes* the individual to future opportunities' (Kram, 1988:27). This function calls for the mentor to assess the readiness of the mentee to be exposed to others. This function can be beneficial to the mentoring process when the exposure results in tasks that are highly visible and effectively completed by the mentee. A mentor is more fully involved in the educational institution, or some part of the institution, than the mentee in terms of experience, maturity, competence and knowledge. As a consequence the mentor is able, both at personal and professional levels, to assist the mentee to participate more fully in the legitimate activities of the institution.

2.4.2.6 Giving information

In the mentoring relationship the mentor and the mentee share information. For the mentor to facilitate the role of giving information, it is important that clarification is sought concerning the mentee's plans and progress in achieving personal, educational and career goals (Cohen, 1995:60). Information needs to be channelled towards the mentee's developmental objectives. Once the mentor is clear about the intentions and aspirations of the mentees, they will be in a position to offer advice based on accurate and sufficient knowledge. Often the mentor may have information that the mentees are not privy to, which may assist the mentees in making decisions that would influence their personal or professional development positively. The onus, however, lies with the mentor to use this role to the benefit of the mentees. Giving the mentees more information than they require may not be to their benefit.

2.4.2.7 Giving political information

Through this function, the mentor makes the mentee aware of political factors in the workplace, the group dynamics of a work group or division, and unwritten rules and barriers that may exist (Geber, 2003a:6). The experience that a mentor holds will give them sound and seasoned knowledge of the company and its political structure (Clutterbuck, 2004:38). Sharing such information with the mentees provides a view and understanding of the activities in the organisation that the mentees would otherwise not be privy to. Having a mentor who may have more information about unwritten rules that form part of the culture of the institution can provide the mentee with confidence.

2.4.2.8 Teaching/exploring the facilitative dimension

Teaching and exploring the facilitation dimension is a combination of two roles that the mentor may hold. The first involves the practice of teaching in the classroom. The second is the exploration of the mentee's interest in terms of the teaching vocation. Exploring the facilitative dimension guides the mentees through a reasonably in depth review and exploration of their interests, abilities and ideas. Cohen (1995:74) asserts that the purpose of having a facilitative focus within the mentoring relationship is 'to assist mentees in considering alternative views and options while reaching their own decisions about attainable personal, academic and career objectives'. In this role, the mentor probes the

mentee's assumptions to make clear the commitment to goals, presents to the mentee different viewpoints that generate in depth analysis of options, and reviews the vocational preferences that the mentee has (Cohen, 1995:69). This is an important role from the perspective of the work of educators. It is through this role the mentor works with mentees to enhance their views on teaching and provide support and direction on the choices the mentees make in terms of teaching styles.

2.4.3 Psychosocial functions

Psychosocial functions affect the mentor and the mentee on a more personal level. These functions enhance the sense of competence, identity, and self worth for both the mentor and the mentee (Kram, 1988:32). The intensity of the functions depends on the quality of the interpersonal relationship. The benefits that accrue through psychosocial functions go beyond the professional life and influence the personal life as well. To serve the psychosocial functions, the mentor promotes personal growth through providing emotional support and guidance. Psychosocial functions play an important role in the achievement of personal developmental objectives. They include acceptance and confirmation, counselling, and friendship. I expand below on the psychosocial mentoring roles presented in Table 2.1.

2.4.3.1 Counselling

When counselling, the mentor discusses the mentee's internal conflicts that pose challenges to learning and development (Kram, 1988:36). This is a context where the mentee can discuss any anxieties or fears that are detrimental to being productive at work. The mentor acts as a sounding board and offers advice from personal experience while resolving problems through feedback and active listening (Clutterbuck, 2004:17). This function enables the mentee to cope with personal concerns more effectively and makes the mentor feel helpful and productive. Mentors generally make themselves available to support mentees in taking responsibility for their personal and professional development. The mentor's role becomes invaluable to a mentoring relationship especially during times when mentees find themselves in stressful personal or work situations. The mentor is there to help the mentee cope and offers support during such situations.

2.4.3.2 Showing acceptance and confirmation

Acceptance and confirmation provide support and encouragement to mentees as they develop competence in the world of work (Kram, 1988:35). Through this function the mentor conveys to the mentee positive regard that provides the mentee the confidence to forge ahead with their developmental objectives. It enables the mentee to experiment with new behaviour by taking risks in the knowledge that mistakes while learning will not result in rejection.

The confidence that the mentee has to take risks emanates from the trust that develops in the relationship. Acceptance and confirmation are also strengthened by the presence of mutual liking and respect, and a culture where positive feedback on performance is appreciated. This function can contribute to the development of the mentees' critical reflective skills. This is due to the fact that the mentees have the confidence to explore different ways of accomplishing tasks, with the knowledge that they have a safety net in the form of the mentor.

2.4.3.3 Developing trust

The mentor develops trust in the mentoring relationship by encouraging and creating an open and candid atmosphere (Clutterbuck, 2004:41; Daloz, 1999:209). Garvey and Alred (2000b:124) assert that trust is the most important component of the mentoring relationship. When the relationship is based on trust, the mentor can draw out the mentees and help them to discover their inner selves. An honest assessment of where their interests, skills and aspirations lie will assist the mentees to identify the gaps that the mentor can help bridge. It is essential for the mentor to culture an environment of trust because such an environment enhances growth within the relationship. With trust as the foundation of the relationship, mentors provide mentees with a safe place to try out ideas, skills and roles with minimal risk (Kaye and Jacobson, 1996:45). The mentees are able to open up to the mentor on issues that are close to their heart without the fear of ridicule, and with the belief that they will be listened to and their issues will receive the required attention.

2.4.3.4 Encouragement

The ability to encourage and motivate the mentee is an important interpersonal skill that the mentor should have (Clutterbuck, 2004:38). Encouragement from the mentor gives the mentees confidence that they can achieve their planned objectives. The mentor needs to use this role, more specifically at the beginning stages of the relationship, to support the mentee at the time when their dependency on the relationship is still high. It is also through encouragement that the mentor eventually assists the mentee to achieve independence. Through encouragement, the mentee seeks to consolidate in the mentee a sense of confidence and interest in learning. The mentor fosters self esteem by encouraging honest self assessment by the mentees, and by showing concern for all aspects of the mentees' experiences.

2.4.3.5 Guidance

Providing guidance is a major role the mentor is required to perform within the mentoring relationship. As guides, mentors provide support to their mentees because they have the experience and have a good idea of what the mentees need to do to attain their set goals (Daloz, 1999:213). There are many opportunities for the mentor to give the mentee direct answers to questions. Clutterbuck (2004:18) suggests that the mentor should take advantage of such instances to provide the guidance the mentee is looking for. The challenge however, is for the mentor to be aware of when to provide direct answers, and when to encourage an element of discovery in the mentee. Although mentors may be tempted to answer the questions the mentees pose or give advice on the path the mentees should take, assisting someone to learn and develop also means that they have to find opportunity to work out their own issues and arrive at their own answers.

2.4.3.6 Engaging in constructive confrontation

Challenging the mentee is an essential component of mentoring (Daloz, 1999:212). In this role, the mentor can highlight inconsistencies on the part of the mentee in terms of meeting deadlines, or submitting assignments as per agreement. A mentor needs to have the ability to confront the mentee in areas where improvement would enhance learning. In this role the mentor tries to help the mentee be aware of unproductive strategies and behaviour and encourage the mentee to reflect on corrective actions (Cohen, 1995:75).

The mentor utilises this role by challenging the mentees' explanations for or avoidance of decisions and actions relevant to their development as learners. This helps the mentees attain insight into unproductive behaviour and they are able to evaluate their need and capacity to change. Although engaging in constructive confrontation is beneficial to the mentoring relationship, as the mentees are guided towards behaviour that enhances goal achievement, the mentor needs to be aware of the potential risk of a confrontational intervention. A confrontation may result in a negative reaction from the mentee that may be detrimental to the relationship. To avoid harming the relationship, the mentor needs to be careful and skilful in engaging in construction confrontation.

2.4.3.7 Providing friendship

The friendship function includes the social interaction that results in mutual liking and understanding (Kram, 1988:38). This role allows the mentee to feel like a peer with the mentor so that the relationship is not as distant as with a relationship of authority. The mentor interacts informally with the mentee and discusses issues that are not work related. The possibility of participating in activities that are not work related contributes to the positive development of the mentoring relationship.

Friendship is a role that can assist the mentor to build deep and long lasting trust, which in turn can enhance effective communication. It encourages an open and frank relationship where the educators can interact at the same level as colleagues. Commonly held values and feelings of mutual respect create a bond between mentor and mentee. This kind of environment allows for deep conversations that can enhance individual learning. Friendship can also result in effective reciprocal learning as the mentor and the mentee are able to discuss issues of mutual interest in an environment where there is a healthy two way exchange of knowledge.

2.4.4 The presentation of mentoring functions within the mentoring relationship

The role modelling, career and psychosocial functions as reviewed in the section above will present themselves in different ways within the mentoring relationship (Kram, 1988:43). The way that these functions present themselves can provide indications about

the learning and development process taking place between the mentor and the mentee. The career, psychosocial and role modelling categories are not necessarily separate in a relationship. They may appear singly as a function, but they may also present themselves in combination. The mentor has to assume a number of varied roles to facilitate the learning and development of the mentee (Cohen, 1995, 3; Daloz, 1999:22; Galbraith, 2003:12).

The mentor's role is that of a trusted adviser and supportive guide, encouraging the mentee in effective strategies for accomplishing personal and professional goals. A mentor may also act as a teacher, helping the mentee learn organisational and professional skills and providing insight into decoding corporate culture. At times, the mentor may also perform the role of supporter, providing insights from experience to help the mentee manage difficult situations. An effective mentor keeps in touch with the mentee, suggests appropriate resources and encourages the mentee to establish or seek out professional or supportive networks. A mentor can be a vital source of support for educators, helping them to find solutions, avoid pitfalls and learn to manage stress (Chandler and Kram, 2005:551). All these roles come into play at different times in the ongoing relationship so that often neither the mentor nor the mentee can pre-empt which role will exhibit itself.

It is important to note that the roles described above are not synonymous with mentoring. Cohen (1995:5) clarifies that a mentor may adopt many or only a few of these roles. Conversely, simply adopting a few of the roles does not necessarily make one a mentor. For example, while a coach may seem similar to a mentor, it is only a limited role because mentoring goes beyond the training involved in coaching and extends to sharing experience and wisdom (Clutterbuck, 2004:23). Indeed, the overlap between mentoring and many other similar relationships is extensive and the boundaries often unclear. Mentoring is a more personal and nurturing relationship which has a magic that may not be captured by single roles. This makes every mentoring relationship unique.

Kram (1988:43) suggests that each mentoring relationship will be different when one considers which functions are dominant in the relationship. Researchers observe that where elements of all the three categories combine, the power and benefit of mentoring is increased (Baker, 2002:36; Chao, 1997:17). This seems to suggest that the more elements present in a relationship the more dynamic and interactive the mentoring

relationship becomes. Chao (1998:334) emphasises this notion by insisting that to claim to practise mentoring, one would have to include career and psychosocial functions, as well as role modelling. Therefore, the dynamics of the relationship between the mentor and the mentee, and the context in which the relationship takes place may be influencing factors of how mentoring functions affect the mentor and the mentee. These dynamics may also affect the developmental process taking place within the mentoring relationship. Whatever dynamics are inherent in the relationship, it needs to mature to the extent that there is a synthesis of the mentoring functions being fused together to enhance the learning and development of the mentee.

2.5 Stages of the mentoring process

Other than Kram's (1988:49) study on informal mentoring, few studies have examined how mentoring relationships develop over time (Allen et al., 2008:350; Ramaswani and Dreher, 2007: 225). Despite the lack of empirical studies on this issue, a general agreement is found in literature that the mentoring relationship tends to pass through stages that are distinguishable from one another (Clutterbuck, 2004:19; Chao, 1998:335; Healy and Welchert, 1990:18; Kram, 1988:49; Megginson et al., 2006:19). There is little in literature about how mentoring relationships progress through each stage. It is however important to investigate this issue because the way that each of these stages is managed may influence the quality of the mentoring relationship.

Kram (1988:49), in her ground breaking research conducted on informal mentoring, has detailed four stages through which the mentoring relationship will advance. These are initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. The mentorship forms during the initiation stage, and this is the time when roles are clarified for both the mentor and the mentee. During the cultivation stage, the mentor and the mentee learn more about each other's capabilities and begin to maximise on the functions of mentoring. Optimal learning occurs and developmental needs are met. But this intensity slowly wanes off as the mentee gains confidence and new knowledge, and eventually leads to the next stage of the relationship, which is separation. At the separation stage, the functions provided by the mentor decrease and the mentee becomes more independent. At this time, either the two participants redefine their relationship, or they separate negatively. At the redefinition stage a lasting friendship is often formed and the relationship evolves to one of informal

contact and mutual support. At this stage, mentorship becomes a more peer like friendship, but the mentor may still continue to offer support. Kram's (1988:49) model supports the sponsorship model of mentoring where the emphasis of growth is on the mentee. Although the significance and impact of Kram's model must be acknowledged, for the purposes of this study, I lean towards Megginson et al.'s (2006:20) five-stage model which seems to support the developmental model of mentoring, where the emphasis of growth is not only on the mentees, but on the mentor as well.

Megginson et al. (2006:20) present a five stage model that supports developmental mentoring. Modelled around formal mentoring programmes, Megginson et al.'s (2006:20) model typically takes about six to twelve months.

The first stage is rapport building. During this stage the mentor and the mentee explore whether they can work together and establish their working relationship. They communicate their needs, expectations and concerns and begin to develop a rapport. The pair gain valuable experience through interaction with each other and begin to build trust in the relationship. At this stage, there may be apprehension and unwillingness to commit to the developmental project (Clutterbuck, 2005:3). This phase is characterised by a certain amount of testing out and challenging (Megginson et al., 2006:19). Typically, this stage overlaps with the next stage of the mentoring process, which is direction setting.

At the direction setting stage, the mentor and the mentee clarify what the relationship is expected to achieve for both parties. During this goal setting stage, the rapport building continues as the mentoring pair continues to discuss and explore ways of achieving the desired goals. The mentee requires a certain amount of acceptance and confirmation, and the mentor begins to provide the necessary support, counselling and guidance to facilitate an enabling environment for learning to take place.

The third stage is progression. This is the core period of the relationship where the mentor and the mentee work together and experience mutual learning. During this stage the mentee becomes progressively independent in leading and directing the mentoring process (Megginson et al., 2006:20). The mentor and the mentee establish a means for reviewing progress, and for adapting the process as a result of the review. The mentee derives a sense of accomplishment as developmental goals are achieved, and the mentor

becomes satisfied by seeing the mentee realise their potential. This is a period when the mentor also realises growth and satisfaction from the mentoring process.

The fourth stage is the winding up stage. This stage occurs when the mentee has achieved most of the goals or is sufficiently confident to continue the journey on their own. It typically overlaps with the progression stage of the mentoring process. Winding up is necessary for the mentee to positively disengage from the relationship and achieve full independence. Megginson et al. (2006:21) suggest that it is important to plan for a good separation rather than attempt to hang on to the relationship. This will ensure that the winding up is amicable and the mentoring relationship ends on a positive note. This moves on to the fifth and last stage which is moving on. During this stage the mentor and the mentee reformulate their relationship into possibly a lasting friendship.

Megginson et al.'s (2006) five-stage model support the inference that a mentoring relationship is mutually reciprocal, with both the mentor and the mentee going into the relationship with goals to achieve. The stages of a mentoring relationship indicate that the mentoring relationship is one where both the participants have to put in the required effort for the relationship to be mutually beneficial. Megginson et al. (2006:21) observe that moving from one stage of the mentoring relationship to another is not necessarily clearly defined and the stages often overlap.

Although the exact stages of mentoring relationships remain poorly documented, it appears clear that mentoring functions change as such relationships unfold through different stages (Hezlett and Gibson, 2005:450; Chao, 1997:16). The stages in a mentoring relationship have implications for the development of the relationship, as different learning interventions may be used by the mentor to encourage effective mentorship (Clutterbuck, 2005:3; Kram, 1988:66; Megginson et al., 2006:21). The mentor requires to modify their behaviour and apply competencies that suit the stage the mentoring relationship is at. It is therefore important for the mentor to recognise and adapt appropriately to each stage of the mentoring relationship. However, as the mentor take the mentoring stages into consideration, the different dynamics of each mentoring relationship must also be considered. On the one hand, it is important as an individual to be aware that mentoring relationships will be at different stages depending on the learning and development taking place. On the other hand, it is important to note that a mentoring

relationship may not adhere to these guidelines. Within the dynamics of the mentoring process, the mentoring functions probably dominant in the relationship will come into play. These stages in the mentoring process also indicate that the mentor and the mentee will experience the mentoring process as a reciprocal venture, as both parties experience increasing mutuality and trust as the relationship builds.

Directing the mentoring relationship is an important task for the mentor. The mentor has to have the ability to make use of the varied roles to enhance optimum learning and development within the relationship. Therefore, before engaging in a mentoring relationship, it is important to ask yourself whether you are suited to the mentoring role. Educators who desire to act as mentors need to consider their skill and the level of commitment they can provide mentees. Such a self assessment can assist mentors to assess their role in the relationship and target areas of improvement.

2.6 Mentor development

It is often the case that mentors are assessed by the professional knowledge and skills they have gathered through experience. However, being an experienced educator does not necessarily make one a good mentor (Barnett, 1995:49; Galbraith, 2003:9). Garvey and Alred (2000b:124) contend that the skills of mentoring are similar to good management skills. Barnett (1995:55) argues that mentors do not automatically have the requisite capacities to effectively support and guide mentees in developing the knowledge and skills they desire. He contends that mentors must make attempts at developing the relevant capacities to effectively develop others. This view is supported by Cox (2003:20) who emphasises that mentors must ensure that they develop the skills they need to provide mentees maximum support in attaining their learning and development goals. Geber (2003b:123) reiterates that mentors need to continue building capacities to deal with the complex issues they may encounter in mentoring relationships. It stands to reason that those who desire to promote the learning and development of others must focus on developing their own capacities.

One way of providing requisite skills to mentors is through formal mentor training (Chandler and Kram, 2005:561, Cummings and Worley, 2005:408; Garvey and Alred, 2000b:113). However, this kind of training may not be the most adequate for the

challenging roles that mentors encounter. Cox (2003:14) concurs that mentor training is not adequate to prepare mentors to gain comprehensive mentoring skills. Training may offer a guide which mentors may use, but cannot adequately prepare a mentor for each mentoring encounter. This is because, as has already been suggested, each mentoring relationship is different, with its own dynamics. For a chance at conducting a successful mentoring relationship, mentors have to fall back on their repertoire of life experiences, and both tacit and explicit knowledge to meet the challenges that each mentoring encounter brings.

Due to the uniqueness of every mentoring encounter, mentors will modify their existing knowledge throughout their practice (Cox, 2003:15). This in effect implies that mentors learn continuously, adding to their repertoire of knowledge and experience with each mentee with whom they interact. It also implies that each mentoring experience is unique and assisted by the contextual factors present within the mentoring relationship. These mentoring relationships offer the most appropriate training grounds for mentors to improve their mentoring skills. Being a mentor is in itself a provocation to learn and a reminder to oneself of the strategies and qualities of being a learner. Mentors are part of and in the learning environment, acting as participants within the relationship. Each experience that the mentor encounters can go towards improving the skills that the mentor possesses.

Senge (1999:131) states that the true reward of mentoring is intrinsic and by assisting in the development of another you are developing yourself and your own capacities. Megginson et al. (2006:18) agree that mentors should aim to improve their skills whilst experiencing the mentoring process. Self knowledge is also an important aspect of the knowledge a mentor should have (Clutterbuck, 2004:48; Smith and Alred, 1994:111). In order to assist others to achieve growth and development, mentors need high self awareness to recognise and manage their own behaviour. Such self knowledge contributes greatly to the way mentors communicate with their mentees. In addition, having multiple mentees can enhance the learning of the mentor as the reactions and complexities that arise from each mentoring relationship will be different. How the mentor deals with each situation will promote reflection and become learning episodes for the mentor. It becomes even more developmentally beneficial if mentees are from different departments in the educational institutions. Mentors can develop themselves by acquiring insight into how the institution runs from the perspective of these departments.

Embarking on a journey to improve mentoring practice requires that the mentor understands what good mentoring entails. It is through clarifying what is entailed in effective mentoring skills that the mentor can begin to identify the perceived gap between the type of mentor they are and the type they aspire to be. Mentoring is far more than giving advice (Galbraith, 2003:9). Becoming a good mentor is a process that involves the enhancement of independent and critical reflective thinking (Ramaswani and Dreher, 2007:224). It is a time consuming and labour intensive undertaking for both the mentor and the mentee (Jonson, 2008:12).

From the perspective of the mentee, the mentor is viewed as someone whose experiences are deemed highly valuable in understanding the relationship between teaching and learning, and helping others see it as well. The mentor is looked upon to provide general knowledge about teaching and knowledge about the logistics of teaching. This is the basic requirement that the mentee would expect of the mentor. However, to discharge the transfer of knowledge and skills from the mentor to the mentee, the importance and significance of interpersonal skills cannot be overemphasised (Galbraith, 2003:12; Kram, 1988:155).

Researchers have identified mentor behaviours that contribute effectively to positive and evolving mentoring relationships. Predominantly in literature, listening skills, questioning techniques and the ability to provide constructive feedback are highlighted as essential interpersonal attributes that form the basis of mentor skills (Cohen, 1995:28; Fibkins, 2002:48; Galbraith, 2003:12; Harrison et al., 2005:437; Scwiebert, 2000:103; Ramaswani and Dreher, 2007:225). These behaviours will increase the probability of establishing and maintaining a successful mentoring relationship. These are also behaviours that have the most potential for generating mentee learning.

2.6.1 Listening skills

The ability to be a good listener has been cited as one of the most desirable characteristic a mentee would like in a mentor (Jonson, 2008:23). Good listening skills are a significant way of communicating the accurate perception that the mentor is genuinely concerned

about the mentee (Cohen, 1995:29; Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:287). They assist the mentor to build a climate of trust which allows mentees to share honestly and reflect upon personal experiences in their practice. The mentee will respond to cues from the mentor and be influenced by it. Active listening involves concentrating on what the mentee is saying, displaying nonverbal cues such as nodding, smiling and eye contact, and verbal cues such as paraphrasing, asking clarifying questions and acknowledging that one is listening (Jonson, 2008:23; Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:287). Listening goes beyond hearing. It is about attempting to feel like the mentee, to empathise with their situation, and to understand what they are attempting to communicate. Listening is a vital ingredient in a relationship where learning is to take place.

2.6.2 Questioning techniques

An important role of the mentor is to engage the mentee in dialogue that draws out the maximum available information (Cohen, 1995:35) pertaining to mentee's developmental concerns. This is best done through carefully phrased questions during mentoring conversations. Questioning enables both the mentor and the mentee to clarify issues and to ascertain mutual understanding (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:287). Skilful mentors facilitate the conversation in such a way that it opens up potential for facts to emerge and meaningful dialogue to occur. Techniques that will encourage mentees to reveal relevant information essential for individual learning include asking questions in nonthreatening ways, showing interest and concern, and giving the mentees ample time to explain situations.

2.6.3 Providing feedback

Feedback is essential for effective learning (Taylor and Furnham, 2005:77). Change in behaviour comes about when one knows what they are doing right and what needs to be improved. The purpose of feedback is to gain cooperation and to stimulate sincere interest by the mentee in pursuing opportunities for learning and development. Providing feedback to the mentee should be based on observation rather than inferences of motives (Cohen, 1995:36). Generally, it encourages a more conducive environment for dialogue if the

mentor uses the minimum of critical feedback (Cohen, 1995:86). However, the mentor must be direct and factual where the situation warrants it. Such constructive feedback, when delivered in a supportive and nonjudgmental atmosphere should be maturely considered by the mentee.

The mentoring relationship is enhanced when the mentor is able to communicate a concerned attempt to comprehend the ideas, feelings, and experiences as presented from the mentee's point of view (Cohen, 1995:46). The role of the mentor is to create an environment where mentees are free to examine their situations analytically, rather than defend decisions about issues. The mentor should not appear to be judgemental about the mentee's ideas, beliefs or actions. The role of the mentor in this case is that of an objective sounding board (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:272) rather than a judge. The perception of mentees that they are being heard, rather than being judged, puts them in a frame of mind to share relevant reflective information about their concerns. Sharing the information in this way enhances individual learning. This individual learning is what may result in benefits for the mentee and the mentor that can be said to come from mentoring practice.

2.7 Impact of mentoring

As an organisational development intervention, mentoring is an interpersonal practice that takes place in the organisation. This social nature of mentoring makes it a process that impacts on individual, group and organisational levels. Research has indicated that mentoring is beneficial to the mentor, the mentee and the organisation as well (Carruthers, 1993:18; Egan and Song, 2008:358; Geber, 2003a:6; Hezlett, 2005:512). The following section will explore the impact of mentoring from these three perspectives.

2.7.1 The impact of mentoring on the mentee

Mentoring has the potential to have a huge impact on the mentee, more so than either the mentor or the organisation. The mentee has a lot to gain in a mentoring relationship, and goes into the relationship with high expectations. Mentees expect the process to be a learning experience that impacts positively on their practice. A positive mentoring experience can have a significant effect on a mentee's personal and professional life.

Mentors support mentees in managing their own learning, providing guidance and advice and being good role models (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:289). These functions all benefit the mentee by providing much needed emotional support and confidence.

The mentee gains access to the mentor's accumulated knowledge and expertise. With critical reflective practice, they are able to gain insight into their own behaviour and practices. This insight enables them to compare their practices with those of the mentor and make that a learning opportunity. With the guidance of the mentor, mentees are able to realise their potential and recognise opportunities for acquiring or enhancing their skills and knowledge. Studies also indicate that mentoring assists mentees in gaining such skills as technical, interpersonal, time management, and self organisational skills (Hezlett, 2005:512). These skills provide the mentee greater independence in terms of increased decision making, planning and problem solving skills.

Some of the personal benefits that can accrue to mentees from mentoring are increase in self esteem, self respect, and self confidence (Geber, 2003a:6; Hezlett, 2005:512). These impacts can assist the mentee to develop greater determination and motivation to succeed. The mentee can gain confidence to attempt new ideas, and to share the outcomes of these trials with the mentor. The overall outcome of such benefits on the mentee is an educator who has developed personally and professionally and can be more efficient both in life and at work.

2.7.2 The impact of mentoring on the mentor

Although studies have identified relatively fewer benefits for mentors (Allen, Poteet and Burroughs, 1997:71; Eby et al., 2006:441; Lentz and Allen, 2007:161; Mullen and Noe, 1999:233), mentors can also benefit from the mentoring relationship. This is possible because mentoring can be a mutually beneficial relationship (Baker, 2002:35; Eby, Durley, Evans and Ragins, 2006:426; Johnson, 2007:12; Kram and Isabella, 1985:111).

Mentoring provides an opportunity for the mentor to share their professional knowledge and skill with the mentees. This provides mentors the satisfaction that they have been able to pass their wisdom and acquired expertise to others. Mentors also improve on their

communication skills and develop patience and tolerance through this relationship (Megginson et al., 2006:36). Mentoring enables mentors to enhance communication skills such as listening, questioning and providing feedback (Cohen, 1995:29; Fibkins, 2002:48; Galbraith, 2003:12; Geber, 2003a:6; Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:287). Mentors have a special responsibility for effective communication because they are a primary source of information, support and challenge to mentees. The impact of effective communication can be experienced on individual, group and organisational levels of the institution (Eby et al., 2006:427). Thus, the effectiveness of verbal and nonverbal communication becomes very important in a mentoring relationship. Critical thinking skills are also sharpened through engaging in problem solving and project management activities with mentees. Mentors also get an opportunity to re-examine their own practices, attitudes and values (Megginson et al., 2006:37). They get opportunities to discuss professional issues, and also to extend professional experience and hear alternative views about professional issues.

Mentors achieve a sense of fulfilment, receive an opportunity to influence thinking in the organisation and have the opportunity to clarify their own thinking (Mullen and Noe, 1999:235). Kram (1988:29) notes that mentors are recognised by their peers and superiors for developing talent in the organisation. The mentor gains a sense of self worth and enhanced self esteem. This rejuvenates their interest in their work, and makes them better professionals. Being responsible for directing the learning of another also gives one a sense of purpose and this awards the mentor feelings of satisfaction and contentment in seeing mentees grow. Such professional and personal impacts on the mentor contribute to their individual learning and development. The mentors are able to plough this learning back into their practice, and build their capacities both as professional educators and as mentors. The mentoring process may therefore result in the personal growth and development of the mentor.

2.7.3 The impact of mentoring on the organisation

Today's educational institutions are undergoing rapid changes where employees are under pressure to find new ways to achieve desired results and find new methods that enhance quality and professionalism (Caldwell and Carter, 1993:2; Eby, 1997:125). Literature

indicates that mentoring has the ability to impact the educational institution positively in these turbulent times.

Mentoring can create a better work environment, reduce staff turnover and maintain motivation of seasoned educators (Caldwell and Carter, 1993:2). It can help build morale through recognition of the knowledge and expertise of mentors and the potential of mentees (Eby, 1997:125). It can create a prevailing sense of humaneness since the mentoring relationship involves great intimacy, a sharing of value systems and feelings (Carruthers, 1993:18). Mentoring can also result in increased productivity by the mentor and the mentee, improved management and organisational skills, discovery of latent talent, refinement of leadership qualities, and improved performance (Carruthers, 1993:17).

Allen et al. (1997:71) assert that those who have participated in mentoring activities are usually more willing to mentor others. This provides a significant positive impact for the organisation. Having a network of educators who are willing to become mentors and contribute to the learning and development of less experienced educators would promote the developmental environment of the institution.

Singh et al. (2002:389) reiterate that mentoring assists in the transfer of knowledge, organisational learning, and cross-departmental communication. Mentoring relationships between educators from different departments or disciplines provide insight into each other's functioning and assumptions (Hale, 2000:228). This information may then be passed on to others in the mentor's or mentee's immediate working environment. Through this path, knowledge can permeate through the organisation progressively.

The impact of mentoring on the organisation stems from the fact that the individuals that participate in the mentoring are part of the organisational structure (Kram, 1988:2). Organisational learning is triggered by individual learning (Leroy and Ramanantsoa, 1997:872), and if this is fostered, it would contribute to improved performance and add to the overall competence of the entire organisation (Hezlett, 2005:522). This perspective presents an important notion in terms of organisational development and posits mentoring directly within the field of Organisational Behaviour.

2.8 Conclusion

The chapter reviews the historical background of the mentoring process. The issues surrounding the lack of a universal definition of mentoring are explored, concluding with the presentation of a working definition to guide my study. The review of literature identifies both developmental and sponsorship oriented models of mentoring that can be utilised to guide the learning and development of educators. The adoption of Geber's (2003a:5) model culminates in a mixed developmental/sponsorship approach to the exploration of mentoring practice. Role modelling, career and psychosocial functions are reviewed with the aim of understanding their role in providing guidance and support through the mentor. The way mentoring relationships progress is reviewed through a discussion of the stages of the mentoring process. How mentors can improve their capacities is also reviewed. The interpersonal skills of listening, questioning and providing feedback are identified as crucial for this purpose. The impact of mentoring on the mentee, the mentor and the organisation is explored. From this perspective, the link between mentoring practice, organisational learning and the field of Organisational Behaviour is clarified.

An exploration of how learning and development can take place in a mentoring relationship will shed more light on how mentors and mentees enhance their learning and development through mentoring practice, and how they can use their learning and development effectively for their benefit and the benefit of the organisation. Learning within the context of a mentoring relationship is therefore reviewed in the next chapter.